

**BULDHANA DISTRICT
GAZETTEER**

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS



Government of Maharashtra

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BULDHANA DISTRICT (REVISED EDITION)



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MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS
BULDHANA DISTRICT

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PREFACE

THE BULDHANA DISTRICT GAZETTEER was first published in 1910. It was edited by Mr. A. E. Nelson, I. C. S. This revised edition of the Buldhana 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:—

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My thanks are due to Shri K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Joint Editor and to Dr. V. N. Gurav, M.A., Ph.D., Statistical Officer, for their valuable assistance throughout the work. My thanks are also due to Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A., LL.B., Compiler (Administration). I am also thankful to Shri M. H. Ranade, B.A., Superintendent; Shri P. N. Narkhede, M. Com.; Smt. N. S. Alawani, 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 other members of the 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 Gazetteers. The Unit scrutinised 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. 30,000 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. The typed manuscript was sent for printing on 5th November 1971 after approval of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Government of India.

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

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

BOMBAY :
August 1976.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

BULDHANA DISTRICT, with the rest of Berar was assigned to the East India Company by the Nizam of Hyderabad following the Treaty of Assignment of 1853. After the Province was assigned to the Company it was divided into two districts, South Berar with headquarters at Hingoli and North Berar with headquarters at Buldhana. The three tahsils of Mehkar, Chikhli and Malkapur formed part of what was known as the West Berar District. However, in 1864, these tahsils became an independent charge known as the South-West Berar District, a clumsy name for a district which was renamed in the following year as Mehkar district. In 1867, Buldhana was selected as the headquarters of the district, and the district was named after the headquarters town of Buldhana. Subsequent to the amalgamation of Berar with the Central Provinces the tahsils of Khamgaon and Jalgaon which were formerly in Akola district were merged in Buldhana district in 1905.

In 1903 the Treaty of Assignment was superseded by an agreement under which the Nizam ceded Berar in perpetuity to the Government of India. Berar was then joined to the Central Provinces in the same year to form the enlarged province of Central Provinces and Berar.

The Gazetteer for the Assigned Districts of Hyderabad, which were known as Berar, was compiled in 1870 and it was edited by Sir A. C. Lyall, Commissioner of West Berar.

This volume contained a few pages on the various tahsils which now form Buldhana district.

Subsequently the Government of Central Provinces and Berar compiled the Gazetteers for various districts in the beginning of this century. In this series, Mr. A. E. Nelson, I.C.S., compiled the first Buldhana District Gazetteer in 1910. In his prefatory note to the Volume Mr. Nelson wrote:

"The Old Berar Gazetteer (1870) by Sir A. C. Lyall is a work of permanent value, and quotations from it have been freely inserted in this volume. Large extracts have also been taken from Mr. E. J. Kitts' Census Report of 1881, which is still the main authority for castes and religions of Berar."

In the Bombay Presidency on the other hand as early as in 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. However, 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 the Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organisational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication 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.

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

“My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days reading, the account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration. But a succinct and well-conceived district account is capable of 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 sum which we have taken from it in taxes, of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of Civil Government”.

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

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 Volume 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. The other volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency.

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 the Editorial Board.

In the nature of things after a lapse of 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 re-writing 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 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 an 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 II to this volume. It has also been decided to issue Statistical Supplementaries to the parent volume from time to time. The Supplementaries 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.

The typical names of places and words in Indian languages which occur in Chapters 2, 3 and 19 have been given in Appendix I with their current spelling and diacritical spelling in order to help pronunciation. A key to diacritical marks used is also given in the Appendix.

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 follows the same pattern, and the table of contents is more or less the same for all the districts.

BOMBAY :
August 1976.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

BULDHANA

CHAPTER 1 — GENERAL

GEOGRAPHY¹

Situation.—BULDHANA, THE WESTERNMOST DISTRICT OF THE VIDARBHA OR THE NAGPUR DIVISION OF THE STATE OF MAHARASHTRA, lies between 19°51' and 21°17' N. latitude and 75°57' and 76°59' E. longitude.

It is bounded on the north by the East Nimar district of Madhya Pradesh, on the east by the Akola and Amravati districts, on the south by the Parbhani district and on the west by the Jalgaon and Aurangabad districts. The district has a total area of 9745 square kilometres (3761 square miles) and a population of 12,62,978 according to the 1971 census, distributed among 9 towns and 1,232 inhabited villages. The district area forms 3.17 per cent of the total area of the State but has proportionately a lesser share of the population, only 2.51 per cent.

The name of the district is derived from the district headquarters. Buldhana is probably a corrupt form of *Bhil Thana*,² the place of Bhils.

Administrative Changes.—The district of Buldhana has been evolved by grouping together parts of West Berar, East Berar, and Basim district. The tahsils of Malkapur, Chikhli (formerly known as Deulghat) and Mehkar were separated from the West Berar district in 1864 and were grouped to constitute a district, clumsily named as the South-West Berar District but later renamed as the Mehkar district with its headquarters at Mehkar. Three years later, in 1867, the administrative headquarters was shifted to Buldhana and the district was once again renamed as the Buldhana district. A new tahsil, viz., Khamgaon, was created in 1870 by separating some villages from the Balapur tahsil of the Akola district. In August, 1905, subsequent to the amalgamation of Berar with Central Provinces and reconstitution of the district boundaries, the tahsils of Khamgaon and Jalgaon from the Akola district were added to the Buldhana district and since then, the boundaries of the district have remained more or less stable. In 1956, the district was transferred from Madhya

¹The section on Geography is contributed by Prof. B. Arunachalam, M. A., Geography Department, Bombay University, Bombay.

²Central Provinces District Gazetteers; Buldhana District, Vol. A; 1910, p. 402.

TABLE No. 1
ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP OF BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

District/Tahsil (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area in square kilometres (3)	Number of inhabited villages (4)	Number of ruined villages (5)	Number of towns (6)	Population in 1971 (7)	Density per square kilometre (8)	Percentage	
								Area (9)	Population (10)
1. Jalgaon	..	1,227.7	167	65	1	1,39,829	114	12.6	11.10
2. Malkapur	..	1,686.1	255	27	2	2,68,235	159	17.3	21.21
3. Khamgaon	..	1,838.9	213	24	2	2,38,160	130	18.9	18.84
4. Chikhli	..	2,393.1	278	14	3	3,25,860	136	24.5	25.81
5. Mehkar	..	2,608.1	319	35	1	2,90,894	112	26.7	23.04
District Total		9,745	1,332	165	9	12,62,978	130	100.0	100.0

Pradesh to the erstwhile Bombay State as a result of reorganisation of States and since May, 1960 the district forms part of the State of Maharashtra.

For administrative purposes, the district is at present divided into 5 tahsils. The area, number of inhabited villages, number of towns and the tahsilwise density of population are given in Table No. 1.

Boundaries.—The northern boundary of the district, that separates it from the district of Nimar in Madhya Pradesh, lies mainly along the crest and scarp edge of the Satpudas. It mostly lies at a height of about 600 m. The trijunction between Jalgaon, Nimar (M. P.) and Buldhana districts lies to the north-west of the forest village of Wadhwanol in the Raipur reserved forest at the Chandgarh peak (743 m). From here, the boundary runs east-north-east for about 4 km along a minor watershed till another peak, 557 m is reached, and then turns north to run across a valley to once again follow another watershed eastwards. The entire northern boundary, in this fashion, runs along watersheds and crestlines leaping across valleys to reach peaks on the opposite side of the valley. In general the boundary fairly closely follows the watershed between the Purna tributaries draining south and the Tapi tributaries draining north, turning alternatively northwards and eastwards and running straight, as the crow flies, between high peaks till the deserted forest village of Kille Pimpaldol is reached. Thereafter, the boundary runs northwards for about 25 km keeping the Ambabarwa reserved forest to its east. Then the boundary turns east and runs for about 8 km before turning south and south-east, thereby enclosing within, the Ambabarwa forest reserve. The boundary on descending down the scarp, joins the Banganga river, and follows it, separating the district from Amravati.

Following the Banganga, just 3 km above its confluence with the Arnadi, the boundary runs southwards along the river keeping to its west the Buldhana district and to its east the Akola district. About 4 km south of the market village of Danapur, the boundary deviates from the river and runs southwards in general for about 30 km across an undulating interfluvium and joins the Purna. From here, the boundary follows the bed of the Purna down stream (westwards) till its confluence with a left bank tributary, the Mun river, and then follows the Mun south-eastwards initially and then southwards deviating from the river here and there till it reaches the confluence of two source tributaries, the Torna and the Vishwamitri. The boundary then essentially follows the Torna westwards till the foot of the scarp of the Buldhana plateau. Then, the boundary skirts the scarp south-eastwards, initially along its lower edge and later on along its crest. After reaching the crest and following it for some distance, the boundary turns south-west and west and cuts across the Penganga close to the village of Sonali in Mehkar tahsil. It then runs across the Penganga-South Purna (Katepurna) interfluvium till the village of Medhi is reached. At the south-eastern

extremity of this village lies the trijunction between the districts of Buldhana, Akola and Parbhani. After this trijunction, the boundary runs westwards across the same interfluvium till reaching the village of Kesari on the northern bank of the Purna river. Then, the boundary follows for a short distance the river, till reaching the village of Sangphul and then cuts across the river to enter into the Katepurna Dudna interfluvium, and follows the watershed-cum-southern scarp edge of the Buldhana plateau. Beyond the village Nimkhed, 10 km south-west of Sangphul, lies the trijunction between the districts of Buldhana, Parbhani and Aurangabad. From here, the boundary runs west and north-north-west till the township to Deulgaon-Raja in Chikhli tahsil is reached. Thereafter, the boundary runs north-east across the plateau top following minor streams here and there, cuts across the Katepurna once again and follows its tributary, the Madanainadi for some distance. The entire southern and south-western boundary in general follows the Buldhana plateau edge and then descends the northern scarp of the same plateau into the Purna valley. Here, the boundary runs straight north across a gently sloping terrain till reaching the Purna river. It then follows upstream the river till its confluence on its right bank with a small stream—the Wahi nadi near the village Isarkher. Then, the boundary follows the Wahi nadi till it reaches the peak Chandgarh.

Physical features.—Topographically, the district falls under three structural-cum-physical units: a narrow, northern strip in the Jalgaon tahsil in the Satpuda hills, the Payanghat or the Purna plains in the middle comprising the tahsils of Malkapur, Khamgaon and Jalgaon, and the Buldhana plateau comprising the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils to the south. The landscape in the district is rich and varied, with gently sloping fertile riverine plains studded with agriculturally prosperous villages standing in sharp contrast to the flat undulating plateau country with patches of cultivation, broad open river valleys and a monotonous scrub cover. The ghat country, deeply scoured by gullies and ravines on the edge of the plateau and the sheer black walls of the Satpuda scarps to the north add colour to the variety of landforms.

Hills.—The district has no mountain system of considerable magnitude except for the area which lies in the north in the Gawilghat hills or the Satpudas. Parts of the Buldhana plateau have hills rising to about 500 m.

Satpudas: The average elevation of the Satpudas in the northern part of Jalgaon tahsil of the district ranges between 700 and 1,000 metres, with three high peaks: the Chandgarh, 743 metres high in the north-western corner, the Dhormoria peak, 837 metres high near the village of Bhingara in the Raipur reserved forest area and an unnamed peak with an altitude of 928 metres overlooking the deserted village of Kille Pimpaldol.

The part of the Satpudas that lie in the district consists of high level buttes and mesas and the south facing scarp and cliff slopes that descend through sheer vertical drops of about 500 metres in

most places. The scarp edge is almost straight running in an east-north-east, west-south-west direction. Along the scarp face stands exposed series of horizontally bedded basaltic lava sheets of varying thickness and the intervening ash and intra-trappean beds. The long mural escarpment is strongly suggestive of a fault plane of late Tertiary or early Pleistocene. The trap beds have a slight northward dip and in many places consists of excellent solid basalts developing columnar joints. The entire scarp face is scoured by numerous rivers and gullies that drain southwards, though in places the drainage reveals a coarse radial pattern. A number of high level plateaus, the largest of which in the district is the one on which Bhingara village is located, are found at an average elevation of about 750 metres, and these are highly suggestive of a summit plane mostly eroded and denuded by subaerial agencies.

Ajanta range: The Ajanta range carrying on its flat top, the high level mesa of Buldhana plateau covers the southern part of the district. The edge of this plateau, overlooking the Purna plains to its north, is a hilly ghat country at average elevations of 500 to 600 metres. It is an escarpment less well-defined than the Satpuda scarp. It has a curving trend from west to east, to south-east. It is also believed by geologists to be a fault scarp. The bend in the escarpment is probably due to active recession of the fault scarp due to subaerial denudation. The scar edge is at a higher elevation in the west adjoining the township of Buldhana about 600 m and gradually falls in height eastwards to about 500 m along the eastern borders of the district. Like the Satpuda scarp, it is also well dissected by gully erosion and ravine formation.

The southern edge of the Buldhana plateau descending to the floor of the Dudna and the Godavari valleys is much less imposing, partly on account of gentler slopes and partly due to a lesser fall in height to an extent of 100 to 150 m. However, this edge has a number of low hills and knolls rising above the general plateau level.

A ridge of low hills runs at an elevation of 700 to 800 m from north-west to south-east and about a hundred metres above the general plateau level, broadly dividing the plateau into a Northern Penganga valley and a Southern Katepurna valley. This low flat-topped watershed gradually loses elevation eastwards.

Plateaus.—The Buldhana plateau on the crest of the Ajanta range in the southern parts of the district at an average elevation of 600 to 800 metres sloping to the south-east is the only large plateau. Differential subaerial erosion of the horizontally bedded traps particularly in the western parts, namely, the Chikhli tahsil, has divided the area into a number of plateaus at different levels with fairly steep slopes in between.

The Purna plains or the Payanghat is the main low land region of the district average elevation of which ranges between 250 and 270 metres. The slope is extremely gentle, towards the west. On an average, it is about 50 to 60 km broad. Bounded to the

north by the Satpuda scarps and to the south by the Ajanta scarp, the Purna valley is believed to be a graben floor developed as a result of sag faulting during the recent past. The infacing scarps are suggestive of this view. The valley floor is alluvium infilled. The thickness of the old alluvium above the rock basin in many places exceeds 400 metres. The plain gradually narrows down to the west, as the Ajanta range approaches closer to the Satpuda scarp.

Rivers.—The two main rivers of the district are the Penganga and the Purna. The other but less important rivers are the Katepurna, the Nalganga, the Vishwaganga, the Gyanganga and the Banganga.

Penganga: The Penganga, the principal river of the district, rises close to the northern scarp edge of the Buldhana plateau in the Deulghat hills. The river has a generally south-easterly flow through the district before entering into the Akola district. Most of Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils fall within the drainage of the Penganga. The river has only a seasonal flow, being dry during the hot weather. The valley of the river is open, broad and shallow, presenting a mellowed mature or even senile appearance.

Katepurna: The Katepurna, or the lower Purna or the South Purna as it is differently called, also rises in the Ajanta ranges but outside the district limits in Aurangabad. It enters the district near the village of Chinchkhed in Chikhli tahsil and has a generally south-easterly flow in the southern parts of Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils. It has a run of about 50 km in the southern parts of the district before it leaves the district to enter into Parbhani. It is also a non-perennial stream but has a flow for a longer period than the Penganga. Both the Penganga and the Katepurna are important left bank tributaries of the Godavari, but however they do not gain any importance till after their leaving the district limits.

Dhamna: The Dhamna river, a left bank tributary of the Katepurna, rising in the hills of Aurangabad district and flowing south-east drains a small part in the extreme western section of the Chikhli plateau.

Koradi: The Koradi river rises in the Buldhana plateau to the south of the township of Chikhli and maintains a sub-parallel course to the Penganga to its south and joins the latter to the north of Mehkar town.

Purna: The Purna, the only perennial stream in the Payanghat plains, rises in the south facing scarps of Gawilgarh hills in the district of Amravati. It flows across the northern part of this district to join the Tapi in Jalgaon district. A large number of streams rising in the scarps both to its north and to its south join the river and drain the whole region with a fairly dense network. The pattern is dendritic but some streams have a sub-parallel drainage to the main river before their confluence in the aggraded valley floor. Most of the tributary streams are just pools of water in the hot weather but devastating floods are quite common during the rains.

Banganga: The Banganga, rising in the Gawilgarh hills of the Amravati district enters the district as it descends from the hills. After forming the boundary for a short distance between Buldhana and Akola, it meanders southwards in a flat plain before joining the Purna on its right bank near the village of Deulgaon.

The Mun river, whose source tributaries the Torna, the Vishwamitri and the Mas drain the north facing scarp slopes of the Buldhana plateau in Khamgaon tahsil, flows north, mostly forming the boundary between the Buldhana and the Akola districts. It joins the Purna on its left bank about seven km downstream of the confluence of the Banganga with the Purna. It is a perennial stream.

Gyanganga: The Gyanganga river rises in the northern scarps of Buldhana plateau in the Matargaon reserved forest area and flows almost straight north to join the Purna on its left bank near the village of Yerli after flowing past the township of Nandura.

Vishwaganga: The Vishwaganga rises in the Buldhana hills close to the town. It flows north in a deeply ravined valley and joins the Purna near Harsod. It is a non-perennial stream.

Nalganga: The Nalganga river rises in the northern slopes of the Deulghat hills in the Amdari reserved forest area and flows north past Malkapur town to join the Purna on its left bank near the village of Narawel.

Lakes.—There is an almost circular depression filled in with brackish water occurring in the lava beds of the south facing scarp slopes of the Buldhana plateau that overlook the valley of the Katepurna. This curious crateriform lake lies close to the southern boundary of the district near the village of Lonar and is hemmed in by an amphitheatre of well wooded cliffs.

Lonar Lake: The country surrounding Lonar lake forms a rolling upland at average elevations of 600 metres, with a few dome shaped residual hills rising to heights of 700 m or more. Geologically speaking, the lake lies in a region which for hundreds of kilometres around consists entirely of bedded flow basalts of Deccan trap, which are three hundred metres or more deep in the neighbourhood.

The lake proper lies in a nearly circular depression surrounded on all sides by a steeply rising escarpment to an even height of about 130 m above the lake level. This scarp rim of the lake forms a continuation of the plateau surface through gentle outward slopes except to the south and the south-west in which directions the plateau slopes down through steeper slopes towards the valley of the Katepurna. In fact, approaching the lake from the surrounding countryside, one does not realise the existence of the lake depression or its scarp rim until one steps right up to the edge of lake. Towards the south and the south-west the hilly rim descends down by about 30 m to a series of low mounds that run as arcuate ridges parallel to the outer contours of the circular hollow that contains the lake. Towards the north-west also, an outer ridge of low hills is recognisable but

less defined than the southern one. Towards the north-east, the scarp slope has been breached to a great extent by a deep gully; easy accessibility to the lakeside is mainly along the course of this gully. The nucleated village settlement of Lonar is located at the head of this gully on the outward slope of the plateau.

The circumference of the lake basin along its outer rim is nearly 6 km and along its inner rim is 3.5 km. The scarp rim of the lake basin is nearly at the same uniform level of 630 m except in the south-west where it rises to higher elevations. From the flat top rim, the land slopes down through steep slopes to the lake floor: the slope on an average ranges about 30° all around, though it is steeper still along the south-western face. The country rock in the lake basin exposed along the steep inward slopes of the lake consists of bedded sheets of basalts mostly fine grained and steel-grey in colour though individual horizons of vesicular basalts with amygdulæ of chert, zeolite and calcite occur in between.

At the foot of the inward facing steep slope adjoining the lake depression, there is a well developed scree slope with a gradient 3° to 5° utilised by the Forest department for teak plantations. The inward facing slopes of the lake basin are drained by ephemeral streams. Gully action has left its deep mark particularly along the north-eastern and eastern slopes. On the south-west and the west it is less developed. Along the foot of the breached north-eastern face, there is an alluvial fan, well wooded with custard-apple trees.

Three springs of fresh water are noticed along the scarp slope. The one, which is the biggest is at the head of the ravine on the north-eastern slope at a height of 630 m. Known locally as the *Dhar*, this spring supplies the domestic needs of water-supply for the Lonar village. Along the same ravine, at a lower level, just at the base of a red bole layer occurs another spring, locally identified as *Sitanahini*. The third spring occurs on the south-eastern face close to the water level in the lake and is called the *Ramgaya* spring. All the three springs are associated with the base of the volcanic ash layers and seem to derive their water-supply from perched water tables. The *Dhar* spring seems to be one of the many that occur at this altitude level in the entire neighbourhood. These springs and the temples beside them have attracted pilgrims from far and near.

The waters of this lake are brackish and saltish; for long, according to the old Berar Gazetteer and *Ain-i-Akbari*, it was a source of salt in this part of Deccan. It is also given in *Ain-i-Akbari* that 'here is also a reservoir, nay a spring in it of great depth, and measuring a *Kos* in length and in breadth and surrounded by lofty hills. The water is brackish, but when taken from the centre or at its sides, it is sweet. It contains the essential material for the manufacture of glass and soap and saltpetre is here produced and yields a

considerable revenue'* Mr. J. O. Malcolmson in the '*Transactions of the Geological Society*', London, mentions the chemical composition of the salt as trona or striated soda which is a hydrated sesquicarbonate of sodium. In the past carbonates of soda and common salt used to be derived from this lake but long since, the lake salt is not exploited.

The mode of formation of this lake is a matter of considerable geological controversy. The old Buldhana Gazetteer states that according to '*Skanda Purana*', the lake depression represents a subterranean abode of 'Lonasura' who was unearched by Lord Vishnu from his den. Most geologists believe that the lake was formed during the closing phases of the Deccan trap eruptions. Prof. A. B. Orlebar believes that the lake depression was formed by subsidence and engulfment of an upheaved portion that subsequently collapsed when the forces of upheaval were withdrawn. H. J. Carter considers it to be an extinct crater of a volcano. G. Buist also subscribes to this view. Blanford and Medlicott ascribe the depression to a solitary violent volcanic explosion not accompanied by eruption of fluid lavas. V. Ball is of the view that it has been caused by the collapse of the roof of a large limestone cavern belonging to the intratrappeans. La Touche believes subsidence of the roof of an incipient laccolith may have led to the depression.

Geographical Regions.—The foregoing description of the physical features and natural environment helps in understanding the regional patterns within the district. Buldhana is typical of the prosperous cotton farming tracts of the Tapi-Purna valley; the key-note to human life in the district is cotton farming and ginning with the attendant problems in the plains. Yet, regionally, there is an interesting variation in the physical environment and patterns of human economy. The district falls into three distinct physio-structural divisions well demarcated by two fault planes, running nearly west to east; in fact, the transition between one regional unit and another is rather sharp and through a very narrow elongated strip, often 2 to 4 km in width. To the north, lies a small area in the Satpudas, a hilly region; to the south lies the Buldhana plateau, a rolling upland sloping gently to the south-east; in the middle, lies the alluvium infilled graben of the Purna valley or the Payanghat.

Satpuda Region: Approximately, a third of the area of Jalgaon tahsil lies in this physical unit. It is a part of the Melghat or Gawilgarh hills. These hills rise to general elevations of 600 to 700 m, with occasional peaks rising to a thousand metres or more, and present sheer cliffwalls to the Purna plains in the south. The hills rise abruptly within a distance of less than 5 km to their stupendous heights from the valley floor at about 270 m. Their southern edge, indicative of a fault plane runs almost straight with a WSW—ENE strike. They are almost entirely composed

**Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, by H. S. Jarrett and J. N. Sarkar, Calcutta, 1949, p. 239.

of horizontal sheets of successive basic lava flows partly solid and aphanitic and partly amygdular with interbedded ash layers. The area of these hills within the district carries at its crest a structural flat plateau or mesa of an area of about 15 square kilometres, sloping northwards in the western part; the village of Shingra is picturesquely situated at its southern scarp edge and presents an excellent panoramic view of plains below.

The human response within this region is essentially negative. Most of the hill slopes are barren and are grooved by monsoon gullies. Reserved forests cover the slopes that are not too steep and can support vegetation cover but the forests are generally poor and open with stunted species. The forests, belong to the dry deciduous 'salai' type of forests and are mostly 'anjan' forests though teak and 'babul' also occur. The Ambabarwa reserved forest in the extreme north has fairly good reserves of bamboo thickets. These forests have a fairly good reserve of wild animal life such as tigers, panthers, leopards, wild boars, etc.

Aspects of slope have considerable influence on the species and density of forests. Particularly, the slopes facing the Purna plains are poorer and drier in appearance probably due to the hot dry winds of the plains.

Agriculturally, the region is of little value. The steep slopes, rapid run off and shallow, gravelly and stony reddish soils render agriculture almost impossible, though shifting cultivation is resorted to by some of the tribal people like the Korkus; such practices are gradually ceasing. A mere dozen villages dot the forest area. Half of them are mostly uninhabited while the rest are only hamlets with a grouping together of a couple of huts perched near waterholes and supporting a group of people who eke out a precarious living from the forests around. Constant danger from wild carnivores, withdrawal of forest concessions and vigorous Government drive against shifting cultivation have made most of these villagers migrate and seek employment in the villages of the plains lower down.

Purna Plains: The Purna plain or the Payanghat lies in the middle, enclosed within the two fault scarps running west-east. The plain tapers in its width from east to west from 50 to 30 km in which direction the land also slopes in general at an average rate of 2 m for 5 km. However, the gradient of the river, that is very gentle upstream of Malkapur steepens, almost double, downstream of Malkapur till its confluence with the Tapi in Jalgaon district. The Payanghat, comprises entirely the Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils and the southern part of Jalgaon tahsil.

The Purna river runs west, skirting the Satpudas, flowing within a distance of 20 km from the scarp edge as a result of which the older alluvium of the Purna is thickest in the southern parts of Jalgaon and the northern parts of Khamgaon and Malkapur tahsils tapering in thickness southwards and grading into the regurs.

The Payanghat plains fall into further sub-divisions on the basis of local topographic forms, mostly depositional, soil and cropping patterns:—

- (i) The Satpuda piedmont in Jalgaon tahsil, an elongated east-west strip, 4 to 10 km in width;
- (ii) The older alluvium of the Purna valley, thicker and wider to the north or the right bank of the river, that is 8 to 15 km in width. This alluvial belt narrows down southwards on the left bank. This area lies entirely below 270 m above sea.
- (iii) A regional of residual and erosional topography between 300 m and 400 m above mean sea level with steeper gradients than to the north leading to the northern scarp edge of the Ajanta range. The region is floored by basalts and consists essentially of an undulating topography and residual knolls. The basic traps on weathering have given rise to regur soils, fairly deep and fine, along the northern edge and becoming shallower and coarser southwards.

The numerous monsoon gullies descending down the steep southern scarp slopes of the Satpudas have developed alluvial aprons at the foot of the scarp which on coalescence have become a piedmont. The soils over the piedmont are coarse, light, friable and easy to work, tending to become finer down the stream courses. Along the stream courses, the soils are finer and are made up of successive deposits during floods. They are locally called 'malli' soils and are well suited for horticulture. Elsewhere, the coarse gravelly soils about a metre thick are called 'dagri kali' or 'gothar' soils. The water table in these coarse soils is mostly shallow leading often to the increase in the alkalinity of the soils over the area. Such soils are called 'kharwan'. The region has a high rate of incidence of malaria.

Natural vegetation over these piedmont soils is well dispersed, with almost pure stands of *anjan* and *neem* along the stream courses. Cultivation is limited and the cropping pattern is poor. *kharif* jowar, peas and other pulses and cotton are the main crops. There is practically no crop outside the *kharif* season. The shallow watertable facilitates the development of betel vine in a number of villages apart from fruit orchards and vegetable cropping, raising of tobacco in what are known as *pandhari* and 'akhar' soils that are calcareous.

Villages are evenly distributed at distances of 3 km from each other; the larger villages are perched on well drained sites at the confluence of broader streams as they descend down and leave the piedmont; in fact, a well-defined string of larger settlements, market and fair villages and towns, is developed along the edge of the piedmont where it merges with the older alluvium. Asalgaon, Jalgaon town, and Baunbir are such contact point settlements along the break of slope and change of eco-

nomy. Jalgaon (p. 14,788 in 1971) on the banks of the Basi river, is an important cotton ginning and pressing mill centre and a market for raw cotton. It is also a tahsil headquarters.

Purna Valley: The alluvial plains of the Purna covered by deep, old alluvium to the south of the Satpuda piedmont lies almost entirely north of the Bhusaval-Nagpur railway; the river divides it into two unequal halves the larger part being to north of the river.

The area is an almost slopeless flat plain underlain by the richest, deep, *bharkali* soils of a very fine texture and highly retentive of moisture. The soil becomes sticky when wet but cracks freely in dry weather as a result of which it is quite heavy to work. Local variations of this soil are the *el chikni* with an oily appearance when ploughed, the *chopan* soils with pockets of grey marks that have an impervious subsoil structure and hence become waterlogged during rains, the wheat or *gawhari* soils and the *akhar* soils suited for garden crops. *Malli* soils with fine redeposition of alluvium are found along the river banks and are used for garden crops.

The watertable is shallow and the water is generally brackish on account of illuviation of lime and calcareous material into the deeper horizons of the soil. Farming is the mainstay of the people who live in the area. Not much of the cultivable area is under irrigation and farming is almost entirely done in the monsoon *khari*f season. Area under non-food crops predominates, the sole cash crop dominating the rural economy being cotton, that accounts for more than 40 per cent of the area under the plough. *Khari*f jowar is the next important crop, and that accounts for an area, ranging between 25 and 30 per cent of the tilled area. *Tur*, *udid* and other pulses are the other crops grown. Generally *khari*f jowar and cotton are grown in inter-culture with *tur* or other pulses, and are sown after the monsoon has well advanced, in late June and in July. Farmers are busy with jowar harvest and cotton picking towards the end of the calendar year.

Like the string of larger settlements along the lower edge of the Satpuda piedmont, another string of large settlements is located along the southern edge of the older alluvium of the Purna valley. In fact, these settlements are much larger than those of the north and are mostly towns. This is probably due to the influence of the Bhusawal-Nagpur broad gauge double track railway. The plains have a dense distribution of villages with flat roofed mud houses reflecting the agricultural prosperity of the plains; most of these villages are large and compact. The villages tend to avoid the immediate banks of the Purna or any of its larger tributaries on account of the deeply gullied 'badland' topography that develops the soft alluvium due to floods and rainwash. Twin villages often designated *budruk* and *khurd* on either side of the stream are quite common. Some of the villages have been deserted in preference to better soils on

account of the increasing salinity and agricultural sterility of the '*chopan*' soils in which the watertable steadily rises towards the surface.

Apart from the railway, three north-south feeder roads, cutting across the plain serve the area quite well.

Malkapur, Chandur, Nandura and Shegaon are the four largest settlements on the edge of the plains. Malkapur 35,476 in 1971, an agricultural market centre for cotton, *tur*, *udid*, jowar and chillis and a tahsil town, owes its importance to its nodal location at a point of railway crossing over the Nalganga. It has a number of cotton ginning and pressing mills, apart from a fertiliser factory based on bone crushing and a factory for fireworks and blasting powder. Chandur, on the right bank of the Vishwaganga, is also on the railway and is a market centre for cotton. Nandura (20,259 in 1971) another nodal centre on the railway is developed in a meander loop of the Gyanganga. It is a twin settlement, the older *budruk* being outside the meander loop and closer to the railway. It is a cotton collection, pressing and ginning centre. Handloom and dyeing are reputed household industries of this town. It is also famous for its red and black pottery. Shegaon (25,993 in 1971) in Khamgaon tahsil has developed along the railway in a linear pattern with the cotton pressing mills to the west and north. It has an oil hydrogenation plant.

Kali Soil Tract: The river alluvium thins out southwards away from the river and is replaced by the *kali* regur soils that are moderately deep even up to the foot of the hills, developed as a result of tropical weathering of the underlying basalts. This black soil tract has steeper northward gradients, and is marked off from the plateau to its south by the steep scarp edge of the plateau. A number of isolated basaltic knolls dot the area particularly along the scarp edge. The rivers Nalganga, the Gyanganga, the Mas and the Mun along with their tributaries drain the region. The soils are more open and more easily worked than the soils of the Purna valley. They form *morand* soils with a good admixture of lime nodules. *Khari*f jowar and cotton dominate the cropping economy; but pulses and groundnut are more important than in the plains lower down. The Nalganga project has recently brought fairly large areas under irrigated cotton, rice and vegetables and to a small extent under *rabi* wheat.

Villages are compact, generally near water-points with potable water-supply and are further spaced than those in the Purna plains. They tend to become smaller towards the hills and in most cases are twin settlements on either bank of the streams. Khamgaon (53,692 in 1971), at the edge of the hills and the Buldhana plateau is the largest settlement of the region linked by a branch railway, 13 km long, from the Jalamb railway station on the main Bhusawal-Nagpur railway. It is one of the oldest and largest cotton markets of the Payanghat plains. It has a nodal location with convergence of five regional metal

roads. It is a compact settlement on the right bank of the Bordi river, but about 2 km away from the river. Oil mills, cotton presses, cotton seed oil and a lint factory are its main industrial attractions: weaving woollen blankets and making of lanterns and cash boxes are the household industries of the township. Pimpalgaon Raja on the Gyanganga is a centre noted for dyeing. Motala on the Malkapur-Buldhana road is a large regional market centre. Pimprala, about 10 km east of Khamgaon on the Khamgaon-Balapur road is a silk mill centre.

Buldhana Plateau: The Buldhana plateau is initially an extension of the Ajanta ranges and is marked sharply by a scarp fault from the Purna plains to its north. It is an undulating rolling country; the landscape, here, in contrast to the monotony of the flat Purna plains is rich and varied with fertile villages in valley bottoms alternating with barren desolate hills and interspersed with steep-sided ridges and deep gullies. The plateau slopes to the south-east in general and comprises the whole of Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils.

Northern edge of the plateau: The northern scarp edge of the plateau is a rough hilly country with steep gradients, and is deeply scoured by a number of gullies and streams that become torrents during the rains. The slopes of these hill ranges are fairly well eroded with open, mixed forests, mostly teak. Most of them belong to Amdari, Gera Matargaon and Ghatlin reserved forest divisions. Teak is the main species found all over the forest, the other species being *salai*, *anjan*, *babul*, *dhawda*, *khair*, *bija* and *chandan*. The valuable forest products are, firewood, charcoal, teak and other forest timber, bamboos, and a variety of grasses. Grazing is widely done by the rural live-stock. There is practically no area under cultivation here on account of the rugged terrain, shallow and stony soils and difficulty of procurement of water-supply, villages are few and far between; they are at best forest hamlets. The very few larger villages, set in utter isolation, are on the flat tops of structural benches of the horizontally bedded lava sheets at heights of about 500 and 400 m respectively. Like the northern hilly regions, this area too is one with negative human response. However, human interest in these hilly regions centres around the valuable forest products and the limited fruit orchards on riversides in pockets of locally deep soils and on the two major ghat roads from Buldhana to Malkapur and Chikhli to Amdapur to Khamgaon, respectively, that make their way through winding stairs and steep ghat sections revealing a romantic view of the wooded valleys and cultivated plains below.

The Buldhana plateau, or the Balaghat as it is at times known in contrast to the Payanghat plains, is a country of rolling topography with a flat topped ridge of low hills, at about 650 m bare and arid, running with a north-west-south-east strike forming a feeble watershed between the two valleys of the Penganga and the lower Purna or the Katepurna. This watershed is breached by the larger tributaries of the Penganga which have extended

their upper courses on the southern side of the watershed. Thus, the watershed divides the plateau further into two natural subdivisions; a larger Penganga valley to the north and a less lower or Katepurna valley to the south. The descent from the watershed to the valley floor is less than a hundred metres and through relatively gentle slopes so that the river valleys present an unusually mature appearance with the channels of rivers meandering sluggishly in a wide floor. These two rivers with numerous tributaries afford for the greater part of the year an assured water-supply, but during the hot weather they dwindle into pools of stagnant water. In the valleys, ground water is found at shallow depths in the perched watertables developed in the ash layers inter-bedded between the basalts; numerous community borewells furnish a perennial supply of good and pure water; but, the watershed between, as well as the hill sides, on the edges are practically waterless tracts without even an adequate drinking water-supply for the rural community. About half a dozen shallow natural depressions or tanks mostly in the Chikhli tahsil also provide limited water-supply to about 600 acres for irrigating the fields.

The country as a whole is a succession of plateaus-mesas at different contour levels intersected by ravines; however, this succession of plateaus and ravines is much more rapid in the east, in the Mehkar tahsil on account of greater dissection.

The soils of the plateau are *bhorandi* or *khalki*, a thin yellowish coarse soil, often less than half a metre deep with murrum or rock mantle underneath. The upper plateaus are generally covered by shallow black, brown or reddish soils over murrum as the subsoil. These are called *barad* soils. The soils over the plateau surface, in general, vary rapidly depending upon the location, aspect, ground vegetation and extent of weathering.

In most respects, the agrarian economy over the plateau in the Penganga and Katepurna valleys is similar to that of the Purna plains but however differs from the latter in one significant respect: *rabi* cropping is significant only over the plateau increasing in importance downstream along the Penganga valley. In fact, about one-fifth of the cropped area in the Mehkar tahsil is under *rabi* crops in contrast to the tilled lands over the Purna alluvium where the cropping is entirely in the *kharif* season. It is also noteworthy that food crops cover a larger area than non-food crops unlike in the Purna plains. *Kharif* jowar and *rabi* wheat, *tur* and other pulses are the main crops. Cotton covers slightly more than a quarter of the tilled area and is steadily gaining in importance as the main cash crop. Safflower among the oilseeds is widely grown during the *rabi* season. Over the *barad* soils of the upland, watershed and hill margins where the water-supply is inadequate and precarious *bajra*, *math*, *hulga* or other minor crops are grown.

Nearly three-fourth of the irrigated tract of the district lies in the two tahsils of the plateau, Chikhli alone accounting for about 46 per cent of the area under irrigation. Irrigation is done

mostly by lifting water from deep borewells with the help of oil-engines and electric pumps. The entire irrigation, with the aid of tank water that extends to about 600 acres, is done exclusively in the Mehkar tahsil. The irrigated cropping pattern consists of rabi wheat, a limited quantity of *kharif* rice and tobacco in the Penganga and Katepurna valleys and cotton over the rolling plateau.

About 10 per cent of the land area in the plateau is under permanent pastures and a small area is also devoted to raising fodder crops, at times even with the aid of irrigation.

Villages are generally compact, squarish, medium sized and sited on water points. They are more closely spaced along the Penganga and Katepurna valleys and tend to become somewhat scattered, and smaller along the northern periphery of the plateau and the feeble watershed in between. In fact, most of the villages in the latter areas are uninhabited or have scanty population. This is on account of the inadequacy of the drinking water-supply for domestic purposes or at times a complete lack of water. Water in most of these villages is precious and the rustic folk have to carry water over considerable distances. A common community-well generally supplies the water for the entire village, or in case of streamside villages, the stream itself supplies the water. In a few cases of villages, like the village of Lonar, spring water oozing out from the perched watertable in the intratrappeans along an outcrop provide a copious supply of water. Such springs are mostly along the southern edge of the plateau at heights of 600 m and in two cases along the northern edge of the plateau at 650 m, these spring levels obviously being related to the geological formations that are waterbearing.

The main road of the plateau runs along the length of the plateau following closely the Penganga and connecting the major settlements of the plateau *viz.*, Buldhana, Chikhli, Lavhala and Mehkar and running further east along the crest of the plateau before descending into the plains of Akola district. The north-south running roads take off from this road at one of the major settlements and descend to the Katepurna and Godavari valleys to the south and the Purna valley to the north through picturesque and winding ghat sections set in forest environs.

GEOLOGY*

The district of Buldhana provides little of geological interest except for the unique occurrence of picturesque 'Lonar crater' the only such in the great basaltic province of India. Though several prominent workers have been associated in some way or other with the Lonar lake investigation work since early 19th century, the geology of Buldhana district as a whole had been studied only in a cursory manner, and except for Wynne's account (1867) on the Purna valley and some reports on the

*The section on Geology has been contributed by Shri S.S. Ghodke, Geologist (Sr.) of the Geological Survey of India.

damsite and ground water investigations, by the Geological Survey of India carried out in recent years, no detailed account of the geology of Buldhana district is available.

By far the greater part of the district is covered by rocks of the Deccan volcanics of Cretaceous-Eocene age, and a few alluvium patches of the Purna and Penganga basin, respectively. The trap rocks are usually fine to coarse-grained, dark grey to greenish-black basalts of vesicular and massive types (Venkatesh 1967). The hard compact massive flows are generally noticed on the hill tops, *e.g.*, Melghat section whereas comparatively soft and amygdular varieties usually occupy the flanks of the hill or valley floors. Spheroidal exfoliation is a characteristic feature of weathering in the traps. Besides vertical and inclined jointing, columnar jointing is also well seen in more massive types. The vesicular and non-vesicular flows are at places separated by thin beds of ash or scoriae, but typical inter-trappean sedimentary rocks have not been recognised in the area. The amygdular varieties of flows carry secondary minerals like zeolites (mostly heulandite), calcite and chalcedony. No dykes have been found associated with the trap flows in the district where a lava pile of approximately 800 metres is preserved.

Alluvium.—The Purna valley alluvium occupies an extensive stretch of low lying ground between Paturda and the confluence of Purna river with that of Tapi in Jalgaon district. In the river valleys and where superficial rain-wash has accumulated, a mixture of black cotton soil associated with sub-recent conglomeratic formation or light brown laterite material is noticeable at places, but otherwise, as aptly described by Wynne (1867) there is little variation in the nature and extent of soil or any variety of geological interest. The alluvium of the plains is usually of considerable depth sometimes, exceeding upto 50 metres as noticed near Pimprala or Malkapur. At places in the river alluvium, calcareous fragmentary bones or teeth ruminants are found sporadically. Much on the alluvium produces effervescence of sodium salts. Majority of the wells sunk in the area have brackish water.

Lonar lake area: The Lonar¹ lake is one of the few large isolated caldera-like depression that has given rise to a good deal of controversy regarding its origin. A number of scientific accounts about the lake and its alkalinity have been published since early 19th Century, but all these accounts are based on the data collected from surface examination of the lake area only. More recently the prospecting department of Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited had carried out drilling operations in the lake area (1960) with regard to the evaluation of soda contents in the brine and silts of the lake, whereas some preliminary geo-physical and geo-chemical surveys had been undertaken by the Geological Survey with a view to ascertaining the possible nickel and cobalt contents, if any, in the Lonar crater formation (1964).

¹For details see section on Lakes.

The Lonar structure variously described as a hollow, depression or crater, is situated about a kilometre to the south-west of the village of Lonar ($19^{\circ} 58'45''$; $76^{\circ} 34'00''$), and the circular feature measuring 2,000 metres across and about 135 metres in depth has a shallow saline lake. Maximum depth of the brine is about 5.5 metres. The general elevation of the surrounding country is 550 to 600 metres above mean sea level and the depression has fairly steep walls sloping at an angle of 25° — 33° . A raised rim or bank, up to 100 m in width and at places 10 to 15 m high surrounds the hollow. This inland lake with no effluent is fed by the seasonal drainage mainly confined to its periphery and also by a number of springs such as Dhar, Sitanahani, Ramgaya, etc.

The country rock is andesitic lavas (Nandy and Deo, 1961) of the Deccan trap facies of late crataceous period. The rock is usually cryptocrystalline and fine to medium-grained, generally containing amygdulæ of agate, green earth and zeolites. Intensive weathering has rendered these trap rocks very friable at some places. Small pockets of ash beds, have been reported from the cliff sections, but intertrappean sedimentary rocks have not been recognised so far in the area. Rocks at the periphery of the lake show quaquaversal dips varying from 14° — 27° . However, faulting, intense shattering and brecciation, shatter cones, dykes, agglomerates, fused or glassy material of any kind, etc., have so far not been reported. The rocks at the floor of the lake, as found from bore hole cores, are similar in composition to those exposed in cliff sections (Nandy and Deo, 1961). A generalised vertical section of the lake as revealed by the deepest bore hole No. 10 of Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited (1961) from top downwards is given below:—

Thickness	Formation
00.0—25.6 m (25.6 m)	Brine containing NaCl, Na_2O_3 and NaHCO_3 , total alkali as Na_2CO_3 less than NaCl.
25.6—100.28 m (75.22 m)	Black, colloidal silt rich in Na_2CO_3 total alkali as Na_2CO_3 exceeds NaCl.
100.8—147.2 m (46.4 m)	Brown, plastic silt with moderate concentration of Na_2CO_3 . Total alkali as Na_2CO_3 and NaCl is more than total alkali as Na_2CO_3 .
147.2—195.2 m (48.0 m)	Brown, less plastic silt with poor concentration of salts, NaCl is more than the total alkali as Na_2CO_3 .
195.2—457.6 m (262.4 m)	Brown and grey, highly weathered rock devoid of Na_2CO_3 but containing NaHCO_3 and NaCl.
457.6—480.0 m (22.4 m)	Slightly weathered trap.

The remarkable shape, size and lone occurrence of this structure have evoked controversies regarding its origin and salinity. Various theories so far proposed can be grouped generally in two schools of thought viz., one ascribing the origin to a crater of an extinct volcano (Bradley, 1853, G. Smith, 1857, Blanford, 1870, R. D. Oldham 1906, etc.) and the other suggesting that the depression was caused due to the collapse of the roof of a large 'blister' elevated by the inrush of vapour or molten lava from below (Orlebar, 1839, Newbold, La Touche, 1912, etc.).

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V. Ball (1881) and Smythe (1884) offered an entirely new theory of collapse due to solution of underlying strata. However, the hypothesis of La Touche (1912) is more or less similar to the now well-known rationale for explaining the 'cryptovolcanic' structures (Venkatesh, 1964 P. 10). In recent years, encouraged and inspired by the increasing evidence of meteorite impact for the Barrington crater of Arizona, USA and also lunar craters, there has been considerable enthusiasm to ascribe several of the cryptovolcanic structures to meteorite impact and Dietz (1959) further suggests that most of the structures of doubtful origin could be covered by the term 'cryptoexplosion' structures or 'astroblems'. Large craters attributed to impact and explosion of meteorites involve a huge mass of extraterrestrial matter striking the earth's surface at very high velocities, resulting in relatively greater concentration of nickel, cobalt and other metals in which the iron meteorites are very high (Ehman, 1962, Taylor and Kolbe, 1965, Ginsburg, 1960). In the Lonar area, where conditions are most favourable for high concentrations of the metals to occur, the geo-chemical samples show only normal metal values which is considered, *prima facie*, inconsistent with a meteoritic origin for the crater (Venkatesh, 1964). Since the geo-chemical approach had so far not provided any reliable criterion for recognising meteorite crater, like Lonar (Venkatesh, 1967) or Canyon Diablo in Arizona (Hawkes, 1966), perhaps new data in other established lines of research would be necessary to arrive at some reasonable and acceptable solution on the origin of this Lonar depression, the only of its kind in India.

Salts in the Brine and Silt.—In a closed basin like Lonar, it is not unnatural for the accumulation and concentration of some saline constituents in the lake water. The Lonar lake water is characterised by a high concentration of chlorides, carbonates and sodium with SiO_2 , R_2O_3 , S_2O_3 , Ca , Mg and K in minor amounts, besides traces of boron, as shown below:—

ANALYSIS OF LONAR LAKE WATER

—	(Christie, 1910)	(Jhingran and Rao, 1958)	(TISCO, 1960)
(1)	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Cl	40.78	31.52	30.87
CO_3	15.03	22.26	7.52
HCO_3	2.61	2.06	11.65
SO_4	1.48	0.30	0.67
Na	39.61	41.74	15.15
K	0.11	1.58	2.05
Ca	0.01	0.01	0.18
Mg	trace	0.01	0.14
R_2O_3	..	..	0.10
SiO_2	0.41	0.61	1.46
B	trace	trace	0.13

The water of the Lonar lake for its carbonate and chloride contents has been classed by Clarke (1924) under the group 'carbonate-chloride'. The origin of the salinity of the lake has also been subjected to some controversy and Christie (1912) has summarised these various theories regarding its alkalinity. Amongst the earliest observers, Malcolmson (1840) accounted for the occurrences of sodium carbonate as a result of an interaction between sodium chloride, calcium carbonate and water. This view was more or less supported by Smith (1857), Mackenzie (1870) and Plymen (1909); whereas Blanford (1870) believed that evaporation of the water in the absence of any exit was responsible for the alkalinity of the lake water. Christie (1912), supporting Blanford's theory, however opined that water and unlimited supply of carbonic acid from atmosphere are directly responsible, besides some part played by the atmospheric agents, viz., wind and rain, to carry windborne salt from sea to the lake water. More recently, Jhingran and Rao (1954) suggested that there must be some juvenile springs in the area, a fact borne out by the presence of traces of boron in the lake waters, which admixed with varying meteoric water would account for the chlorine and sodium salts in the lake. In their opinion, the alkalinity of the lake is the result of simultaneous operation of a number of reactions, the chief of them being the conversion of sulphate to carbonate through the intermediate sulphide formation and the concentration of lake water. Tata Iron and Steel Company's recent drilling operations in the area (Nandy and Deo, 1960) indicate that the brine of the lake shows practically the same composition laterally and at depth. Comparative analysis of trap rock, sprung water, brine and silt from Lonar area are given below :—

Per cent (1)	Trap rock (2)	Spring water (Sitana-hani) (3)	Brine (4)	Silt (depth 25-73 ms. from bore hole 10) (5)
SiO ₂ ..	51.75	12.47	1.46	37.20
TiO ₂ ..	0.22	1.36	0.10	14.70
Al ₂ O ₃ ..	4.48			
Fe ₂ O ₃ ..	4.48			9.20
CaO ..	9.53	10.63	0.25	11.00
MgO ..	5.02	5.94	0.24	5.30
Na ₂ O ..	1.4 to 5.8	12.47	40.85	2.64
K ₂ O ..	0.15 to 0.3	8.31	6.22	0.43
Cl ..	0.037	7.42	30.87	2.20
SO ₄ ..	0.023	1.93	0.67	1.30
HCO ₃ ..	0.022	30.08	11.65	0.90

(Jhingran and Rao, 1954) (Nandy and Deo, 1960).

Based on the drilling data, Nandy and Deo (1960) suggest that the alkalinity of the lake is due to the meteoritic waters feeding the lake. These influents while passing through the volcanic

rocks, rich in sodium salts, dissolve some of these salts and bring them to the lake. Evaporation and interactions of these salts in the lake water aided by the inorganic compounds and enhanced by the atmospheric agents and bacterial action, have resulted in the concentration of salts found today in this closed basin.

Economic Geology.—The district has not been endowed with any economic mineral deposits, excepting some minor activity with regard to the exploitation of Lonar lake soda deposit. The evaporates formed from the lake water are extracted and sold into five different types depending on the stages at which they separate out in the evaporation process and the relative percentages of respective carbonates and alkalies. These products differ widely in composition, as seen from the statement below. The Lonar soda deposit is, however, considered to be similar to the soda lakes of the world and found to correspond to the 'Trona' or straited soda ($\text{NaCO}_3 \cdot \text{NaHCO}_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) from the lakes of Fezzan in Tripoli (Jhingran and Rao, 1954).

Type Local name (1)	CL Per cent (2)	CO ₃ Per cent (3)	HCO ₃ Per cent (4)	Na Per cent (5)	K Per cent (6)	Remainder Per cent (7)
Bhuski ..	12.25	21.65	5.51	29.97	..	30.62
Papri ..	0.36	32.92	3.66	27.16	0.11	35.79
Dalla I ..	3.93	41.92	8.44	36.26	0.33	9.12
Dalla II ..	8.27	29.89	12.28	31.10	0.63	16.83
Namak ..	17.43	32.63	..	40.15	..	17.46
Dalla ..						
Dantri ..	4.45	34.26	1.78	30.81	0.42	28.28
Dantri and Dalla ..	3.82	33.51	7.57	31.05	0.38	23.67

The natural occurrence of bicarbonate of soda in such large quantity with common salts is of great economic interest. In ancient times, there was a local demand for the alkaline lake products as well as for the salt. In recent years the possibility of reviving this trade by establishing a large scale consorted industry at Lonar was again examined by the Tata Chemicals Ltd., but owing to the limited extent of this deposit and for a number of other reasons this scheme has so far not been implemented.

The dense, massive basalts, which occur in extensive quantity, are good as constructional or building material.

Ground Water.—Buldhana forms the westernmost district of Vidarbha with an average annual rainfall of 70 to 85 centimetres. Excepting for the east-west stretch of the western extremity of the fertile Purna valley in the north-central portion of the district, the entire district is occupied by the trappean hill ranges of Gawali-garh in the north and the Ajanta in the south with a general depression towards the valley of Purna from either side. In the northern portion of the valley belt an east-west stretch extending for over 30 km, with an average width of 6 km is the potable fresh water belt with a discharge of 8 to 12 litres per second within a depth range of 40 metres. In the southern part of the valley south of the river Purna there is acute scarcity with the river

alluvium ; but the major part of the alluvial portion of the district is generally free from it. In the basaltic terrain the groundwater occurs partly in the western mantle and partly in the vesicular basalt and intertrappean beds, and with lack of favourable conditions there is often acute scarcity felt, particularly in peak summer months. The Lonar crater lake is a saline water lake and there is also some amount of salinity in the direction of the Purna saline tract.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS*

The climate of this district is characterised by a hot summer, well-distributed rainfall during the south-west monsoon season and generally dry weather during the rest of the year. The cold season is from December to February. This is followed by the hot season from March to May. The southwest monsoon season is from June to September while October and November constitute the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall.—Records of rainfall in the district are available for 13 rain guage stations for periods ranging from 32 to 101 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables 2 and 3. The average annual rainfall in the district is 796.6 mm (31.37"). The rainfall in the district generally decreases from the south to the north except that the north-western part of the district, the Buldhana-Dhamangaon area gets comparatively more rainfall than the rest of the district. The rainfall in the district during the main rainy season, June to September constitutes about 85 per cent of the annual rainfall. July is the rainiest month. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is large. During the fifty year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall which amounted to 150 per cent of the normal occurred in 1949, while the lowest which was only 52 per cent of the normal was recorded in 1920. In the same 50 year period, the annual rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 9 years, two of them being consecutive. Considering the rainfall at the individual stations such low rainfall in two consecutive years occurred more than once at four out of the 13 stations. Even 3 and 4 consecutive years of such low rainfall have occurred once or twice at about half the number of the stations in the district. It will be seen from table 2 that the annual rainfall in the district was between 600 and 900 mm (23.62" and 35.43") in 28 years out of 50.

On an average there are 47 rainy days (*i.e.*, days with rainfall of 2.5 mm or 10 cents or more) in a year in the district. This number varies from 43 near the northern border to 51 in the Buldhana-Dhamangaon region.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 337.6 mm (13.29") at Buldhana on September 9, 1930.

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

TABLE No. 2
NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Station	(1)	No. of years of data	(2)	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
				(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Buldhana	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	10.9 0.8	8.4 0.5	7.4 0.6	8.1 0.7	13.7 1.1	167.9 8.5	237.0 14.1	168.4 11.6	163.4 8.2
Malhapur	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	10.4 0.7	7.4 0.6	5.1 0.5	4.8 0.4	10.4 0.8	131.8 6.9	205.7 12.4	134.9 9.6	137.9 7.2
Chikhli	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	11.9 0.8	7.4 0.6	9.1 0.7	9.1 0.7	13.7 1.3	175.3 8.3	214.9 12.9	138.9 9.7	141.7 7.7
Mehkar	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	9.7 0.8	10.2 0.8	6.3 0.7	6.6 0.7	11.4 1.3	160.0 8.7	217.4 13.0	165.1 10.4	157.7 8.3
Deulgaon Raja	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	7.4 0.6	4.6 0.4	5.3 0.6	8.1 0.6	18.0 1.2	163.3 7.9	197.1 12.0	149.1 9.6	174.2 8.8
Nandura	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	10.2 0.7	7.9 0.7	5.6 0.6	5.3 0.4	10.7 0.8	137.9 7.0	213.4 13.0	144.0 9.1	146.3 6.9
Donegaon	..	50	{(a) .. (b) ..	10.7 0.9	11.7 0.8	6.6 0.5	10.4 1.0	13.7 1.2	176.3 9.4	249.9 13.9	176.0 11.3	166.1 8.4

TABLE No. 2—contd.
NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Station	No. of years of data	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Jalgaon	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	11.2 0.9	10.2 0.7	5.1 0.5	4.6 0.4	9.9 0.9	130.3 6.9	208.3 11.9	139.7 8.8	158.7 7.7
Khamgaon	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	11.2 0.8	9.4 0.6	9.4 0.6	6.3 0.5	9.7 1.0	153.9 7.3	220.7 11.9	126.7 8.6	138.9 7.5
Shergaon	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	11.7 0.8	10.2 0.8	8.1 0.6	5.6 0.5	7.6 0.7	134.4 7.5	219.2 12.7	149.3 9.6	161.5 7.7
Dhamangaon	23 { (a) .. (b) ..	6.1 0.7	16.5 1.0	6.6 0.7	7.6 0.6	12.2 1.3	137.7 7.1	250.7 15.5	160.8 10.4	189.5 9.1
Hiwarkhed	22 { (a) .. (b) ..	4.6 0.6	7.1 0.6	5.1 0.5	5.6 0.3	8.6 0.8	130.8 7.4	195.1 12.8	118.6 8.2	152.7 7.5
Pimpalgaon Raja	25 { (a) .. (b) ..	16.0 1.0	4.3 0.4	9.4 0.6	3.3 0.6	13.7 1.0	148.8 6.9	188.5 12.0	150.6 9.4	119.9 6.6
Buldhana (District)	{ (a) .. (b) ..	10.2 0.8	8.9 0.7	6.9 0.6	6.6 0.6	11.8 1.0	149.9 7.7	216.8 12.9	147.9 9.7	154.5 7.8

Station	No. of years of data	October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
								Amount (mm)	Date
(1)	(2)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Buldhana	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	48.0 2.5	28.7 1.5	13.2 1.0	875.3 51.1	143 (1916)	56 (1941)	337.6	1930, September 9.
Malikapur	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	36.8 1.9	24.6 1.4	11.9 0.7	721.7 43.1	182 (1949)	54 (1918)	215.9	1883, July 2.
Chithli	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	43.7 2.7	30.2 1.7	12.5 0.9	808.4 48.0	157 (1927)	52 (1920)	277.6	1914, June 27.
Mehkar	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	46.2 2.6	31.0 1.7	13.7 0.8	835.3 49.8	145 (1949)	44 (1920)	325.1	1892, September 11.
Deulgaon Raja	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	47.0 2.7	34.3 1.8	11.2 0.6	819.6 46.8	194 (1916)	41 (1905)	186.4	1903, August 21.
Nandura	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	42.4 2.2	23.6 1.5	9.4 0.7	756.7 43.6	151 (1944)	45 (1918)	296.7	1894, July 20.
Donegaon	50 { (a) .. (b) ..	44.2 2.7	27.4 1.6	11.9 0.8	904.9 52.5	176 (1916)	52 (1920)	175.5	1921, August 9.

TABLE No. 2—contd.
NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Station (1)	No. of years of data (2)	October (12)	November (13)	December (14)	Annual (15)	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year** (16)	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year** (17)	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
								Amount (mm) (18)	Date (19)
Jalgaon	50 (a)	42.9 2.2 41.9	24.1 1.4 27.4	10.2 0.7 9.9	755.2 43.0 765.4	184 (1944)	34 (1918)	228.8	1945, September, 22.
Khamgaon	50 (a)	2.3 45.5	1.5 25.4	0.8 10.9	43.4 789.4	188 (1935)	42 (1920)	157.5	1945, September 22.
Shegaon	50 (a)	2.3 56.4	1.3 26.4	0.8 13.2	45.3 883.7	158 (1937)	40 (1918)	261.9	1894, July 20.
Dhamangaon	23 (a)	2.8 48.3	1.5 31.0	0.6 10.9	51.3 718.4	170 (1928)	54 (1950)	264.2	1928, October 1.
Hiwarkhed	22 (a)	2.6 33.8	1.5 18.0	0.7 12.5	43.5 718.8	167 (1949)	57 (1941)	121.9	1930, September 9.
Pimpalgaon Raja	25 (a)	1.6 44.4	1.5 27.1	0.9 11.6	42.5 796.6	153 (1910)	62 (1920)	154.9	1910, October 2.
Buldhana (District)	(b)	2.4	1.5	0.8	46.5	150 (1949)	52 (1920)		

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

*Based on all available data up to 1958.

**Years given in brackets.

TABLE No. 3
FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE DISTRICT
(DATA 1901—1950)

Range in mm (1)	No. of years (2)	Range in mm (1)	No. of years (2)
401—500	2	801—900	12
501—600	6	901—1000	7
601—700	7	1001—1100	5
701—800	9	1101—1200	2

Temperature.—There is a meteorological observatory in the district at Buldhana. The records of this observatory are representative of the meteorological conditions prevailing in the southern half of the district which is at a higher elevation than the northern half. Compared to the northern half which has a climate similar to that of neighbouring Akola district, the southern half has a milder summer. From November, temperatures decrease rapidly till December which is generally the coldest month with mean daily maximum temperature at 27.6° C (81.7° F) and the mean daily minimum at 15.1° C (59.2° F) in the southern half of the district. In the northern portions, the mean daily maximum temperature on individual days may go down to about 3 degrees above the freezing point of water. Temperatures rise rapidly after February till May which is the hottest month of the year. The mean daily maximum temperature in May in southern half of the district is 38.3° C (100.9° F) and the mean daily minimum 26.2° C (79.2° F). In the northern half the mean daily maximum temperature is 42.3° C (108.1° F) and the mean daily minimum is 27.4° C (81.3° F). The heat in the summer is severe during the day particularly in the northern parts of the district. The day temperature may some times reach 47° C (116.6° F) in the northern parts of the district while in the southern half it may go up to 42° C (107.6° F). The oppressive heat is relieved by thundershowers which occur on some days in the afternoons. With the onset of the monsoon by about the second week of June there is appreciable drop in the temperatures and the weather becomes pleasant. By about the beginning of October when the south-west monsoon withdraws from the district, day temperatures begin to increase slightly and a secondary maximum in day temperature is reached during October. Thereafter, both day and night temperatures fall rapidly.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Buldhana was 42.2° C (108.0° F) on April 25, 1958 and 23rd May 1954. The lowest minimum was 4.4° C (39.9° F) on 11th February 1950.

Humidity.—Except during the south-west monsoon season when the relative humidities are high, the air is generally dry over the district. The relative humidities are between 25 and 30 per cent in the afternoons in the summer season which is the driest part of the year.

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

Winds.—Winds are generally light with some increase in wind speed in the latter part of the summer and the monsoon season. In the post-monsoon months and the earlier half of the cold season the winds blow mostly from east or north-east. By February north-westerly and westerly winds start blowing. With the progress of the season winds from these directions become predominant. During the south-west monsoon season winds are mainly from directions between south-west and north-west.

Special Weather Phenomena.—In association with the monsoon depressions which originate in the Bay of Bengal and move westwards across the central parts of the country, the district experiences gusty winds and widespread heavy rain. Less frequently, storms and depressions from the Bay of Bengal during the post-monsoon months also affect the weather over the district. Thunderstorms occur in all the months of the year, their incidence being the least during the cold season and highest during the early monsoon season and September.

Tables 4, 5 and 6 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed, and special weather phenomena, respectively, for Buldhana.

TABLE No. 4
NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY IN THE DISTRICT.

Month	(1)	Mean daily maximum tempera- ture	°C (2)	Mean daily minimum tempera- ture	°C (3)	Highest maximum ever recorded		Lowest minimum ever recorded		Relative humidity 0830* 1730*	
						°C (4)	Date (5)	°C (6)	Date (7)	percent (8)	percent (9)
January	..	27.4	..	15.4	..	32.8	1956, Jan. 31	10.0	1953, Jan. 22	54	35
February	..	30.7	..	17.9	..	36.7	1953, Feb. 28	4.4	1950, Feb. 11	42	26
March	..	34.2	..	21.6	..	38.9	1953, Mar. 26	14.8	1957, Mar. 5	42	27
April	..	37.0	..	24.9	..	42.2	1958, April 25	17.4	1961, April 8	39	24
May	..	38.3	..	26.2	..	42.2	1954, May 23	20.0	1960, May 16	51	25
June	..	33.9	..	23.5	..	41.7	1953, June 7	19.4	1955, June 17	75	50
July	..	28.7	..	19.9	..	34.4	1952, July 14	18.9	1949, July 6	86	71
August	..	27.0	..	19.2	..	35.0	1950, Aug. 23	16.6	1959, Aug. 19	88	78
September	..	28.1	..	19.2	..	33.0	1960, Sept. 22	17.9	1959, Sept. 16	86	69
October	..	29.8	..	20.5	..	33.9	1951, Oct. 11	14.4	1957, Oct. 31	67	49
November	..	27.3	..	17.0	..	32.2	1957, Nov. 17	11.7	1949, Nov. 16	54	54
December	..	27.6	..	15.1	..	31.8	1960, Dec. 25	10.4	1961, Dec. 20	53	37
Annual	..	30.8	..	20.0	..	..	..	..	..	61	44

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE No. 5
MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

January (1)	February (2)	March (3)	April (4)	May (5)	June (6)	July (7)	August (8)	September (9)	October (10)	November (11)	December (12)	Annual (13)
8.3	8.5	9.1	10.7	14.9	14.8	14.0	11.4	10.9	6.4	5.8	6.4	10.1

TABLE No. 6

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Mean No. of days with (1)	Jan. (2)	Feb. (3)	Mar. (4)	April (5)	May (6)	June (7)	July (8)	August (9)	Sept. (10)	Oct. (11)	Nov. (12)	Dec. (13)	Annual (14)
Thunder	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.6
Hail	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4
Dust-Storm	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
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	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2

FORESTS

The district has an area of 619.04 square miles under forests of which 470.97 square miles are in charge of the Forest Department and the remaining 148.07 square miles are in charge of the Revenue Department. The forest area makes 16.41 per cent of the total geographical area as against the average of 17.56 per cent for the State of Maharashtra.

Forests of this circle are divided into two categories viz., reserved and protected forests according to Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927). Before forests are classified they have to be subjected to regular settlement by a Forest Settlement Officer, who enquires into the existence of all public and private rights. The details of the reserved forests and protected forests are as follows:—

Division	Area in charge	Reserved forests	Protected forests
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Sq. km	Sq. km
Buldhana	Forest Department	1,082.16	94.52

The forests are mainly situated on the Balaghat plateau of the Ajanta hills and in the Purna Valley. The forests belong to the 'Southern Tropical Dry Deciduous' type. The varieties of the forests found in the district are.—(1) Superior teak forests, (2) Inferior teak forests, (3) *Anjan* forests, (4) *Babul* forests, (5) Mixed forests, (6) Salai forests and (7) Grass land and brushwood areas.

Teak is the main species found all over. *Anjan* is found in pure patches and *Babul* is confined mainly to the river banks along the black cotton soil. The forest produce is exploited through the agencies to whom contract is given and also through the forest labourers co-operative societies.

The type of vegetation is mainly governed by soil formation, configuration of the ground, drainage and the influence of man. The type of the forest that is met with, belongs to the southern tropical dry deciduous and can be further classified as follows:—

Superior Teak Forests.—This type of forests is mainly confined to the Ambabarwa block and Mangeri. The stretch of forest is, however, narrow. The quality is M. P. III (40' to 60'). The principal associates are *ain* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *karam* (*Stephogyne pervifolia* korth), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos* corn), *tiwas* (*Eugenia dalbergioesid*), *lendia* (*lagerstroemia parviflora*), *dhawada* (*Anogeissus catifolia*), *tendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*) and *semal* (*Salmelia malabarica*) (D. G.).

Inferior Teak Forests.—(a) *General Type*:—This type occurs over a large area the average quality being IV b and IV a (25' to 40') high. Teak has a tendency to form almost a pure crop, the percentage however, invariably found being 50. Interspersed better quality patches of teak III (45' to 60') high, as in Pachdeola

and Girda Reserve of Ghatbori and Buldhana Ranges, respectively, are met with where the soil deposits are fairly deep. The density is invariably 7 to 8.

(b) *Poor and openly stocked teak type*.—The type is more or less similar to superior teak forests described above, the difference being in the condition and the composition of the crop. The crop is of poor quality due to its occurrence on shallow soil and the variations caused by frequent severe fires. The crop is generally M. P. IV b (25' to 40') high. Teak occurs almost pure with a heavy growth.

Mixed Forests.—This type of forests occurs in all blocks in the Buldhana Division. The soil is derived from shales, sand and stones of the Raipur series. The quality is poor IV b and consists of *ain*, *lendia*, *dhaora*, *tendu*, *anjan*, *char*, *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) *bebeda*, (*Terminalia beleriac*) and *karam*. *Bharati* (*Gymnosporia montana*), *chilati* (*Mimosa rubicaulis*), *khair*, *bor* and *Anjan* are found in the understory.

Understocked and blank areas.—Such areas are common and comprise about 50 per cent of the forest areas and lie interspersed all over. This occurrence is particularly due to the shallow soil with the outcrop of the rocks at the surface.

Bamboo Forests.—This does not belong to a separate type but occurs along the *nala* valleys and the easy slopes of the hills. The area under bamboos is, however, sparse and occurs in some of the block of Ambabarwa, Wasali, Saikheda and Chunkhedi in Jalgaon Range of Buldhana division. Bamboos due to great value and demand from the cultivators have been planted successfully in the Ambabarwa Reserved Forests of the Buldhana division.

Forest products.—Forest products of this division are divided in two main classes, i.e., major and minor. The chief major forest products are timber and firewood. Almost all good quality timber is consumed by the timber markets at Aurangabad and Bombay. The firewood is consumed locally at Buldhana and places around. Due to inadequate means of communications, however, complete exploitation of all forest produce is rendered impossible.

There are no forest based industries in this division. The present logging method is also very wasteful. Due to non-availability of adequate labour mechanical devices would have to be used for working these forests intensively. Timber and firewood are derived out of the coupes due for working. These coupes are advertised for sale and are sold by public auction. The coupes are also marked through the forest labourers co-operative societies on the formula basis.

The minor forest products are mainly *temburni* leaves, *rosa* oil and gum which are sold by public auctions. Some minor products like grass are sold on rated passes.

WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS

The forests of Buldhana district extend over Mehkar, Chikhli, Jalgaon (Jamod), Khamgaon and Malkapur tahsils. They are scattered in small blocks where they extend to sizeable areas.

Some wild animals and birds of the following categories are found. In most of the areas hardly any game is noticed except rabbit or fox.

Tiger or Sher.—It is usually confined to remote hilly areas and dense forests. In the summer the tiger takes refuge in cool and secluded places in the vicinity of stagnant pools of water which are not generally haunted by human beings. The most favourable habitat of the tigers is Ambabarwa reserved forest area and Matargaon reserved forest area, respectively.

The tigers found in the district are of medium size measuring up to 8'. They help to keep down the bursting population of deers and wild pigs under biotic control. A stray village cattle is frequently a victim of these tigers. Man-eaters are practically nil.

Panther: (*Panthera pardus*).—These are found in similar localities as that of tigers and frequently in the forests adjoining the villages. They are large in number as compared to tigers. Lifting of young ones of cattle by panthers is very common throughout the Division. The size of a panther is from small to fairly big.

The sloth bear—Bhalu or Aswal (*Melursus Ursinus*).—It is rare in this district and is confined to cut up valleys with cool hiding places in the Ambabarwa reserved forest area in Jalgaon range.

Nilgai (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*).—It is common all over the district and found in open forests.

Sambar (*Cervus unicolor*).—It is found in small numbers in the denser parts of the district e.g., Ambabarwa and Matargaon blocks. The *sambars* generally damage the crops near the forests and plantation areas.

Chital (*Cervus axis*).—These are found in the forests all over the district, particularly, in the larger blocks of Ambabarwa.

Wild boar.—They are found all over the forest blocks of fairly big size in herds and do a lot of damage to the crops in adjoining forests.

Hare are commonly noticed throughout the district. Other small game consists of Peafowl (*Pavo cristatus linnaeus*), Kabutar (*columba intermedia*), Teetar (*Pterocles*), Black Partridge or (Kala Teetar) (*Francolinus Linnaeus*), Painted Partridge (*Francolinus pictus Jardine and Salby*), Grey Partridge or *Safed teetar* (*Francolinus Pondicerianna Gmelin*) common or Grey quail (*coturnix contunix Linnaeus*) and the Black breasted or rain quail (*coturnix coromandelica Gmelin*), Batar (*contanise communis*).

FISH AND FISHERIES

Water Resources.—The district is traversed by the river Purna and its principal tributaries, viz., the Nalganga, the Vishwaganga and the Gyanganga from the south and the Banganga from the north, and by the river Penganga, constituting together a length of 390 km of fluvial waters.

Impounded water resources comprise 34 tanks having a total water-spread area of 2,150 hectares, including the Nalganga reservoir admeasuring nearly 1,100 hectares.

Fishes which are commonly found in the water resources of the district are as follows:—

Scientific name (1)	Local name (2)
1. Carps and Barbs :	
Family CYPRINIDAE	
<i>Oxygaster clupeoides</i> (Bl.)	Chela.
<i>Rasbora daniconius</i> (Ham.)	Kanheri.
<i>Puntius ticto</i> (Ham.)	Karwadi.
<i>P. Kolus</i> (Sykes)	Kolshi.
<i>Labeo calbasu</i> (Ham.)	Kanoshi.
<i>L. bata</i> (Ham.)	Bata, Nawari.
<i>L. rohita</i> (Ham.)	Rohu.
<i>Catla catla</i> (Ham.)	Catla.
<i>Cirrhina mrigala</i> (Ham.)	Mrigal.
2. Razor fishes :	
Family NOTOPTERIDAE	
<i>Notopterus notopterus</i> (Pallas)	Patula.
3. Loaches :	
Family COBITTIDAE	
<i>Lepidocephalichthys guntea</i> (Ham.)	Gurgutchi.
4. Cat fishes :	
Family SILURIDAE	
<i>Wallago attu</i> (Schn.)	Shirda, Sarvada.
Family SACCOBRANCHIDAE	
<i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i> (Bl.)	Singhan.
Family CLARIIDAE	
<i>Clarias batrachus</i> (L.)	Wagur.
5. Snake headed fishes :	
Family OPHIOCEPHALIDAE (CHANNIDAE)	
<i>Channa striatus</i> (Bl.)	Dhok.
<i>C. marulius</i> (Ham.)	Phool murrel.
<i>C. gachua</i> (Ham.)	Bilona.
<i>C. punctatus</i> (Ham.)	Botri.
6. Glass fishes :	
Family AMBASSIDAE	
<i>Ambassis ranga</i> (Ham.)	Zanjedi.

7. Gobies :

Family GOBIIDAE

Glossogobius giuris (Ham.) Ghasra.

8. Garfishes :

Family BELONIDAE

Xenentodon cancila (Ham.) Chacha machhi.

9. Spiny eels :

Family MASTOCEMBELIDAE

Mastocembelus pancalus Bam.

M. armatus Wair.

The bulk of the fish catch comprises major carps, viz., *Catla*, *Rahu* and *Mrigal*, which have been cultured in some of the water resources of the district, and murals and cat fishes.

Marketing of fish is mostly carried out by the fishermen themselves by transporting the catch either by State Transport buses or by rail, from the catching centres to the fish markets.

Fishing gear and Craft.—*Cast net* or "*Bhowar Jal*".—It is a circular net, with meshes varying from 1 cm to 2 cm. It is fabricated out of cotton or nylon twine, and is furnished with lead or iron sinkers at the periphery which is tucked or folded inside to form a continuous fold or pocket in which fishes are caught.

Drag net or "*Tangad*" or "*Zorle*".—This net is also made of cotton or nylon twine, having a length of 9 to 10 metres, and mesh-size ranging from 2 cm to 3 cm. Several such pieces may be joined together, as required for dragging the net through water.

Gill net or "*Atki Jal*".—This net used to be made of cotton twine formerly. Lately, fishermen have realised the advantages of synthetic materials and have started using nylon nets.

This "*Atki Jal*" is the most important fishing gear. The net consists of several pieces joined together, each piece admeasuring 20 to 30 metres in length, 3 to 5 metres in width, with mesh varying from 5 cm to 12 cm, depending on the type of fishes to be caught. The net is provided with a head rope bearing floats, and a foot rope bearing lead-sinkers.

Craft.—Fishermen use locally constructed plank boats, empty and airtight oil drums, tied together with ropes, to serve as an improvised craft, for operating their fishing gear.

Fishermen.—Fishing villages are scattered mostly along the banks of the rivers Purna and Penganga. Most of the fishermen belong to Kahar and Dhiwar communities. Although fishing is their main occupation, preparation of "*phutana*" and "*murmura*", and cultivation of water-melons are their subsidiary means of livelihood.

Development Activities.—With a view to increasing the production of fish within the district and improving the socio-economic condition of the fishermen, the Department of Fisheries established an office in 1962 for the district, with one Fisheries Assistant in charge, who works under the Superintendent of Fisheries, Akola. Fish culture has been given considerable importance. As the water resources of the district were lacking in the availability of quick growing varieties such as *Catla*, *Rohu* and *Mrigal*, the tanks in the district are being surveyed with a view to bringing about as much area of water surface as possible under the culture of these three types of fishes. Intensification of stocking of fry or fish-seed of these fishes, is being undertaken every year. Attempts are also being made to explore the production of fish-seed within the district, by undertaking the artificial method of breeding the fishes.

The total area of water that has been brought under pisciculture until 1969, was 1,570 hectares. The tanks which are being stocked with fry of major carps by the Department are Sangam tank (2.4 hectares), Yarkhed tank (43 hectares) and Nalganga reservoir (1,100 hectares). Technical assistance and requisite facilities are also extended for undertaking pisciculture in tanks belonging to various grampanchayats, municipal committees and interested pisciculturists. In the socio-economic field, the efforts are made to bring the fishermen of the district under the co-operative fold, so as to take advantage of different schemes of development and financial assistance to the fish trade. There are, at present, 5 fishermen's co-operative societies in the district with a total membership of 105, and a total share capital of Rs. 5,650.

Financial assistance is granted by way of subsidy on the purchase of fishery requisites such as nylon and cotton twine. The co-operative societies and private fish-culturists get rebate on the procurement of the carp fry. The financial assistance is also granted by way of loan and subsidy for construction of rearing and nursery tanks, desilting and renovating tanks and screening of the outlets—all measures eventually undertaken towards increased production of fish and socio-economic welfare of the fishermen of the district.

SNAKES.*

The typical setting of the district, its physiography and climate make the district an ideal spot for snake fauna. The district has been known to possess a number of snakes.

Following are some of the snakes in the district:—

Poisonous—Cobra, coral snake, Russels viper, saw-scaled viper, common krait, banded krait, and pit vipers.

Non-poisonous—Wolf snake, painted bronze-back, banded-racer, rat-snakes, mandarin snake, trinket snake, sand-boas, python, rough-tailed snake, blind snake, bridal snake, checkered keel back, whip-snake, etc.

Poisonous Snakes.—*Cobra (Naja naja)*.—This snake is found all over the district. This snake is either brown or blackish. In the latter case it is called "Domi". This is the only snake that has a hood, which may have on the back side a binocellate mark or there may be no mark at all. Behind the eyes it has three small scales, the third upper lip scale touching the eye and nostril, and there is a small triangular scale between the 4th and 5th lower lip scales.

Locally it is called "Naag" and the brown variety is often quoted to be seen as red. This is seen more during nights, and comes into habitations in search of its food, viz., rats and frogs. The fangs do not have a complete tunnel and the teeth being fixed cannot always give a good bite and a full dose of venom. The venom is neurotoxic and it requires 12 milligrams of a dose to make it lethal for a victim. The surest remedy is an anti-venin. The maximum length of the snake is 5'-6".

Coral snake (Callophis melanurus).—This snake is locally called "raat" or "lal-saanp". It is found in the Jalgaon-Jamod area of the district. It is brown above and pink below. The scales are speckled with brown, forming a series of longitudinal lines all along the body. The head and neck are black above with yellow spots. It does not grow beyond 2 feet and the poison is neurotoxic.

Common Krait (Bungarus caeruleus).—It is locally called "karayat" or "manyar". It is steel blue with single or double white lines across the body. The central row of dorsal scales are big and hexagonal. The scales beyond the vent to the tip of tail are complete. It is a very timid snake and mostly seen in crevices. The poison is neurotoxic and only 6 milligrams are sufficient to make it a fatal dose. It breeds during rainy season by laying eggs. Its maximum length, generally reaches 4 feet.

Banded Krait (Bungarus fasciatus).—This snake is found in the forest regions round Jalgaon. It is 5 feet long and yellow in colour with deep blue thick cross stripes all over the body. The tail is blunt. This snake feeds on the other snakes and people encourage the presence of this snake. Locally it is called "Satranjya". It has hexagonal scales on the dorsal side.

Russels viper (Vipera russelli).—Locally it is called "Ghonas". This brown snake with three rows of elliptical deep brown spots, has a triangular head with tiny scales and hisses very persistently. Normally it remains coiled up in shade, keeping the head at the centre of the coils. When disturbed it throws the head forward, taking a lever like action from the coils. It is seen to strike from behind also. It grows to 5 feet in length and lays about 25 young ones at a time within a period of two days during June-July. The poison is vasotoxic and it causes swelling of the area too. The lethal dose of the venom of this snake is 15 milligrams only.

Saw Scales viper (Echis carinatus).—It is locally called "phufrap", or "Phoorsa". The snake is 18 inches long, has a triangular head with a faint grey arrow mark, and the body bears brownish reticulate cross patches. It moves by a side winding

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

motion, due to which from the serrated scales at the sides emanates a hissing like sound. It feeds on insects, scorpions, lizards and young frogs. The breeding season is in July. The lethal dose of venom of this snake is 8 milligrams. The victim does not succumb to the bite, but starts bleeding from gums, nose, kidney after a lapse of 12 hours and death is due to secondary complications.

Pit-vipers (Trimerisurus gramineus).—This green snake, measuring two feet is found in forest area on trees. It has a triangular head which bears a pit near the nasal opening. The pit perceives heat and other chemo-receptive sensations. It is seen in areas with bamboo plantations.

Non-Poisonous.—*Typhlops braminus.*—This blind snake is found all over the district. It is small and thin not growing beyond 12 inches. Its body scales cover each other in an imbricate fashion. There is no distinction between the upper and lower body scales. The head is not distinguishable from the body and it bears two very tiny dark marks indicating the place, where the eyes would have been. It is often mistaken to be an earthworm. The only difference between the two is that the latter has no scales. The snake generally feeds on decaying matter and is found near gardens and human habitations.

Uropeltis macrolepis.—These rough-tailed snakes are purple-brown, with light margins to each scale, and yellowish stripe running along the sides up to the lips. The tail is blunt and ends in a rhomboidal pattern with sharp scales. Met with in hilly regions, the snake grows to 12 inches, has eyes, mandibular teeth, and moves about under vegetation feeding on worms, slugs, etc.

Python molurus.—The python is found at many places in the district. It some times grows to about 18 feet in length and may weigh as much as 100 kg. The head is pinkish and bears a lancet shaped brown mark. The body is brown with ash and cream coloured variegated patterns. It is the biggest Indian snake that kills its prey by constriction. Locally it is called "Ajgar".

Eryx conicus.—Locally known as "Durkya Ghonas" this small 3 feet long snake is often mistaken to be the young one of a python. It lies half-buried in soil and has no lancet mark on the head. The colour pattern is different; it is more grey and brown and generally it lies coiled up with the head in the centre. There is another variety *Eryx gohnis* which is deep brown and has no colour patterns. It is very docile.

Elephe helena (Trinket snake).—The snake is light or dark brown above with dark brown or dark cross bars containing white marks which are more conspicuous anteriorly, and is on the sides more or less black, a pattern which disappears gradually on the hinder part of the body. Its general colour is brown above with a broad dark stripe on each side, a black vertical streak below the eye, and an oblique one behind it.

Ptyas mucosus.—This snake is locally called "Dhaman" and often grows to about 10 feet in length. The colour is light

yellow or brown and scales near and below the neck as well as in the hind region are edged with black borders. It has the peculiar habit of twining by its tail and tie a knot for pulling the prey. It also gives foul odour from the glands in the hind region. Many times it is seen climbing on trees and often comes inside human habitations in search of its prey, viz., frogs and rats.

Colouber Gracilis.—This snake is light greyish and brown above with indistinct narrow white cross bars at the sides. People call it "Mati-khaya". It grows to about 93 cm in length and is very common in the district.

Liopeltis Calamaria.—This small snake growing to 40 cm is greenish above and has the scales usually edged with black showing a distinctly longitudinal line, the most conspicuous being on each side of the vertebral column. It is generally found at higher altitudes.

Coronella brachyura.—This is another variety of local "Mati-khaya" snake found in the district. It is olive brown with indistinct light variegations on the anterior half of body and head, with whitish lower parts. It grows to 50 cm in length and is 10 cm in diameter.

Oligodon Venustus.—This greyish brown wolf snake with irregular oval and rhomboidal paired blackish spots is known as "kawdya" and quite often met within gardens near houses. It is about 50 cm in length and feeds upon small mammals, lizards, and skinks.

Chrysopelia ornata.—This green snake is generally found near about forests. It is blackish with greenish yellow cross-markings on the body. The green colour deepens gradually with the passage of time. It feeds on geckoes, lizards, small mammals as well as birds. It crushes the prey in its coils and gulps. Growing to a length of 100 cm, it can climb perpendicular trees and jump in such a fashion so as to create an impression of a flight.

Lycodon flavomaculatus.—This is a true wolf snake that grows to 40 cm and is sometimes within residential quarters. It is also called "Kawdya" locally, and shows brown colour above with a network of white lines. Its lower side is white and the scales are edged with brown. A slightly bigger species *Lycodon aulicus* is also found in the district. This is greyish brown and has 12—19 white cross bars on the body which bifurcate laterally enclosing triangular patches. The upper lips are white spotted with brown.

Natrix piscator.—This is the local "pan diwad", found near water accumulations. It grows to 90 cm in length. Its body is brown and has on it checker board type of markings. Its neck has lateral black stripes and two lines in black run in the direction of the eyes. It is essentially the snake of the plains and low altitudes. It generally feeds on fishes, frogs, etc.

Natrix stolata.—It is the most common snake in the district especially during the monsoon season. It is locally known as

"*Seeta-ki-lat*" or *Naneti*. It is blue green with black spots intersected by two dorso lateral yellow or buff stripes. The hinder part of stripes has black spots. It is a very docile snake and does not grow beyond 50 cm.

Micropisthodon plumbicolor.—This grass green snake has V shaped marks on the neck, with a black stripe from eye to mouth and transverse black spots or cross bars on the back of the tail. The markings disappear with the passage of time. It is 48 to 50 cm long, and when provoked tries to erect its head like a cobra.

Boiga Triagonata.—The snake is light yellowish or greyish above and is speckled with darker vertebral series of large light black edged angularly shaped spots connected by a cross line. On its head there are light symmetrical markings sometimes edged with black. It has a light stripe from eye to the angle of the jaw. It is a very common snake growing to 30 cm and sometimes assumes an attitude of defiance by raising the head from the neck region. The stripes at the sides give the impression of a hood when it tries to flatten the neck.

Psammophis bithi.—The snake is light yellow above with 4 dark brown longitudinal stripes. The median pair is bordered with black spots and the stripe extends beyond the eyes. It has small median stripes on the head too. It grows to 80 cm and is often mistaken for *Natrix stolala*.

Dryophis nasutus.—It is called "*harantol*". Its colour is parrot green and the head projects into a long snout. It remains hanging from tree branches with the head away from body coils. This slender snake growing to 152 cm is supposed to hypnotise anyone climbing a tree, where it lies motionless. Its food consists of birds, eggs and lizards.

CHAPTER 2 — HISTORY*

ANCIENT PERIOD

Early History.—As NO EXPLORATION OR ARCHAEOLOGICAL EXCAVATION HAS YET BEEN UNDERTAKEN IN THIS DISTRICT we have no definite knowledge of the prehistoric and proto-historic periods of its history; but this district forms a part of Vidarbha and excavations have recently been done at Kundinpur in the Amravati District and Pavnar in the Wardha District of Vidarbha. Though their detailed reports have not yet been published, we get some idea of the earliest habitations in Vidarbha from the short accounts of these excavations that have appeared in the papers. They are of the Chalcolithic period. It appears, however, that the Wainganga region was first occupied in the Early Stone Age. Though statigraphical evidence is still lacking, tools of trap rock such as cleavers, scrapers and hand-axes have been found in the Wainganga valley. From there the palaeographic culture seems to have passed to other regions of Vidarbha. Such neolithic stone age implements as the perforated hammer have been found at Kundinpur.

The earliest period known from excavations at Kundinpur and Pavnar is the Chalcolithic or Early Bronze Age. It is evidenced by refined microliths in association with orange-coloured pottery, painted with red or black bands. The characteristic features of this period as brought to light in the excavations in Vidarbha and other parts of Maharashtra such as Nasik, Newasa and other places may be described as follows¹:—

"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 sides on the banks of rivers were chosen for settlements. The huts were small, measuring about 10 ft. by 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. Their houses were furnished with large and small storage jars, bowls (*vatis*) and vessels (*lotas*) 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

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

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

¹ Summarised from Dr. H. D. Sankalia's *Indian Archaeology Today*, p. 88 f

(wild) 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 mutton, pork, venison and river fish. Hunting and animal grazing formed their occupations.

They buried their dead within the house floor or outside. The children were buried in wide-mouthed jars. The adults were buried full length in a large jar; if the latter was found to be short, another pot was used for covering the knees. Sometimes the body lying in an extended position was covered by not less than five pots. 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 fresh influx of people with knowledge of iron, agriculture and town-planning.

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".

In Nagpur, Bhandara and Chandrapur districts of Vidarbha we have vestiges of the megalithic culture in the form of dolmens and other sepulchral monuments. In the Bhandara District they are noticed at Pimpalgaon, Tilota, Khairi and Brahmi. In the Nagpur District they have been found in eighteen places such as Junapani, Kamptee, Takalghat and Wathora. They have not yet been reported from the Buldhana District. Some of these megalithic monuments were opened first by Pearson and then by Hislop, but their detailed reports are not available. They are yet to be excavated and studied scientifically. Hislop described them as follows :—

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

"These monuments, though every one of them is some kind of a tomb, are not primary burials. Almost all are secondary burials, that is, the bodies after death were left exposed to beasts and weather and it was only later that the remains that were left were collected together and were buried in a pot (called urn) or a chest-like stone (rectangular cist), but if above ground and in the shape of a table with one huge capstone covering three or four upright stones it was called "a dolmen" or "dolmenoid

cist", or a legged oblong vessel with most important possessions of the dead—iron weapons and tools, shell ornaments, semi-precious beads, pots of various shapes and horse-bits and occasionally coins.....The fact that pits were prepared for secondary burials and then enclosed by large slabs of stones and the whole finally surrounded by a circle of stones implies a fairly well established and prosperous social organisation.

As for the identity of these megalithic builders, Haimendorf suggested that they were a people of mediterranean stock who probably came to western coast by sea, entered South India in about 500 B.C. and spread northwards subduing the earlier neolithic microlithic people who were in a semi-nomadic, food-gathering stage of culture. Further, since the distribution of South Indian megaliths was almost coterminous with that of the Dravidian languages, it is this people who should have introduced the Dravidian language (or languages) in the region. And it is their kings—the Cholas, Cheras and Pandyas—to whom the Ashokan edicts were addressed. Thus, the ancient Tamil should go back to about 500 B.C.

These speculations, though interesting, have not yet been accepted by scholars; for the chalcolithic people were not ignorant of the practice of burying the dead in pits or pots and could boast of a settled life in which, besides polished stone-axes, spouted and other pots played an important part and the people had some idea of life after death. Credit must, however, be given to these megalithic people for introducing iron and perhaps irrigation also".¹

We shall next see what light is thrown on this period by literary sources. In the Buldhana District there are some places like Lonar and Mehkar about which legends have been recorded in the *Puranas*. The town of Lonar is, for instance, believed to have been founded in the *Kritayuga*, thousands of years ago. According to the *Skandapurana*, the giant Lavanasura lived in a subterranean abode from which he issued to devastate the surrounding country, even aspiring to wage war against the gods themselves. They becoming alarmed, petitioned Vishnu to destroy him and he, assuming the form of a beautiful youth—Daityasudana—and having won by his beauty the assistance of the giant's two sisters, discovered his abode. With a touch of his toe he is said to have unearthed the giant, and having overcome him in a single combat, buried him in the pit which was his home. The present lake at Lonar is said to be the den of the giant, and a conical hill near the village Datephal, some 36 miles to the south-west, is said to be the lid of the giant's den which Vishnu covered with his toe. The water of the lake is supposed to be the blood and the salt which it contains, the decomposed flesh of the giant. A similar legend is told about the town Mehkar also in this district. It is said that many thousand years ago there lived a demon named Meghankara, who, like Lavanasura, threatened even the

¹Loc. Cit.

gods. Vishnu, appearing in the form of Sharangadhara, put the demon to death and the present town of Mehkar is the scene of the fight.¹ Both these legends are evidently without any historical basis and were plainly concocted in the *Puranas* to account for the place-names Lonar and Mehkar. There are indeed old temples at both these places, but they are of the mediaeval age.

On the other hand, the mythical story of the sage Agastya and the Vindhya mountain will be found to reveal some historical events if we read between the lines. 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 Godavari. This memorable event is corroborated 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 the different regions of the south. The cluster of hermitages on the bank of the Godavari was called *Jana-sthana* to distinguish it from the surrounding forest country. The region to the south of the Godavari was inhabited by the aborigines who are called *Rakshasas* in the *Ramayana*. "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".²

We learn from the *Ramayana* that Rama, accompanied by his brother Lakshmana and wife Sita, met Agastya near the Godavari. The hermitage of the sage is, by tradition, located at Akola in the Ahmednagar District, but from the *Uttararamacharita* of Bhavabhuti it appears to have been situated on the Murala (modern Mula), which was then probably a direct tributary of the Godavari. Agastya presented Rama with a bow and two quivers and advised him to settle down at a place called Panchavati from the five great banyan trees which grew there. Even now there are some caves near Panchavati on the Godavari, which go by the name of Sita-gumpha or Sita's Cave, and which have in a large niche in the back wall the images of Rama, Lakshmana and Sita. Here Rama is said to have lived for some

time and killed many *Rakshasas* who were harassing the sages. From here Sita was abducted by the demon king Ravana, which ultimately led to the invasion of Lanka by Rama with the help of the monkey hosts.

Janasthana and Panchavati were situated on the fringe of the great forest called Dandakaranya, the story of which is narrated in the *Uttarakanda* of the *Ramayana*. We are told that a large country was founded north of the Godavari by Vidarbha, the son of Rishabhadeva. His capital was Kundinapura in the Amravati District. Agastya married a princess of this country, Lopamudra by name. Agastya is the seer of some hymns of the *Rigveda*. His wife Lopamudra is mentioned in *Rigveda*, I, 179, 4. The *Ramayana* states that Danda or Dandaka, son of Ikshvaku and grandson of Manu, ruled over the country between the Vindhya and Shaivala mountains with his capital at Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time he violated the daughter of the sage Bhargava. The sage then cursed the king that his whole kingdom would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country between the Vindhya and Shaivala mountains extending over a thousand *yojanas* was consequently turned into a great forest, which, since then, came to be known as Dandakaranya. It was in this forest that the Shudra ascetic Shambuka was practising penance. According to the notions of those days, this was an irreligious act and so Rama beheaded him and revived the life of a Brahmana boy who had died prematurely. The place where Shambuka was beheaded is still shown on the hill of Ramtek, about 28 miles from Nagpur.¹ In the *Uttararamacharita* Bhavabhuti tells us that the Dandaka forest extended southward from this place up to *Janasthana* on the Godavari.

The central part of the Deccan was divided into several countries known by different names. The region on the north of the Godavari, now included in the Aurangabad District, was known by the name of Mulaka. This country together with its capital Pratishthana (modern Paithan) is mentioned in Pali literature. Pratishthana later became the capital of the Satavahanas. It is mentioned in some ancient inscriptions such as those at Pitalkhora and also by Ptolemy and the *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea*. As it lay on the trade-route from Tagara in the south to Ujjayini in the north and Shurparaka (modern Sopara in the Thana District) in the west, it was a flourishing city. To the north of Mulaka lay the country of Rishika, now called Khandesh. Along the southern bank of the Godavari extended the country of Ashoka (Pali, Assaka), which comprised the modern Ahmadnagar and Bid Districts. Later, this region came to be included in the country of Kuntala, which extended far to the south. It comprised what is now known as the Southern Maratha Country as well as Northern Karnataka. In an inscriptional passage² the upper valley of the Krishna is said to be included in the Kuntala

¹ Buldana District Gazetteer (Old ed.), p. 435.

² Muir's *Original Sanskrit Texts*, Vol. V.

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology* Vol. I, p. 18 f.

² *Ep. Ind.* Vol. XII, p. 153.

country. In the *Udayasundarikatha* of Sodhdhala (11th century A. D.) Pratishthana on the Godavari is said to be the capital of the Kuntala country. In early times Kuntala was probably included in the large country called Maharashtra. The Aihole inscription (7th cen. A. D.), speaks of three Maharashtra, which probably included Vidarbha, Western Maharashtra and Kuntala. In later times Kuntala came to denote the predominantly Kanarese country now included in the Mysore State. It is described as the seven and a half lakh province. The Early Chalukyas of Badami and the later Chalukyas of Kalyani were known as the Kuntale-shvaras or the Lords of Kuntala. In early times, however, the districts of Kolhapur, Satara, Solapur, Ahmadnagar and Bid, which are now Marathi speaking, were included in Kuntala. As we shall see later, the Early Rashtrakutas who were ruling over this territory, were known as Kuntaleshas (Lords of Kuntala).

Mauryas.—Coming to historical times, we find that all this country was included in the Empire of Ashoka. An inscription issued by the *Dharmamahamatra* of Ashoka has been found at Devtek, in the Chandrapur District of Vidarbha. It was issued in the fourteenth regnal year of Ashoka. It interdicts the capture and killing of animals¹. The Buldhana District, like other parts of Vidarbha was undoubtedly included in the Empire of Ashoka. Again, the fifth and thirteenth rock-edicts of Ashoka mention the Rashtrika-Petenikas and the Bhoja-Petenikas. According to many scholars the Petenikas were the inhabitants of Pratishthana in the Aurangabad District. The Rashtrikas ruled as Maharathis in the Deccan and the Bhojas held Vidarbha. It seems that the full set of fourteen rock-edicts of Ashoka was engraved at Sopara (ancient Shurparaka, the capital of Konkan) in the Thana District. One of these edicts was found several years ago and recently a fragment of Edict I has been discovered in its vicinity.

According to the Buddhist Chronicles *Dipavamsa* and *Mahavamsa* of Ceylon, the third Buddhist Council was held at Pataliputra under the presidentship of Moggaliputta-Tissa in the seventeenth regnal year of Ashoka. After the Council was over, Tissa sent missionaries to different countries for the preaching of Buddhism. Of these Dharmarakshita was sent to Aparanta (Konkan) and Mahadharmarakshita to Maharashtra. From the *Mahavamsa* we learn that Mahadharmarakshita propagated Buddhism in Maharashtra by narrating the story of the Narada-Kassapa Jataka to the people. As a result of this, eighty-four thousand were converted to Buddhism and thirteen thousand became monks. There is much exaggeration in this account, but there is no doubt that Buddhism was first introduced in Maharashtra in the reign of Ashoka. This led to the excavation of caves at Bhaja, Pitalkhora, Ajanta and other places. Pitalkhora and Ajanta lay on the trade-routes to Ujjayini in the north and Shurparaka in the west and so attained great prosperity.²

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

² *Ancient India*, (Arch. Deptt.), No. 15, p. 66 f.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in circa 184 B.C. the imperial throne in Pataliputra was occupied by *senapati* Pushyamitra, the founder of the Shunga dynasty. His son Agnimitra was appointed Viceroy of Malva and ruled from Vidisha, modern Besnagar, now a small village near Bhilasa. Vidarbha, which had seceded from the Maurya Empire during the reign of one of the weak successors of Ashoka, was then ruled by Yajnasena. He imprisoned his cousin Madhavasena, who was a rival claimant for the throne. The sister of Madhavasena escaped to Malva and got admission to the royal harem as a hand-maid to the queen Dharini under the name of Malavika. Agnimitra, who had espoused the cause of Madhavasena and had sent an army against the king of Vidarbha, fell in love with Malavika and married her. The Malava army defeated the king of Vidarbha and released Madhavasena. Agnimitra then divided the country between the two cousins, each ruling on one side of the Varada (Wardha). Buldhana was included in Western Vidarbha. The story of Malavika forms the plot of the Sanskrit play *Malavikagnimitra* of Kalidasa who does not state to what royal family Yajnasena and Madhavasena belonged and these names do not occur anywhere else. Still it is possible to conjecture that they may have been feudatories of the Satavahanas, who rose to power in the Deccan soon after the death of Ashoka. From the Hathigumpha inscription at Udayagiri near Bhuvaneshvara we learn that Kharavela, the king of Kalinga, who was a contemporary of Pushyamitra, sent an army to the western region, not minding Satakarni. The latter evidently belonged to the Satavahana dynasty as the name occurs often in that family. Kharavela's army is said to have penetrated to the river Kanhabenna and struck terror in the hearts of the people of Rishika. The Kanhabenna is evidently the river Kanhan, which flows about 10 miles from Nagpur and not the river Krishna as supposed by some scholars; for the latter flows not west but south-west of Udayagiri. Kharavela's army thus invaded Vidarbha. He knew that as the ruler of Vidarbha was a feudatory of king Satakarni, the latter would rush to his aid. When Vidarbha was thus invaded, the people of Rishika (Khandesh), which bordered Vidarbha on the west, were naturally terror-stricken. No actual engagement, however, seems to have taken place and the army returned to Kalinga, perhaps at the approach of the Satavahana forces.

Satavahanas.—Satakarni belonged to the Satavahana family. This family derived its name from king Satavahana, who rose to power soon after the death of Ashoka and had his capital at Pratishthana. It received support from local rulers called Maharathis, with whom it formed matrimonial alliances. This family is called Andhra in the *Puranas*; but that it originally hailed from Western Maharashtra is indicated by its earliest inscriptions which are found in the caves at Naneghat near Junnar and at Nasik. Its earliest coins issued by its founder Satavahana have been found at Aurangabad and in Vidarbha¹. In later times it extended its

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*—Vol. III, p. 1 f.

rule to Andhra as shown by its later inscriptions and coins found in that region. The *Puranas* call it Andhra evidently because it was ruling in that country when the *Purana* account was compiled in the early centuries of the Christian era.

Though Satavahana was the founder of the family, he is not mentioned in the *Puranas*. The first king of the Andhra (*i.e.*, Satavahana) dynasty mentioned in the *Puranas* is Simuka (Shrimukha), who is known also from a relievo statue in a cave at Naneghat. We do not know the extent of his kingdom, but it must have comprised at least the Pune, Nasik, Ahmadnagar and Aurangabad districts. When he ended his rule, his son Satakarni was a minor and so his brother Krishna ascended the throne. He has left an inscription in the cave which he got excavated for the Buddhist monks at Nasik. His Mahamatra, who is described as a Shramana of Nasik, is said to have caused it to be excavated. Krishna is described in this record as belonging to the Satavahana family. This indicates that he was not a son of Satavahana, but a grandson or some lower descendant.

The next ruler of the family was Satakarni I, who also is known from a relievo figure now mutilated in the aforementioned cave at Naneghat. He seems to have extended his rule over the whole of the Deccan and even carried his arms north of the Narmada. King Kharavela of Kalinga, who was his contemporary, sent an army to the west, not minding Satakarni, who is this very ruler. When the army reached Kanhabenna, which, as shown above, is probably identical with the Kanhan flowing near Nagpur, it struck terror in the hearts of the people of Rishika (Khandesh). There was no clash of arms on this occasion, but two years later, Kharavela probably penetrated further west as he claims to have received submission from the Rashtrikas and the Bhojakas, who were probably ruling in the Deccan as feudatories of the Satavahanas.¹

Satakarni performed the *Rajasuya* and *Ashvamedha* sacrifices (the latter twice), which probably commemorated his important victories or supremacy in the Deccan and had political significance. He performed also several other *Shrauta* sacrifices such as *Agnyadheya*, *Aptoryama*, *Dasharatra*, *Trayodasharatra*, *Angirasatriratra*, *Shataratra*, *Gavamayana* etc., all of which were marked by munificent gifts of horses, elephants and *Karshapanas*. They are recorded in a large but now sadly mutilated inscription in a cave at Naneghat.

Satakarni left behind two sons, Vedishri and Shaktishri, who are mentioned in the aforementioned Naneghat inscription. It was believed for a long time that this record was incised during the minority of the former prince when his mother Naganika was acting as a regent; but this view is now shown to be erroneous. The inscription describes her as one who fasted during a whole month, who, even in her home, lived the life of 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 wordly life and was devoting herself to religious practices. Such a lady is hardly likely to busy herself with the governing of an extensive kingdom like that of the Satavahanas. As a matter of fact, the inscription describes Vedishri as a very brave king, who was a unique warrior on the earth and was the lord of Dakshinapatha¹.

Vedishri was followed by a number of princes who are named in the *Puranas*, but about whom they furnish little information except their reign-periods, which also vary in different *Puranas* and even in the manuscripts of the same *Puranas*. But one name among them is noteworthy. It is that of king Hala, the reputed author of the *Gathasaptashati*, a unique collection of seven hundred Prakrit verses descriptive of the social, religious and economic life of the period. Hala flourished in the first century A. D.²

Some years after Hala's reign Maharashtra was conquered by the Shaka Kshatrapas. Nahapana, a Shaka Kshatrapa probably appointed by the contemporary Kushana Emperor, was ruling over Konkan, Pune, Nasik and some other districts of Maharashtra as well as some portion of Central India as far north as Ajmer. Several inscriptions of his son-in-law Ushavadata (Sanskrit, Rishabhadata) have been incised in the Pandu-lena caves near Nasik. Ushavadata was the son of Dinika and had married Dakshamitra, the daughter of Nahapana. These records in the Nasik caves describe the charities and conquests of Ushavadata, who was evidently governing Northern Maharashtra and Konkan on behalf of his father-in-law. We learn from them that Ushavadata gave away three hundred thousand cows, constructed ghats at the river Barnasa, gifted sixteen villages to gods and Brahmanas, fed a hundred thousand Brahmanas every year, got eight Brahmanas of Prabhasa or Somnath Patan married at his expense, constructed rest-houses, made gardens and tanks at Bharukachchha (Broach), Dashapura (Mandasor), Govardhana (near Nasik) and Shorparaga (Sopara), provided ferry-boats at the rivers Iba, Parada, Damana, Tapi, Karabena and Dahanuka and founded some benefactions in the village Nanangola for Brahmanas residing in Pinditakavada, Govardhana, Shorparaga and Ramatirtha. The same inscription further tells us that he marched to the north at the command of Nahapana and rescued the Uttamabhadras, who had been attacked by the Malayas (the Malavas) and then proceeded to the tirtha Pushkara near Ajmer and there bathed and gave three hundred cows and a village in charity. He got a cave excavated in the Trirashmi hill near Nasik and assigned it to the Buddhist monks. He invested large sums of *Karshapanas* 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 him³. In another inscription in the cave-temple at Karla

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 123 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 76 f.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 37 f.

he is said to have assigned the village Karajika for the maintenance of the Bhikshus living in the cave at Valuraka (Karla). Another inscription at Nasik records the gifts made by his wife Dakshamitra. In an inscription at Junnar Ayama, the Amatya of Nahapana, has recorded the gifts of a mandapa and a cistern evidently for the benefit of the monks living there. These inscriptions range in dates from the year 41 to 46, which are usually referred to the Shaka era. Nahapana, therefore, flourished in the first quarter of the second century A. D.

Vidarbha also was under the rule of another Mahakshatrapa named Rupiamma, whose pillar inscription was recently discovered at Pavni in the Bhandara District¹. It records the erection of a *chhaya-stambha* or sculptured pillar at the place. Buldhana was probably included in his dominion. The Satavahanas had therefore to leave Western Maharashtra and Vidarbha in this period. They seem to have repaired to their capital Pratishthana, where they continued to abide, waiting for a suitable opportunity to oust the Shaka invaders.

Later, Gautamiputra Satakarni retrieved the fortune of the family. He made a daring dash into Vidarbha and occupied Benakata or the Wainganga District. Thereafter, he invaded Western Maharashtra and defeated Nahapana somewhere in the Nasik district. This is shown by his inscription in one of the Nasik caves, wherein he is called Benakataka-svami or the Lord of Benakata (Wainganga District). He next extended his rule to a large part of the peninsula, as his charges are said to have drunk the water of the three oceans. The following provinces are specifically mentioned as comprised in his dominion: Rishika (Khandesh), Ashmaka (Ahmadnagar and Bid Districts), Akara and Avanti (Eastern and Western Malva), Suratha (Kathiavad), and Aparanta (Konkan). That his empire extended much further is shown by the description that the mountains Setagiri (Nagarjunikonda), Shristana (in the Karnul District) and Mahendra (between the Godavari and the Krishna) were situated in his kingdom.

After defeating Nahapana, Gautamiputra called back his silver coins and re-struck them. The hoard discovered at Jogaltembhi in the Nasik District contained more than 10,000 silver coins so re-struck. He himself issued a large number of potin coins with the figure of an elephant with the uplifted trunk on the obverse and the Ujjayini symbol on the reverse². In the hoard of potin coins found at Tarhala in the Akola district of Vidarbha out of nearly 1,200 coins as many as 575 were of Gautamiputra.

Gautamiputra Satakarni was succeeded by his son Vasishthiputra Pulumavi, who also ruled over a large kingdom, but seems to have lost some northern provinces such as Akaravanti (Malva) and Surashtra (Kathiavad) to the Kshatrapas. He is mentioned

by Ptolemy as ruling at Pratishthana. He was succeeded by his brother Vasishthiputra Satakarni, who married a daughter of the Shaka Kshatrapa Rudradaman I. Among his successors the most noteworthy was Yajnashri Satakarni, whose inscriptions and coins have been found over a large area. They show that he ruled over a large kingdom extending from Konkan in the west to Andhradesha in the east. He issued among other types the ship-type lead coins indicative of his rule over the maritime province of the Coromandal coast¹.

Within fifty years after Yajnashri Satakarni the rule of the Satavahanas came to an end. The Satavahanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early Satavahanas performed *Vedic* sacrifices and lavished gifts on the Brahmanas. Krishna, Gautamiputra Satakarni, Pulumavi and Yajnashri Satakarni excavated caves and donated villages to provide for the maintenance, clothing and medicine of the Buddhist monks. Several caves were excavated for the worship and residence of the Buddhist monks at Bhaja, Kondane, Karhad, Bedsa, Karla, Nasik, Junnar and Ajanta during the rule of the Satavahanas. The oldest of them is a small *vihara* excavated at Bhaja. It has no pillars in the hall; the principal ornaments are the dagoba, the chaitya arch and the rail pattern. There are stone beds in the cells, but no shrine or image of the Buddha. Many of the caves were excavated by private individuals. An inscription in cave IV at Pitalkhora, for instance, states that it was excavated by Krishna, the son of Samasa of Dhenukakata. Dhenukakata is mentioned in some other cave inscriptions also and is probably identical with Dahanu in the Thana District. The caves such as those at Pitalkhora which were excavated in the Satavahana period were decorated with various kinds of sculptures such as those of elephants, *yakshas*, *dvarapalas*, Gaja-Laksmi etc.². The earliest caves at Ajanta also belong to the Satavahana period. Two of them *viz.*, Caves IX and X being *chaityas* and two other Caves XII and XIII—*viharas*. The charity caves contain beautiful paintings.

The Satavahanas extended liberal patronage to Prakrit literature. According to a tradition recorded by Rajashekhara, a Satavahana king had forbidden the use of Sanskrit in his harem. As stated before, the *Gathasaptashati* or *Sattasai*, an anthology of 700 Prakrit verses is, by tradition, ascribed to Hala of this family. Another Prakrit work of this age was the *Brihatkatha* of Gunadhya. It was written in the Paishachi Prakrit. The original Prakrit work is not extant now, but two Sanskrit versions of it *viz.*, the *Kathasaritsagara* of Somadeva and the *Brihatkathamajari* of Kshemendra, are well known. Gunadhya was a native of Supratishtha, which, from some references in the grants of the Vakatakas, appears to have been situated in the Hinganghat tahsil of the Wardha District of Vidarbha. It may be identical with

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. IV, p. 109 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 38 f.

¹ *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 17 f.

² *Ancient India*, No. 15, p. 69 f.

the modern village Pothra situated on a small river of the same name which joins the Wardha¹.

During the age of the Satavahanas their capital Pratishthana attained a high level of prosperity. It was at the centre of the trade-routes from Tagara (modern Ter in the Osmanabad District) in the south to Ujjayini in the north, and to Nasik, Kalyan and Shurparaka in the west. The *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea* mentions both Tagara and Pratishthana as important trading centres in the south. From them various kinds of merchandise were taken to Barygaza (Broach). From Pratishthana a great quantity of onyx stone and from Tagara a plentiful supply of fine linen cloth and all kinds of muslins and mallow-coloured stuffs and several kinds of merchandise were carried by wagons to ports on the western coast. From Rome on the other hand, excellent wine in large amphoras was imported. Pieces of these amphoras have been noticed in the excavations at Pavnar in the Wardha District in the strata of the Satavahana period.

Abhiras.—About A. D. 250 the Satavahanas were supplanted by the Abhiras in Western Maharashtra and by the Vakatakas in Vidarbha. The founder of the Abhira Dynasty was *Rajan* Ishvarasena, the son of Shivadatta, who has left an inscription in Cave IX at Nasik. It records the investment of hundreds of *Karshapanas* in certain guilds at Nasik for providing medicines for the sick among the Buddhist monks residing in the *viharas* at Trirashmi (the Pandulena hill near Nasik).

Ishvarasena started an era commencing in A. D. 250, which later became known as the Kalachuri-Chedi era. The earlier dates of this era come from Western Maharashtra, Gujarat, Central India and Vidarbha. Judging by the expansion of this era Ishvarasena and his descendants seem to have ruled over a large territory comprising Gujarat, Konkan and Western Maharashtra. He was followed by nine other kings, whose names, unfortunately, do not occur in the *Puranas*. From a casket inscription discovered during excavations at Devni Mori in Gujarat we know the name of one of these kings as Rudrasena. His family name *Kathika* also has become known from the same source². Rudrasena was ruling in the year 127 of the Abhira era, corresponding to A. D. 376-77. Some feudatories of the Abhiras have become known from their copper-plate grants recently discovered³. They give the following genealogy:

Maharaja Svamidasa (Year 67)

Maharaja Bhulunda (Year 107)

Maharaja Rudradasa (Year 117)

These dates have to be referred to the Abhira era and correspond to A. D. 316-17, 356-57 and 366-67, respectively. These princes, who were evidently feudatories of the contemporary

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 65 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 120 f.

³ *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. 5 f.

Abhira kings, were ruling from Valkha, which is probably identical with Vaghli, a small village, 5 miles north by east of Chalisgaon in Khandesh. Most of the places mentioned in these copper-plate grants can be identified in the vicinity of Vaghli.

Another feudatory family also ruling from some place in Khandesh gives a long list of eleven princes mentioned in an inscription in cave XVII at Ajanta¹. The founder's name has been mutilated, but he seems to have ruled in *circa* A. D. 275—300 evidently as a feudatory of the Abhiras. The last of these princes whose name also has been lost, submitted to the Vakataka Emperor Harishena, whose name is mentioned in the aforementioned Ajanta Cave inscription. He was probably ruling in *circa* A. D. 475—500.

Traikutakas.—The Abhiras were later supplanted by their feudatories, the Traikutakas in *circa* A. D. 415. This royal family took its name from the mountain Trikuta, which borders the Nasik District on the west. The names of three Traikutaka kings *viz.*, Indradatta, Dahrasena and Vvaghrasena, have become known from their inscriptions and coins found in the Nasik District and Gujarat. Dahrasena performed an *Ashvamedha* and was, therefore, an independent king. He was succeeded by his son Vyaghrasena, who had to acknowledge the supremacy of the Vakataka king Harishena. The coins of both these kings have been found in Gujarat and Maharashtra. They have the head of the king on the obverse and the *chaitya* or hill with the sun to the left and the respective legend round the edge inside a circle of dots on the reverse².

Vakatakas.—After the downfall of the Satavahanas the Vakatakas rose to power in Vidarbha. This dynasty was founded by a Brahmana named Vindhyashakti I, who is mentioned in the *Puranas* as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajanta. His son Pravarasena I, called Pravira in the *Puranas*, ousted Shishuka, the daughter's son of the Naga king of Vidisha, who was ruling at Purika at the foot of the Rikshavat (Satpuda) mountain. Pravarasena ruled over an extensive part of the Deccan. He performed several *Vedic* sacrifices including four *Ashvamedhas* and assumed the title of *Samrat*. According to the *Puranas*, he ruled from the aforementioned city of Purika. He had four sons, among whom his extensive empire was divided after his death. Two of them 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 Ramtek in the Nagpur District. He had the powerful support of the King Bhavanaga of the Bharashiva family, who ruled from Padmavati in the former Gwalior State and who was his maternal grandfather. Rudrasena I, was a fervent devotee of Mahabhairava. He had, therefore, no regard for the *ahimsa* precepts of Ashoka. He got some portion of the aforementioned Devtek inscription of

¹ *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 120 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. cl.xxix f.

Ashoka's *Dharmamahamatra* chiselled off and had his own record incised in its place¹. The latter proclaims the construction of his *Dharma-sthana* (temple) at Chikkamburi (modern Chikmara near Devtek).

Rudrasena I, was followed by his son Prithivishena I, who ruled for a long time and brought peace and prosperity to his people. During his reign this branch of the Vakatakas became matrimonially connected with the illustrious Gupta family of North India. Chandragupta II-Vikramaditya, gave his daughter Prabhavati-gupta in marriage to Prithivishena's son Rudrasena II, probably after securing that Vakataka king's aid in his war with the Western Kshatrapas of Malva and Kathiavad. Rudrasena II, died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons, Divakarasena and Damodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II. As neither of them had come of age Prabhavati-gupta ruled as regent for the elder son Divakarasena for at least thirteen years. She seems to have been helped in the administration of the kingdom by the military and civil officers deputed by her father Chandragupta II. One of these was probably the great Sanskrit poet Kalidasa, who, while residing at the Vakataka capital Nandivardhana, must have often visited Ramagiri (modern Ramtek) which lay only three miles away. The theme of his excellent lyric *Meghaduta* seems to have suggested itself to him at this place².

Prabhavati-gupta has left us two copper-plate grants. The earlier of these, though discovered in distant Pune, originally belonged to the Wardha District of Vidarbha. It was issued from the then Vakataka capital Nandivardhana and records the dowager queen's grant of the village Danguna (modern Hinganghat) to a Brahmana after offering it to the feet of the Bhagavat (*i.e.*, the god Ramchandra) on the *Karttika Shukla dvadashi*, evidently after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhini Ekadashi*. Some of the boundary villages mentioned in the grant can still be traced in the vicinity of Hinganghat³. They are described as situated in the *ahara* (territorial division) of Supratishtha. The latter, which is also known as the original place of residence of the Prakrit poet Gunadhya, seems to have comprised roughly the territory now included in the Hinganghat tahsil.

Divakarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Damodarasena, who, on accession, assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of more than thirty-two 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 Prabhavati-gupta in the thirteenth regnal year is specially noteworthy. The plates recording the grant were issued from the feet of Ramagirisvamin (*i.e.*, the god Ramachandra)

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 114 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 19 f.

³ C. I. I., Vol. V., p. 6 f.

on the hill Ramagiri (modern Ramtek), and registers the grant which the queen-mother had made as on the previous occasion after observing a fast on the *Prabodhini Ekadashi*¹.

Pravarasena II, founded a new city, which he named Pravara-pura and where he shifted his capital some time after his eleventh regnal year. He built there a magnificent temple of Ramachandra 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 been discovered at Pavnar on the bank of the Dham and have led to the identification of Pravara-pura with Pavnar in the Wardha District².

Three copper-plate inscriptions of Pravarasena record his grants of villages in the Bhandara District of Vidarbha. The earliest of them was discovered at Shivani and records the gift of the village Brahmapuraka situated in the Bennakarparabhoga (*i.e.*, the Wainganga Division) in the eighteenth regnal year. Brahmapuraka and the adjoining village Karanjaviraka are identical with Bamhani and Karanja situated within 6 to 8 miles from Amgaon in the Bhandara District. The boundary villages Kollapuraka, Pavarajjavataka and Vatapuraka are known by the names of Kulpa, Parasvada and Vadgaon in the vicinity of Bamhani³. Another copper-plate inscription of Pravarasena II, was found at Tirodi in the adjoining district of Balaghat. It records the grant of the village Kosambakhanda situated in the *apara-patta* (western division) of Bennakata (or the Wainganga District). The donated village is identical with modern Kosamba, which lies only about 6 miles north-east of Tirodi⁴. Another set of plates discovered in September 1967 at Pavni in the Bhandara District records the grant which Pravarasena made in the thirty-second year of his reign. This is so far the last known grant of that Vakataka king.

Pravarasena II, is the reputed author of the *Setubandha*, a Prakrit *kavya* in glorification of Ramachandra. According to a tradition recorded by a commentator of this work, it was composed by Kalidasa, who ascribed it to Pravarasena by the order of Vikramaditya (*i.e.*, Chandragupta II). Pravarasena is also known as the author of some Prakrit *gathas*, which were later incorporated in the *Gathasaptashati*⁵.

Pravarasena II, was succeeded by this son Narendrasena, during whose reign Vidarbha was invaded by the Nala king, Bhavadattavarman. The latter penetrated as far as the Nagpur District and even occupied Nandivardhana, the erstwhile capital of the Vakatakas. The Riddhapur plates record the grant which Bhavadatta had made while on a pilgrimage to Prayaga. The

¹ *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 33 f.

² Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 272 f.

³ C. I. I., Vol. V, p. 28 f.

⁴ *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 48 f.

⁵ Mirashi *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 81 f.

plates were issued later from Nandivardhana, which was evidently his capital at the time. In this emergency the Vakatakas had to shift their capital again. They moved it to Padmapura near Amgaon in the Bhandara District. A fragmentary copper-plate inscription which was proposed to be issued from Padmapura has been discovered in the village Mohalla in the adjoining Durg District of Madhya Pradesh. This Padmapura is probably identical with the birth-place of the great Sanskrit playwright Bhavabhuti, who flourished there in a later age¹.

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Prithivishena II, who carried the war into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated their capital Pushkari, which was situated in the Bastar District. Prithivishena II, taking advantage of the decline of Gupta power, carried his arms north of the Narmada. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyaghrasena have been found in the former Ajaygad and Jaso States in Central India².

This elder branch of the Vakataka family came to an end in circa A. D., 480. The territory under its rule was thereafter included in the dominion of the other or Vatsagulma branch, to which we may now turn.

The Vatsagulma branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. The Buldhana district was evidently included in its dominion as its capital was at Vatsagulma, modern Basim (Vashim) in the adjoining Akola District. This branch also produced some brave and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of this branch, is well known as the author of the Prakrit *kavya*, *Harivijaya*, which has, for its theme, the bringing down of the *parijata* tree from heaven. This *kavya* has received unstinted praise, from several eminent rhetoricians like Anandavardhana³.

Sarvasena was followed by Vindhyaśent, called Vindhyaśakti II, in the Basim plates, which were issued in his 37th regnal year. The plates record the grant of a village situated in the northern *marga* (sub-division) of Nandikata (modern Nanded, the headquarters of the district of that name in the Marathwada Division)⁴.

Vindhyaśena pursued a vigorous policy and defeated the lord of Kuntala, who probably belonged to the Early Rashtrakuta dynasty of Manapura as shown below. Like his father and grandfather, he assumed the title of *Dharmamaharaja*. His Basim plates record the earliest known grant of the Vakatakas. The genealogical portion of this grant is written in Sanskrit and the formal portion in Prakrit. This shows how the classical language

¹ *Ibid*, Vol. I, p. 21 f.

² *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 89 f.

³ *Mirashi Studies in Indology* Vol. I, p. 114 f.

⁴ *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 101 f.

was gradually asserting itself under the patronage of the Vakatakas. All the earlier inscriptions of the Satavahanas are in Prakrit, while all the later grants of the Vakatakas are in Sanskrit.

Vindhyaśena was followed by his son Pravarasena II, about whom little is known. The Ajanta inscription says that he became exalted by his excellent, powerful and liberal rule. He seems to have had a short reign; for when he died, his son was only eight years old. The name of this boy-prince has been lost in the Ajanta inscription. He was followed by his son Devasena, whose fragmentary copper-plate inscription is now deposited in the India Office, London. Another record of his reign inscribed on stone was recently discovered near Basim. It is dated in the *Shaka* year 380 (A. D. 458-59) and records the excavation of a tank named Sudarshana by Svamilladeva, a servant of Devasena¹.

Devasena was succeeded in A. D. 475 by his son Harishena. He carried his arms in all directions. A mutilated verse in the inscription in Cave XVI at Ajanta states that he conquered Avanti (Malva) in the north, Kosala (Chhattisgarh), Kalinga and Andhra in the east, Lata (Central and Southern Gujarat) and Triakuta (Nasik District) in the west and Kuntala (Southern Maratha Country) in the south. He thus became the undisputed suzerain of the entire country from Malva in the north to Kuntala in the south and from the Arabian Sea in the west to the Bay of Bengal in the east.

Harishena is the last known Vakataka 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 in the last chapter of the *Dashakumara-charita* of Dandin, who flourished only about 125 years after the fall of the Vakatakas, seems to have preserved a living tradition about the last period of Vakataka rule². It seems that Harishena's son, though intelligent and accomplished in all arts, neglected the study of the Science of Politics (*Dandaniti*). 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 Ashmaka 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 Ashmaka instigated the king of Vanavasi (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 Varada (Wardha). But while he was fighting with the forces of the enemy, he was treacherously attacked in the rear by some of his own feudatories and was killed on the battlefield. Thus ended the

¹ *Dr. Mirashi Felicitation Volume*, p. 372 f.

² *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. xxxii f.

Vakataka dynasty after a glorious rule of two hundred and fifty years.

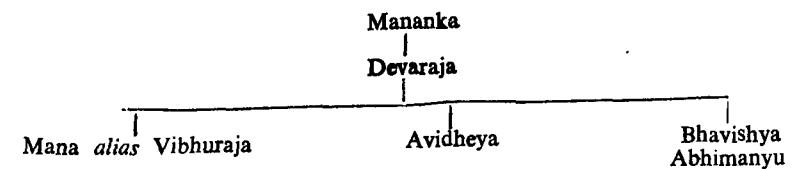
The Vakatakas were patrons of art and literature. In their age the Vaidarbhi *riti* came to be recognised as the best style of poetry and several excellent poetical works were then produced in Vidarbha. Kalidasa also adopted the same *riti* for his works. His *Meghaduta* was composed in Vidarbha as shown above. The Vakataka prince Divakarasena is credited with the composition of some Sanskrit verses, one of which is cited in the *Saduktakarnamrita* of Shridharadasa. Some Prakrit *kavyas* were also produced in this period, two of which *viz.*, the *Harivijaya* of Sarvasena and the *Setubandha* of Pravarasena have been mentioned above¹. Three of the caves at Ajanta, *viz.*, the two *vihara* Caves XVI and XVII and the *chaitya* Cave XIX were excavated and decorated in this period. Cave XVI was excavated by Varahadeva, a minister of the Vakataka king Harishena, and Caves XVII and XIX by a feudatory of the same, who was ruling in Khandesh. Caves XVI and XVII still contain several paintings in good condition. The artists seem to have done their work with a definite plan. The paintings in Cave XVI mostly describe the incidents in the last life of the Buddha, while those in Cave XVII generally describe events in his past lives. Cave XIX is one of the four *chaitya* caves at Ajanta. It is regarded as one of the perfect specimens of Buddhist art in India. Some more caves of the Vakataka age still exist at the village Gulvada, about 11 miles west of Ajanta. They are known as Ghatotkacha caves and were excavated, like Cave XVI at Ajanta, by Varahadeva, the minister of the Vakataka king Harishena. Several temples of Hindu gods and goddesses were also built in the Vakataka age. The ruins of a magnificent temple of Rama have been brought to view at Pavnar². Another was on the Ramagiri (Ramtek) hill. The others are known from references in copper-plate grants.

The feudatory family which got caves XVII and XIX excavated and decorated with sculptures and painting was ruling from some unknown place in Khandesh. As stated before, the name of the founder of this family is unfortunately lost in the Ajanta inscription. He probably flourished in *circa* A. D. 275—300. He was evidently a feudatory of the Abhiras. His successors, of whom ten are mentioned in the Ajanta inscription, seem to have continued to acknowledge the supremacy of the Abhiras till their downfall. Thereafter they transferred their allegiance to the Vakatakas. The eighth *ucchvasa* of the *Dasakumaracharita*, which reflects the last period of Vakataka rule, states that the king of Rishika (Khandesh) was a feudatory of the king of Vidarbha. After the fall of the Vakatakas, this family seems to have been overthrown by the Kalachuri king Krishnaraja.

Early Rastrakutas.—According to the *Puranas*, the Vakataka king Pravarasena had four sons, all of whom ruled as kings. As

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 96 f.
² *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 272 f.

stated before, the eldest of them was Gautamiputra, whose son Rudrasena I, established himself at Nandivardhana near Nagpur. The second son was Sarvasena, who ruled from Vatsagulma (Basim in the Akola District). Where the remaining two sons were ruling is not known, but one of them may have been ruling over the Southern Maharashtra. He seems to have been overthrown by Mananka, the founder of the Early Rashtrakuta 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 Maharashtra, we get the following genealogy¹:—



Mananka, the progenitor of the family, flourished in *circa* A.D. 350. He founded Manapura, 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 Krishna valley in ancient times. The places mentioned in some of the grants can be identified in the Satara and Sholapur Districts. Their capital Manapura is probably identical with Man, the chief town of the Man taluka of the Satara District.

These Rashtrakutas of Manapura came also into conflict with the Vakatakas of the Vatsagulma branch. The Pandarangapalli plates of Avidheya state that Mananka harassed the rulers of Ashmaka and Vidarbha. On the other hand, an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajanta states that the Vakataka King Vindhya-sena (*i.e.*, Vindhya-shakti II) defeated the king of Kuntala, who evidently belonged to this Rashtrakuta family.

From certain passages in the *Kuntaleshvaradautya*, a Sanskrit work ascribed to Kalidasa, which have been cited in the *Kavyamimamsa* of Rajashekhara, the *Shringaraprakasha* and the *Sarasvatikanthabharana* of Bhoja and the *Auchityavicharacharcha* of Kshemendra, we learn that the famous Gupta king Chandragupta II-Vikramaditya sent Kalidasa as an ambassador to the court of the king of Kuntala². Kalidasa was at first not well received there, but he gradually gained the Kuntalesha's favour and stayed at the royal court for some time. When he returned, he reported to Vikramaditya that the lord of Kuntala was spending his time in enjoyment, throwing the responsibility of governing the kingdom on him (*i.e.*, on Vikramaditya). This Kuntalesha was probably identical with Devaraja, the son of Mananka. Through the influence of Chandragupta II, the two royal families of the south *viz.*, the Vakatakas and the Early Rashtrakutas were reconciled

¹ Mirashi *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 178 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 1 f.

with each other. Later, Harishena, the last known Vakataka ruler, raided Kuntala and exacted a tribute from its king. It is noteworthy that in the eighth *uchchvasa* of the *Dashakumaracharita* the king of Kuntala is described as a feudatory of the king of Vidarbha.

Vishnukundins.—After the downfall of the Vakatakas in the beginning of the sixth century A. D. Vidarbha was occupied for some time by the Vishnukundin king Madhavavarman I. This is shown by the Vishnukundin coins found during excavations at Pavnar and also at some other places in Vidarbha. Madhavavarman I, was a very powerful king. He married a Vakataka princess who was probably a daughter or some near relative of the last known Vakataka Emperor Harishena. He took advantage of the opportunity afforded by the downfall of the Vakatakas and extended his kingdom far and wide. He performed several *Vedic* sacrifices including eleven *Ashvamedhas*. That he had brought even Western Maharashtra under his rule is shown by the copper-plate grant discovered at Khanapur in the Satara District¹. His grandson Madhavavarman II, describes himself as the Lord of Trikota and Malaya. So he may have ruled in Western Maharashtra for some time.

Kalachuris.—The Vishnukundins were, however, soon ousted from Maharashtra and Vidarbha by the Kalachuri king Krishnaraja. He rose to power about A. D. 550. He ruled from Mahishmati, modern Maheshvar in the former Indore State. His coins have been found over a very wide territory extending from Rajaputana in the north to Maharashtra in the south and from Konkan in the west to Vidarbha in the east. They resemble the silver coins of the Guptas and the Traikutakas, which were struck to the Graeco-Bactrian standard of the hemi-drachma. But while the Kshatrapa and Traikutaka coins have the symbols of the *chaitya* (or a hill), the sun and the moon, these coins of Krishnaraja 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-Maheshvara-mata-pitri-pad-anudhyata-Shri-Krishnaraja* meaning that the coin is of the illustrious Krishnaraja who is a devout worshipper of Maheshvara and who meditates on the feet of his mother and father². The coins were known as *Krishnaraja-rupakas* and have been mentioned in the Anjaneri plates dated in the year 461 of the Abhira era (corresponding to A. D. 710-11). They were, therefore, in circulation for at least 150 years after the time of Krishnaraja. These coins have been found at Dhamori in the Amravati District of Vidarbha. That Vidarbha was included in the Empire of Krishnaraja is also shown by the Nagardhan plates of his feudatory Svamiraja, dated in the year 322 (A. D. 573), of the Abhira era. The plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 312 f.

² *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. clxxx.

seems to have retained its importance even after the fall of the Vakatakas. Svamiraja, who issued the plates, probably belonged to the Rashtrakuta family.

Krishnaraja was succeeded by his son Shankaragana, whose copper-plate inscription was discovered at Abhona in the Nasik District. It is dated in the Abhira year 347, corresponding to A. D. 597. It records the grant of some *nivartanas* of land in the village Vallisika situated in the *vishaya* (district) of Bhogavardhana (modern Bhokardan in the Aurangabad District). Vallisika is modern Valsa, 7 miles north of Bhokardan. The donee was a Brahmana residing at Kalivana (modern Kalvan, the chief town of a taluka of the same name in the Nasik District). Some other inscriptions of Shankaragana have been discovered in Gujarat. One of his copper-plate inscriptions was issued from his camp at Ujjayini. This grant shows that Shankaragana was, like his father, ruling over an extensive kingdom, extending from Malva in the north to at least the Nasik and Aurangabad Districts in the south.

Shankaragana was succeeded by his son Buddharaja, who was involved in a struggle with the Early Chalukya king Mangalesha on the southern frontier of his kingdom soon after his accession. He received a crushing defeat, but his adversary could not follow up his victory owing to internal dissensions. Buddharaja therefore continued to hold his kingdom intact. Two grants of this king have come to light so far and both of them were issued after his defeat by Mangalesha. He was, however, overthrown later by Pulakeshin II, as will be shown below.

All the Early Kalachuris were fervent devotees of Shiva. That they belonged to the *Pashupata* sect of *Shaivism* is shown by the description of Krishnaraja as devoted to Pashupati from his very birth. Anantamahayi, the queen of Buddharaja, is specifically mentioned as a follower of the *Pashupata* sect. The magnificent rock-cut temple of *Shiva* near Bombay, known as Elephanta belongs to their age¹. It was probably carved under their patronage, though definite proof of this is lacking.

Chalukyas.—The Chalukyas of Badami rose to power in the first half of the sixth century A. D. The Badami stone inscription of Pulakeshin I, who is the first independent king of the family is dated in the year A. D. 543². He performed the *Ashvamedha* and several other *Shrauta* sacrifices. He was succeeded by his son Kirtivarman I, who made some conquests in South India and is described as the night of destruction to the Nalas of the Bastar District of Madhya Pradesh, the Mauryas of Konkan and the Kadambas of Vanavasi in North Kanara.

When Kirtivarman died, his son Pulakeshin II, was a minor. So his younger brother Mangalesha succeeded him. He defeated Buddharaja, the Kalachuri king, who was ruling in North Maharashtra, Konkan, Gujarat and Malva, and also Svamiraja of the

¹ *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. cxlviii.

² *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 4 f.

Chalukya family who was governing the Revati-dvipa (modern Redi in the Ratnagiri District). The Aihole inscription¹ describes his fight with Buddharaja as follows: "In the temple in the form of the battlefield, Mangalesha married the lady in the form of the royal fortune of the Kalachuris, dispelling the 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 Buddharaja was completely routed and fled away, leaving his whole treasure behind, which was captured by Mangalesha. The latter could not, however, follow up this victory; for just then Svamiraja of the Chalukya family, a redoubtable warrior who had attained victory in eighteen battles and was ruling over Revati-dvipa, rose in rebellion. Mangalesha had, therefore, to abandon his original plan of making an expedition of conquest in North India and rushed to Konkan to chastise the rebellious feudatory. In the fight that ensued he killed Svamiraja and made a grant of a village in South Konkan to the god in the temple of Mahakuta by way of thanks giving. So Buddharaja continued to rule for some more years even after his defeat by Mangalesha.

Mangalesha's reign ended in disaster and he lost his life in a civil war with his nephew Pulakeshin II. Just about this time the Chalukya kingdom was invaded by one Govinda, who probably belonged to the aforementioned Rashtrakuta family, ruling in Southern Maharashtra. Pulakeshin adopted a conciliatory policy in dealing with him as he was a powerful foe. His descendants do not, however, appear to have held Maharashtra for a long time; for Pulakeshin soon annexed both Southern and Northern Maharashtras and extended the northern limit of his empire to the Narmada. That he ousted the Rashtrakutas from Southern Maharashtra is shown by the Satara plates of his brother Vishnuvardhana, which record the grant of a village on the southern bank of the Bhima. Pulakeshin defeated also the Kalachuri king Buddharaja and annexed his kingdom. He is said to have thereby become the lord of the three Maharashtras, including Vidarbha. The Rashtrakutas of Vidarbha, who were previously feudatories of the Kalachuris, transferred their allegiance to the Chalukyas and, like the latter, began to date their records in the *Shaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rashtrakuta family have been found in Vidarbha—one dated *Shaka* 615 was discovered near Akola² and the other dated *Shaka* 631 was found at Multai³ in the Betul District previously included in Vidarbha. They give the following genealogy:—

Durgaraja
|
Govindaraja
|
Svamikaraja
|
Nannaraja alias Yuddhasura

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VI, p. 11 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. XXIX, p. 109 f.

³ *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 230 f.

Nannaraja was ruling from Padmanagara, which was probably identical with the aforementioned Padmapura, in the Bhandara District, once the capital of the Vakatakas. The Buldhana District was evidently included in the kingdom of this feudatory Rashtrakuta family.

Pulakeshin obtained a resounding victory over Harsha, the Lord paramount of North India. Thereafter, he assumed the title of *Parameshvara* (Emperor). He defeated the rulers of several countries such as Aparanta (Konkan), Kosala (Chhattisgarh), Kalinga (Orissa), Pishtapura (Pithapuram) and Kanchi (Conjeeverum). He made the Cholas, the Keralas and the Pandyas his allies. He thus became the undisputed lord of South India.

The capital of Pulakeshin in the beginning of his reign was Badami in the Bijapur District. When his empire extended to the Narmada, he must have felt the need of a more central place for his capital. The Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang calls him the lord of Maharashtra. This shows that he must have visited him somewhere in Maharashtra. Several identifications of his capital have been proposed by scholars, but the most likely view seems to be that of Fleet and Burgess, who identified it with Nasik. The pilgrim says that in the east of this country (*i.e.*, Maharashtra) was 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 defile, and its lofty halls and deep chambers were quarried in the cliff and rested on the peak, its tiers, halls and storeyed terraces had the cliff on their back and faced the ravine¹. This description seems to suit the caves at Ajanta and as this monastery lay to the east of the capital, the latter appears to be Nasik rather than any other place in Maharashtra. Hiuen Tsang has left a graphic picture of Maharashtra and its people. "The soil is rich and fertile. The climate is hot; the disposition of the people 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 in mass, 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 Kshatriya caste and his name is Pulakeshin²."

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

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

under his sway. This was probably at the time of Vinayaditya's death (A. D. 696), when owing to the captivity of his son Vijayaditya there was anarchy in the kingdom. The second set of the Anjaneri plates tells us that Bhogashakti granted certain rights, privileges and exemptions to the merchants of Samagripattana when he resettled the town and the neighbouring villages some time after their devastation. Bhogashakti's successor was probably overthrown by the Rashtrakuta king Dantidurga, who from his Ellora plates, is known to have occupied the Nasik District some time before A. D. 715.

Kirtivarman II, the last of the Early Chalukyas, was defeated by Dantidurga some time before A. D. 754, when he issued his Samangad plates. Kirtivarman continued to rule for a few years more, but he had lost the paramount position in the Deccan.

The Early Chalukyas were devotees of Vishnu, but during their time Buddhism continued to flourish as before in Maharashtra. Caves I to V and XXI to XXVIII at Ajanta were excavated in the seventh century A. D. Again, *viharas* were also excavated at Aurangabad and Ellora in this period, those at the latter place being triple-storeyed and of elaborate design. No Brahmanical structural temples of that age have survived, but there are some Brahmanical cave-temples at Ellora such as the Dashavatara Cave, the Ravan-ki-khai and the Dumar Lena, which belong to this period. These caves are noteworthy for their exquisitely modelled figures.

Rashtrakutas.—The Rashtrakutas, who succeeded the Early Chalukyas in the Deccan, originally hailed from Lattalura (modern Latur in the Osmanabad District). When they rose to power, they were probably residing in the Aurangabad District, where their earlier records have been found. Dantidurga was the real founder of Rashtrakuta imperial power. His Ellora 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 Chalukyas. Dantidurga made extensive conquests. The Ellora cave inscription records his victories over the rulers of Kanchi, Kalinga, Shrisaila, Malava, Tanka and Lata, but they do not all seem to have resulted in the acquisition of any new territory. Though there is much exaggeration in the description of his conquests, there is no doubt that he ruled over Karnataka, Konkan, Maharashtra, Vidarbha and Gujarat.

A copper-plate inscription of Dantidurga was discovered at Ellora in the Aurangabad District¹. It was issued by him while residing at Elapura (modern Ellora) on Monday, the thirteenth *tithi* of the bright fortnight of *Ashvina* and records the grant of the village Pippalala in the territorial division of Chandanapuri Eighty-four. Chandanapuri still retains the ancient name and is situated on the Girna, three miles to the south-east of Malegaon,

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXV, p. 25 f.
A-1198—5-B.

while Pippalala is modern Pipral, 12 miles to the south-east of Chandanapuri. The editor of the grant read the date as 663 and referring it to the *Shaka* era, took it as equivalent to A. D. 741. But the details of the date do not work out regularly and from the symbols used to denote the year it appears more likely that the current year is 463, which must be referred to the Abhira era. It then becomes equivalent to A. D. 715.

Dantidurga was succeeded by his uncle Krishna I, who completed the conquests commenced by Dantidurga and shattered the power of the Early Chalukyas completely. Vidarbha including the Buldhana district was in his dominion; for one of his inscriptions was discovered at Bhandak in the Chandrapur District. It is dated in the *Shaka* year 694 (A. D. 772) and records the grant of the village Nagana to a temple of the sun in Udumbaramanti (modern Rani Umaravati in the Yeotmal District).

Krishna I, was not only a great conqueror but also a great builder. He caused the great Shiva temple at Ellora to be carved out of solid rock. 'It is a replica in rock of a structural temple. It is carved out of a scarp more than 100 feet high and covers an area of 300 feet by 175 feet. The excavations consist of, (1) the main temple, (2) the Nandi-shrine, (3) the gate-way, and (4) the cloister surrounding the courtyard. The magnitude of this excavation combined with the grandeur of conception and the high quality of its rich plastic embellishment render this cave temple an unrivalled gem of Indian architecture.' The temple was originally named Krishneshvara after the Rashtrakuta king Krishna I, but is now known as Kailasa. It is described in a copper-plate grant in the following words:—when the gods moving in their aerial cars saw it, they were struck with wonder, and constantly thought much over the matter and explained. "This temple of Shiva 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!", said he, "I do not know how I could construct it!". It is one of the noblest monuments of India.

In Vidarbha also the Rashtrakutas built several magnificent temples. Those at Markandi in the Chandrapur District, where the Vainganga takes a northern bend, are specially noteworthy. One of them which is by far the best is dedicated to Shiva. Cunningham has described it as follows¹:—"The general style of the Markandi temple is like that of the Khajuraho temples, with three row of figures all round, two feet and three inches in height. In each of the 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 onehalf of the panels are given to Shiva and

¹ Cunningham, A. S. R., Vol. IX, p. 145 f.

Parvati in various forms. There are also many subordinate female figures, some dancing, some playing musical instruments and one holding a mirror, while putting antimony to her eyelid."

Krishna I was succeeded by his son Govinda II, in *circa* A. D. 777. 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 (in the Jalgaon district which borders on the Buldhana district on the west), dated in the *Shaka* year 697 (A. D. 775), record the grant of the village Lilagrama made by Dhruva on the occasion of a solar eclipse in *Karttika*. Lilagrama was situated in the *vishaya* (district) of Vatanagarika, and is identical with Nilagavhan. Vatanagarika has been identified with Vani in the Nasik district. Govinda II, was then on the throne as is shown by the Dhulia plates dated in the *Shaka* year 701 (A. D. 779), which record the grant of a village in the Nasikya *vishaya*. Soon after this grant was made, Govinda was deposed by Dhruva in *circa* A. D. 780. A copper-plate grant of the latter, dated in *Shaka* 715 was discovered at Daulatabad in the Aurangabad district. It records the donation of a village made by his feudatory Shankaragana with his consent. Dhruva is called *Kalivallabha* (favourite of warriors) therein.

Dhruva died soon after this grant was made and was succeeded by his son Govinda III. Soon after his accession Govinda made a grant discovered at Paithan. It is dated in the *Shaka* year 716 (A. D. 794) and records the king's gift of the village Limbasarika situated in the Pratihana-bhukti. The village has not yet been identified.

The Rashtrakuta 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-Pratihara, king Vatsaraja and the Pala king Dharmapala, who were contending for supremacy in North India, and pressed as far north as the Doab. Since then the two rivers Ganga and Yamuna began to appear on the Rashtrakuta banner.

Govinda III, proved to be a still greater conqueror. After obtaining an easy victory over the Ganga king Muttarasa, he led his victorious arms to Central and North India. He first defeated the Gurjara-Pratihara king Nagabhata and his ally Chandragupta in Central India and then routed Dharmapala of Bengal, who had espoused the cause of Chakrayudha of Kanauj. He next marched victoriously until his horses drank and his elephants plunged into the spring waters of the Himalayas. He then returned to the Narmada and marching along the bank of the river, he conquered Malava, Kosala, Vanga, Dahala and Odra countries. He next spent the rainy season at Shribhavana (modern Sarbhon in Gujarat) where his son Amoghavarsha I, was born. Thereafter

Govinda marched to the bank of the Tungabhadra. Using Alam-pura (or Helapura) on the bank of the river as his base, he led victorious campaigns against the Keralas, the Cholas, the Pandyas and the Pallavas¹. Even the king of Lanka submitted to him, sending two statues—one of himself and the other of his minister—to his camp at Helapura.

Several copper-plate grants of Govinda III, have been found in Western Maharashtra, Marathvada and Vidarbha Divisions. It is not possible to describe them all, but a few may be noticed. A set of plates discovered at Vani in the Dindori taluka of the Nasik district was issued by Govinda III, and is dated in the *Shaka* year 730 (A. D. 808). It records the grant of Ambaka-grama in the Vatanagara *vishaya* of the Nasik-desha to the Brahmana Damodarabhatta of Vengi². Another set of plates discovered at Dharur in the Bid district is dated in the *Shaka* year 728 (A. D. 806) and records the grant of the village Anahe (modern Anegaon) in the *vishaya* of Dharapura (modern Dharur)³. Four more grants of Govinda have been found in Vidarbha. The earliest of them is dated in the *Shaka* year 722, and records his donation of the village Anjanavanti (modern Anjanvati in the Amravati district of Vidarbha). Its boundary villages Gohasadvā, Sallaimala, Kure and Vatapura are now represented by Gahva, Salora-Amla, Kurha and Vadur, respectively. Veyaghana and Talevataka where the donees of the grant resided are identical with Waigaon and Talegaon in the vicinity of Anjanavati. Three more grants dated in the *Shaka* years 725, 729 and 734 have been found at Sirso in the Murtizapur tahsil of the Akola district. They record Govinda's donations of the villages Jharika (modern Jhari in the Kelapur tahsil of the Yeotmal district), Sisvai (identical with Sirso) and Lohara (in the Murtizapur tahsil), respectively. Their boundary villages also can be identified in their vicinity. Most of Govinda's grants were issued from Mayurakhandi, which was evidently his capital. It has not yet been identified.

Govinda III, was succeeded by his son Amoghavarsha I, who was a man of peaceful disposition, but whose reign was full of troubles. He had first to fight with the Eastern Chalukyas of Vengi, then the Gangas of Gangavadi, and also his relatives in Gujarat. He transferred his capital to Manyakheta (modern Malkhed). A copper-plate grant made by him was recently discovered at Javkheda in the Shahada taluka of the Dhulia district. It records the king's donation of the village Vayipadraka in the territorial division of Prakashaya on the occasion of the *Dakshinayana Sankranti*. Vayipadraka cannot be identified, but Prakashaya is probably identical with Prakasha in the Dhulia district. Javakheda is only 15 miles north-west of Prakasha.

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

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, p. 157 f.

² *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XI, p. 157 f.

³ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVI, p. 285 f.

Kavirajamarga, the oldest work on poetics in the Kanarese language. He patronised Jinasena, the author of the Kanarese work *Adipurana*. Amoghavarsha voluntarily retired from public administration in order to engage himself in religious pursuits. On one occasion he offered a finger of his hand to the goddess Mahalakshmi of Kolhapur to ward off a public calamity. Such instances are rare in the history of any country.

Another noteworthy king of this Rashtrakuta family was Indra III, the great-grandson of Amoghavarsha I. Like his illustrious ancestors Dhruva and Govind III, Indra also led a victorious campaign in North India. He followed the route of Bhopal, Jhansi and Kalpi in the course of his invasion of Kanauj, the imperial capital of North India for more than three hundred years. At Kalpi his army was encamped in the court-yard of the temple of Kalapriyanatha, well-known to Sanskritists as the place where all the plays of Bhavabhuti were staged¹. His horses crossed the Yamuna at Kalpi and then marched on Kanauj, which he completely devastated. The Gurjara-Pratihara king Mahipala fled to Mahoba to seek the help of his Chandella feudatory Harsha. Indra III's northern campaign was a memorable event unparalleled for its brilliance in the history of the Rashtrakutas.

Recently some grants of Indra III, made on the occasion of his coronation have been discovered in the Marathvada Division. One of them was found at Jambgaon in the Gangapur tahsil of the Aurangabad district². It is dated in the *Shaka* year 836 (A. D. 914) and records the donation of the village Kharondi near Pratishthana (modern Kharvandi near Paithan). The boundary villages also can be identified in its vicinity. Two more grants made at the same time have been found at Bagumra in Gujarat. All these were composed by Trivikramabhata, who, as shown below, was a native of Vidarbha. Two more grants of Indra III, made in the same year (*Shaka* 836) have been discovered recently at Vajirkheda in the Malegaon tahsil of the Nasik district. They record the king's donations of some villages to Jain monasteries in the Nasik district. They were composed by Rajashekhara, who may be identical with the famous author of the *Kavyamimamsa* and other works³.

Indra III, was succeeded by his son Amoghavarsha 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* *Suvarnavarsha* (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 the Brahmanas six hundred *agraharas* and three lakhs of gold coins. Recently another copper-plate grant dated in the *Shaka* year 851 (A. D. 929) has been

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, p. 35 f.

² *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVI, p. 223 f.

³ *Nagpur University Journal*, Vol. XVII, p. 117 f.

discovered at the village Andura in the Akola district of Vidarbha. It records the donation of Elauri (modern Erali) near the railway station Nandura on the Central Railway. It was situated in the Vadanera—300 Division. Vadanera still retains its ancient name and lies about 9 miles west of Nandura. The boundary villages Nimbagrama and Dantigramma are now known as Nimgaon and Dadgaon in the vicinity of Erali¹.

The Rashtrakutas of Manyakheta and the Kalachuris of Tripuri were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally cordial. But in the reign of Govinda IV, they became strained. The Kalachuri King Yuvarajadeva I, espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baddiga-Amoghavarsha III, the uncle of Govinda IV, and sent a large army to invade the Rashtrakuta dominion. When it reached the Payoshni (modern Purna river) it was opposed by Karkara, the ruler of Achalapura, who was a feudatory of Govinda IV. He probably belonged to the feudatory Rashtrakuta family ruling in Vidarbha, whose records, as stated above have been found at Akola and Multai. A sanguinary battle was fought on the bank of the Payoshni near Achalapura between the Rashtrakuta and Kalachuri forces, in which the latter became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskrit play *Viddhashalabhanjika*, which was staged at Tripuri, the Kalachuri capital, in jubilation at this victory².

The Rashtrakuta feudatories who had risen in revolt against Govinda IV, deposed him and placed his uncle Baddiga Amoghavarsha III, on the throne. The latter was a man of quiet nature and spiritual temperament, who left the administration of the kingdom to his ambitious and able son Krishna III. Like some of his ancestors, Krishna also led an expedition in North India and captured the forts of Kalanjara and Chitrakuta. He succeeded his father in A. D. 939. He then led an expedition against the Cholas and defeated them in a sanguinary battle at Takkola in the Arcot district. He next carried his victorious arms to Rameshvaram, where he built two temples. Hearing of his victories, the kings of Kerala, Pandya and Ceylon submitted to him. He also placed his own nominee on the throne of Vengi. He thus became the lord paramount of South India.

Several stone and copper-plate inscriptions of the reign of Krishna III have been found in the different parts of the Deccan. One of them found in Vidarbha may be noticed here. The Deoli plates dated *Shaka* 862 (A. D. 940) register the donation of the village Talapursaka in the *vishaya* (district) of Nagapura-Nandivardhana. This expression denotes Nandivardhana near Nagpur. Among the boundaries of the donated village is mentioned the river Kanhana, modern Kanhan, which flows 10 miles from Nagpur³.

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVI, pp. 257 cf.

² *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. Lxxix f.

³ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 253 f.

After the downfall of the Vakatakas there was no imperial power ruling in Vidarbha. The centre of political power shifted successively to Mahishmati, Badami and Manyakheta. Men of learning who could not get royal patronage in Vidarbha had to seek it elsewhere. Bhavabhuti, who ranks next only to Kalidasa in Sanskrit literature, was a native of Vidarbha. In the prologue of his play the *Mahaviracharita* he tells us that his ancestors were known as Udumbara. They probably hailed from a place of that name which may be identified with Umarkhed in the Yeotmal district. There is a tradition still current at the place which corroborates this identification. The ancestors of Bhavabhuti later moved to Padmapura in Vidarbha as stated by him in his aforementioned play *Mahaviracharita*. This place was once a capital of the Vakatakas and is probably identical with Padampur near Amgaon in the Bhandara district¹. With the downfall of the Vakatakas that place lost its importance. In the beginning of the eighth century A. D. when Bhavabhuti flourished there was no great king ruling in Vidarbha. Bhavabhuti had, therefore, to go to Padmavati, now called Padam Pavaya, in North India and had to get his plays staged at the fair of Kalapriyanatha (the Sun-god at Kalpi)². Later, he obtained royal patronage at the court of Yashovarman of Kanauj. Rajashekhara, another great son of Vidarbha, was probably a native of Vatsagulma (modern Basim in the Akola district), which he has glorified in the *Kavyamimamsa* as the pleasure-resort of the god of love. He and his ancestors Akalajalada, Tarala and Surananda had to leave their home country of Vidarbha and to seek patronage at the court of the Kalachuris of Tripuri. Rajashekhara's early plays, viz., the *Balaramayana*, the *Balabharata* and the *Karpuramanjari*, were put on the boards in Kanauj under the patronage of the Gurjara-Pratiharas. Later, Rajashekhara returned to the south. He seems to have enjoyed for some time the patronage of Indra III; for the two sets of Vajirkhed plates of that king, dated in the *Shaka* year 836 were drafted by him³. Later, he moved to Tripuri, where his last play *Viddhashalabhajika* was staged. Another great son of Vidarbha who had to go abroad in search of royal patronage was Trivikramabhatta, the author of the *Nalachampu*, in which he has given a graphic description of several towns, rivers and holy places of Vidarbha. He flourished at the Court of the Rashtrakuta king Indra III, and is known to have drafted the two sets of the Bagumra plates and also the Jambgaon plates of that king⁴.

Later Chalukyas.—The Rashtrakuta power became weak after the death of Krishna III. Within six years his large empire crumbled like a house of cards. Taila II, who was a *Mahasamanta* of the Rashtrakutas, suddenly came into prominence. He defeated and killed in battle Karka II, the last Rashtrakuta king, and captured Manyakheta. He had to fight against the Cholas, the

¹ Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 21 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 35 f.

³ *Nagpur University Journal*, Vol. XVII, p. 117 f.

⁴ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. IX, p. 24 f. Vol. XXXVI, p. 223 f.

Pandys and the Paramaras. The Paramara king Vakpatiraja alias Munja planned to invade the Chalukya dominion, but his wise minister Rudraditya advised him not to cross the Godavari which was the boundary between the Chalukya and Paramara dominions. Munja 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 Mrinaladevi. He fell in love with her and foolishly disclosed to her the plan of escape. She communicated it to Tailapa, who is said to have made Munja beg from door to door and then beheaded him.

Among the successors of Taila II, the most famous is Vikramaditya VI, the founder of the Chalukya-Vikrama *Samvat*. He ascended the throne in A. D. 1075. He had to fight against the Cholas, the Chalukyas of Gujarat and the Hoysalas and signally defeated them. Two inscriptions of his reign have been found in Vidarbha. One of them entitled the Sitabaldi pillar inscription seems to have originally belonged to the Vindhyasana hill at Bhandak in the Chandrapur District. It is dated in the *Shaka* year 1008 (A. D. 1087) and registers the grant of some *nivartanas* of land for the grazing of cattle made by a feudatory called Dhadibhandaka. The other inscription was discovered at Dongargaon in the Yeotmal District¹. It throws interesting light on the history of the Paramara dynasty. It shows that Jagaddeva, the youngest son of Udayaditya, the brother of Bhoja, left Malva and sought service under Vikramaditya VI, who welcomed him and placed him in charge of some portion of Western Vidarbha. The Dongargaon inscription is dated in the *Shaka* year 1034 (A.D. 1112). Another inscription of this Jagaddeva has come to notice at Jainad in the adjoining district of Adilabad. It records several victories of Jagaddeva in Andhra, Dorasamudra and near the Arbuda mountain and registers the construction of the temple of Nimbaditya by his minister Lolarka.

Vikramaditya's reign is renowned on account of some learned men who flourished at his Court. Bhilhana, who was patronised by him, wrote the *Vikramankadevacharita*, which is the poetic biography of Vikramaditya. Another great writer who flourished at his Court was Vijnaneshvara, the author of the well-known *Mitakshara*, a commentary on the *Yajnavalkya Smriti*.

Though Western Vidarbha was occupied by the Later Chalukyas, the Paramaras of Dhar raided and occupied some portion of Eastern Vidarbha. A large stone inscription now deposited in the Nagpur Museum, which originally seems to have belonged to Bhandak, in the Chandrapur District, traces the genealogy of the Paramara prince Naravarman from Vairisimha. It is dated in the Vikrama year 1161 (A. D. 1104-05) and records the grant of two villages to a temple which was probably situated in Bhandak; for some of the places mentioned in it can be identified in its vicinity. Thus Mokhalipataka is probably Mokhar, 50 miles

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVI, p. 177 f.

west of Bhandak, Vyapura, the chief town of the *mandala* in which it was situated, may be identical with Vurgaon, 30 miles from Mokhar. The Paramaras continued to hold Eastern Vidarbha until their king Bhoja ruling from Chahanda (modern Chandrapur) was defeated by Kholeshvara, a general of the Yadava king Singhana¹.

The Later Chalukya king Vikramaditya VI, was succeeded by his son Someshvara III, who became known as *Sarvajna-Chakravarti* on account of his extensive knowledge. He composed the encyclopaedic work *Manasollasa* or *Abhilashitarthachintamani*. An inscription of his reign has been discovered at Latur in the Osmanabad District. It records the construction of the temple of the god Papavinashana at Lattalura (modern Latur). It is dated in the *Shaka* year 1049 (A. D. 1123), which falls in the reign of Someshvara III.

Taila III, the last known Chalukya king, was over-thrown by the Kalachuri Bijjala, who was his Commander-in-Chief, in A. D. 1156. The Kalachuri usurpation lasted for more than two decades. An inscription of this period dated in the *Shaka* year 1086 (A. D. 1164) was discovered at Savargaon in the Tuljapur tahsil of the Osmanabad District. It records the gift of some money for the construction of the temple of the goddess Amba at Savargaon. Maradadeva, who bears the title of *Mahamandaleshvara* was probably a feudatory of the Kalachuri Bijjala as the date falls in the latter's reign (A. D. 1156—1168), though the inscription makes no mention of his name.

Yadavas.—In the last quarter of the twelfth century A. D., the Yadavas of Devagiri came into prominence. They had previously been ruling over Seunadesha (Khandesh) as feudatories of the Chalukyas of Kalyani. The founder of this family was Dridhaprahara, the son of Subahu. His capital is named as Shringnagara in the *Vratakhanda* of Hemadri, while from an early inscription it appears to have been Chandradityapura, which has been identified with modern Chandor in the Nasik District. His son and successor was Seunachandra I, from whom the country ruled came to be known as Seunadesha. It corresponds to modern Khandesh. It comprised the country from Nasik to Devagiri.

From a stone inscription found at Vaghli, six miles from Chalisgaon, we learn that a Maurya family hailing from Valabhi (modern Vala in Kathiawad) settled in Khandesh, where it ruled for several generations. Govindaraja, a later prince of this family, built a temple at Vaghli, 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. Govindaraja, whose inscription at Vaghli is dated in *Shaka* 991 (A. D. 1069), was a feudatory of the Yadava king Seunachandra II.

Bhillama II, one of the early Yadava kings, assisted Tailapa of the Later Chalukya family in his war with Munja. Seunachandra

II, a later member of the family, is said to have saved Vikramaditaya VI, from a coalition of his enemies and placed him on the throne of Kalyani. Bhillama V, of this family made a bid for paramount power in the Deccan. He led victorious expeditions against the Hoysalas, the Paramaras and the Chalukyas and made himself master of the whole country north of the Krishna. He then founded the city of Devagiri (modern Daulatabad) and made it his capital. Thereafter the Yadavas ruled from that city.

Bhillama V's son Jaitugi or Jaitrapala killed Rudradeva of the Kakatiya dynasty on the field of battle and released his nephew whom he had put into prison. Under Jaitugi's son Singhana the power of the family greatly increased. Soon after his accession he extended his rule to Vidarbha. That country was then ruled by a royal family known from a stone inscription in a temple at Barshi-Takli in the Akola District. It had its capital at Tekkali (modern Takli near Barshi). The record mentions that during the reign of Hemadrideva of this family his minister named Gamiyaya built a temple of Vishnu at Tekkali, which is now supposed to be dedicated to Bhavani. This family came into conflict with the Yadavas of Seunadesha. Mallugi, a Yadava king, defeated the father of Hemadrideva and Hemadri, when a mere boy, vanquished Rajala, the son of Mallugi, who was advancing on Tekkali with a large army. Hemadri ruled righteously and is said to have made Tekkali another Varanasi². He was, however, overthrown by Kholeshvara, a general of the Yadava king Singhana. Yadava occupation of Vidarbha is first indicated by an inscription at Amdapur (ancient Ambadapura in the Buldhana District), dated in the *Shaka* year 1133 (A. D. 1211-12) during the reign of *Shrimat-Pratapa-Chakravarti* Shri-Singhanadeva. It records the construction of a *torana* in the temple of shiva at Ambadapura³.

We get considerable information about the victories of Singhana from the stone inscriptions of his Brahmana General Kholeshvara at Ambe Jogai in the Bid District. Kholeshvara was a native of Vidarbha and was residing at Ambe where he has left his inscriptions. Some more details are furnished by a later copper-plate grant of Ramachandra's minister found at Purushotampuri in the Bid District⁴.

Singhana achieved several victories. He defeated the Hoysala king Vira-Ballala, the Kakatiya king Ganapati and the lord of Bhambhagiri, modern Bhamer in the Pimpalner taluka of the Dhulia District. He confined Bhoja II, of the Shilahara family on the hill of Pranala (modern Panhala) near Kolhapur. Most of these victories were won by his general Kholeshvara. The latter vanquished Arjunavarmadeva, king of Malva, and even pressed as far as Varanasi, where he put the ruler Rajyapala to flight. Kholeshvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXI, p. 128 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. XXI, p. 127 f.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 4199 f.

⁴ *S. M. H. D.*, Vol. I, p. 74.

including that of Sharangadhara (Vishnu) at Mehkar and also established *agraharas* on the bank of the Payoshni (Purna) and Varada (Wardha). The former *agrahara* still exists at the village Kholapur in the Amaravati District.

Singhana was succeeded by his grandson Krishna, who obtained victories over the kings of Gurjara, Malava, Chola and Kosala. The Gurjara king was Vishaladeva and the Malava king was Jaitugideva. The contemporary Chola king Rajendra III, (A. D. 1246—79). The Kosala king was apparently the contemporary ruler of Ratanpur in Chhattisgarh, who was the successor of Jajalladeva defeated by Singhana, but no records of his reign have so far been discovered. An inscription of the reign of Krishna has been noticed in the temple of Khandeshvara in the Amravati District. It is dated in the *Shaka* year 1177 (A. D. 1254-55), and records the donations of some *gadyanas* for the offering of flowers in the temple there¹.

Krishna was succeeded by his brother Mahadeva. From the recently discovered Kalegaon plates we know the exact date of his coronation as the 29th August 1261. The most notable event of his reign was the annexation of North Konkan after defeating king Someshvara of the Shilahara dynasty. Mahadeva left the throne to his son Amana, but the latter was soon deposed by Krishna's son Ramachandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagiri by means of a *coup d'etat*. Ramachandra won several victories as mentioned in the Purushottampuri plates dated in the *Shaka* year 1232 (A.D. 1310). He is said to have defeated with ease the ruler of Dahala (*i.e.*, the Chedi country), subjugated the ruler of Bhandagara (Bhandara) and dethroned the king of Vajrakara (Vairagadh). He is further credited with a victory over the Muhammedans, whom he drove out of a Varanasi. He built there a golden temple of Sharangapani (Vishnu). His minister Purushottama received from him the grant of four villages, of which he formed an *agrahara* and donated it to several Brahmanas on the holy day of *Kapilashashthi* in the *Shaka* year 1232. The *agrahara* was named Purushottamapura after the donor. It is still extant under its original name on the southern bank of the Godavari, about 40 miles due west from Parbhani. The villages together with their boundaries can still be identified in the vicinity of Purushottampuri².

A fragmentary stone inscription of the time of Ramachandra is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakshmana on the hill of Ramtek, in the Nagpur District. In the first half it gives the genealogy of Ramachandra and in the second half it describes the temples, wells and *tirthas* on and in the vicinity of the hill which it calls Ramagiri. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs to the temple of Lakshmana done by Raghava, a minister of Ramachandra³.

¹ *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 9 f.

² *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 199 f.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 7 f.

In A.D. 1294 Ala-ud-din Khilji invaded the kingdom of Ramachandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagiri. Ramachandra was taken unawares and could not hold out 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 Purushottampuri plates are dated in that year. He was succeeded by his son Shankaragana some time in A.D. 1311. He discontinued sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was then defeated and slain by Malik Kafur. Some time thereafter Harapaladeva, the son-in-law of Ramachandra, 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 Yadavas also extended liberal patronage to art and literature. During their rule a peculiar style of architecture called *Hemadpanti* after Hemadri or Hemadpant, a minister of Mahadeva and Ramachandra, came into vogue. The temples built in this style are found in all the districts of Maharashtra. In the Buldhana District they are noticed at nearly thirty places such as Amdapur, Chikhali, Deulghat, Brahmapuri, Satgaon, Saykheda, Sindkhed, etc. Those at Mehkar, about 45 miles to the south-east of Buldhana, and Lonar in the south-west corner of the district are noteworthy. What remains of the temple at Mehkar is now called *Dharma-shala*. 'It is about 72 ft. square inside, and is formed by a deep covered colonnade with two rows of pillars surrounding a small central courtyard 23 ft. square, which is open to the sky. . . . There were sixty pillars in all, of which twenty-five still stand. . . . There is a marked absence of figure sculpture upon the building, the decoration on the pillars being almost entirely confined to geometric and conventional leaf designs¹'. A beautifully carved image of Vishnu named Sharangadhara was discovered there underground in 1888. It was probably buried purposely in Muhammadan times to escape mutilation. It has since been enshrined in a temple built nearby and called the temple of Balaji. The temple of Daityasudana at Lonar is the best example of the *Hemadpanti* style. It measures 105 ft. long by 84½ ft. broad. It was left unfinished for some years owing to the depredations of iconoclasts and was later taken in hand and finished in a rough and ready manner. From the standing image of Surya in the principal niche on the back of the temple it is conjectured that the temple was originally dedicated to the Sun-god. At a short distance to the west of the town in the crater of an extinct volcano, 'the only one known in the Deccan'. 'It is a great bowl-shaped hollow, five miles around at the top and about three miles, five hundred feet below, where a salt lake occupies the centre, surrounded by a wide margin of land between the bottom of the slope and the edge of the lake. There are numerous temples around the margin of the lake in the bottom of the crater. There is besides an earlier small temple with well-carved pillars and a

¹ Cousens, *Mediaeval Temples of the Deccan*, p. 68 f.

ceiling with cusped ornament like that on the Jain temples on Mt. Abu¹.

Several learned men flourished at the Yadava court. Of them Hemadri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahadeva he held the post of *Shrikaranadhipa* or the Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed minister and Head of the Elephant Force by Ramachandra. He was as brave as he was learned. He conquered and annexed to the Yadava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called *Jhadimandala*, which included the Bhandara District. Hemadri is well-known as the author of the *Chaturvarga-chintamani* comprising five parts, viz., (1) *Vratakhanda*, (2) *Danakhanda*, (3) *Tirthakhanda*, (4) *Mokshakhanda* and (5) *Parishesakhanda*. Of these, the third and fourth *khandas* have not yet come to light. Hemadri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers of *Dharmashastra*. He is the author of the commentary on Shaunaka's *Pranavakalpa*, in which he follows Katyayana. His *Ayurvedarasayana*, a commentary on Vagbhata's *Ashtangahridaya*, and *Kaivalyadipika*, a gloss on Bopadeva's *Muktaphala* are well-known.

Hemadri extended liberal patronage to the learned men. Among them the famous was Bopadeva. He was a native of Vedapada (modern Bedod) on the bank of the Wardha in the Adilabad 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 *Bhagavata* doctrine. The *Mugdhabodha*, his work on Sanskrit grammar, is very popular in Bengal.

Marathi literature also flourished in the age of the Yadavas. Chakradhara, who propagated the Mahanubhava sect in the age, used Marathi as the medium of his religious teaching. Following his example, several of his followers composed literary works in Marathi. They are counted among the first works in that language. Mukundaraja, the author of the Vedantic works *Vivekasindhu* and *Paramamrita*, and Jnanadeva, the celebrated author of the *Bhavarthadipika*, a commentary on the *Bhagavad-gita*, are the most illustrious writers of that age.

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD

Delhi Sultanat.—In 1294 Alauddin, nephew of Jalaluddin Khilji, the reigning emperor of Delhi, invaded the Deccan with the object of subjugating Devagiri of the wealth of which kingdom he had heard in the course of his forays in Central Asia. He halted at Ellichpur for two days and from thence marched towards Devagiri from where he carried off an enormous quantity of plunder. His route from Ellichpur to Devagiri lay through the Buldhana district, possibly by the ghat of Rohinkheda which was afterwards to be so well-known as the highway through Berar. Though the district of Buldhana was not directly affected by the ravages of war, one of the fruits of his victory was the assignment of the revenues of Ellichpur and northern Berar in which the Jalgaon and Malkapur

¹ Cousens, *Mediaeval Temples of the Deccan* p. 69 f.

talukas were probably included, to Delhi. Annexation was not attempted nor were Muslims introduced into the administration.

Ala-ud-din on his return marched through Berar.¹ He murdered his uncle and ascended the throne of Delhi on October 3, 1296. During his reign the district was traversed by Muhammedan armies from Delhi marching on expeditions to the Deccan, but we find no special mention of the district. In 1306, an expedition under the African, Kafur Hazardinari was sent against Devagiri in consequence of Ramachandra having failed to remit tribute and having allied himself with Rai Karna of Gujarat, who had refused to send his daughter Deval Devi to Delhi.² Ramachandra and his family were captured and sent to Delhi, but the emperor pardoned him and restored him to his throne, and it does not appear that the arrangement under which Ellichpur and northern Berar remained under Hindu administrators charged with the remission of the revenue to Delhi was disturbed.

Ramachandra died in 1310 and was succeeded by his eldest son Shankar, who rebelled against Delhi and refused to remit the tribute. In 1312 Kafur, now entitled Malik Naib, led an expedition to Devagiri marching through the district, defeated and slew Shankar, and annexed his kingdom, including Berar, to the empire. The Buldhana district thus came for the first time directly under Muhammedan administration.

Ala-ud-din Khilji died on January 2, 1316, and in the confusion which followed his death and the subsequent assassination of Malik Naib, Harpal, the son-in-law of Ramachandra, seized Devagiri and ruled it for a short time as an independent king, bringing Berar and with it the Buldhana district once again under Hindu rule; but by 1316 affairs at Delhi had been settled and Kutub-ud-din Mubarak Shah, who was then on the throne, marched southwards again through Buldhana district, attacked Harpal, captured him and caused him to be flayed, and placed his head above one of the gates of Devagiri.³ Buldhana thus passed again, with the rest of Berar, into the hands of the Musalmans, and the province remained nominally under Muhammedan rule and administration until it was assigned under the treaty of 1853 to the East India Company.

Malik Yaklaki was appointed governor of the reconquered provinces and shortly afterwards rebelled. We are not told what part the officers in Berar took in the rebellion, which was suppressed.

Kutub-ud-din Mubarak Shah was assassinated by Malik Khushrav on April 14, 1320. Khushrav ascended the throne but he was defeated and slain on September 5, 1320, by Ghazi-Beg Tughlak, the Turki Governor of the Punjab⁴, who was raised to

¹ Yadav Madhav Kale, *Varhadacha Etihasa*, (1924), p. 81.

² Briggs, I, p. 366; Haig, p. 112.

³ Briggs, p. 389; Haig, p. 121.

⁴ Haig, pp. 125-26.

the imperial throne under the title of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlak Shah. The expeditions to the Deccan in his reign are not directly connected with the history of Berar, but the resources of the province were doubtless taxed in an effort to furnish supplies for the armies from Delhi. The district which was traversed by many expeditions to the Deccan must also have suffered with the rest of the province. Tughlak died in February or March, 1325 and was succeeded by his son, Muhammad-bin-Tughlak, who in 1339 transferred the capital of the empire from Delhi to Devagiri, which he renamed Daulatabad¹. It is likely that the importance of the District which was now in the immediate neighbourhood of the capital of the empire must have been greatly enhanced by this change, but Daulatabad did not long remain the capital.

Maharashtra was now divided into four *sikhs* or provinces, and though the limits of these are not mentioned, it is probable that they corresponded roughly with the four *tarafs* or provinces into which the Bahamani kingdom was afterwards divided, and that Berar, with its capital at Ellichpur, formed one of them. The land revenue of the whole tract was assessed at seven crores of "white tankas" of 175 grains each, or about Rs. 35,00,000. This assessment seems to have been excessive, for we read that the action of the *sikhdars* or provincial governors in collecting it caused widespread discontent and a partial depopulation of the country. The *Sikhdars* were Malik Sardavatdar, Malik Mukhlis-ul-Mulk, Yusuf Bughra, and Aziz Himar or Khammar, but the names of their provinces are not given. All were subordinate to Kutlugh Khan, governor of Daulatabad, whose deputy was Imad-ul-Mulk, but Kutlugh Khan was recalled very soon after his settlement had been made, and it was then that the oppression of the *sikhdars* became unbearable. Immediately subordinate to these *sikhdars* was a class of officials styled centurions, military officers who also performed such civil duties as the collection of the revenue, the prevention and detection of crime, and the maintenance of order.

In 1347 Muhammad-bin-Tughlak marched to Gujarat to quell a rebellion which had broken out among the centurions of the province and, having quietened Gujarat, summoned the centurions of the Deccan, intending to replace those of Gujarat with them, but the officers of the Deccan whose loyalty was not above suspicion feared that they were being called for punishment and when they had travelled one day's march towards Broach, where they had been ordered to assemble, they slew the officers who had been sent to summon them and returned to Daulatabad. Here they rose in rebellion and elected Ismail Fateh, the Afghan, king of the Daccan, with the title of Nasir-ud-din² Shah. This news at once brought Muhammad-bin-Tughlak from Broach to Daulatabad. He defeated the rebels in the field, but the new king took refuge in the fort and Muhammad was unable to capture the

¹ Haig, p. 150.

² So styled by Ferishta; Badaoni and the author of the *Burhan-i-Masir* call him Nasir-ud-din. Briggs, I, p. 438; II, 289.

place. Besides, news soon arrived that a rebellion had broken out afresh in Gujarat,¹ which compelled him to return thither, leaving an army to besiege Daulatabad. This army was defeated and the *amirs* of the Deccan, on Nasir-ud-din abdicating, elected as their king, Hasan, styled Zafar Khan, who ascended the throne as Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah² on August 3, 1347.

Bahamanis.—Bahman Shah, the founder of the Bahamani dynasty of the Deccan, which reigned in fact until 1482 and in name until 1526, divided his kingdom into four *tarafs* or provinces, each under the governorship of a *tarafdar* or provincial governor. The provinces were Berar, Daulatabad, Bidar, and Gulburga³. We have, unfortunately, very little information as to the details of provincial administration, but it is known that the powers of the *tarafdars* were very extensive. The *tarafdar* of Berar, whose headquarters were at Ellichpur, governed a tract of country far larger than the modern province. Berar which is, east of Burhanpur, was bounded on the north by the Tapi and on the east by the Wardha and Pranahita rivers, and extended on the south to the southern Purna and Godavari rivers and on the west approximately to its present limits⁴ marched on its south-western borders, corresponding generally with the western and southern boundary of the Buldhana district with the province of Daulatabad. In this large province the governor was almost independent. He commanded the provincial army, collected the revenues, and made all appointments, both civil and military, including appointments to the command of forts, which were among the most important of all. His duties to the central authority seem to have been confined to the regular remission of a proportion of the revenue and to attending on his sovereign with the army of the province, whenever he might be called upon to do so. We know little or nothing of the administrative divisions of Berar in these early days, but it was probably divided into two principal divisions, one on the north, with its capital at Ellichpur and one on the south with its capital at Mahur⁵. The existing *paraganas* date, almost certainly, from the period of Hindu rule, and the *sarkars* described in the *Ain-i-Akbari* were perhaps a legacy from the days of the Bahamanis.

It would thus appear that the occupants of Buldhana district whether Gonds or Yadavas were compelled to relax their hold when the Muslims consolidated their power in the Deccan. Under Bahman Shah, Berar was the northernmost province of his kingdom, the southern boundary of which was probably the Godavari. The fortress of Mahur, second in importance to only Gavilgad, dominated the southern part of Berar and its strength was usually sufficient to keep the Gonds at bay. A

¹ Haig, *Turks and Afghans*, 169.

² This was his correct title, as a contemporary inscription and legend on coins show the fantastic epithets bestowed on him by various historians are connected with foolish stories. Haig, *Turks and Afghans*, f.n., pp. 170-71; 372-73.

³ Haig, pp. 374-75.

⁴ Haig, *op. cit.*, pp. 374-75.

⁵ Haig, p. 383.

fortress of secondary importance existed at Kalam, and the garrisons of these two places of arms were able as a rule to prevent the Gonds of Chandrapur from crossing the Wardha.

Muhammad Shah Bahamani, who succeeded his father in 1358, elaborated the organization of the four *tarafs* and gave to each *tarafdar* a distinctive title, the governor of Berar being styled Majilis-i-Ali.

The first governor of Berar under the Bahamanis was a Persian, Safdar Khan Sistani. In 1362 he commanded the army of the province in Muhammad Shah's expedition into Telangana and was absent from Berar on this occasion for two years.¹ In 1366, while Muhammad Shah was waging war against Vijayanagar, Bahram Khan Majindarani, deputy governor of Daulatabad, broke into rebellion at the instigation of Kondba Dev, a Maratha, and several of the nobles of Berar, who were related to Bahram Khan, were implicated in the rebellion with him. It is probable that the local officers of the Buldhana district, whose lands lay within easy reach of Daulatabad were among those who joined the rebels. The rebellion was suppressed and its leaders made good their escape into Gujarat. At this time highway robbery seems to have been rife in the Deccan, for Muhammad Shah found it necessary to issue special orders to the *tarafdars* for the suppression of the crime. The remedy was drastic. The male-factors were beheaded and their heads were sent to the capital. Twenty thousand heads were thus collected at Gulburga, and we may presume that Safdar Khan sent his share.²

The provinces were not neglected in the reign of Muhammad I, who toured in one of them every year unless occupied in war, and hunted for three or four months. This information may appear trifling, but it enables us to understand to some extent how Berar was governed in former days and how it was that a kingdom organized as was that of the Bahamanis did not fall to pieces sooner than it did.

Muhammad I, died in 1377³ and was succeeded by his elder son, Mujahid Shah, who made war against Bukka I, of Vijayanagar. Safdar Khan was summoned to the capital with the army of Berar and was sent to besiege Adoni. Bukka I, was defeated before this fortress fell and the siege was relinquished. Mujahid Shah returned slowly through the Raichur *Doab*, hunting as he went, and Safdar Khan and the governor of Bidar, knowing his rash and impetuous disposition, exerted themselves to restrain him from running needless risks in his sport. The king, wearied of their good advice and much against their will, ordered them to return to their provinces. The two governors pursued their way slowly and unwillingly, and shortly after their departure Mujahid was assassinated, on April 15, 1378⁴, at the instigation of

¹ Haig, I, pp. 305, 309.

² Briggs, II, pp. 325-26; Haig, p. 383.

³ Ferishta, however, refers to 21st March 1375 as the date of death of Muhammad Shah I.

⁴ Haig, 384; Ferishta, however, gives the date as April 14, 1378.

his uncle, Daud, whom he had offended during the campaign against the Hindus. Daud hastened to Gulburga in order to ascend the throne, but Safdar Khan and the governor of Bidar refused to attend him there and turned aside to Bijapur, where the royal elephants were stationed. They seized these, divided them between themselves, and returned to their provinces with them. Daud Shah was assassinated on May 20, 1378¹ and was succeeded by his nephew, Muhammad Sah II².

On the accession of Muhammad II, Safdar Khan and the governor of Bidar made their submission and hastened to the capital to offer him their congratulations. Early in his reign there was a severe famine in Berar and the Deccan. A school for famine orphans was established at Ellichpur, where the children were brought up in the Muhammedan faith, and special allowances were given in all towns to religious teachers and to the blind. The district of Buldhana probably suffered equally with the rest of Berar from this severe famine.

Muhammad II, died on April 20, 1397, and was succeeded by his elder son, Ghiyas-ud-din, who was 17 years of age³. In his reign Safdar Khan Sistani, the governor of Berar, died in Ellichpur. His son, Salabat Khan, who had been a playfellow of the young king, was appointed governor of Berar in his father's place, with the title of Majilis-i-Ali. On June 14, 1397, Ghiyas-ud-din was blinded and deposed and his brother Shams-ud-din was placed on the throne. He, however, was deposed and imprisoned at the end of the year and was succeeded by his cousin Taj-ud-din Firoz Shah. The army of Berar, under Salabat Khan, took part in Firoz Shah's campaign against Harihara II, of Vijayanagar in 1398-99. The campaign was eminently successful and Firoz Shah on his return left Pulad Khan, another son of Safdar Khan Sistani, in charge of the Raichur *Doab*⁴. But on this occasion the absence of the governor from Berar produced disastrous results, for Narsingh Dev, the Gond Raja of Kherla, had overrun the province from north to south and occupied it. Narsingh Dev established himself in Mahur. It seems strange that the attack was from Kherla rather than from Chandrapur, but Narsingh Dev was probably instigated by the Sultan of Malva and it is not certain that he received no help from Chandrapur. The whole of Buldhana district was now in the hands of the invaders. Firoz Shah hastened northwards and, after recapturing Mahur, pressed on towards Kherla. At Ellichpur he halted and sent on an army under the command of his brother Ahmad Khan, the Khan-i-Khanan, to punish the Gonds. Ahmad advanced to within a short distance of Kherla and was met by the Gond troops under Narsingh Dev. The Gonds fought with great determination and broke the centre

¹ Ferishta, gives the date as May 21, 1378.

² Most English writers, in deference to Ferishta, who is obviously mistaken as to his king's name, style him Mahmud, in spite of the evidence of coins, inscriptions, and other historians. Mahmud was his father's name—*Vide Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LXXIII, Part I.

³ Briggs, II, p. 353.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 375.

of the Musalmans, slaying Shujat Khan, Rustam Khan, and Dilar Khan¹. The right wing under the command of Ahmad Khan, and the left under the command of Mir Fazl-ullah Anju Siraji still stood fast. Fazl-ullah was told that Ahmad Khan had fallen, but wisely forbade his informant to circulate the rumour, which turned out to be false. He then caused it to be proclaimed that Firoz Shah had come in person to the relief of his troops and caused the great drums to be beaten. The scattered forces of the Muslims rallied to the sound and Mir Fazl-ullah and Ahmad Khan managed to join the forces and to attack the enemy. Gopal Raj, the son of Narsingh Dev, was taken prisoner, and the Gonds were pursued with great slaughter to the gates of Kherla, whither Narsingh Dev arrived only just in time to save his life. Ahmad Khan and Fazl-ullah then besieged the fortress and after a lapse of two months the Gonds offered to surrender on conditions. The Muhammedan generals replied that they had no power to offer terms, and that if Narsingh Dev desired to obtain them it was necessary that he and his chief nobles should make their submission to Firoz Shah in Ellichpur, to which place they were offered a safe conduct. This advice was followed, and the *raja* swore at the foot-stool of Firoz in Ellichpur that he and his successors would be faithful liegemen of the Bahamanis as their predecessor had been in the days of Bahman Shah. Narsingh Dev was dismissed with honour after paying tribute. After receiving the Gond chieftains humble submission, Firoz Shah returned to Gulburga but it is not certain whether he returned as he had come, or whether he followed the more usual route through Buldhana district in western Berar.

The names of the Muhammedan nobles killed at the battle of Kherla are worthy of attention, for, as we have seen, they probably provided the apocryphal Abdur Rahman with a local habitation and a name. They were four in number and it appears probable that the requisite tale of five was completed by Salabat Khan, the governor of Berar, for no more is heard of this *tarafdar*, and Firoz Shah, immediately before he left Ellichpur for Gulburga, appointed Mir Fazl-ullah Anju, governor of Berar.

In 1406 Firoz Shah was at war with Vijayanagar and the army of Berar under Fazl-ullah was employed in the siege of Bankapur. The expedition was successful. Bankapur, with the country surrounding it, was annexed to the Bahamani dominions², and Fazl-ullah and his army returned to Berar. In 1412 Firoz Shah indulged in an apparently purposeless campaign in Gondvana in which the army of Berar probably took a principal part³.

In 1417 Firoz embarked on a disastrous war against Vira Vijaya of Vijayanagar, near Pangal. Mir Fazl-ullah Anju who, with the army of Berar, played a dominant role in the decisive battle of the campaign, in which the Muslims were defeated, was

¹ Briggs, II, pp. 376-77.

² *Ibid*, p. 384; Haig, p. 392.

³ Haig, p. 393.

treacherously slain by a Kanarese attendant who had been bribed by his co-religionists. The affairs of the kingdom fell into great confusion and nobody was immediately appointed to succeed the slain *tarafdar* of Berar, but the government of the province was probably carried on by the deputy whom Fazl-ullah had left behind him when he set out on the fatal expedition.

In 1422 Ahmad Khan deposed his brother Firoz Shah and ascended the throne in Gulburga as Ahmad Shah I, on September 22, 1422. His first care was to bring the war with the Hindus to a successful conclusion, and in the attainment of this object he laid waste the territories of Vijayanagar. After one of his actions he was separated from his army while hunting and nearly fell into the hands of a band of resolute Hindu warriors, but was rescued by Abdul Kadir, a commander of 200 horse and captain of the guard, whose soldierly precautions averted the disaster which Ahmad's foolish behaviour courted. Abdul Kadir's reward was the vacant governorship of Berar with the title of Khan-i-Jahan¹ in addition to the *ex-officio* title of Majilis-i-Ali. Abdul Kadir, who held the governorship of Berar for nearly forty years, was the son of Muhammad Isa, the son of Mahmud, the son of a Turk named Malik Hindui who received the title of Imad-ul-Mulk from Bahman Shah, and held under that king the appointment of inspector-general of the forces. The Khan-i-Jahan was thus a Deccani of Turki descent.

Ahmad Shah made peace with Vira Vijaya and then set out to capture Warangal, which fell into the hands of Abdul Latif Khan-i-Azam, the Governor of Bidar. The king then returned to his capital.

The army of Berar bore an honourable part in Ahmad Shah's successes against the Hindus of the south, but the defeat of the Muhammedans before the deposition of Firoz, and the absence of the provincial army, had encouraged rebels to assert themselves in Eastern Berar. That the ruler of Chandrapur was largely responsible for these troubles is evident from the fact that Ahmad Shah, who had many other matters to occupy him and would not have been likely to waste his strength in acts of wanton aggression, sent an expedition from Kalam into the Chandrapur dominions where, besides ravaging the country the Muhammedans captured a diamond mine. The locality of the mine is not precisely indicated, but it is mentioned again at a later period, and it would be interesting to trace the situation of ancient diamond working in Vidarbha.

From Kalam Ahmad Shah marched to Ellichpur, his actions in which place, being directed principally towards strengthening the northern frontier with a view either to meeting attacks or to extending his dominions, do not directly concern the Buldhana District. Having completed his arrangements on the northern frontier he retired in a leisurely manner towards Gulburga in

¹ Briggs, II, pp. 402-03; Haig, pp. 397-98.

1428, and Hoshang Shah, of Malva, took advantage of this retrograde movement to attack Narsingh Dev of Kherla, whom he had been unable to detach from his allegiance to the Bahamani king. The army of Berar under Abdul Kadir, the Khan-i-Jahan, was ordered to march to the assistance of Narsingh Dev, while Ahmad Shah returned northwards to its support. His leisurely movements fostered the belief that he feared to meet Hoshang in the field, and Hoshang openly boasted that Ahmad dared not encounter him. Ahmad, much incensed by this boast, set forth to attack Hoshang but was dissuaded from doing so by the doctors of religion in his camp, and contended himself with sending a message to warn Hoshang against interfering with a vassal of Gulbarga. After the despatch of this message he retired southwards followed by Hoshang, who was now convinced that Ahmad feared him. Hoshang's entrance into Berar removed the religious scruples which had hitherto restrained Ahmad from attacking a brother Muslim, and he halted his army and awaited the advance of the army of Malva, which moved forward all unprepared for any opposition. The invaders suffered a severe defeat and Hoshang Shah fled, leaving the ladies of his harem in the hands of the victors. As he fled towards Mandu the Gonds of Kherla fell upon his beaten army and completed the heavy tale of slaughter. Ahmad Shah's religious scruples once more asserted themselves, and in compensation for the loss which had been inflicted on the army of Malva by an unbelieving foe he despatched Hoshang's ladies to him under the charge of a trusty guard, with many eunuchs whom he presented to him as a free gift.

It is only fair to say that there is another version of this story of the war between Hoshang Shah and Ahmad Shah in Berar and that according to that version Ahmad Shah was the aggressor and was marching to attack Narsingh Dev when Hoshang came to the latter's aid. There is something to be said for this version for it is improbable that Narsingh Dev gave much thought to his allegiance to Gulbarga when Firoz Shah was in difficulties with Vira Vijaya of Vijaynagar, and it is not unlikely that he was concerned in the occupation of Mahur and Kalam; but on the whole the version first given is to be preferred. Narsingh Dev accompanied Ahmad Shah on his return march and parted from him at Mahur whence he was dismissed with many rich presents.

In 1433 the Bahamani kingdom was exhausted after a war with Gujarat. Hoshang Shah, taking advantage of its condition attacked the territory of the kingdom when Nasir Khan, king of Khandesh, intervened, prevented an outbreak of war between his two powerful neighbours, and proposed terms of peace which were accepted by both parties. These were that Hoshang Shah should retain possession of Kherla, and that Berar should continue to form part of Ahmad Shah's kingdom. These terms were most unfavourable to Ahmad Shah, and his acceptance of them is an indication of the extent to which his kingdom had suffered in the war with Gujarat. It is probable that in consequence of his weakness the Buldhana district as well as the rest

of Berar was subject to inroads from Malva and Chandrapur and the events of his son's reign bear out this view.

Ahmad Shah I, died on 19th February 1435 and was succeeded by his eldest son, Ala-ud-din Ahmad Shah II, who had married the daughter of Nasir Khan. This lady, in a fit of jealousy, complained to her father that her husband was neglecting her for a Hindu mistress¹, the daughter of the *Raja* of Sangameshvar by bestowing upon her the title of *Ziba Chihra* or 'beautiful face', and Nasir Khan prepared to invade his son-in-law's dominions. Having obtained the assent of Ahmad Shah of Gujarat to his enterprise he began to prepare his way by detaching the nobles of Berar from their allegiance to the Bahamani king. Nasir Khan claimed descent from the second *Khalifa*, Umar-ul-Faruk, and succeeded beyond expectation in persuading many of the officers in Berar that the one who fell fighting in the cause of the descendants of the greatest of the prophet's successors would receive the reward promised to martyrs for the faith. It is not easy to understand how the officers of Berar were deceived; for Nasir Khan allied himself with Gonds and probably with the Korkus of the Melghat also, but many fell into the trap and formed a strong party in Berar against the Bahamani king. Nasir Khan accordingly entered into Berar marching southwards from Burhanpur through the Buldhana district with all the troops of Khandesh, a considerable force having been also sent to his aid by the *Raja* of Gondvana. The treacherous officers attempted to seize the governor, Khan Jahan, who was too firmly attached to the house of Bahamanis to join the invaders; and he, obtaining information of their designs, fled to the fortress of Narnala, where he shut himself up, and wrote accounts of the state of affairs to his court. The traitors, meanwhile, joined Nasir Khan, and not only read the *khutba* in his name as king of Berar, but marched with him to besiege Narnala.

Ala-ud-din Shah, on receiving this intelligence, called a council of his ministers and military chiefs, to concert measures for acting at such a critical moment. It was recommended that the king should proceed in person against the enemy, it being probable that both the kings of Gujarat and Malva, as also the *Rais* of Gondvana, were prepared to aid in assisting Nasir Khan. The king, however, suspecting the fidelity of his chiefs, appointed Khalaf Hasan Basri-Malik-ut-Tujjar, then governor of Daulatabad and leader of the foreigners, to conduct the campaign. He requested the king to give him the command of the household troops, and all the foreigners, without any Deccanis or Abyssinians, to bring the royal affairs in Berar to a prosperous issue². 'Ala-ud-din Shah consenting, directed three thousand Moghal bowmen from the body-guards³ to attend him, as also many

¹ Briggs, II, p. 424.

² Khalaf Hasan Basri, (Malik-ut-Tujjar) was a foreign merchant. The hostility of the Deccanis and Abyssinians to the Persians and Turks seems to have prevailed throughout the long period of the reign of the Deccan kings.

³ Among these body-guards were two princes, Majnun Sultan and Shah Kully Sultan, both lineal descendants from the great conqueror Chungis Khan.

Moghal officers, who had been brought up in the service of Firoz Shah and Ahmad Shah. Malik-ut-Tujjar left Daulatabad with 7,000 foreign horse, despatching an army on observation to the frontiers of Gujarat and Malva and entered into Berar. Khan Jahan also, having found an opportunity of quitting Narnala, joined the king's army at Mehkar. Malik-ut-Tujjar now detached Khan Jahan with his troops to Ellichpur and Balapur, in order to prevent the *Rais* of Gondavana from entering Berar by that route, while himself moved with the main body towards the Rohinkheda Ghat.

Meanwhile, Nasir Khan had reached Rohinkheda where Khalaf Hasan Basri, marching northwards, met him. In the battle which was fought there Nasir Khan was defeated and fled to Burhanpur, closely pursued by Khalaf Hasan. On the approach of the Deccanis, Nasir Khan fled to the fortress of Laling*, where he took refuge, leaving Burhanpur to be sacked. Khalaf Hasan then succeeded in drawing Nasir Khan from his refuge and induced him to attack in the open. Nasir Khan sustained another defeat and many of the rebellious nobles of Berar, who had taken refuge with him, were slain. Khalaf Hasan then returned to Bidar laden with spoil.

In 1453 Jalal Khan, who had married Ala-ud-din Ahmad's sister, rebelled in Telangana and attempted to raise his son, Sikandar Khan, the grandson of Ahmad Shah I, to the throne. Ala-ud-din Ahmad Shah assembled his forces and Jalal Khan sent Sikandar Khan to Mahur in order that he might create a diversion there. Sikandar Khan occupied Mahur and sent a message to Mahmud Shah Khilji of Malva, informing him that the Bahamani king was dead but that his attendants were concealing the fact of his death for their own ends. He added that if Mahmud Shah took the field, Berar and Telangana would fall into his hands without a struggle. Mahmud Shah believed this report, and after consulting Adil Khan II, the ruler of Khandesh, invaded Berar in 1456 and encamped in the plains about the fortress of Mahur. On hearing of this aggression Ala-ud-din Ahmad Shah changed his plans. He left Khwaja Mahmud Gavan to act against Jalal Khan in Telangana; detailed the army of Berar to watch Adil Khan of Khandesh and to prevent him from co-operating with Mahmud Shah; ordered Kasim Beg Safshikan, governor of Daulatabad, to march on Mahur; and himself, with his household troops and the army of Bijapur, marched towards the same fortress. Mahmud Shah was very wroth when he learnt how he had been tricked by Sikandar Khan, and being unprepared to meet Ala-ud-din Ahmad in the field, fled towards Mandu by night, leaving behind him an officer with instructions to prevent Sikandar from returning to his former allegiance and to send him as a captive to Mandu should he show any inclination to make his submission to Ala-ud-din Ahmad. Sikandar Khan discovered that he was virtually in custody and contrived

*Ashirgarh, according to another authority.

to elude his jailor and to escape from Mahur with two thousand men. He fled to Nalgonda, where Khwaja Mahmud Gavan was besieging his father, and here both father and son submitted and were pardoned. Fakhr-ul-Mulk, the Turk who had been governor of Mahur before he was ejected by Sikandar Khan, was reinstated by Ala-ud-din Ahmad Shah.

Ala-ud-din Ahmad II, died in 1458 and was succeeded by his son Humayun "the Tyrant" who had hardly ascended the throne when Jalal Khan and Sikandar Khan, the two nobles who had rebelled in the previous reign, again rose in rebellion. The governor of Berar who had visited the capital for the purpose of offering his congratulations to the new king was employed against the rebels, but was defeated, and the rising was ultimately suppressed by Humayun¹. We hear no more of Berar during this brief and troubled reign. When Humayun Shah was taken ill and thought that he would die, he appointed his eldest son, Nizam Shah, then only eight years of age, his successor. Having summoned Khwaja Jahan Turk from Berar, and Khwaja Mahmud Gavan from Telangana² he made his will, constituting them regents and guardians of his son during his minority and commanding them strictly, at the same time, to transact no business without the cognisance of the queen-mother³. Humayun Shah died on September 4, 1461 and was succeeded by his son Nizam Shah, aged eight. In 1462 Mahmud Shah of Malwa, taking advantage of the new king's young age, invaded the Deccan by the route through the Buldhana district which had been followed by Nasir Khan of Khandesh and was afterwards to become the highway to the conquest of southern India. The army of Bidar was employed in keeping off the *rajas* of Telangana and Orissa, who had invaded the Bahamani dominions of the east, and the armies of Berar, Daulatabad and Gulburga marched to meet Mahmud Shah. A battle was fought at Kandhar about seventy miles north of Bidar, and the Bahamani forces were defeated. Nizam Shah was carried off by his mother to Firozabad near Gulburga while Mahmud Shah of Malwa sacked Bidar. He had begun to lay siege to the citadel when he heard that Mahmud Shah of Gujarat, to whom Nizam Shah's mother had appealed for help, had reached the north-western frontier of the Bahamani kingdom with 80,000 horse. Mahmud Gavan, one of the chief nobles of Bahamani kingdom, joined the Gujaratis with five or six thousand cavalry, and continued to raise and borrow troops until he was able to take the field with an army of 40,000 Deccani and Gujarati horse. He sent 10,000 Deccani horse into Berar to cut off the invader's retreat and marched towards Bidar with the

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 114.

² Haig mentions that Khwaja Jahan, the Turk, and Nizam-ul-Mulk were sent to Warangal to fight the Hindus of Telangana and especially those of the district of Deurkonda, who had supported Sikandar Khan. One of the *Rajas* of Orissa helping the Hindus, Khwaja Jahan and Nizam-ul-Mulk were defeated. Khwaja Jahan basely attributed the disaster to his colleague, and Nizam-ul-Mulk was put to death by Humayun Shah. Khwaja Jahan was imprisoned. Haig, *op. cit.*, pp. 410-11.

³ Makhaduma Jahan Nargis Begam.

remainder of his force. Encamping between Bid and Kandhar he cut off the besiegers' supplies but would not risk a battle, though Mahmud Shah of Malva could not put more than 30,000 horse into the field. At length the army of Malva was starved out and Mahmud Shah of Malva, after blinding his elephants and burning his heavy baggage, retreated northwards through eastern Berar. He was pursued and harassed throughout his retreat by Mahmud Gavan and the ten thousand horse which had been awaiting him in Berar. In order to avoid Mahmud Gavan on the one hand and escape Mahmud Shah of Gujarat on the other, he resolved to retreat through the hills of the Melghat and engaged one of the Korku *rajas* of that tract as a guide. After leading him by Ellichpur and Akot the *raja* took him into the hills and there intentionally led him astray. In the Melghat the army of Malva perished by thousands from heat and thirst and by the attacks of the Korkus, who were instigated by their *raja*. When the remnant of the army at length emerged from the wild hilly country, Mahmud Shah of Malva had the Korku *raja* put to death¹.

In the following year he again invaded Berar through the Buldhana district, but the Deccanis were prepared for him and again sought help from Gujarat, whereupon Mahmud of Malva withdrew in haste to his own dominions.

Nizam Shah died on July 20, 1463 and was succeeded by his brother Muhammad III, surnamed Lashkari or "the soldier".

In 1467 Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Turk, who had commanded the left wing in the battle of Kandhar against Mahmud Shah of Malva, was appointed governor of Berar and was ordered to capture Kherla, where a Gond prince still owed allegiance to Malva. The army of Berar marched against Kherla and besieged it and the army of Malva, in an attempt to raise the siege, was signally defeated. Kherla fell, but two Rajputs² of the place approached Nizam-ul-Mulk under the pretence of making their submission to him and assassinated him. They then attacked his attendants and were put to death. The two officers next in authority to Nizam-ul-Mulk were Yusuf Adil Khan³, afterwards the founder of the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur, and Darya Khan, the Turk. These nobles argued that the desperate enterprise of the two Rajputs could not have been undertaken otherwise than at the instigation of some of the inhabitants of Kherla and a massacre of these unfortunates, with their wives and children, followed. Yusuf and Darya left a force to hold Kherla and returned to Bidar with the body of their late leader. Muhammad Shah approved of their action and bestowed Kherla upon them in

¹ *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 134.

² Haig, p. 480. Sayyad Ali says that he was killed by the commandant of the fort.

³ There is some conflict of authorities here. Some historians give the name of Yusuf Adil Khan, the Deccani, a much less distinguished person, but a bitter enemy of Yusuf Adil Khan Savai, as he was called. On the whole the account given in the text is the more probable.

jahagir. Mahamud Shah of Malva now sent an embassy to Muhammad Shah and reminded him of the treaty between Ahmad Shah Bahamani and Hoshang Shah of Malva, in which it was stipulated that Kherla should belong to Malva and Berar to the Bahamanis. He besought Muhammad Shah not to be a breaker of treaties, or the means of stirring up strife between Musalmans. Muhammad Shah returned to him a dignified reply by Shaikh Ahmad, the *Sadr*, and Sharif ul-Mulk. He thanked god that no one of the race of Bahman had ever been known to break a treaty and reminded Mahmud Shah that when the affairs of the Bahamani kingdom were in confusion after the accession of the boy-king Nizam Shah it was Mahmud himself who had broken faith by invading the Bahamani dominions. In every corner of the empire of Karnatak, which was still in the hands of the infidels, there were many fortresses like Kherla and since these were ready to his hand he had no wish to deprive a brother Musalman of his fortresses. A new treaty was concluded whereby either sovereign bound himself by the most solemn oaths not to molest or invade the dominions of the other, and Kherla, which had been annexed to Berar, was handed back by Muhammad Shah to the king of Malva¹.

The governorship of Berar seems to have remained vacant for a few years after the death of Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Turk, until in 1471 Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk was made governor. This *amir* is worthy of special notice for he founded the Imad Shahi dynasty, which reigned in Berar for a period of eighty years. He was a Brahman of Vijayanagar who was captured by the Musalmans in 1422 early in the reign of Ahmad Shah and was bestowed on the Khan-i-Jahan, who was appointed governor of Berar immediately after the conclusion of the campaign, and was brought up as a Musalman, but never forgot his Brahman descent or his native land. Fateh-ullah had spent all his service, if we except temporary periods of absence in the field, in Berar and was a very fair instance of the strength and the weakness of the provincial system of the Bahamani kingdom. He seems to have been sincerely attached to the province, despite his pride of race and descent, and to have been at the same time a faithful servant of the Bahamanis. In his later years, when troubles gathered thick and fast around the head of the descendant of Bahman Shah and when the provincial governors were driven rather than tempted to rebellion, he was regarded as the Nestor of the Deccan, and his entire freedom from party prejudice was displayed in his grief and anger at the unjust execution of Mahmud Gavan, a foreigner, and in his unwavering friendship for Yusuf Adil Khan Savai, another foreigner, who differed from him in religion, being a staunch *Shiah* while Fateh-ullah was an equally staunch *Sunni*.

Buldhana district, with the rest of Berar and the Deccan, suffered from the terrible two years of famine in 1473, and 1474 and most of those who escaped death from starvation fled to

¹ *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 140.

Malva and Gujarat. In the third year rain fell, but prosperity was slow to return, for there were few left to till the soil and the wanderers returned by slow degrees.¹

As stated earlier, Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk had been appointed Governor of Berar in 1471 and Khudavand Khan, an African, governed the southern districts of the province as his subordinate, having his headquarters at Mahur.

In the campaigns of Muhammad III, in Orissa, Telangana, and the Peninsula, Fateh-ullah, with the army of Berar, bore a share. In 1480, before these campaigns had been brought to a close, the four provinces into which the Deccan had been divided by Bahman Shah were sub-divided into eight by Muhammad III, on the advice of his minister Mahmud Gavan. Berar was divided into the two new provinces of northern Berar, named Gavil, and southern Berar, named Mahur. The line of demarcation is not recorded, but it is not unreasonable to suppose that it followed the northern crest line of Balaghat plateau in which case the Chikhli and Melghat tahsils must have been included in the province of Mahur and the Malkapur, Khamgaon, and Jalgaon tahsils in that of Gavil. At the same time the powers of the provincial governors were much curtailed. Many *paraganas* of the provinces were made *khas* and were administered by officers appointed direct by the crown, while the governors were allowed to appoint a commandant only to the chief fort in each province, all other commandants of forts being appointed direct by the king. These belated reforms caused much dissatisfaction among some of the *tarafdars*, but the faithful Fateh-ullah, though stripped of half his province, seems to have taken no exception to them and he and Khudavand Khan remained good friends and invariably worked in concert. The malcontents, however, entered into a conspiracy against Mahmud Gavan, the author of the reforms, and compassed his death on April 5, 1481². Muhammad III, who was their dupe, discovered his minister's innocence when it was too late and bitterly repented his action. Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk and Khudavand Khan, with the troops of Berar, left the royal camp and encamped at a distance of two leagues from it. When asked the reason of this move Fateh-ullah boldly replied that when so old and faithful a servant as Mahmud Gavan could be murdered on the lying reports of false witnesses nobody within the king's reach was safe. The wretched king, now smitten with remorse, sent a secret message imploring them to return that he might take counsel with them regarding the punishment of those who had brought Khvaja Mahmud to his death, but Fateh-ullah and Khudavand Khan replied that they would shape their conduct on that of Yusuf Adil Khan, who was then absent on a distant expedition. Yusuf was at once recalled and joined Fateh-ullah and Khudavand Khan. The three *tarafdars* then entered the royal camp and made their demands. They did not succeed in bringing the ringleaders of the conspiracy to punishment, but Yusuf

¹Haig, p. 417.

²Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas, p. 160.

obtained the province of Bijapur, which enabled him to make provision for the followers of the deceased minister. Shortly after this the *tarafdars* were dismissed to their provinces.

Fateh-ullah and Khudavand Khan were recalled from Berar shortly afterwards in order that they might attend Muhammad III, on a progress through the province of Bijapur. They obeyed the summons, but both on the march and in camp placed a distance between themselves and the royal camp, and saluted the king from a far when he marched. In this manner the armies reached Belgaon whence the *tarafdars* were ordered to accompany the king to Goa and the Konkan, which they refused to do. Yusuf Adil Khan, however, marched to the aid of Goa, then besieged by Rajashekhar of Vijayanagar, while Muhammad III, marched to Firozabad. Fateh-ullah and Khudavand Khan refused to accompany him any further, and returned to Berar without leave. Muhammad felt their defection deeply, but dared not resent it, for he knew that their mistrust of him was justified, and that civil war would but hasten the disruption of his kingdom.

Muhammad Shah died of drink on 22nd March 1482, and was succeeded by his son Mahmud Shah, a boy of twelve; all power in the capital was held by Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-Mulk,¹ the principal enemy of the late Mahmud Gavan, who was now minister of the kingdom. Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk, on visiting the capital to congratulate the young king on his accession, was made titular minister of the kingdom, his son Shaikh Ala-ud-din being appointed his deputy in northern Berar, but the intrigues and massacres of the capital were not to the veteran's taste,² and he returned to Ellichpur without having exercised the duties of his post at the capital³.

Imad Shahi of Berar.—Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-Mulk was assassinated before 1485 and affairs in Bidar went from bad to worse. The young king showed a precocious bent towards debauchery and the administration passed into the hands of Kasim Barid, a Turk. The *tarafdars*, well aware that all orders issued from the capital were the orders framed by this upstart ceased to heed them, and were practically independent attending only occasionally with their armies when summoned to do so. This attendance only accentuated the humiliation of the nominal ruler, whose splendour was utterly eclipsed by that of the armaments which the *tarafdars* brought into the field.

In 1490 Malik Ahmad, the son of Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-Mulk, having founded Ahmadnagar and made preparations for securing his independence, invited Yusuf Adil Khan of Bijapur and Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk of Gavil to join him in assuming the style and insignia of royalty⁴. Although Fateh-ullah Imad Shah was considered *Sultan* of Berar, parts of Buldhana district

¹Dr. B. G. Kunte : *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 2.

²Haig, p. 423.

³Briggs, II, p. 528.

⁴Haig, pp. 425-26, foot-note.

and the rest of southern Berar remained for some years under the rule of Khudavand Khan of Mahur, who was as independent of Gavil as he was of Bidar, though he seems never to have committed himself to a formal declaration of independence. The compact was sealed by the consent of each of these three provincial governors, and each had the *khutba* read in the mosques of his kingdom in his own name, omitting that of Mahmud Shah Bahamani. Henceforth these rulers will be known by the titles Yusuf Adil Shah, Ahmad Nizam Shah, and Fateh-ullah Imad Shah, though Yusuf and Fateh-ullah appear to have been very chary of using the royal title.

The supremacy of Kasim Barid in the capital had, however, convinced Fateh-ullah of the necessity for some decisive step, and the veteran statesman had already prepared himself for possible opposition by improving the defences of Gavilgad and Narnala.

Although Fateh-ullah had declared himself independent he still regarded himself, to some extent, as a vassal of the Bahamani king. Thus in 1494, when a rebel named Bahadur Gilani, who had established himself on the western coast of the Deccan, committed, in Gujarat, excesses which caused Mahmud Shah of that country to demand his punishment at the hands of Mahmud Shah Bahamani, Fateh-ullah Imad Shah, together with Yusuf Adil Shah and Ahmad Nizam Shah, responded to his old master's appeal and aided him against the rebel, who was defeated and slain after a long and arduous campaign. But the aid thus rendered differed from the submissive attendance of the *tarafdars* in former times for the *Sultans* as now they did not attend in person but sent contingents.

In 1504 Yusuf Adil Shah, who was a *Shiah*, had the *khutba* read in the mosques of the Bijapur kingdom after the *Shiah* fashion, he being the first Muhammedan ruler in India to make this public profession of the *Shiah* faith. Amir Barid who had succeeded his father, Kasim Barid, in that same year sent notices in Mahmud Shah's name to Fateh-ullah Imad Shah, Khudavand Khan of Mahur, and Sultan Kuli Kutub-ul-Mulk, who had been appointed governor of Telangana and had established himself at Golconda, asking them to combine to stamp out the heresy. The result of the appeal was curious. Sultan Kuli Kutub-ul-Mulk who was himself a devoted *Shiah*, responded to it at once, apparently on the ground that Yusuf Adil Shah's act was a more pronounced declaration of opposition to Bahamani traditions than his mere assumption of independence. Fateh-ullah Imad Shah, and Khudavand Khan, on the other hand, though both were professed *Sunnis*, showed very clearly their disinclination to act against their old ally, excused themselves. As to what followed, there is a conflict of authority. Ferishta, says that Amir Barid was much perplexed by the contumacy of the two chiefs of Berar and applied to Ahmad Nizam Shah for aid which was promptly rendered. Ali-bin Aziz-ullah Tabatabai, whose dates do not agree with those of Ferishta, though he is clearly referring

to the same incident, writes that Mahmud Shah, on becoming aware of Fateh-ullah Imad Shah's refusal to take the field against Yusuf Adil Shah, marched into Berar, whereupon Fateh-ullah who was no more willing to take up arms against the Bahamani than against Yusuf, made his submission to him. Ferishta's account is to be preferred, for he was though sometimes misinformed, always impartial, whereas the author of the *Burhan-i-Maasir* was an uncompromising partisan of the Nizam Shahi kings and also strangely enough, a strenuous supporter of the fiction that Mahmud Shah was as independent a king as any of his forefathers. Moreover, immediately after its account of these events, the *Burhan-i-Maasir* goes wildly astray in its references to Fateh-ullah Imad Shah and Yusuf Adil Shah. The following is the true account of what happened. Amir Barid with Mahmud Shah, Sultan Kuli Kutub-ul-Mulk, Ahmad Nizam Shah, and Fakhr-ul-Mulk, the Deccani, marched against Yusuf Adil Shah, who finding that his external foes and the *Sunnis* in his own kingdom were too strong for him, left Fakhr-ul-Mulk, the Turk, to hold Gulburga and the surrounding country, sent his infant son Ismail with Kamal Khan, the Deccani, to Bijapur, and made the best of his way, with 5,000 horse, to the territories of his old friend Fateh-ullah Imad Shah, closely pursued by the allies who followed him almost to the gates of Gavilgad. Fateh-ullah was again greatly perplexed¹. He would not give up the refugee, he would not fight for the *Shiah* religion, and in no circumstances would he draw the sword against the Bahamani king. He, therefore, despatched Yusuf Adil Shah, to Daud Khan of Khandesh, while he proceeded to make terms with the invaders of Berar. His methods are a fair example of the astuteness which he seems always to have brought into play in the interests of justice and toleration. He sent envoys to Ahmad Nizam Shah and Sultan Kuli Kutub-ul-Mulk to apprise them of his view of the quarrel which was that Amir Barid, well-known, he said, as 'the fox of the Deccan', was not actuated in his persecution of Yusuf Adil Shah by religious scruples, but merely desired to gain possession of Bijapur. Should he attain his object, the old diplomatist added, the position of those who held the other provinces of the kingdom would not be enviable, for Amir Barid already held the Bahamani king in the hollow of his hand and wanted but an addition to his territorial possessions to make him supreme in the Deccan. This entirely correct view of the situation impressed itself on Ahmad Nizam Shah and Kutub-ul-Mulk, who at once returned to their provinces without even going through the form of bidding Mahmud Shah farewell. The *Sultan* of Berar was now free to deal with the *Sultan* of Bidar. He represented to Mahmud that there was nothing to be gained by prosecuting the war and that the wisest course was to proclaim that Yusuf was pardoned and to return to Bidar. Mahmud Shah was inclined to accept this counsel, but Amir Barid did not intend to let Bijapur slip through his fingers so easily and was about to

¹ Briggs, II, p. 548.

carry Mahmud off to besiege Bidar, but meanwhile Yusuf Adil Shah had heard of the retreat of Ahmad Nizam Shah and Kutub-ul-Mulk and returned with all haste from Burhanpur to Gavilgad. He now took the field against Mahmud Shah, or rather against Amir Barid, who perceiving that he was no match for Yusuf and Fateh-ullah in combination, hurriedly retreated to Bidar, leaving Berar in peace. The minister Amir Barid put the king under great restraint than before. Weary of the situation Mahmud Shah found the means to effect his escape to Gavil in Berar where he procured assistance from Imad-ul-Mulk who marched with him towards the capital. Amir Barid shutting himself up in the citadel, applied for relief to Burhan Nizam-ul-Mulk, the son of the late Ahmad Nizam Shah¹, who despatched Khvaja Jahan to join him with considerable force. Amir Barid and his ally now rallied forth against the troops of Imad-ul-Mulk, who prepared to receive them, and drew up his army for action². The king joined the line as soon as possible, but suddenly spurring his horse, galloped over to Amir Barid's army. Imad-ul-Mulk immediately retreated with precipitation towards his own country and the minister returned triumphantly into the city with the king. Amir Barid, in 1507, found it necessary to march with the king to Mahur against Bashir Khan³, who with his son, was slain in the battle and Mahur was conferred on Ghalib Khan, another son of Khudavand Khan.

The date of the death of Fateh-ullah Imad Shah is variously given as 1504 and 1510. The latter seems to be a mistake. His age when he was taken from Vijayanagar in 1422 is not given, and we are merely told that he was then a boy⁴. Assuming his age to have been ten years at that time he must have been 82 years of age at the time of his death. Fateh-ullah was succeeded by his son Ala-ud-din Imad Shah, of whom Ferishta contradictorily says that he was the first of the dynasty to use the royal title. There can be little doubt that his father used it occasionally, certainly in his correspondence with Yusuf Adil Shah and Ahmad Nizam Shah, to whom he would not have admitted himself to be inferior, but it is likely that he refrained from using it in correspondence with the Bahamani king.

The early part of Ala-ud-din's reign is obscure. According to one authority he quietly succeeded his father, but according to another he was a prisoner in the fort of Ramgiri, in Telangana, at the time of his father's death, in the power of Amir Barid and remained in captivity until he was rescued by one of the sons of

¹ In 1509 Ahmad Nizam Shah died and was succeeded by his son, Burhan I.

² It happened that the king was bathing at the time; and the messenger sent by Imad-ul-Mulk to inform him of the enemy's approach insolently remarked, within his hearing, that it was no wonder a prince who could be so employed at such a critical moment should be the derision of his nobles. The king, stung with the reproof and enraged at what he thought proceeded from the insolence of Imad-ul-Mulk, joined Amir Barid's army. Briggs, *op. cit.*, II, p. 551.

³ Sharza Khan, the son and successor of Khudavand Khan of Mahur. Sharza Khan and one of his brothers were slain. Ala-ud-din Imad Shah marched to the relief of Mahur and compelled Amir Barid to retire.

⁴ Briggs, III, pp. 485-86.

Khudavand Khan of Mahur. On his release Ala-ud-din is said to have proceeded at once to Gavilgad and to have assumed government of his father's kingdom, while Mahmud Shah Bahamani, at the request of Yusuf Adil Shah, conferred upon him his father's title of Imad-ul-Mulk. This story is improbable. In the first place the dates are wrong for Fateh-ullah is represented as having died before 1500, whereas he was certainly alive in 1504, and in the second place it is highly improbable that Fateh-ullah, who had, as we have seen, great power and influence in the Deccan would have left his son—his only son so far as we know—in the hands of his greatest enemy, 'the fox of the Deccan'. The more probable story is that which represents Ala-ud-din Imad Shah as quietly succeeding his father in Ellichpur.

In 1509 Burhan Nizam Shah succeeded his father Ahmad in Ahmadnagar at the age of seven¹. The administration of that kingdom was in the hands of Mukammal Khan², who had been Ahmad's minister, and the Deccani nobles of the State, whose predominance was distasteful to the 'foreigners', *i.e.*, the Persian and Turki soldiers of fortune who always formed a political party of their own in the Deccan. The foreigners conspired to overthrow the Deccanis, and on the failure of their plot³ fled from Ahmadnagar with 8,000 horse and took refuge with Ala-ud-din Imad Shah in Ellichpur. They found no difficulty in persuading him that the affairs of Ahmadnagar were in hopeless confusion and that the conquest of that kingdom would be an easy task.

Ala-ud-din, without waiting to consider how far the interests of the fugitives had coloured their story, collected his troops from Gavilgad and Ellichpur and marched through Buldhana district to the borders of Ahmadnagar. Mukammal Khan was prepared and met him. After a severely contested battle victory declared itself for Ahmadnagar⁴, and Ala-ud-din with the army of Berar fled to Ellichpur. The army of Ahmadnagar followed up its victory and laid waste the greater part of south-western Berar including Buldhana district pressing Ala-ud-din so hard that he deserted his country and fled to Burhanpur, where he besought Adil Khan III, the ruler of Khandesh, to use his good offices in the cause of peace⁵. Adil Khan of Khandesh and his doctors of religion brought about a peace, but quarrels soon broke out afresh.

In 1514 Mahmud Shah made an abortive attempt to escape from the clutches of Amir Barid. It failed owing to his own slothfulness and readiness to take offence, and its failure seems to have exasperated Khudavand Khan of Mahur who occupied himself in raiding and ravaging Amir Barid's territory in the

¹ Briggs, III, p. 211.

² *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 41.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 41-42.

⁵ Briggs, III, p. 214.

direction of Kandhar and Udgir until, in 1517, Amir Barid, taking Mahmud Shah with him, marched against Mahur and captured it, slaying Khudavand Khan and his eldest son, Sharza Khan. Another son, Mahmud Khan¹, was appointed to the command of Mahur as the servant of Ala-ud-din Imad Shah, a politic concession which was evidently intended to hinder the *Sultan* of Berar from interfering in the affairs of Bidar.

Khudavand Khan, though apparently independent, had always been on the most friendly terms with Fateh-ullah and invariably acted in concert with him; but Berar was once more united on the death of the governor of Mahur, and the Buldhana district became part of Ala-ud-din's kingdom.

Burhan Nizam Shah's grandfather, Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-Mulk, was descended of a Brahman family which had held the hereditary office of *kulkarni* or *patvari* in Pathri, near the Godavari river. For some reason or another, probably the proselytizing zeal of one of the Bahamani kings, the ancestor of Hasan had fled from Pathri and taken refuge in the Hindu kingdom of Ahmadnagar. Malik Hasan, whose original name was Tima Bhat, had been captured like Fateh-ullah Imad-ul-Mulk, in one of the campaigns against Vijayanagar, and brought up as a Muslim. When he attained power and the governorship of a province to the border of which his ancestral home was adjacent, his relatives flocked from Vijayanagar to Ahmadnagar and urged his son, Ahmad Nizam Shah, to include in his dominions the town of Pathri which lay on the southern border of Berar. Mukammal Khan wrote, by command of Burhan Nizam Shah proposing that Ala-ud-din Imad Shah should cede Pathri to Ahmadnagar in exchange for a richer *paragana*. Ala-ud-din refused to listen to this proposal and began to fortify Pathri. Mukammal Khan then complained that the establishment of a military post so close to the frontier would give rise to depredations on the part of the more lawless members of the garrison and consequent hostilities between Ahmadnagar and Berar. Ala-ud-din paid no heed to the protest, completed his fort and returned to Ellichpur². In 1518 Mukammal Khan, under the pretence that Burhan Nizam Shah wished to enjoy the cool air of the hills above Daulatabad and visit the caves of Ellora, collected a large army and marched in a leisurely way to Daulatabad, whence he made a sudden forced march on Pathri. The town was taken by escalade and the army of Ahmadnagar possessed itself of the whole *paragana*. Burhan having attained his object returned to his capital leaving Miyan Muhammad Ghorī, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself in the assault, to govern the *paragana* with the title of Kamil Khan³. Ala-ud-din Imad Shah was not strong enough to resent this aggression at the time, and though it rankled in his memory he suffered himself to be cajoled six years later by Mulla Haidar Astrabadi, an envoy from

¹ In one passage called Ghalib Khan, apparently by a scribe's error.
² *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 48 f.n.

³ *Ibid*, p. 48.

Ahmadnagar, into an alliance with Burhan Nizam Shah, who was then engaged in an acrimonious dispute with Ismail Adil Shah regarding the possession of the fortress of Sholapur¹. In 1524 a battle was fought at Sholapur and Ala-ud-din, whose army was opposed to a wing of the Bijapuris commanded by Asad Khan of Belgaon, was utterly defeated and withdrew by rapid marches and in great disorder to Gavilgad, forsaking his ally. Burhan Nizam Shah was defeated and forced to retreat to Ahmadnagar.

Ala-ud-din Imad Shah now perceived his error in allying himself with Burhan, and Ismail Adil Shah, anxious to weaken Ahmadnagar as much as possible, persuaded Sultan Kuli Kutub Shah in 1577 to aid Ala-ud-din in recovering Pathri². The allies succeeded in wresting Pathri for a time from Burhan, but he entered into an alliance with Amir Barid of Bidar and marched from Ahmadnagar to Pathri, the fortifications of which place, in the course of a cannonade of two month's duration, he succeeded in destroying. The place fell again into his hands and once more the *paragana* was annexed to Ahmadnagar and bestowed upon some cousins of Burhan Nizam Shah who still adhered to the faith of their fathers. Burhan was not disposed to regard the recapture of Pathri as a sufficient punishment for Ala-ud-din, and having captured Mahur occupied southern Berar. He now turned his eyes towards Ellichpur and formed the design of annexing the whole of Berar to his kingdom. Ala-ud-din who had been deserted by Sultan Kuli Kutub Shah, was in no position to face the allied armies of Ahmadnagar and Bidar. He, therefore, fled from Ellichpur to Burhanpur and sought assistance from Miran Muhammad Shah of Khandesh. Miran Muhammad responded to the appeal and marched with his unfortunate ally into Berar. The armies of Berar and Khandesh met the allied armies of Ahmadnagar and Bidar in battle and were utterly defeated³. We are not told where this battle was fought, but it was probably not far south of Ellichpur, towards which place the invaders had marched from Mahur, and may have been in the immediate neighbourhood of the town. Burhan Nizam Shah now held practically the whole of Berar including Buldhana district and captured 300 elephants and the whole of Ala-ud-din's artillery and stores. Ala-ud-din and Miran Muhammad Shah fled to Burhanpur and thence sent a message to Bahadur Shah of Gujarat, imploring his assistance. Bahadur Shah snatched the opportunity of interfering in the affairs of the Deccan and in 1528 sent a large army by way of Nandurbar and Sultanpur towards Ahmadnagar, and also entered Berar. Burhan Nizam Shah was much perturbed by the appearance of this formidable adversary on the scene. He made a wild appeal for help to Babar, not yet firmly seated on the throne of Delhi, and more reasonable appeals to Sultan Kuli Kutub Shah of Golconda and Ismail Adil Shah of Bijapur. The former was engaged in warfare with the Hindus of Telangana and

¹ Briggs, III, pp. 216-17.

² *Ibid*, p. 217.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 51 f.n.

professed himself unable to send assistance, but Ismail sent 6,000 picked horse and much treasure¹.

Bahadur Shah entered Berar on the pretext of restoring Pathri and southern Berar to Ala-ud-din, but having seen the country he desired it for himself and made no haste to leave. This was very soon perceived by Ala-ud-din, who repented of his folly and ventured to suggest to Bahadur Shah that the Ahmadnagar kingdom should be the theatre of war. He promised that if Bahadur Shah would conquer that kingdom for him he would resign the kingdom of Berar. Bahadur Shah accepted the offer and advanced against Burhan Nizam Shah, who was now encamped on the plateau of Bid. Amir Barid fell upon the advancing foes and slew two to three thousand of the Gujaratis. This enraged Bahadur Shah, who sent 20,000 horse against Amir Barid. The battle soon became general, and the Deccanis were defeated and fled to Paranda. Being pursued thither they again fled to Junnar, while Bahadur Shah occupied Ahmadnagar. Here he remained until supplies, which the Deccanis cut off, became scarce. He then marched to Daulatabad and left Ala-ud-din Imad Shah and the *amirs* of Gujarat to besiege that fortress while he encamped on the plateau above it. Burhan Nizam Shah now made a fervent appeal to Ismail Adil Shah for further assistance. Ismail replied with expressions of goodwill, sent five hundred of his most efficient cavalry, and expressed regret that the hostile attitude of the Raja of Vijayanagar prevented him from leaving his capital. Burhan wanted the prestige of Ismail's presence with his army, not a regiment of cavalry. In the circumstances he did the best he could, collected all the troops that could be raised between Junnar and Ahmadnagar and ascended to the Daulatabad plateau. Here a battle was precipitated by the incautious valour of Amir Barid, and although the issue hung for some time in the balance, the Deccanis were again defeated.

The problem now was not an equitable decision of the dispute between the kings of Berar and Ahmadnagar, but the expulsion of an inconvenient intruder who was strong enough to upset entirely the balance of power in the Deccan. Burhan Nizam Shah opened negotiations with Ala-ud-din Imad Shah and professed himself ready to restore all that had been captured by him. Ala-ud-din and Miran Muhammad Shah were now as apprehensive as their former enemies of Bahadur Shah's intentions and approached Khudavand Khan, the latter's minister, with a request that his master should leave the Deccan. Khudavand Khan replied that Bahadur Shah had not come uninvited, and that if the *Sultans* of the Deccan composed their differences all would be well. The intimation was sufficient. Ala-ud-din Imad Shah sent his surplus supply of grain to the defenders of Daulatabad and returned to Ellichpur. Bahadur Shah and Miran Muhammad Shah decided that they would do well to return to their capitals before the rains rendered both the country and the

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 51-52 f.n.

rivers impassable. They retreated after stipulating that the boundaries of Berar and Ahmadnagar should remain in *status quo ante bellum*, that the *khutba* should be read in both kingdoms in the name of Bahadur Shah and that both Ala-ud-din and Burhan should pay a war indemnity. Buldhana district was thus once more included in the dominions of Ala-ud-din Imad Shah. Miran Muhammad Shah, after his return to Burhanpur, called upon Burhan Nizam Shah to fulfil his obligations by restoring to Ala-ud-din Pathri and Mahur and all the elephants and other booty which had been captured near Ellichpur. Burhan's reply to this message was to return to Miran Muhammad some elephants which had been captured from him, on receiving which Miran Muhammad desisted from urging on Burhan the fulfilment of his compact with Ala-ud-din¹. The inveterate plotter Amir 'Ali' Barid had tried to tamper with the loyalty of the contingent sent from Bijapur to the assistance of Ahmadnagar, and Ismail, to punish him, marched to Bidar. Amir Barid, now an old man, left the defence of the fortress to his sons and sought help of Sultan Kuli Kutub Shah. Ismail defeated a relieving force from Golconda and Amir Ali withdrew to Udgir and begged 'Ala-ud-din' Imad Shah to help him. 'Ala-ud-din' would not oppose Ismail, but he marched to Bidar and interceded with him, but Ismail refused to hear of any negotiations until Bidar should have surrendered. It was surrendered when Amir 'Ali', was about to be trampled to death by an elephant, and Ismail entered the capital of the Deccan and took his seat upon the turquoise throne. He made Amir 'Ali' a noble of the kingdom of Bijapur, and it was agreed that he and 'Ala-ud-din' Imad Shah should aid in recovering the Raichur *Doab* and then march northwards to recover Mahur and Pathri for Ala-ud-din².

The recovery of the *Doab* released Ismail from his vow of abstinence and he celebrated the occasion by a select symposium, at which only 'Ala-ud-din' and Asad Khan Lari at first sat with him, but both begged him to admit Amir 'Ali' and he consented, but when "the Fox" entered, quoted from the chapter "The Cave" in the *Koran* the words, "their dog, the fourth of them". Amir Ali did not understand Arabic. But a burst of laughter from 'Ala-ud-din' apprised him that he was the victim of a jest, and he wept with humiliation and resentment, while the others laughed. Disturbing rumours that Bahadur meditated another invasion of the Deccan postponed the joint expedition for the recovery of Mahur and Pathri, and 'Ala-ud-din' hastily returned to Berar³.

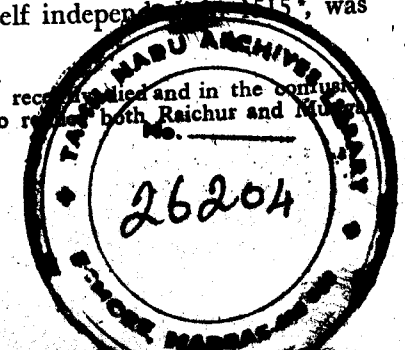
This was not the last campaign in which the warlike but unfortunate Ala-ud-din was engaged. Sultan Kuli Kutub Shah of Golconda, who had proclaimed himself independent in 1515⁴, was

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 55 f.n.

² Krishnadevaraya of Vijayanagar had been killed and in the confusion which followed his death, Ismail was able to recover both Raichur and Mahur within three months; Haig, p. 437.

³ Ismail restored Bidar to Amir Ali.

⁴ Briggs, III, p. 323.



for many years troubled by a Turk entitled Kivam-ul-Mulk who had been appointed by Mahmud Shah Bahamani governor of eastern Telangana and resisted Sultan Kuli's claims to dominion over that tract¹. He maintained a guerilla warfare for years, with intermittent encouragement from Bidar and perhaps from Berar also, until he was defeated by Sultan Kuli at Gelgandal when he fled and took refuge with Ala-ud-din Imad Shah in Berar. Sultan Kuli sent an envoy to Berar to demand the delivery of the fugitive and also the restoration of certain districts of south-eastern Berar which in the time of the Bahamanis had belonged to Telangana. On Ala-ud-din's refusal to satisfy these demands Sultan Kuli marched northwards and Ala-ud-din marched from Ellichpur to meet him. A battle was fought near Ramgiri and the Beraris were utterly defeated. Ala-ud-din fled to Ellichpur and Sultan Kuli possessed himself of the disputed territory and returned to Golconda. Unfortunately the date of these operations is not given, but it appears probable that they took place after the departure of Bahadur Shah of Gujarat from the Deccan. The date of the death of Ala-ud-din Imad Shah is not certain, but he probably died in 1529 and was succeeded by his son Darya Imad Shah².

The early years of Darya Imad Shah's reign were uneventful and his kingdom enjoyed a much needed rest. Nothing much is known about the history of Buldhana during the reign of Darya Imad Shah. On December 30, 1553 Husain Nizam Shah succeeded, not without opposition, to the throne of Ahmadnagar³. His younger brother, Abdul Kadir, was induced to make a fight for the throne but was overcome and took refuge with Darya Imad Shah, under whose protection he remained until his death⁴. Shortly after Miran Abdul Kadir's flight, Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, who had been commander-in-chief of the army of Ahmadnagar in the latter part of the reign of Burhan Nizam Shah and on his death had espoused the cause of Abdul Kadir, became apprehensive lest Husain Nizam Shah should punish him for his defection, and fled to Ellichpur, where he took refuge with Darya Imad Shah⁵. He did not remain long in Berar but took service under Ibrahim Adil Shah of Bijapur, who interested himself in plots to dethrone Husain Nizam Shah. Ibrahim's interference brought about a war between Bijapur and Ahmadnagar and Husain sent a Brahman envoy named Vishvas Rav to Darya Imad Shah to ask him for aid. Darya sent 7,000 cavalry to his neighbour's assistance⁶ and Husain then advanced to Sholapur, which place Ibrahim was besieging⁷. In the battle which ensued the armies of Ahmadnagar and Berar were on the point of fleeing when Ibrahim Adil Shah was attacked by doubts of the loyalty of Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, who commanded a large body of his cavalry, and

¹ Briggs, II, p. 527.

² *Ibid.*, III, p. 489.

³ *Ibid.*, III, pp. 257-58.

⁴ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 101.

⁵ Briggs, III, p. 105.

⁶ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 110.

⁷ Briggs, III, p. 490.

suddenly returned to Bijapur, leaving the allies in possession of the field. Husain then returned to Ahmadnagar and sent the cavalry of Berar back to Ellichpur.

After the death of Ibrahim Adil Shah I, in 1558 Hussain Nizam Shah persuaded Ibrahim Kutub Shah of Golconda to join in an attempt to capture Gulbarga and the eastern districts of the Bijapur kingdom. The attempt failed owing to Ibrahim Kutub Shah's distrust of his ally and Ali Adil Shah, who had succeeded to the throne of Bijapur, resolved to revenge himself on Husain Nizam Shah, who sought strength in an alliance with Darya Imad Shah¹. In 1558 the kings of Berar and Ahmadnagar met at Sonpeth on the Godavari where Daulat Shah Begam, Darya's daughter, was married to Husain, Sonpeth receiving the name of Ishratabad in honour of the event².

Meanwhile Ali Adil Shah had formed an alliance with Ibrahim Kutub Shah and Sadashivaraya of Vijayanagar and in 1560 these allies invaded the dominions of Ahmadnagar. Husain Nizam Shah's trust lay in Ali Barid Shah of Bidar, Darya Imad Shah of Berar, and Miran Mubarak II, of Khandesh. Unfortunately for him influences had been at work to break up this alliance. The Khan-i-Jahan, brother of Ali Barid Shah, was friendly with Ali Adil Shah and had entered the service of Darya Imad Shah, whom he dissuaded from joining Husain Nizam Shah. He then led an army of 5,000 cavalry and infantry from Berar into the Ahmadnagar kingdom and laid waste those northern tracts which lay out of the way of the more powerful invaders from the south. Against this force Husain Nizam Shah sent nearly 3,000 horse under Mulla Muhammad Nishaburi³. The army of Berar was utterly defeated and the Khan-i-Jahan, ashamed to return to Berar, joined the army of Ali Adil Shah⁴. Jahangir Khan, the Deccani, now became commander-in-chief of the army of Berar, and had an easier task than his predecessor, for by this time the members of the southern alliance had closed round Ahmadnagar and left Darya Imad Shah's army little occupation but that of plundering a defenceless country. The allies, however quarrelled. Ibrahim Kutub Shah, who had gradually been drawn into sympathy with Husain Nizam Shah, withdrew rapidly and secretly to Golconda, leaving behind him a small force which joined Husain. Jahangir Khan with the army of Berar also went over to Husain who was enabled, by this accession of strength, to cut off the supplies of Ali Adil Shah and Sadashivaraya, who were besieging Ahmadnagar. Sadashivaraya, who perceived that he had been drawn by Ali Adil Shah into no easy undertaking, was now in a mood to entertain proposals of peace, and when Husain Nizam Shah sued for peace he agreed to retire on three conditions, one of which was that Jahangir Khan, whose activity in intercepting the supplies of the besiegers had caused much suffering among

¹ Briggs, III, p. 239.

² *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 118.

³ Briggs, III, p. 240.

⁴ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 122 f.n.

them, should be put to death. Husain was base enough to comply and the commander of the army of Berar was assassinated¹. Fortunately for Husain his father-in-law was either too weak or too poor spirited to resent this act of gross ingratitude, and the kingdom of Ahmadnagar was, by these shameful means, freed of its invaders. The war, the conclusion of which was not entirely honourable to Berar, does not seem to have been carried into the Buldhana district. Darya Imad Shah did not long survive his disgraceful acquiescence in his servant's death. He died in 1561 and was succeeded by his son, Burhan Imad Shah.

We have no certain information of the age of Burhan when he succeeded his father. He is described as a boy or a young man, but he was not too young to resent the murder of Jahangir Khan² for when Husain Nizam Shah and Ibrahim Kutub Shah invaded the territory of Bijapur in 1562 and Ali Adil Shah and Sadashivaraya of Vijayanagar marched against them, Burhan not only refused to respond to Husain's appeal for assistance but prevented Ali Barid Shah of Bidar from joining him. Husain Shah then abandoned the siege of Kalyani, in which he was engaged, and sent his ladies and heavy baggage to Ausa. The kings of Ahmadnagar and Golconda now found themselves opposed by Ali Adil Shah of Bijapur, Sadashivaraya of Vijayanagar, Ali Barid Shah of Bidar, and Burhan Imad Shah of Berar, and advanced to meet them halting within twelve miles of their camp. On the following day Husain and Ibrahim advanced against the enemy, the former making the camp of Sadashivaraya and the latter that of Ali Adil Shah, Ali Barid Shah, and Burhan Imad Shah his objective. When they were well on their way heavy rain fell, and Husain's artillery and elephants stuck fast in the mire³. Any further advance was out of the question, and Husain returned to his camp with only forty out of seven hundred guns. Meanwhile Murtaza Khan with the Maratha officers of Bijapur had been sent by Ali Adil Shah to warn the allies to prepare for battle. On his way he came upon the abandoned guns of Husain Nizam Shah, and learnt that Husain had returned to his camp. Murtaza informed his master of what he had found and Ali Adil Shah and Sadashivaraya sent troops to take possession of the guns. After securing the guns these troops fell in with the forces of Ibrahim Kutub Shah, attacked them, and defeated them. Ibrahim reformed his beaten army in rear of Husain Nizam Shah's camp and made a stand which enabled Husain Nizam Shah to come to his aid. The troops of Bijapur and Vijayanagar were repulsed, but Husain Nizam Shah was much dispirited by the result of the day's fighting and by Ibrahim's failure, and on the following day, when the armies of Bijapur, Vijayanagar, Berar and Bidar advanced to the attack, he and Ibrahim Kutub Shah fled in the direction of Ahmadnagar, leaving their camps in the hands of the enemy. At Ausa they separated, Ibrahim returning

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 123 f.n.

² Briggs, III, p. 243.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 125 f.n.

to Golconda, while Husain retired to his capital, followed by the allies. Husain did not venture to defend his capital but, having provisioned the fortress, fled onwards to Junnar. The allies sat down to besiege Ahmadnagar. Ali Adil Shah, however, persuaded Sadashivaraya to leave Ahmadnagar and to pursue Husain Nizam Shah to Junnar⁴, but before the allies left Ahmadnagar, Burhan Imad Shah and Ali Barid Shah having quarrelled with the *Raja* of Vijayanagar, retired to their own kingdoms.

On Burhan's return to Berar he was seized and imprisoned in Narnala by Tufal Khan, the Deccani, one of his own *amirs*, who henceforth exercised regal functions in Berar⁵. Tufal Khan refused to join the confederacy of the Muhammedan *Sultans* of the Deccan which was formed in 1564 for the purpose of overthrowing the power of Vijayanagar and Berar had, therefore, no share in the decisive victory of Talikota⁶. Tufal Khan's refusal to join the Muhammedan league may be attributed to his sense of the insecurity of his position as a usurper to apathy to Hindu sympathies, or to the view that the power of Vijayanagar could always be usefully employed for the maintenance of the balance of power between the Muhammedan kingdoms of the Deccan, but the refusal, whatever the motive may have been brought much trouble and suffering to Berar.

On June 6, 1565, Husain Nizam Shah died and was succeeded in Ahmadnagar by his son, Murtaza Nizam Shah I, who persuaded Ali Adil Shah to join him in invading Berar in order to punish Tufal Khan for his refusal to join the league against Vijayanagar. In 1566 the allies invaded the kingdom from the south and south-west and devastated it with fire and sword as far north as Ellichpur, destroying all standing crops. The Buldhana district probably suffered severely from this invasion. The invaders remained in Berar, wasting the country and slaughtering its inhabitants until the approach of the rainy season, when Tufal Khan approached Ali Adil Shah with an enormous quantity of treasure and besought him to use his influence to induce Murtaza to retire. Ali undertook the task and succeeded in persuading Murtaza, on the pretext that the rains would render marching and campaigning on the black cotton soil of Berar a difficult task, to retire to Ahmadnagar, while he himself returned to Bijapur⁷.

The unfortunate little kingdom was not, however, destined to enjoy a long rest. In 1572 Changiz Khan, Murtaza Nizam Shah's minister, brought about a meeting between his master and Adil Shah at which the two kings entered into a treaty under the terms of which Murtaza was to be allowed to annex Berar and Bidar without hindrance from Bijapur while Ali was to be allowed to appropriate so much of the dismembered kingdom of Vijayanagar as should be equal in revenue to those two kingdoms⁸. Ibrahim

¹ Briggs, III, pp. 245-46.

² *Ibid*, p. 47.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 140-41 f.n.

⁴ *Ibid*, p. 141.

⁵ *Ibid*, p. 160.

Kutub Shah was left out of the arrangement. In the same year Murtaza Nizam Shah, in pursuance of the treaty, encamped at Pathri and prepared to invade Berar. A pretext was not wanting. He sent Mulla Haidar of Kas to Tufal Khan to call him to account for keeping Burhan Imad Shah in confinement. Tufal Khan was ordered to release his king, to be obedient to him in all things, and to refrain from interfering in the government of Berar. The letter concluded with a threat that disobedience would entail punishment and with three couplets warning Tufal Khan against undertaking a task which was beyond his power. Tufal Khan was much alarmed by this message and took counsel of his son, Samshir-ul-Mulk, who had a reputation for valour and was astute enough to detect Murtaza's object. The solicitude for Burhan Imad Shah, he said, was mere pretence, and Murtaza's object was the annexation of Berar to Ahmadnagar¹. He bade his father take heart, assuring him that the resources of Berar were equal to those of Ahmadnagar, which was not the case, and advised him to send Murtaza's envoy back unanswered. Murtaza, as soon as he heard of Mulla Haidar's dismissal, marched from Pathri towards Ellichpur, and Samshir-ul-Mulk, who commanded the advanced guard of the army of Berar, marched to meet him. The site of the battle is, unfortunately, not recorded². Samshir-ul-Mulk fell upon the advanced guard of the army of Ahmadnagar and defeated it. Changiz Khan threw forward reinforcements and Samshir-ul-Mulk called upon his father for support.

Tufal Khan at once marched to support his son and Changiz Khan, being apprised of the approach of the main body of the army of Berar, sent forward Khudavand Khan, Jamshid Khan, Bahri Khan, Rustam Khan, and Chanda Khan to the support of the African *amirs* of Ahmadnagar, on whom the brunt of the fighting was falling, and followed them in person with Murtaza's guards and three thousand mounted 'foreign' archers, who were evidently regarded as the flower of the army of Ahmadnagar. The battle soon became general. Changiz Khan, who had as his body-guard five hundred of his own followers, spared no efforts to win the day. With his own hand he cut down Tufal Khan's standard bearer, and the army of Berar was routed. Tufal Khan and his son fled to Ellichpur and Changiz Khan returned with 270 captured elephants to the camp of Murtaza Nizam Shah, who no longer made any attempt to conceal the real object of his enterprise. He did not hasten in pursuit of his defeated enemy or attempt to gather at once the fruits of victory, but remained in his camp and issued *farmans* to all the Hindu revenue officials of Berar informing them that they had nothing to fear, and that if they would tender their allegiance to him they could find him a lenient and sympathetic master. The descendant of a line of Brahman *patvaris* knew with whom he had to deal. The hereditary Hindu officials cared little for Burhan, Tufal, or Murtaza

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 162-63 f.n.

² The battle was fought near Bidar, so tells Sayyad Ali Tabatabai—*Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 162.

but much for the blessings of peace, and they were not slow to perceive which was the stronger side. They hastened to the camp of the invader, where they were received with honour and whence they were dismissed with rewards and promises¹. Murtaza Nizam Shah, having thus made sure his foothold, advanced on Ellichpur, whereupon Tufal Khan and Samshir-ul-Mulk, whose power had been so utterly broken in the field that the respite afforded to them by Murtaza's delay had profited them nothing, fled into the Melghat. Through the hills and jungles of this tract they were pursued for six months at the end of which time they found themselves hemmed in by the forces of Ahmadnagar in a position whence no outlet was apparent. The invader refrained from pressing his advantage and Tufal Khan succeeded in extricating himself and escaped to Burhanpur. Murtaza, having pursued him as far as the Tapi, sent a letter to Miran Muhammad Shah II, king of Khandesh, threatening to invade his country if the fugitives were harboured. Miran Muhammad sent the letter, without comment, to Tufal Khan, who at once understood that he could find no asylum in Khandesh and returned by an unfrequented road to Berar. At the same time he sent a letter to Akbar², then seated on the throne of Delhi, saying that he regarded himself as one of the emperor's soldiers and Berar as a province of the empire, which had been invaded by the Deccanis. He sought, he said the appointment of warden of the marches and asked for assistance, promising to surrender Berar to Akbar's officers when they should arrive. Akbar was not at this time prepared to undertake an expedition to the Deccan and no immediate answer was returned to Tufal Khan's effusion. Meanwhile both Tufal Khan and his son Samshir-ul-Mulk now separated were hard pressed by Murtaza and were fain to seek the protection afforded by stone walls. Tufal Khan shut himself up in Narnala while Samshir-ul-Mulk sought refuge in Gavilgad³, and Murtaza Nizam Shah laid siege to Narnala. Meanwhile Tufal Khan's letter had reached Akbar's camp in Gujarat and one of the emperor's *amirs* wrote to Murtaza Nizam Shah saying that Tufal Khan, having submitted to the emperor, was one of his vassals and that Murtaza would do well to desist from harassing him, and that Berar, which was the province of the empire, should be evacuated at once⁴. This absurdly bombastic message was treated with the contempt which it deserved and both Narnala and Gavilgad were closely besieged. The former fell before the end of the year, and Tufal Khan and Burhan Imad Shah fell into Murtaza's hands. Samshir-ul-Mulk on hearing of the fall of Narnala and the capture of his father surrendered Gavilgad to Murtaza's officers on condition that his life should be spared⁵. Murtaza Nizam Shah sent Burhan Imad Shah, Tufal Khan, Samshir-ul-Mulk, and all their relatives and attendants, to the

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 166.

² Briggs, III, pp. 255-56.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 167.

⁴ Briggs, III, pp. 255-56.

⁵ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 171.

number of about forty souls, to a fortress in the Ahmadnagar kingdom where, after a short time, they all perished. We have various accounts of the manner of their death and in one passage it is hinted that they may possibly have died a natural death, but the sudden, simultaneous, and convenient extinction of so large a number of obnoxious persons cannot have been fortuitous. Another story is that the whole party was confined in a small room and the windows were shut upon them, the result being a tragedy similar in all respects to that of the Black Hole of Calcutta, save that in this case there were no survivors. Elsewhere it is said that the whole party was strangled or smothered individually. The Black Hole story appears to be the most probable, but whichever story is true the fact remains that the Imad Shahi dynasty was utterly extinguished in 1572¹ and that the Buldhana district with the rest of Berar became a province of the Nizam Shahi kingdom of Ahmadnagar.

Nizam Shahi of Ahmadnagar.—Murtaza apportioned the district of Berar to his nobles and now wished to return to Ahmadnagar and enjoy the fruits of victory, but Changiz Khan incited him to further exertions. Ali Adil Shah, he said, was occupied with the siege of Bankapur, and the opportunity of gaining possession of Bidar, to which as well as to Berar, his treaty with Bijapur entitled him, was too good to be lost. Murtaza was thus persuaded to march against Bidar, and while he was thus employed, affairs in Berar took a new turn. Miran Muhammad II, of Khandesh seized the opportunity of harassing an inconveniently powerful neighbour, and, as soon as Murtaza Nizam Shah was engaged with Bidar, set up the son of Burhan Imad Shah's foster mother as king of Berar alleging that he was a son of Darya Imad Shah and sent the pretender to the frontier of Berar with 6,000 horse². Many adherents of the extinct family either believed the fable or were willing to adopt any pretext for maintaining the independence of Berar, and rose in rebellion, driving the officers of Murtaza Nizam Shah from their military posts. A revolt in which the governor recently appointed by Murtaza lost his life, encouraged Muhammad to intervene, and he sent an army under the command of his minister Zain-ud-din into Berar to support the cause of the pretender³. The rebels numbered eight or nine thousand, and their activity was a serious menace to the stability of the newly established authority. Khudavand Khan and Khurshid Khan, the two officers who had been appointed to administer Berar, sent a message to Murtaza Nizam Shah imploring him to return. The king recalled Changiz Khan, who had preceded him to Bidar, despatched Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari with 8,000 horse to Berar and followed him with the main body of the army⁴. Changiz Khan returned from Bidar by forced marches and begged the

king to make a short halt in order that the troops might rest. Murtaza Nizam Shah refused to listen to the proposal and pressed on. Miran Muhammad Shah, who was hovering on the border of Berar, ready to make a decent as soon as Murtaza Nizam Shah should be safely out of the way, was much disconcerted by his adversary's activity and fled in haste to his fortress capital of Ashirgad. Sayyad Murtaza, who preceded Murtaza Nizam Shah, having come up with the Berar pretender, at the head of eight thousand horse, obliged him to flee, and his adherents to disperse. The army of Ahmadnagar advanced by forced marches through the Buldhana district and invaded and laid waste Khandesh and Ashirgad was on the point of falling into their hands when Miran Muhammad Shah bought off Murtaza Nizam Shah with a large sum of money¹. Murtaza Nizam Shah now returned to Berar where, in the course of a complicated intrigue connected with the invasion of Bidar, he poisoned Changiz Khan in 1574. He then returned to Ahmadnagar and in 1575 appointed Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari, governor of Berar². The new governor was assisted in his administration of the province by a large number of *amirs*, the chief of whom were Khudavand Khan, the Muvalad, Jamshid Khan, Bahri Khan, Kazibash, Rustam Khan, the Deccani, Chaghtai Khan, the Turkman, Tir Andaz Khan Astrabadi, Shir Khan Tarsizi, Husain Khan Tuni, Chanda Khan, the Deccani, and Dastur, the Eunuch.

Another pretender, styling himself 'Firuz' Imad Shah, arose in Berar, but was captured and put to death by Sayyad Murtaza. In 1576 it was reported that Akbar was preparing to invade the Deccan³. Murtaza Nizam Shah, now sunk in sloth and debauchery, made a feeble and confused effort to take the field. He moved to the north, with a few troops, but in a covered litter, to observe the movements of the Moghal army, and to be in readiness to defend his dominions⁴, and would have marched to attack the Emperor, had he not been prevented by the entreaties of his nobility. Berar was placed in a state of defence, one of the officers employed there being Akbar's rebellious kinsman, Muzaffar Husain Mirza. The Imperial troops were withdrawn and the danger passed but the restless and turbulent Muzaffar Husain Mirza turned against those who had befriended him and attempted to make himself master of Berar, but Sayyad Murtaza defeated him at Anjangaon⁵ and he fled into Khandesh. He was better served in Berar than he deserved. Bahram Khan, who was commandant of Gavilgad under Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari, put the fortress into a state of thorough repair and has left a record of his zeal in an inscription on the bastion which bears his name. The chronogram in the inscription gives the date A. H. 985 equivalent to A. D. 1577. Fortunately these precautions were unnecessary, for Akbar's journey was no more than a trip from

¹ There is a discrepancy as to this date. From the detailed account of the siege of Narnala it appears that the fortress did not fall until 1574, but the date of its fall is also given in a chronogram which works by 982—1572 A. D.

² Briggs, III, p. 256.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 172.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 174.

¹ Haig, p. 455.

² *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 181.

³ Haig, p. 456.

⁴ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 183.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 184.

Agra to Ajmer and Ahmadnagar and Berar were left for a time in peace. The rumour of danger from the north had, however, galvanized the wretched Murtaza Nizam Shah into something like activity, and early in 1578 Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari was summoned to Ahmadnagar in order that he might parade the army of Berar before the king. This effort to secure military efficiency in the frontier province had most unfortunate results. Murtaza Nizam Shah's unworthy favourite Sahib Khan, a Deccani, grossly insulted one of the foreign officers of the army of Berar, with the result that the old quarrel between the foreigners on one side and the Deccanis and the Africans on the other was renewed¹. A fight followed in which the king identified himself with the Deccanis, whereupon most of the foreign officers left his service and entered that of Golconda and Bijapur. In the confusion which followed, Salabat Khan grasped the reins of government and Murtaza Nizam Shah was left powerless. He attempted to recover possession of Sahib Khan and bespoke the good offices of Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari to this end, but Sayyad was unable, and probably unwilling to save the wretch and Sahib Khan was ultimately slain by Khudavand Khan, one of the *amirs* of Berar². Salabat Khan was now regent of Ahmadnagar and Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari retained the governorship of Berar.

In 1584 Salabat Khan sent an order to Jamshid Khan Shirazi, who has been already mentioned as one of Sayyad Murtaza's officers, directing him to join an embassy which was about to leave Ahmadnagar for Bijapur. As the order had not been countersigned by Murtaza Nizam Shah, Jamshid Khan replied that he could not obey it without the sanction of his superior officer, Sayyad Murtaza. The latter was much annoyed by Salabat Khan's assumption of the right to communicate an order to Jamshid direct, and refused to permit Jamshid to leave his post in Berar. The quarrel reached such a point that Sayyad Murtaza Sabzavari assembled the army of Berar and marched towards Ahmadnagar with the intention of overthrowing Salabat Khan, but the *amirs* at the capital intervened and brought about a temporary peace, and Sayyad Murtaza returned to Berar.

Towards the end of the same year the quarrel was renewed and Sayyad Murtaza of Berar again marched on Ahmadnagar. Salabat Khan advanced to meet him, defeated him near the capital and pursued him through the Buldhana district. Unable to withstand his powerful enemy Sayyad Murtaza and his lieutenant fled by way of Burhanpur to the court of Akbar³. Meanwhile Shahzada Burhan, a brother of Murtaza Nizam Shah, had been persuaded by a party in Ahmadnagar to make an attempt to dethrone Murtaza and seize the throne. The plot was frustrated by Salabat Khan and Burhan was forced to flee in the guise of a *darvesh* to the Konkan whence he reached Gujarat and joined Akbar's court.

¹ Briggs, III, p. 262.

² *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 197-98.

³ The battle was fought at Jeurghat, a distance of a few miles from Ahmadnagar. For further details see *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 232-35.

Akbar now resolved to attempt the conquest of the Deccan and ordered his foster-brother, Mirza Aziz Kuka entitled Khan-i-Azam, who was then governor of Malva to assemble the army of Malva and march against Ahmadnagar taking Burhan with him. Salabat Khan replied by sending 20,000 horse to Burhanpur. Mirza Muhammad Taki, who commanded this force, succeeded in attaching Raja Ali Khan of Khandesh to the cause of Ahmadnagar despite an attempt by the Khan-i-Azam to secure his adherence to the imperial cause. The Khan-i-Azam's expedition was delayed by a quarrel between him and Sahib-ud-din Ahmad Khan, the governor of Ujjain and Mirza Muhammad Taki and Raja Ali Khan carried the war into the enemy's country and encamped over against the Khan-i-Azam at Handia. The Khan-i-Azam was unwilling to risk a battle, but by a rapid night march eluded the Deccanis and entered Berar by a circuitous route through the district of Buldhana. The Moghal horse plundered Ellichpur, hastened thence to Balapur, and before the Deccanis, who had turned back from Handia to meet them, could come up with them, retreated by way of Nandurbar into Malva¹. Raja Ali Khan then returned to Burhanpur and Mirza Muhammad Taki to Ahmadnagar. Akbar did not at once pursue his project of adding the Deccan to his empire and the district with the rest of Berar was not seriously disturbed and remained at peace until the Moghals undertook the conquest of Deccan in earnest.

In June, 1588, Murtaza Nizam Shah, who had attempted to destroy his son Miran Husain by setting fire to his bedding, was, in return, suffocated in his bath by the prince, who succeeded him as Husain Nizam Shah II. Husain II, was put to death after a reign of less than ten months on April 1, 1589 and the *amirs* of Ahmadnagar raised to the throne Ismail, the son of the fugitive Burhan². Jamal Khan, who had been one of Sayyad Murtaza's lieutenants in Berar, was now regent in Ahmadnagar. He belonged to the heretical sect of the Mahdavis and in the name of Ismail Nizam Shah, who was too young to understand theological disputes, established their religion in Ahmadnagar with the result that the kingdom became a refuge for most of the Mahdavis throughout India. The *amirs* of Berar were much annoyed by the spread of the heresy and in 1589 released Salabat Khan³, who had been imprisoned by Murtaza Nizam Shah in Kherla, and induced him to lead them against Ahmadnagar, while Ibrahim Adil Shah II, of Bijapur invaded the kingdom from the south. Jamal Khan defeated the *amirs* of Berar at Paithan on the Godavari, then the southern boundary of the province, and the Bijapuris at Ashti. Salabat Khan made his peace with Jamal Khan and returned to his *Jahagir* to die.

In 1590 the time was ripe for the invasion of Berar and the Deccan by Akbar. The *amirs* of Berar were disaffected and disgusted with the heterodox doctrines now fashionable at the

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 236-37.

² Briggs, III, pp. 271-73.

³ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 266-67.

court of Ahmadnagar and the elevation to the throne of the young Ismail, the son of the emperor's protegee Burhan, furnished Akbar with a pretext for aggression. He offered Burhan as many troops as he should consider necessary for the purpose of gaining the throne of his ancestors, now unjustly held by his son, but Burhan had no desire to reign at Ahmadnagar as Akbar's puppet and declined the proffered aid. Akbar then bestowed upon him the paragona of Handia in jahagir and gave him letters to Raja Ali Khan of Khandesh who was ordered to render him all the assistance in his power. Burhan took up his quarters at Handia and issued letters to the principal officers and landholders of Berar and the rest of the Ahmadnagar kingdom reminding them that he was their lawful king and exhorting them to be faithful to him. These letters were well received and Burhan received many assurances of loyalty and offers of assistance, including one from Jahangir Khan, the African, warden of the northern marches of Berar. Burhan now entered Berar, with a small force of horse and foot which he had collected, by way of the Melghat, but Jahangir Khan had repented of his promise, and attacked and defeated the small army, forcing Burhan to retire to Handia in great disorder. From Handia he went to Burhanpur where he sought assistance from Raja Ali Khan who received him kindly and not only promised him aid but invoked the aid of Ibrahim Adil Shah II, of Bijapur who, smarting under the recent defeat of his forces by Jamal Khan, readily sent an army northwards.

Jamal Khan again defeated the Bijapuris¹ but had not recovered from the fatigue of the fight when he heard that the nobles of Berar had declared for Burhan, who was on the point of entering Berar. He, therefore, hastened northward to confront this new danger, but the army of Bijapur was not so broken as to be incapable of pursuit, and the Maratha horse hung upon the flanks and rear of his army and cut off his supplies. When he entered the Buldhana district desertions from his army to that of Burhan were numerous. By this time Burhan and Raja Ali Khan had advanced as far as the plateau above Rohinkheda, where they awaited the arrival of Jamal Khan. Jamal Khan hesitated to attack the enemy in front, and, with the object of attacking them either in flank or in rear, descended the Rohinkheda ghat by a circuitous and difficult route. The way was long and waterless and the month was May, and the Mahdavis reached the foot of the hills in a condition of great exhaustion, and halted in a position where no water was to be found. Here information was received that there was, within six or seven miles of the spot where they had halted, a camping ground well supplied with water, and Jamal Khan had no choice but to press on with his jaded troops. Meanwhile the invaders had received information of the straits to which Jamal Khan was reduced and took up a position covering the water course towards which he was making his way. The Mahdavis were in no condition to fight for that which they so sorely needed, and were fain to halt and seek for water which

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 272-74.

could be had without fighting. They made for a grove of date palms within a distance of two miles from their position and found a supply of water only just sufficient to satisfy the want of man and beast for that day. Jamal Khan, whose forces, though weary, were refreshed for a time, preferred to attack the enemy at once rather than to run the risk of having to lead on the morrow an army refreshed by rest and sleep but again thirsty, and on the afternoon of May 8th, 1590, drew up his troops for the attack. It was only the religious zeal of the exhausted Mahdavis which enabled them to traverse the distance which lay between them and the army of the allies, but they advanced boldly to the attack and in the first onset gained the advantage, but Jamal Khan was laid low by a musket shot in the forehead and the other Mahdavi leaders, the chief of whom were Yakub Khan, Khudavand Khan, and Suhail Khan, the eunuch, were not disposed to continue the fight, and fled from the field, taking with them the young Ismail Nizam Shah. The fugitives were closely pursued by Burhan's officers, and were overtaken. Yakub Khan and Khudavand Khan were slain and Suhail Khan, the eunuch, effected his escape, leaving Ismail in his father's hands. Burhan now ascended the throne of Ahmadnagar as Burhan Nizam Shah. He appointed Nurkhan, Governor of Berar.

Burhan died on April 28, 1595, after a troublesome reign of rather more than four years, and was succeeded by his elder son Ibrahim Nizam Shah, who had been previously passed over in favour of his younger brother Ismail on the score that his mother was a negress and his personal appearance unkingly. The affairs of the State were now in the utmost confusion. Rival factions contended at the council board while Ibrahim Adil Shah on the south and Akbar on the north prepared to invade the kingdom. Ibrahim Nizam Shah after a reign of less than four months was slain in battle with the Bijapuris, and a faction attempted to raise to the throne on August 16, 1595, Ahmad, son of Shah Tahir, who had pretended to be the son of Sultan Muhammad Khudavand¹ one of the sons of Burhan Nizam Shah I. But the circumstances of Shah Tahir's birth had already been secretly investigated, and there were those at the capital who knew the details of the inquiry and published them. Nevertheless the imposter's faction held the field for a time, and when they were hard pressed in Ahmadnagar they sent a message to Sultan Murad, Akbar's fourth son, and implored him to come from Gujarat to their aid. Murad had a general commission from his father to attempt the conquest of Berar and Ahmadnagar whenever the time should seem propitious and at once made preparations to invade the Deccan. Meanwhile, however, an unexpected quarrel in the camp of those who opposed the imposter's claim enabled Miyan Manju, his chief supporter, to emerge from Ahmadnagar and attack them. He defeated them on October 1, 1595, and, deeming himself now strong enough to dispense with foreign aid, began to regret his invitation to Murad. Murad

¹ *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 282 f.n.

however, was already on his way and when he reached the borders of the Ahmadnagar kingdom with the Khan-i-Khanan, Abdur Rahim and Raja Ali Khan of Khandesh, Miyan Manju leaving Ansar Khan, in whose charge was Chand Bibi, in command of Ahmadnagar, fled with his protegee Ahmad to Ausa, where he attempted to raise an army and to enlist the aid of Ibrahim Adil Shah II, and Muhammad Kuli Kutub Shah of Golconda.

Moghals.—Chand Bibi soon asserted her supremacy in Ahmadnagar and had Bahadur, the infant son of Ibrahim Nizam Shah, proclaimed, king in place of the impostor set up by Miyan Manju. The imperial army meanwhile closely besieged Ahmadnagar, and though Sultan Murad did not succeed in capturing the city he was only bought off by a treaty of peace concluded in April, 1596, one of the conditions of which was the cession of Berar to the empire. On the conclusion of peace Murad occupied Berar which thus became once more, after the lapse of two centuries and a half, an appanage of the crown of Delhi. After the withdrawal of the imperial army Bahadur Nizam Shah was seated on the throne of Ahmadnagar while the pretender Ahmad was provided for by the Sultan of Bijapur. Murad took up his headquarters near Balapur and governed it in his father's name.

Hostilities with Ahmadnagar were renewed by an attempt to seize Pathri, and on February 8, 1597, the Khan-i-Khanan was defeated at Sonpeth on the Godavari by the troops of Ahmadnagar aided by contingents from Bijapur and Golconda. On the following day, however, he retrieved his defeat and put the allied Deccanis to flight. Having returned to Jalna, his headquarters, the Khan-i-Khanan ordered the despatch of troops of Gavilgad and Narnala, but Murad now interfered, and announced his intention of taking the field against Ahmadnagar, and when the Khan-i-Khanan insisted that the fortresses of Northern Berar should first be reduced, Murad wrote to his father and complained of the Khan-i-Khanan's apathy. In 1598 that officer was recalled and Abdul Fazl was sent to the Deccan in his place with orders to reduce Gavilgad and Narnala, which duty he carried out. He failed, however, to send aid to the Moghal governor of Bid who, having been defeated and wounded in the field, was besieged in that fortress, and reported to Akbar, Abdul Fazl's failure to come to his aid. Akbar now recognised that the only officer capable of managing affairs in the Deccan was the Khan-i-Khanan, whose only fault was his intolerance of the slothful and drunken Murad. The difficulty was solved by the death of Murad in 1599 at Shahapur, his palace near Balapur, from the effects of drink and incontinence. Sultan Daniyal, Akbar's youngest son, was now sent to the Deccan under the tutelage of the Khan-i-Khanan. In the year 1600 A. D. Ahmadnagar was captured by the Khan-i-Khanan and Ashirgad by Akbar, and Sultan Daniyal became governor of Khandesh now renamed Dandesh-Berar and Ahmadnagar. It may be noted that the theatre of war during these conflicts lay to the south and beyond the Buldhana district but

it is probable that the district was much disturbed especially in its south western corner.

A detailed account of Berar was added to the *Ain-i-Akbari* in 1596-97, immediately after the treaty of Ahmadnagar under which the province was ceded to the empire, and as the Moghal officers could not have had time, before the account was written, to settle the province and re-adjust boundaries of its administrative divisions we may regard this description as an account of the province as it was administered by the Nizam Shahi and Imad Shahi kings, and probably also by the Bahamanis. It was divided into thirteen *sarkars* or revenue districts. The present district of Buldhana comprised a large part of Akbar's *sarkar* of Narnala and Baitalwadi, and the greater part of the *sarkar* of Mehkar. The demand on account of land revenue, including *suyurghal*, amounted to more than sixteen lakhs of rupees, but it is extremely doubtful whether anything approaching this sum was ever realized. The only place within the district of which a particular account is given is Lonar, which is thus described:—

'Lonar is a division of Mehkar, and is a place of great sanctity. The Brahmins call it Bishan Gaya. There are three Gayas, where the performance of good works can be applied as a means of deliverance to the souls of deceased ancestors: namely Gaya in Bihar, which is dedicated to Brahma, Gaya near Bijapur, dedicated to Rudra, and this one. Here is also a reservoir, having a spring in it, of great depth, and measuring a *kos* in length and in breadth, and surrounded by lofty hills. The water is brackish, but when taken from the centre, or at its sides, it is sweet. It contains the essential materials for the manufacture of glass and soap, and saltpetre is here produced and yields a considerable revenue. On the summit of a hill is a spring at the mouth of which is carved the figure of a bull. The water never flows from this spring to the other, but when the thirtieth lunar day falls on a Monday its stream flows into the large reservoir. In the neighbourhood is a *zamindar* called Waila, of the Rajput tribe, commanding 200 horse and 2,000 foot. Another is called Sarkath, also a Rajput, and possesses 100 horse and 1,000 foot'.

After the imprisonment of Bahadur Nizam Shah in Gwalior in 1599, Malik Ambar, the African, the most powerful remaining adherent of the Nizam Shahi dynasty, raised to the throne Murtaza Nizam Shah, the son of Shah Ali, one of the sons of Burhan I, and established him in the fortress of Ausa.

In 1605 Sultan Daniyal died of drink at Burhanpur and in October of the same year Akbar died and was succeeded by his eldest son, Salim, who assumed the title of Jahangir. It is unnecessary to follow in detail the tedious progress of the warfare between his generals and Malik Ambar. Throughout his reign the Moghal tenure of Berar was very uncertain. At times Malik Ambar occupied the whole province, and even introduced his own

land settlement. At other times his officers were driven back to the neighbourhood of Khirki, but it was seldom that his hand was not felt in Berar. It will be sufficient to notice hostilities between the Deccanis and the imperialists so far as they immediately affected the Buldhana district. In 1610, Sultan Parwez, Jahangir's second son, being viceroy of the Deccan, the Deccanis made a determined attack on Ahmadnagar, then held for the emperor by Khvaja Beg Mirza Saffavi. Parwez made an attempt, by way of Rohinkheda and the Balaghat of Buldhana, to relieve the beleaguered town, but the way was too rough for his slothful and disorganized army and he was compelled to fall back on Burhanpur while the Moghal garrison of Ahmadnagar, disappointed of its hope of succour, abandoned the fortress and followed him to Khandesh.

At this time Malik Ambar overran nearly the whole of Berar which for the greater part of Jahangir's reign was more often in the hands of Malik Ambar than in those of the imperial officers. So far as the land revenue was concerned the administration was probably *do-amli* each party collecting what it could, but the Moghals regarded Burhanpur as their chief stronghold in the Deccan, and though a military post was usually maintained at Balapur, their hold in Berar can have been but slight. In 1612 a combined attack on Malik Ambar was undertaken by the express desire of Jahangir. Abdullah Khan, the *subahdar* of Gujarat, was to advance on Daulatabad, by way of Nasik, with an army of 14,000 men, while Raja Man Singh, the Khan-i-Jahan, and the Amir-ul-Umara were to advance towards the same objective by way of Rohinkheda and the Balaghat of Buldhana. It was arranged that the two armies should arrive simultaneously at Daulatabad and should there envelop and overwhelm Malik Ambar, but the enterprise was wrecked by the contemptible jealousies of the imperial officers. The officers from Berar would not co-operate with those from Gujarat and Malik Ambar was allowed to cope with the two armies separately, with the result that Abdullah Khan was driven back to Gujarat and Raja Man Singh retreated through the Buldhana district to Burhanpur, leaving Berar once more in the hands of the Deccanis. Early in 1616 Shahnavaz Khan, the *subahdar* of Berar, who commanded at Balapur, received an accession of strength from Malik Ambar's army, some of the latter's principal officers having deserted him and joined the Moghal governor in a fit of pique. Shahnavaz Khan advanced by way of Rohinkheda and the Buldhana road on Khirki, in the neighbourhood of which town he signally defeated Malik Ambar. He was not, however, strong enough to maintain himself in Malik Ambar's country, and was forced to retreat on Balapur by the road by which he had advanced. In 1616 Jahangir's third son, Sultan Khurram, better known as Shah Jahan, was appointed to Berar, and drove the Deccanis out of all their strongholds in the province. Sultan Khurram was recalled later in the year and received the title of Shah Jahan.

In 1618 Amrullah, the son of the Khan-i-Khanan, captured a diamond mine in Gondvana which had been the property of a *zamindar* of Khandesh. It is probable that this diamond mine was in the former Central Provinces, within measurable distance of Kalam, and was identical with the diamond mine captured by the officers of Ahmad Shah Bahamani I, in 1425, for diamond mines are not common in this part of India.

In 1620 Malik Ambar again took the field, profiting by Jahangir's absence in Kashmir. He besieged Khanjar Khan in Ahmadnagar and drove out the commanders of outlying posts in the Balaghat of Buldhana and Akola, forcing them to take refuge in Balapur with Darab Khan, who had succeeded his father Shahnavaz Khan as governor of Berar. Darab Khan collected his forces, and advanced to Balaghat and thence to Ahmadnagar, where he fell upon and dispersed the besiegers, but supplies were scarce and dear and the imperial army could not maintain itself in the Ahmadnagar country. Darab Khan, therefore, retired through the Buldhana district to Balapur, where he encamped until supplies should be collected. A force of the Deccanis hung on the rear of the retreating army and followed it as far as Balapur, and though the Moghals defeated them in the neighbourhood of that town, they did incalculable mischief in Berar, burning the crops and destroying supplies. Darab Khan made another effort and advanced as far as Mehkar, where he remained for three months, engaging the enemy almost daily. He was victorious in three pitched battles, but victories in the field made very little impression upon the enemy's Maratha horse, and all supplies were cut off. Darab Khan was thus compelled to fall back once more on Balapur, whither he was followed by the enemy, who repeated the tactics which had been so successful at Mehkar. Darab Khan was now compelled to fall back on Burhanpur and the enemy followed him and laid siege to that town, the whole of Berar and Khandesh being now in their hands.

In 1621 Shah Jahan was again appointed to the viceroyalty of the Deccan. He relieved Burhanpur and compelled Malik Ambar to flee through Berar towards Daulatabad. Shah Jahan followed him through the Buldhana district and razed his capital, Khirki, to the ground. He then relieved Ahmadnagar, where Khanjar Khan still held out, and entered into a treaty under which the Moghal frontier was advanced thirty miles southwards and Malik Ambar agreed to pay a large indemnity. It was at this juncture that Jadhav Rav of Sindkhed transferred his allegiance from Malik Ambar to the emperor, and thus gave the Moghals a secure foothold in south-western Berar. The family of Lakhuji Jadhav Rav was the leading Hindu family of Berar. Of its descent we have various accounts, but it claims the purest Rajput lineage. A somewhat doubtful legend traces its origin to a village named Karauli in Rajputana and tradition connects it with the *Yadava Rajas* of Devagiri, but they now intermarry with the *Marathas*. It was this family which gave in marriage a daughter who became the mother of *Chhatrapati* Shivaji. In 1622 Shah Jahan rebelled

against his father, drawing into rebellion with him, Darab Khan, the governor of Berar. After extensive operations in Hindustan and Gujarat the prince took refuge after many vicissitudes in the Balaghat of Buldhana and Akola. He then proceeded to Mahur. At Mahur, Shah Jahan left his elephants and heavy baggage under the charge of Uday Ram and Yadava Rav of Sindkhed while he fled to Golconda, where he took refuge with Muhammad Kutb Shah. Subsequently Yadava Rav and Uday Ram removed his elephants from Mahur to Burhanpur where they presented them to Parwez. The Deccanis, in spite of Shah Jahan's rebellion, effected no lodgment in Berar, which remained in the hands of Parwez who appointed Asad Khan Mamuri, governor of Ellichpur¹. In 1624, however, Yakut Khan, the African, marched through Berar and besieged Burhanpur, but fled when he heard of the approach of the Khan-i-Khanan and Parwez who had been temporarily transferred to Bengal in consequence of Shah Jahan's appearance in arms in that province.

In 1625 Shah Jahan submitted to his father and was pardoned and in 1626 Parwez, now governor of Berar and the Deccan, died in Burhanpur of colic and epilepsy brought on by excessive drinking. In the same year Malik Ambar died, in the eightieth year of his age, and his place was taken by his son Fateh Khan. Later in the same year Umdat-ul-Mulk Khan-i-Jahan, who had been sent to the Deccan in consequence of the renewed activity of Murtaza Nizam Shah and Fateh Khan, treacherously sold the Balaghat of Berar to Hamid Khan, the African, the agent of Murtaza Nizam Shah for three hundred thousand rupees. The greater part of the Buldhana district thus passed once more out of the hands of imperial officers. The commanders of military posts in the Balaghat under orders from the Khan-i-Jahan surrendered them to the Deccani officers and retired to Payinghat. Kalam and Mahur were probably among the posts so surrendered. This treasonable bargain must have thrown the affairs of the whole province into great confusion.

Jahangir died on November 7, 1627, and in the course of the ensuing disputes regarding the succession, the affairs of Berar and the Deccan fell into great confusion, and between the Khan-i-Jahan, who was plotting with the enemy entirely for his own hand and other imperial officers who favoured the cause of Shahriyar, Shah Jahan's youngest brother, the fortunes of the Moghals in Berar and the Deccan were at a very low ebb. Shah Jahan sent messages from Gujarat to the Khan-i-Jahan at Burhanpur promising to retain him in this appointment if he would support his cause, but the Khan-i-Jahan continued to conspire with Murtaza Nizam Shah and Hamid Khan and confirmed their possession of the Balaghat.

Shah Jahan ascended the imperial throne in Agra on February 4, 1628, and was thereafter, free to attend to the affairs of the

¹ Kale, p. 37.

empire¹. At the beginning of his reign the Khan-i-Jahan was still governor of Berar and Khandesh, but his bargain with the Deccanis was disturbed; for the officers of Murtaza Nizam Shah evacuated the Balaghat in obedience to an imperial *farman*. Buldhana district thus fell again into the hands of the Moghals. The Nizam Shahi commandant of Bid alone held out and the Khan-i-Zaman was sent against him.

When this officer advanced into the Balaghat of Buldhana, Murtaza Nizam Shah sent a force of 6,000 Maratha horse under Shahaji Bhosle to threaten his line of communication with Burhanpur. This army occupied positions in the Malkapur, Jalgaon and Akot tahsils. Unfortunately for the schemes of the Deccanis, the commandant of Bid surrendered, and Darya, the Rohilla, fell upon Shahaji's Maratha horse and dispersed them². The Khan-i-Jahan was now summoned to court and deprived of his title, whereupon he fled to the Deccan through Bundelkhand and Gondvana and entered the service of Murtaza Nizam Shah and on Murtaza refusing to surrender him Shah Jahan set out for the Deccan at the end of 1629, reaching Burhanpur early in 1630, where he was joined by Iradat Khan who had been appointed governor of Berar, Khandesh, and the Deccan in the place of the disgraced Khan-i-Jahan. He dispatched three armies one of 20,000 men and the others of 15,000 each into the Balaghat of Buldhana. Azam Khan who held the chief command passed the rainy season of 1630 in Deulgaon Raja. At the end of the rains he was superseded by Asaf Khan Yamin-ud-daulah and the war was carried beyond the confines of Berar. In the campaign which followed Shah Jahan's arrival at Burhanpur the Deccanis were driven from the Balaghat of Berar which they had again occupied. The war lasted until the fall of Daulatabad in 1633 when the last remnants of the sovereignty of the Nizam Shahi dynasty were entirely destroyed. The Moghals had now advanced well into the Deccan and though the Buldhana district, with the rest of Berar, suffered severely from demands for supplies for the forces in the field it was freed from the curse of war within its borders.

In 1630 the rains failed completely in Berar and the Deccan and partially elsewhere, and this calamity, combined with the heavy tax which the war had placed upon the tracts which it most affected, produced one of the most severe famines ever known in Berar. We have no detailed information of the extent to which the district as compared with other tracts was affected, but the general description of the effects of the famine probably applies accurately to the Buldhana district where the imperial forces numbered 50,000. "Buyers were ready to give a life for a loaf, but seller was there none. The flesh of dogs was sold as that of goats and the bones of the dead were ground with the flour sold in the market, and the punishment of those who profited

¹ The *Badshah-Nama* gives the date as February 15th. The *Muntakhab-ul-lubab* as February 14th and the *Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri* March 5th.

² Y. M. Kale, p. 139.

by this traffic produced yet direr results, men devoured one another and came to regard the flesh of their children as sweeter than their love. The inhabitants fled afar to other tracts till the corpses of those who fell by the way impended those who came after and in the lands of Berar, which had been famous for their fertility and prosperity, no trace of habitation remained". This account, taken from the official record of Shah Jahan's reign, is obviously hyperbolic, but cannot be dismissed as entirely imaginary. Berar had suffered much from protracted hostilities during which it had been the prey of hostile armies which had little respect for the rights of property, and the measures of relief undertaken were utterly inadequate. However, nothing particular seems to have been attempted in Buldhana district which slowly recovered from this calamity.

During the campaign which ended in the fall of Daulatabad, Rohinkheda was an important depot on the line of communications of the Moghal army. In October 1634, Shah Jahan's son, Shah Shuja, encamped at Malkapur on his way to the siege of Paranda. Towards the end of 1634 Shah Jahan issued a *farman* redistributing his territories in the Deccan. Hitherto Khandesh, Berar, and the conquered part of the Ahmadnagar country had formed a province under a viceroy. These tracts were now divided into two *subahs*, or revenue divisions, each under the government of a *subahdar*, an arrangement which caused the temporary dismemberment of the old province of Berar. The northern *subah*, known as the Payinghat, consisted of Khandesh and Berar as far as the crest line of Balaghat of Buldhana, Akola, and Yeotmal; and the southern *subah*, the Balaghat, comprised all the Moghal conquests to the south of that line. Of the present tahsils of the Buldhana district, Malkapur, Jalgaon and Khamgaon lay in the Payinghat, and Chikhli and Mehkar in the Balaghat.

This scheme of reorganization was very soon amended. In 1636, Shah Jahan appointed his third son, Aurangzeb, to the viceroyalty of the Deccan, where the possessions of the empire were redistributed into four *subhas* or divisions¹:

(1) Daulatabad and Ahmadnagar, the nominal capital of which was Daulatabad, while Aurangzeb resided at Khirki, which he renamed Aurangabad, (2) Telengana which included those tracts of north-western Telangana, which had been annexed to the empire, (3) Khandesh, the administrative capital of which was Burhanpur, while its principal military post was Ashirgad, and (4) Berar, the capital of which was Ellichpur, in the neighbourhood of which lay the fortress of Gavil, situated on the crest of a hill and noted for its great strength. Berar of which Buldhana district formed part now became once more a homogeneous province. Each of these division was governed

¹ Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VII, p. 24, c/f AbdulHamid Lahori *Badshah-Nama*.
² Y. M. Kale, p. 141.

by a *subhedar* in immediate subordination to Aurangzeb as viceroy, and the Khan-i-Dauran was retained as *subhedar* of Berar, with Sipahdar Khan as deputy governor in Ellichpur.

In 1637 the Khan-i-Dauran with Sipahdar Khan and the army of Berar undertook an expedition through the northern district of the kingdom of Golconda, where they collected tribute and thence they marched 'through the *sarkar* of Pavnar to besiege' Nagpur, which was held for Kokiya, the Gond ruler of Chandrapur and Nagpur was taken. It was probably at this time that the *sarkar* of Devgad was added to the province of Berar¹.

In 1642 Shah Beg Khan, a commander of 4,000 horse, was appointed *subhedar* of Berar in place of the Khan-i-Dauran and two years later Allah Vardi Khan was made a commander of 5,000 horse and received Ellichpur in *jahagir* on the death of Sipahdar Khan.

Early in 1658 Aurangzeb left the Deccan in order to participate in the contest for the imperial throne which ensued on the failure of Shah Jahan's health and in 1659 having worsted his competitors he gained the prize. He appointed Raja Jai Singh to the viceroyalty of the Deccan and made Irij Khan *subhedar* of Berar. In 1661, Diler Khan accompanied by Irij Khan, the *subhedar* of Berar and the *faujdar* of the province marched through Berar to attack the Gond *Raja* of Chandrapur. The *Raja* submitted and the expedition terminated on the *Raja* paying to the imperial exchequer a crore of rupees and promising to pay an annual tribute of 2 lakhs and to raze his fortifications. At this time a new power was gaining ascendancy in the Deccan, viz., that of the Marathas under the leadership of Shivaji. Inspired by the ideal of carving a separate State, and backed by the zeal of his followers he had made deep incursions in the Adil Shahi kingdom of Bijapur and had carried out daring attacks against the Moghal possessions in the Deccan. Aurangzeb had sensed this danger and had sent his generals, Shaista Khan, Mirza Raja Jai Singh and Diler Khan to contain Shivaji's activities in 1665. Shivaji realizing the tactical superiority of the Moghals, submitted and entered into an understanding with the Moghals under the terms of the treaty of Purandar. But the struggle with the Moghals which had begun was to last till the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. In 1667 Mirza Raja Jai Singh was recalled from the *subhedari* of the Deccan and Prince Muazzam was appointed in his place. Shivaji, while carrying on preparations for war with the Moghals, adopted a conciliatory tone and came to terms with the new viceroy. Sambhaji was made a Moghal *mansabdar* and was given a *jahagir* in Berar comprising the *paraganas* of Balapur and Avandhe. This was confiscated later towards the recovery of the amount of 1 lakh of rupees sanctioned to Shivaji as expenses when he visited Agra in 1666. Sambhaji visited prince Muazzam at Aurangabad on 4th November 1667 and after a short stay

¹ Y. M. Kale, p. 28.

returned to Rajgad while Maratha officers continued to stay in Aurangabad. Within two years Shivaji made thorough preparations for war with the Moghals. In 1670 he attacked and drove away the Moghals from the *swarajya*. He also invaded the imperial Moghal territory in all directions and carried daring raids into Khandesh and Berar. In December 1670, he attacked, when least expected, the rich city of Karanja in Berar and looted it completely¹. Shivaji died in 1680. His son Sambhaji succeeded him. Soon after his accession, early in 1681 Sambhaji's generals invaded Berar. They then moved with 20,000 troops towards Burhanpur, attacked and sacked it. The Marathas kept up a continuous pressure on Khandesh and Berar. In 1684 they attacked Dharangaon in Khandesh. Sambhaji was captured and executed in 1689 by Aurangzeb. His son Shahu was made a prisoner. Sambhaji's brother, Rajaram and his able commanders Santaji, Dhanaji, Parasoji and Nemaji made relentless attacks against the Moghals. Aurangzeb was forced to deploy his best officers as *subhedars* in the provinces of Khandesh and Berar², and renowned Moghal generals like Zulfikar Khan and Gazi-ud-din Firoz Jang were continuously striving to contain the Maratha activities in the Deccan. After the fall of Jinji in the South in 1698, Rajaram returned to the *swarajya* territory and reached Vishalgad in February 1698. Meanwhile Bakht Buland, the Gond *Raja* of Devgad, was carrying on struggle against the Moghals. Rajaram's generals, Nemaji Shinde and Parasoji Bhosle, were successfully ravaging Khandesh and Berar exacting *chauth* from the Imperial territory. In 1699 Rajaram himself planned an invasion of Berar. This was checked by the Moghals under prince Bedarbakht and Zulfikar Khan. Rajaram returned to Sinhgad where he died on 2nd March 1700. The death of Rajaram brought about no lull in the fighting between the Marathas and the Moghals. The Marathas, under the able leadership of Tarabai (widow of Rajaram), Ramchandrapant Amatya, Shankaraji Narayan, Dhanaji Jadhav and others, continued the struggle vigorously. They ravaged Moghal territory in Malva and Gujarat. In 1703 Berar was again raided when Sharza Khan, the deputy governor of Berar was captured by Nemaji Shinde. The struggle continued till the death of Aurangzeb on February 20, 1707.

At the time of Aurangzeb's death Gazi-ud-din Firoz Jang was the governor of Berar.

¹ Sarkar, *Shivaji*, p. 178.

² The following Moghal officers administered Berar as *subhedars* from 1675 till the death of Aurangzeb in 1707:—

Khan Zaman was appointed *subhedar* in December 1675. He was succeeded by Irij Khan who died on 13th August 1685. In August 1686 Hassan Khan was appointed *subhedar*. He was succeeded by Mahabat Khan (appointed in September 1686) and prince Kam Baksh (appointed on 26th September 1686) and again on (24th December 1697). In 1698 Askar Ali Khan was appointed *subhedar*. He was succeeded by the leading Moghal general Firoz Jang.

On 20th February 1707 Aurangzeb died at Ahmadnagar and was shortly afterwards buried at Rauza afterwards called Khuldabad, near the caves of Ellora and about seven miles from Daulatabad. The usual conflict for the throne followed the death of the emperor and victory finally declared itself for Shah Alam, the eldest surviving son, who ascended the throne under the title of Bahadur Shah. Firoz Jang at first held Berar for prince Muhammad Azam by whom he was transferred, as *subhedar*, to the province of Gujarat, but the cautious *amir* was a lukewarm partisan and readily made his peace with Bahadur Shah who confirmed him in his appointment in Gujarat.

Towards the end of 1707 Zulfikar Khan Nusrat Jang was viceroy of the whole of the Deccan, and it was now that the officers of the imperial army first began to enter into regular agreements with the Marathas for the payment of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*. It may here be mentioned that after the capture of Sambhaji in 1689, Rayagad fort, the capital of the Marathas, fell to the Moghals. Shahu, the son of Sambhaji along with his mother Yesubai, was made a prisoner. He remained with Aurangzeb till the latter's death in 1707.

Shahu was allowed to go back to the Deccan from the imperial camp¹ in 1707. At the time of the release of Shahu by Azam Shah, the terms of the release were (1) that he was to rule the small *swarajya* of his grandfather as a vassal of the Moghal empire, (2) that he was to serve his liege lord, whenever called upon to do so with his contingent of troops, and (3) that he was also permitted to collect *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* from the six Moghal provinces of the south which included Berar of which Buldhana district formed a part. Parasoji Bhosle, the ancestor of the later Bhosle rulers of Nagpur, was then in possession of Berar and Gondvana². He hastened to west Khandesh with his army to join Shahu, whereupon Shahu, along with other prominent Maratha chiefs crossed the Godavari and reached Satara. Tarabai, widow of Rajaram, however, not desiring to acclaim Shahu, had won over Parashuram Pratinidhi and Bapuji, elder brother of Parasoji, to her side. Tarabai, under the pretence of ascertaining whether Shahu was real, sent Bapuji, who was the eldest person known in the Bhosle House, to Shahu's camp. But Bapuji not only joined Shahu's forces but partook food in the same dish with Shahu and convinced all other Maratha chiefs of his blood royal. They now readily joined his standard. Shahu in appreciation of Parasoji's services to his cause, granted him *sanad* for Gavil, Narnala, Mahur, Khedale, Pavnar and Kalamb,

¹ From the river Narmada.

² Parasoji's uncles were in the service of the Nizamshahi kingdom of Ahmadnagar and were contemporaries of Shahaji, the father of Chhatrapati Shivaji. They were granted Amravati and Bham in *jahagir* for the services rendered by them. Paraso made Bham in Yeotmal district his headquarters.

and declared him "*Sena Saheb Subha*" in 1707¹. Parasoji collected tributes from Berar but in 1709, on his return from Satara, died at Khed near Wai.

Bahadur Shah died in 1712 and was succeeded by his eldest son, Muizuddin who took the title of Jahandar Shah. On his death the two Sayyad brothers of Barha, who were now all-powerful at Delhi, raised to the throne Farrukhsiyar. It was in his reign, in 1719, that the imperial court formally acknowledged the claim of the Marathas to *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*. In consideration for refraining from ravaging Berar and the other five *subhas* of the Deccan they were allowed to collect one-quarter of the revenue under the name of *chauth* and in addition to this a further proportion of one-tenth under the name of *sardeshmukhi*, which was regarded as a recompense for the trouble and expense of collecting the *chauth*. It was the imperial recognition of these claims which laid the foundation of that system of government known as *do-amli*.

These terms pertaining to *svarajya*, *chauthai* and *sardeshmukhi* stated.—(1) that all territories known as Shivaji's *svarajya* together with the forts therein should be delivered to Shahu, (2) that such territories as had been recently conquered by the Marathas in Khandesh, Berar, Gondvana, Hyderabad and Karnatak should also be ceded to him as part of the Maratha kingdom, and (3) that the Marathas should be allowed to collect *chauthai* and *sardeshmukhi* from all the six *subhas* of the south. This *sanad* thus unequivocally upheld, the *de jure* sovereignty of the Marathas over the territories conquered by them in the Deccan including the *subha* of Berar, by giving them the right to collect *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in the six *subhas* of the Deccan including Berar, and legalised their right of doing so. Shahu accordingly issued orders to his local officials in the six *subhas* of the Deccan to enforce the terms of the above agreement and make collections of *chauthai* and *sardeshmukhi*. The imperial confirmation of these terms in the form of *Sanads* of *svarajya*, *chauthai* and *sardeshmukhi* was obtained in 1719 when Balaji Vishvanath paid a personal visit to Delhi along with a strong contingent of Maratha troops including Khanderav Dabhade, Udaji, Kesoji and Tukoji

¹ The details of the *sanad* granted by Shahu at that time were as under :—

Prant Ritapur and Sarkar Gavel, Prant Varhad, Prant Devgad, Chanda and Gondwan :—

The details of the Anagondi etc., Mahals of Varhad prant :—

Sarkar Gavel Mahal	..	46
Sarkar Narnala Mahal	..	37
Sarkar Nahur Mahal	..	19
Sarkar Khelda Mahal	..	21
Sarkar Pawnar Mahal	..	5
Sarkar Kalamb Mahal	..	19

6

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Thus making a total of six *sarkars* with a charge of rupees nine, annas eleven in every hundred.

Y. M. Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, page 47.

Pavar, Ranoji and Santaji Bhosle. While the *Peshva* was in Delhi a clash of arms ensued between the Maratha and imperial troops and about 1,500 to 2,000 Maratha horsemen were killed. Among those killed was Santaji Bhosle, the son of Shahu's benefactor Parsoji Bhosle. Shahu at the time of the grand *darbar* held in Satara on the return of Balaji Vishvanath amply rewarded Ranoji, the brother of Santaji with fresh *inams* and gave him the title of Savai Santaji.

It may here be pointed out that Nizam-ul-Mulk the founder of the state of Hyderabad during his brief viceroyalty of the Deccan from 1713, never accepted the Maratha right of collecting *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in the six *subhas* of the Deccan.

It is not necessary to follow in detail the course of the intrigues of the Sayyad brothers at Delhi. After deposing Farrukhsiyar and setting up two nonentities to succeed him, they raised to the throne in 1719 Raushan Akhtar, who took the title of Muhammad Shah. In 1720 they hatched a plot against Asaf Jah Nizam-ul-Mulk, son of Gazi-ud-din Firoz Jang; and sent him as *subhedar* to Malva in the hope that he would either be disgraced in the vain attempt to quell the disturbances which they fomented against him or would rebel. To their disappointment he was joined by all the men of importance in Malva and also by his uncle Ivaz Khan, *subhedar* of Berar. Alam Ali Khan, the nephew of the Sayyads, who was viceroy of the Deccan, now appointed Anvar Khan, *subhedar* of Berar but he too joined Asaf Jah. The plot of the Sayyads failed. Asaf Jah met their nephew, Alam Ali Khan who had marched through Buldhana district to oppose the former at Balapur on 31st July 1720 and there defeated and slew him. He then returned to Delhi and was appointed *subhedar* of Gujarat while his son Gazi-ud-din Khan Firoz Jang was appointed to Malva.

NIZAMS

In 1722 the Nizam received news that his province of Gujarat and his son's province of Malva were overrun by the Marathas and he, therefore obtained permission to leave Delhi for the purpose of expelling the intruders. While he was setting the affairs of Malva in order, he learnt that Mubariz Khan, the *subhedar* of Hyderabad, whom he had believed to be devoted to his interests, had been bribed by the Sayyads with the promise of the viceroyalty of the Deccan to take up arms against him and was even marching to meet him.

Asaf Jah advanced southwards to Aurangabad, whence he wrote to Mubariz Khan cautioning him to refrain from breaking the peace. Mubariz Khan paid no heed to the warning, but pressed on in the endeavour to turn Asaf Jah's flank, being anxious to fight with his back to Delhi, whence he expected support. Asaf Jah anticipated this design and moved eastwards from Aurangabad with the object of thwarting it, and in the meanwhile sent daily letters to Mubariz Khan, urging him to refrain from hostilities. The inducement that had been held out to Mubariz Khan was too strong for him, and he continued his

march northwards, evaded Asaf Jah, crossed the southern Purna river, and entered the Buldhana district. Asaf Jah, finding that the enemy had evaded him, turned northwards in pursuit, and succeeded in crossing the southern Purna river and defeating a force which Mubariz Khan had left to guard the forts. Meanwhile Mubariz Khan was making good his position at Sakarkhelda in the Mehkar tahsil, where Asaf Jah encountered him on 30th September 1724. The results of the battle between the opposing forces settled the fate of Berar for a century and quarter.

The vanguard of Asaf Jah, who was now advancing northwards, was commanded by Kadir Dad Khan, who was closely related to his leader, and the right of this force was commanded by Talib Muhiyuddin Khan, Asaf Jah's cousin, and the left by Muzaffar Khan, another relation of Asaf Jah's. The advanced guard, with some artillery, was commanded by Kunyar Chand, the Bundela, with whom were associated Barkandaz Khan and Ata Yar Khan, commanders of the artillery. With the right wing of Asaf Jah's army were Ivaz Khan, Saiyid Jamal Khan, Mukarrab Khan, Khan-i-Alam, the Deccani, Mutahawwir Khan, and Aziz Beg Khan, and with the right centre were Zahir-ud-daulah Riayat Khan and Muhammad Ghiyas Khan. The left was commanded by Zahir-ud-daulah Abdur Rahim Khan, Asaf Jah's uncle, with whom was associated Saiyid Ghazanfar Khan Burhanpuri. With the left centre were Hirzullah Khan and Bahadur Dil Khan and the centre was commanded by Asaf Jah in person. Mubariz Khan's army was arranged as follows: the vanguard was commanded by Ghalib Khan and Husain Munawwar Khan, and the advanced guard by Muhammad Beg Khan. Ibrahim Khan, otherwise known as Bahadur Khan, commanded the right wing, and Abdul Fattah Khan the left, Mubariz Khan commanded the centre and had with him the Khan-i-Zaman, son of the Khan-i-Khanan, Munawwar Khan, Kizilbash Khan, Faik Khan, Arab Beg Khan Turani, and Mir Yusuf Khan. Mubariz Khan first advanced to the attack moving over ground much broken by *nallah* against Asaf Jah's centre. The fight was fiercely contested, but Asaf Jah's loss was slight, except in elephants. Asad Khan and Masud Khan, two of Mubariz Khan's sons, were slain, and Mahmud Khan and Hamid-ullah Khan, his two other sons, were wounded and captured. The driver of Mubariz Khan's elephant fell, covered with wounds, and his master took his place and so fled from the field, but fell before he could reach a place of safety. On the next day the slain were counted and it was found that more than three thousand of Mubariz Khan's army had fallen and that large numbers of horses had been destroyed. Of Asaf Jah's army his uncle Riayat Khan and Sulaiman Khan were slain and Saiyid Ghazanfar Khan was mortally wounded. Other casualties were few, and no other officer of distinction was slain or seriously wounded. The date is an important one in the history of Berar, of which the Buldhana district formed a part and the Deccan; for the battle of Sakarkhelda established the virtual independence of the Deccan under the Nizam of

Hyderabad. Neither Chin Kilich Khan Nizam-ul-Mulk nor any of his successors at Hyderabad ever assumed the style of independent sovereigns, but they settled questions of succession among themselves, made all appointments in the six *subhas* of the Deccan and behaved in all respects as independent rulers with the exception that their coin bore the name of the reigning emperor and that the imperial recognition of each succession was purchased by large presents and professions of subservience.

Marathas.—It must not, however, be supposed that the Nizams of Hyderabad exercised undisputed sway over their wide dominions. Several years before the battle of Fatehkheda the imperial officers in the Deccan had entered into a humiliating compact with the Marathas under the terms of which the latter were allowed, in consideration of their abstention from ravaging the country, to levy an impost known as *chauth*, amounting to one-quarter of the land revenue, and a further contribution known as *sardeshmukhi* amounting to one-tenth of the revenue to cover the cost of collecting the *chauth*. This agreement had been in force for some years when, in 1719, it was formally ratified by the advisers of the emperor Farrukhsiyar at Delhi. Asaf Jah's sovereignty was, therefore, subject to this limitation, which seems to have been accepted by him and his officers as part of the established order of things. So far as Berar was concerned the *Mokasdar* or recognized collector of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* was the Bhosle Raja of Nagpur, and the effects of this dual system of government are well described by Sir Alfred Lyall: "Whenever, the emperor or the Nizam appointed a *jagirdar* the Marathas appointed another, and both claimed the revenue, while foragers from each side exacted forced contributions; so that the harassed cultivator often threw up his land and helped to plunder his neighbour. The Maratha by these means succeeded in fixing his hold on this province: but its resources were dilapidated, and its people must have been seriously demoralized by a regime of barefaced plunder and fleecing, without attempt at principle or stability". This brief extract describes generally the condition of the Buldhana district between the years 1724 and 1803. We may now turn to the activities of the Bhosles in Berar. Kanhoji, the son of Parsoji Bhosle, not only established firmly the Maratha power in Berar and Gondvana but also laid the foundation of its future in Orissa. His headquarters being at Bham, the Bhosles are referred to even up to the treaty of 1803 with the English, as the *Rajas* of Berar. However, the relations of Kanhoji with Shahu were no more cordial. Kanhoji had looked after Raghuji, the son of Bimbaji, his cousin, but now by the blessings of the Saint Ramajipant of Pandavgad near Wai, he had a son, Rayaji and his attention to Raghuji was no more undivided. Raghuji, leaving Kanhoji had joined Shahu and had even once saved the life of Shahu when he was attacked by a ferocious tiger. Shahu gave the daughter of Shirke, the sister of his wife Sagunabai to Raghuji in marriage. Kanhoji's rule, again, according to the contemporary reports seems to be oppressive.

Ranoji, after his return from Delhi, joining with Raghuji, demanded their share of the hereditary rights in Bhosle principality. Shahu, first through the good offices of Balaji Vishvanath, and later, himself tried to conciliate them. Raghuji and Ranoji were asked to serve under Kanhoji which they refused to do. However, Kanhoji and Fatehsingh Bhosle had accompanied Bajirav and Raghuji Bhosle on their Karnatak expedition during 1725—27.

Kanhoji had constantly failed to submit accounts of *jahagir* to Shahu and evaded revenue payments to the Maratha State exchequer. Sensing the trouble, Kanhoji left Satara, in a hurry without taking Shahu's permission. Kanhoji left for Kumtha on 23rd August 1725 in the afternoon and next day, reached Tasgaon via Kanherkhed and Pusesavali. Shahu despatched two prominent Maratha chiefs to pursue Kanhoji and not being satisfied with this arrangement, himself set out with Yamaji Shivdev. Shahu, however, returned from Vadgaon being persuaded to do so by Yamaji Shivdev who took the responsibility to bring Kanhoji to book. Avaji Kavade, Bajirav's *sardar* in Berar and all the Maratha chiefs on Kanhoji's road to Berar were instructed instantly by Shahu to arrest Kanhoji wherever possible.

Kanhoji, however, joined the Nizam, evading all the vigilance of the Marathas. Shahu remonstrated to the Nizam strongly, declaring that the Nizam had broken the earlier treaty with the Marathas, by giving refuge to Kanhoji and it appears that the Nizam refused to give quarters to Kanhoji. Finally, through the good counsel of Yesaji Siddheshvar, Shahu and Kanhoji were brought on friendly terms, but even these proved to be short lived.

Shahu despatched Raghuji Bhosle against Kanhoji and gave Devur in *jahagir* to Raghuji anticipating his good services¹. Govindrav Chitnis, Fatehsingh Bhosle and Shripatrav Pratinidhi had helped Raghuji's cause, from the very beginning. Raghuji was explicitly asked not to repeat Kanhoji's insolence and to pay regular tribute to the Maratha State. Konhereram Kolhatkar paid one lakh rupees to Shahu towards guarantee for Raghuji's loyal conduct. Konhereram demanded in return the office of *sikkenavis*, which was granted by Raghuji. Anant Bhat Chitale was appointed by Shahu, in charge of the audits of Raghuji's *jahagir*. Raghuji was given the title of *Sena Saheb Subha* by Shahu on this occasion.

Raghuji, setting out to meet Kanhoji, was obstructed, near Jalna by Samsher Bahadar Santaji Atole, but Dinkar Vinayak and Shivaji Vinayak from Raghuji's camp, finding one Yeshvant-rav Pilaji, their relation in Santaji's camp conciliated matters,

¹The actual *sanad* is, dated 22nd November 1731, but Raghuji was to leave his family here and to march ahead. The Bhosles were called hereditary Rajas of Devur on this account. Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 60.

averting a clash and Raghuji advanced further. Raghuji started collecting *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in Berar, in the name of Shahu. He entered Berar through Lakhanvada *ghat* and from Balapur, divided his army of 30,000 horse, despatching sections in all directions of Berar. He defeated Shujayat Khan, the deputy of Navab of Ellichpur in the neighbourhood of Ellichpur.

Having established himself firmly in Berar, Raghuji now turned towards Kanhoji. Kanhoji too had prepared himself for adequate defence by fortifying Bham thoroughly. Raghuji set out from Balapur, reached Amravati and further marched to Talegaon. Kanhoji meanwhile was negotiating with the Nizam through Hirjulla Khan, *subhedar* of Mahur. Vasudev Pant, his *vakil*, had been sent to Aurangabad for this purpose. Raghuji and his uncle Ranoji laid siege to the fort of Bham. Kanhoji's *sardar*, Tukoji Gujar was killed in action. However, Kanhoji escaped to Mahur pursued hotly by Raghuji and Ranoji. Both the armies met near Wani at Mandor and Kanhoji submitted¹. Raghuji took him to Shahu, who put him in custody at Satara where he died subsequently. Raghuji's army was stationed at Rajur for six more years.

It may here be pointed out that the relations between the Marathas and the Nizam were strained due to the attempt of the latter to seduce Shahu's *Sena Saheb Subha*, Kanhoji Bhosle and his *Sar Lashkar* Sultanji Nimbalkar. The matters came to a head when Nizam tried to play Sambhaji of Kolhapur against Shahu and when his officers along with the Maratha noblemen who had gone over to his side raided and carried depredations in the territory of *svarajya*, Bajirav took up the challenge and directed his officers to contain the activities of the Nizam. Fatehsingh and Raghuji Bhosle encountered Chandrasen Jadhav, who had defected to the Nizam and defeated him after a sanguinary action. Bajirav also leaving Pune in September 1727 proceeded through Berar, ravaged Mahur and passing through the district of Buldhana, moved towards Khandesh. Nizam-ul-Mulk, who had in the meanwhile occupied Pune, on hearing of Bajirav's movements marched northwards towards Aurangabad as anticipated by Bajirav. When the Nizam was at Palkhed, Bajirav suddenly attacked him on 25th February 1728 and surrounded his position. With no chances of succour, the Nizam surrendered and signed the treaty of Mungi Shevgaon on 6th March 1728. Under the terms of the treaty the Nizam agreed that all administrative or diplomatic measures for the Government of the six *subhas* should be executed through the agency of the Marathas and also confirmed the previous grants of *svarajya* and *sardeshmukhi*. From now onwards the *subhas* of the Deccan, including the *subha* of Berar came

¹When Kanhoji was surrounded on all sides by Raghuji's army, Raghuji giving him the due respect, requested him to sit in the palanquin, but Kanhoji being very hot-tempered abused Raghuji, with the result that Raghuji finally had to put him under guard.

under dual management of the Marathas and the Nizam in regard to the collection of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in which the dominant partners were the Marathas.

After the battle of Palkhed Bajirav decided to invade Malva, Chimaji, his brother, taking the western route through Baglan and Khandesh and Bajirav, the western route through Ahmadnagar, Berar, Chandrapur and Devgad towards Bundelkhand. Chimaji defeated and killed Giridhar Bahadur, the *subhedar* of Malva in the battle fought at Amjhera on 29th November 1728. Bajirav received the news of this victory while he was in Berar and he instructed his brother quickly to follow up the action at Amjhera. From Berar Bajirav proceeded to Devgad and from thence to Bundelkhand whose chief Chhatrasal had sent an urgent appeal to him to be rescued from the clutches of Muhammad Bangash. Bajirav humbled Bangash and returned to Pune. The subsequent developments such as Maratha incursions into Gujarat, the submission of Sambhaji of Kolhapur to Shahu, the humbling of the Dabhade at Dabhai do not concern the history of Buldhana and could be passed over. They are important only in the context of the overall history of the Deccan in that these events paved the way for an understanding between the *Peshwa* and the Nizam when they met at Rohe Rameshwar on 27th December 1732. This understanding was, however, shortlived and the later years saw estrangement between the two, leading to the route of the Nizam at Bhopal in December 1737 by Bajirav ably assisted by Raghuji Bhosle, the new *Sena Saheb Subha*, Damaji Gaikwad and Avji Kavade. In 1739 Delhi was rocked by the invasion of Nadir Shah and Nizam-ul-Mulk who marched towards Delhi was humiliated by the invader to his utter discomfiture. In the meanwhile Raghuji Bhosle had seized the province of Berar which the Nizam considered as his own exclusive possession. In retaliation Nasir Jang, the son of Nizam-ul-Mulk marched northward to invade the *Peshva's* domain but was routed by Bajirav near Aurangabad. A treaty was formally concluded at Mungi Shevgaon on 27th February 1740 and was ceremoniously ratified at a personal meeting between the two chiefs on 3rd March at Pimpalgaon. Bajirav died soon afterwards on 28th April 1740 and was succeeded to the *Peshvaship* by his son Balaji Bajirav alias Nana Saheb. Nana Saheb decided to acquire the *subha* of Malva which he did by making friends with the Rajput prince Jaysinh who impressed upon the emperor the necessity of granting the *subha* of Malva to the Marathas. On 4th July 1741 the deed was ratified under the emperor's seal. When the Maratha affairs were thus flourishing ill-feeling began to develop between the *Peshwa* and Raghuji Bhosle. The latter had acquired as early as 1738 a *sanad* from Shahu which stated that "the *subhas* of Lucknow, Maksudabad, Bundelkhand, Allahabad, Patna, Dacca and Bihar are made over as Raghuji's field of activity". This was in addition to the province of Berar in which

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Raghuji had already established himself at Bham, sixteen miles south of Yeotmal and of which the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* were regularly collected by him. The Nizam had recognised formally Raghuji Bhosle as the *Mokasadar* of Berar, that is an assignee of a share of the revenues, which he was authorised to collect through his own officers. As stated earlier in 1738, immediately after he acquired the above *sanad* from Shahu, Raghuji strengthened his position by attacking and defeating Shujat Khan, the governor of Berar, in the neighbourhood of Ellichpur. The desire of the *Peshwa* in such a situation to extend his influence in the northern and eastern parts of India brought him at cross-roads with the Bhosle and a conflict between the two seemed inevitable. A short but indecisive action was fought between the forces of the *Peshwa* and Raghuji Bhosle on 10th April 1743 in the narrow pass of Bendu near Pachet. However, before the matters could take a turn for the worse, Shahu brought about a reconciliation between the two. An agreement was signed by both on 31st August 1743 at Satara by which all the territory from Berar to the east right up to Cuttack, Bengal and Lucknow was assigned to Raghuji with which the *Peshwa* bound himself not to interfere and the territory west of this line including Ajmer, Agra, Prayag and Malva were to be the exclusive spheres of the *Peshwa*¹.

The particular reference to Berar in this agreement is of significance. Well before the acquisition of the *sanads* for collecting *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* from the six *subhas* of the Deccan, the Marathas were already forcing the Moghal officers to part with their share of the revenues of the six *subhas* including the *subha* of Berar. Not only that but in many instances the Marathas appointed their officers to work side by side with the officers of the Moghals, before 1724 and then of the Nizam subsequent to the declaration of independence by the latter. Sometimes they even collected the whole revenue of the province and handed over the residue of the same to the officers of the Nizam after appropriating their own share. As stated before after Parasoji Bhosle, Kanhoji was appointed the *Sena Saheb Subha* but as he proved to be of a refractory nature, Shahu dismissed him and appointed his nephew, Raghuji Bhosle to the post of *Sena Saheb Subhaship*². Like his predecessors Raghuji established himself at Bham as noted previously. The rivalry between the *Peshvas* and the Bhosles was not merely confined to the northern and eastern regions of India but extended to Berar though in a smaller degree, because of the specific rights of *mokasa* and *inam* which the *Peshvas* acquired from the *Chhatrapatis* of Satara and the Nizam. It may be interesting to note that *Peshwa* Balaji Vishvanath got in *inam* from Shahu 2 villages in Berar. Bajirav also

¹ Aiti. *Patravayahakar* 35-39; Raj. Vol. 2, pp. 98-99.

² Shahu ordered Raghuji to arrest his uncle Kanhoji. Raghuji defeated Kanhoji at Mandar in Yeotmal district and sent him as a prisoner to Shahu at Satara.

obtained certain *mokasa* in *jahagir* in Berar from Shahu. In a document pertaining to the year 1740-41 a complete list of *mokasa jahagir* enjoyed by Bajirav is detailed as below:—

Sammat (subha) Narnala

1 Mauje Adgaon Khurd, P. Adgaon ..	1 Mauje Dhonegaon P. Anjangaon Surji.
1 Mauje Eklare Khurd Banvihir (?)..	1 Mauje Nanded P. Nandgaon Peth
1 Mauje Malegaon Khurd Pimpalgaon Raja.	1 Mauje Ner P. Chandur.
1 Mauje Undangaon Khurd Akot ..	1 Mauje Gaivade P. Chandur Mave.
1 Mauje Shirpur Khurd P. Dahihande.	1 Mauje Suruli P. Chandur Karajgaon
1 Mauje Dhanegaon Khurd P. Malkapur.	1 Mauje Udkhed P. Chandur Mankhed (?)..
1 Mauje Dalevar (?) Khurd P. Kusundkhed (?)..	1 Mauje Shirasgaon P. Chandur.
1 Mauje Javale Khurd P. Nanded ..	1 Mauje Borkhed P. Chandur Kholapur.
1 Mauje Ugane Khurd P. Akola ..	1 Mauje Satephal P. Chandur Vadnerbibiche.
1 Mauje Shirsole Khurd P. Badnargangai.	1 Mauje Anjangaon P. Chandur Vadnerbibiche.
1 Mauje Akoli Khurd P. Mahagaon..	1 Mauje Takalkhed P. Chandur Thugain.
1 Mauje Dhad Khurd P. Chandol ..	

II

1 Mauje Khetari Khurd P. Balapur ..	
1 Mauje Sasti Khurd P. Balapur ..	1 Mauje Visur P. Talegaon.
1 Mauje Nanded Khurd P. Kanrud (Kannad ?)	Amounting to ten thousand (<i>Sammat Kalamb</i>).
1 Mauje Sonale Khurd P. Kanrud	1 Mauje Sungaon P. Jamod.
1 Mauje Shirale Khurd P. Gerumatargaon.	

Total Villages .. 30

After the death of Bajirao *Peshva*, Balaji Bajirav was confirmed in these *mokasa* villages by Shahu in 1741, the *sanad* clearly stating that the grant of *mokasa* is in lieu of the salary. A copy of the orders regarding the grant of such *mokasa* from time to time and their confirmation by the *Chhatrapati* were dispatched to the *Sena Saheb Subha*, Bhosle, who were responsible for the collection of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of the province of Berar and also to the local officers such as the village officer and the *Deshmukh* and the *Deshpande*. The *Peshvas* were not the only recipients of such *mokasa jahagir* in Berar but other officers in the Court of the *Chhatrapati* also enjoyed the *mokasa jahagirs* in Berar¹. It would thus seem that the interests not only of the Nizam and the Bhosle were involved in the affairs of Berar but also those of the *Peshva*. This naturally proved a bone of contention in the wider conflict between the *Peshva* and the Bhosles. The reconciliation brought about by Shahu between Balaji Bajirav and Raghuji Bhosle put an end at least temporarily to the rivalry between the two. The activities of Raghuji Bhosle during the subsequent years as also those of Balaji Bajirav need

¹ A document of the year 1752 lists the *Mokasa Jahagir* in Berar of Khanderao Kashi, a Judge in the Maratha Court.

not detain us here, though involving as they did the expansion of Maratha influence in the eastern and northern India, they had very little bearing on the history of Buldhana, which continued under the dual administration of the Nizam and the Bhosle. On 15th December 1749 Shahu died. Exactly a year and a half before on 21st May 1748 had died the Nizam. The death of Shahu brought the conflicts of the Maratha principals in the open. The successors of the Nizam were not slow in taking advantage of this disunity among the Marathas and the history of Maratha-Nizam relations from now onwards has a considerable bearing upon the history of Buldhana district.

Shahu was succeeded by Ramraja as the *Chhatrapati* of Satara. The domestic trouble in the Maratha Court reached a crisis immediately after the accession of Ramraja due to the attitude of Tarabai, the wife of Rajaram who conspired against the *Peshva*. The *Peshva* called Raghuji Bhosle and the Maratha nobility to Pune including Shinde, Holkar, Somvamsi, Ramchandra Bava, Purandare, etc. The assembly of these noblemen consented to the proposal of the *Peshva* that the executive power in the state must remain in the hands of the *Peshva* with Raghuji Bhosle wholeheartedly supporting the *Peshva*. It thus became clear that Raghuji did not want to entangle himself in the affairs of the Maratha Court but desired a free hand in the politics of the eastern region leaving the *Peshva* free to deal with the affairs of the Maratha Court as he deemed fit.

Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah was succeeded in the Deccan by his son Nasir Jang. In 1750 Nasir Jang was murdered. Muzaffar Jang, Asaf Jah's grandson by his daughter, succeeded him. He too was murdered and was succeeded by his brother Salabat Jang, who, on the death of Sayyad Sharif Khan Shujat Jang in June, 1752, appointed Sayyad Lashkar Khan to the vacant appointment of *subhedar* of Berar. In the same year Gazi-ud-din Khan, the eldest son of Asaf Jah, having been appointed by the emperor Ahmad Shah, viceroy of the Deccan, advanced as far as Aurangabad to secure his heritage, but in Aurangabad he died suddenly from cholera according to one account, but according to another, from the poison administered by or at the instance of Salabat Jang's mother. In November, 1752, war broke out between the Marathas and the Nizam. The latter was surrounded at Bhalki and forced to surrender. Under the terms of the treaty then signed the whole of the western half of the then province of Berar between the rivers Godavari and the Tapi including most of the Buldhana district was ceded to the Marathas by the Nizam. This demarcation of the Nizam's territory had practically existed to the present day. Salabat Jang spent the rainy season of 1753 in Aurangabad where Sayyad Lashkar Khan, *subhedar* of Berar, who had now received the title of Rukn-ud-daula was appointed *vazir* of the Deccan, which appointment he resigned after a few months, leaving the finances of the State in a deplorable condition. Gazi-ud-din Khan, in order to attach the Marathas to his cause, had assigned to them the revenue of all the northern

district of the Deccan and Raghuji Bhosle, on the pretext of Gazi-ud-din's promise, had collected and retained the whole of the revenue of Berar. One of the first acts of Samsam-ud-daula, who had succeeded Rukn-ud-daula as minister, was to send against Raghuji an army which succeeded in forcing him to disgorge five lakhs of rupees, an utterly inadequate share of his plunder. On 14th February 1755, Raghuji Bhosle died and Rukn-ud-daula returned to Berar as *subhedar*. He was displaced in 1756 in favour of Mir Nizam Ali, the brother of Salabat Jang who on his appointment as *subhedar* of Berar received the title of Nizam-ud-daula. Nizam-ud-daula now marched into Berar, where his presence was required and encamped at Ellichpur.

Raghuji, on his death, left behind four sons, Janoji, Mudhoji, Bimbaji, and Sabaji. Janoji, being the eldest, claimed the *Sena Saheb Subhaship*. However, Mudhoji who had been to Gavilgad, hearing the news of Raghuji's death, hastened to Nagpur to assert his own claim, as he was Raghuji's son by his elder wife. Janoji preparing himself, despatched Jayaji to capture Gavilgad. Meeting Mudhoji on the way, Jayaji pretended himself a friend of Mudhoji and secured the office of *killedar* (fort-keeper) of Gavilgad from Mudhoji. Jayaji immediately informed Janoji that Gavilgad was in his possession. Mudhoji, however, exacted tributes from Berar and was well supported by Sadashiv Hari and the *Deshmukh* of Parole. Moreover, Dinkar Vinayak Prabhu, Shivaji Vinayak Prabhu and Narsingrav Bhavani had joined Mudhoji with their armies. But Janoji was supported by Baburav Konher, Kolhatkar (*Mujamdar*), Rakhmaji Ganesh Chitnavis, Trimbakji Raje Bhosle, Krishnaji Govind, the Maratha *subhedar* of Berar, Narhar Ballal (Risbud) and Shivahu Sathe, the Maratha *subhedar* of Cuttack. All the elderly nobility including Raghuji Karande, Bimbaji Wanjale, Nanhoji Jachak, Shivaji Keshav Tal-kute, Girmaji Khandarav, Anandrav Wagh, Krishnaji Atole, too, supported Janoji. At last Trimbakji Raje Bhosle and Baburav Konher, reaching Pune, paid Rs. 2½ lakhs to the *Peshva* as Bhosle's tribute to the Maratha State and secured the office of *Sena Saheb Subha* for Janoji.

The Bhosle armies clashed twice or three times in Berar but the *Peshva* reconciled the two, declaring Mudhoji *Senadhurandhar*. The new *jahagir* in Chandrapur and Chhattisgad were respectively granted by the *Peshva* to Mudhoji and Bimbaji in 1757. Sabaji was at his headquarters at Daravhe in Berar¹. The Gond King of Chandrapur, taking advantage of the dissensions in the Bhosle house, had taken possession of the fort of Chandrapur. Hence, Mudhoji, setting out from Ellichpur, captured the Chandrapur fort.

Here we must revert to the story of the *Peshva's* relations with Navab Salabat Jang of Hyderabad, resuming the thread of the time from the peace of Bhalki in December, 1752. Bussy was

¹ The official sanad was granted, however, by Tarabai on 6th August 1761 when Madhavrav was the *Peshva*.

called upon to face the machinations of the two old and able servants of the State, Sayyad Lashkar Khan and Shah Navaz Khan, who became greatly jealous of his power and control of the administration, giving rise to murder and secret plots at the Nizam's Court to which ultimately Salabat Jang fell a prey.

While Bussy had been reducing Savanur in the summer of 1756, his master Salabat Jang wishing to be rid of this overbearing and grasping servant, sent him on 18th May, an order that he had been dismissed from service. This was the result of the serious alarm which Indian powers began to feel at the increasing domination which the English and the French began to exercise through their superior military organization. As soon as the *Peshva* learnt of Bussy's dismissal, he offered to engage him in his own service and to all appearances this was agreed to by both the parties. But Bussy was a master tactician, intent upon impressing the Indian powers with a premonition that hereafter the Europeans were to be the masters in India. Bussy quietly said yes to every request that was made to him and asked for passports to proceed to Masulipatan after a few days stay at Hyderabad to collect his effects. The *Peshva* even gave him his own escort on the way. With his whole following Bussy reached Hyderabad in June and took up his residence at the grand old edifice known as the Char Minar in the centre of the town, where he so fortified himself by means of his powerful artillery that he could not be dislodged. Salabat Jang came soon after with all his forces, but could make no effect upon Bussy's position during a stiff contest that raged for four months. In the end Salabat Jang was completely humbled and gave a written agreement to Bussy on 16th November reinstating him in his former position. After arranging his affairs in Hyderabad, Bussy left for Masulipatan to manage the lucrative districts he had obtained in the northern, *sarkars*, for the expenses of his army. He returned to Hyderabad in September, 1757. Had not the fortunes of the French so thoroughly waned during the Seven Years' War, it is clear that Bussy could never have been dislodged from the Nizam's State.

What with his grasping French auxiliary Bussy, and what with the increasing power of the *Peshva* in his neighbourhood, Salabat Jang's position began rapidly to grow weaker. The lesson taught by Bussy at the Char Minar did not fail to impress the *Peshva* also. He openly demanded from Salabat Jang all the north Godavari region under a threat of resorting to arms. Bussy was then away and Shah Navaz Khan did not resist the *Peshva's* demand. This was too much for the spirited brother of Salabat Jang, Nizam Ali to bear. Guided by a clever Hindu diplomat Vithal Sundar, Nizam Ali enlisted the services of another of Bussy's captains Ibrahim Khan (later of Panipat fame). The Khan brought with him 2,500 trained infantry and fifteen guns on an annual payment of one lac. Shah Navaz Khan, feeling nervous about his own safety when Nizam Ali thus began to assert himself, took prompt possession

of the Fort of Daulatabad, removed there his family and valuables, and prepared to defend himself there in case of necessity, following the example of Bussy at the Char Minar.

Thus the two courts of Pune and Aurangabad occupied themselves during the monsoon of 1757 in preparing for another trial of arms. The *Peshva* gave the command of the impending campaign to his eldest son Vishvasrav, a promising lad of fifteen, in order to afford him experience for his future position in the State. Dattaji and Jankoji Shinde who had just returned from their Marvad entanglement, were asked to train Vishvasrav under them and conduct the expedition to a successful issue. Damaji Gaikwad and other chiefs joined the army in due course. The Maratha forces left Pune on 27th August in the direction of Aurangabad, the *Peshva* and Sadashivrav halting on the Godavari to watch the operations beyond. Aurangabad was the main objective for the Marathas to reduce and for the Nizam to defend. Hostilities began in November. Nizam Ali was put in charge of the campaign by Salabat Jang. Bussy was then absent on the east coast.

As the Marathas were marching upon Aurangabad, they received news that Ramchandra Jadhav, a powerful Maratha commander in the Nizam's service was coming rapidly from Bhalki to remove the threat to the capital. In order to prevent Jadhav attacking the *Peshva's* army before Aurangabad, Dattaji learning that Ramchandra Jadhav was at Sindkhed quickly moved upon that place and at once invested it. These surprisingly quick movements were most effective. The small rampart of Sindkhed was not likely to hold out long. Nizam Ali with Ibrahim Khan Gardi at once marched from Aurangabad to Sindkhed, in the wake of Dattaji's men to relieve the pressure upon Jadhav, which increased every moment when swarming Marathas quickly gathered from various directions. A fierce struggle between the two opponents raged for nearly a month round that small place. Nizam Ali and Ibrahim Khan effected a junction with Jadhav and tried to break out all in a body through the Maratha cordon on 12th December under the shelter of their powerful artillery. A fierce battle was fought continuously for four days at the gate of Sindkhed, when Nagoji Mane, a supporter of Jadhav was killed along with many of his followers. On 16th December darkness set in towards evening and the combatants parted. Victory remained with the Marathas.

The next few days decided the fate of the campaign. Hordes of Maratha cavalry came sweeping upon the Nizam's forces. On 17th December Nizam Ali acknowledging defeat sent Vitthal Sunder to the Maratha camp begging for terms. Peace was concluded by the Nizam ceding to the *Peshva* territory worth 25 lacs along with fort Naldurg. Ceremonial visits by the two principals at Sakharkhelda retified and confirmed the treaty on 29th December 1757. Once more the unity of Maratha ranks under the *Peshva's* direction was plainly exhibited to the Indian world, finally closing the rift that Tarabai's activities had created.

While Nizam-ud-daula was halting at Ellichpur, Raghuji Karande, Bhosle's lieutenant, invaded Berar and advanced as far as Borgaon where Nizam-ud-daula met and defeated him. However, Raghuji Karande and Nanhoji Jachak had looted the Nizam's artillery baggage in December, 1757. Nizam-ud-daula looted the city of Akola but the *Navab* of Ellichpur reconciled the two in May, 1758, whereby both agreed to the *Sathichalishi* treaty. The treaty stipulated that 45 per cent of the tribute would go to the Bhosles and the remaining 55 per cent would be allotted to the Nizam. The visits were exchanged in a royal *darbar* on the banks of the Wardha on 25th March 1758. The treaty of peace which was concluded was not, however, sufficiently stringent in its terms to prevent the Marathas from continuing their depredations in Berar.

Janoji and Mudhoji had both agreed to pay ten lakhs of rupees to the *Peshva* each. However, they experienced great difficulties in collecting the tribute due to dissensions every where. Krishnaji Govind had been collecting Berar tribute, as deputy of Kashirav Bhaskarram but he was removed from the office and instead Janoji now appointed Mansingrav Mohite. The *Peshva* sent his *vakils*, Vyankatrav Moreshtar and Trimbakji Bhosle for recovery but to no avail. Negotiations were opened between the two brothers in October, 1759. Mudhoji insisted that Janoji would stay in Nagpur, leaving all management to him; while Janoji pleaded for division of territory and parallel management. Moro Raghunath, Raghuji Karande and Balaji Keshav exchanged visits but no compromise could be effected. *Dasara*, being fixed for the two brothers to meet in ceremony, Mudhoji and Karande sensed a plot against them and escaped to Berar.

Janoji sent Trimbakji Raje to reconcile Mudhoji, but Mudhoji and Karande pointed out that as long as Devajipant, Balaji Keshav and Samji Fulaji were in the services of Janoji, they would always advise against any permanent reconciliation and that they must be driven out from the court of Nagpur. Janoji agreed to hand over Devajipant to Piraji Naik-Nimbalkar but insisted that Mudhoji must terminate the services of Sadashiv Hari, Ramaji Keshav and Nanaji Krishna. Negotiations again failed and Mudhoji collected five and half thousand horse. Janoji, intending not to allow sufficient time for Mudhoji to increase his military strength, set out on the *Divali* day for Berar. The two armies met in battle near Amravati at Rahatgaon; and Mudhoji was completely defeated¹. Mudhoji's *Fadnis*, Moropant, was captured by Janoji. However, Raghuji Karande, collecting his army afresh, released Moropant. Mudhoji, hotly pursued by Janoji escaped towards Karanja. In the meanwhile, Udepur Gosavi of Satara, on behalf of the *Peshva*, collected tribute from Berar. *Peshva's* *vakil* Vyankatrav Moreshtar tried to reconcile

¹ A trick was played in the high hour of the battle on Mudhoji's army. A horse exactly like the one Raghuji Karande always used was let loose unbridled and it gave the impression that Raghuji Karande fell in action. Mudhoji's army became panicky and was defeated. *Kale, Nagpur Prantika Samita*, p. 126.

the two brothers and finally it was agreed that Mudhoji would look after the Nagpur affairs and Raghuji Karande, Trimbakji Raje and Piraji Naik-Nimbalkar would see that all crists would be averted. On 9th January 1760, both the brothers wrote to Sadashivrav Bhau that their affairs were amicably settled. Janoji and Mudhoji arrived at Vashim on the banks of Penganga as Sadashivrav Bhau had reached Paithan after his successful battle at Udgir¹ against the Nizam. Balaji Bajirav himself was near Ahmadnagar. Janoji, taking Raghuji Karande² with him advanced to Nandashi Brahmani and reached Jogai Amba (Ambejogai). with 12,000 horse and next day joined Sadashivrav Bhau's army. Mudhoji, too by a different route, at the same time reached Sadashivrav's camp. Sadashivrav, Raghoba and Balaji met near Ambe Patdur and received the news of the crushing defeat and death of Dattaji Shinde³ in the north. It was at once decided that a force must be despatched under a member of the *Peshva's* family to restore Maratha influence in Hindustan. Little love was lost between the two cousins, Raghunath and Sadashivrav and the hero of Udgir claimed the command of the Maratha army. The army which set out from Patdur on 10th March 1760 was the most magnificent that the Marathas had ever sent forth to battle. Raghunath, however, remained behind to check the Nizam and Janoji and Mudhoji too returned to Nagpur. In 1761 was fought the battle of Panipat between the Marathas and Abdali in which the Marathas were defeated.

In 1762 Nizam-ud-daula, who had already received the titles of Asaf Jah and Nizam-ul-Mulk, deposed his brother and became the ruler of the Hyderabad State. In 1763 he appointed Gulam Sayyad Khan governor of Berar, but removed him in 1764 to Daulatabad and replaced him in Berar by Ismail Khan, the Afghan.

Now Zafar-ud-daula, who had been engaged in suppressing rebellion in Nirmal and had pursued some of the rebels into Berar conceived the idea that Ismail Khan was harbouring them. He wrote to him accusing him of treason and Ismail sent an indignant reply. The correspondence between the two *amirs* became so acrimonious that Ismail, as a precautionary measure, strengthened the fortifications of Ellichpur, whereupon Zafar-ud-daula, Nizam Ali's minister, charged that the governor of Berar was meditating rebellion and asked for permission to march against him. Rukn-ud-daula, who did not doubt Ismail's fidelity and was loth to see the resources of the State frittered away in civil war, returned no reply to this request, and Zafar-ud-daula, either taking his silence for consent or affecting to believe that the urgency

¹ This battle was fought on 3rd February 1760, at Udgir, 200 miles east of Pune. Haig, IV, pp. 390, 412.

² Mudhoji was completely alienated from Divakarpant and Balaji Keshav. Mudhoji and now Trimbak Raje insisted that both of them should be arrested and kept, one in Devagad fort and the other in Ambegad fort, whereupon they pleaded to the *Peshva* for their safety.

³ On 9th January 1760, at the Berar *ghat*, ten miles north of Delhi, Ahmad Shah Abdali defeated and slew Dattaji Shinde.

of the case was sufficient to justify him in acting on his own responsibility, invaded Berar and in June besieged Ismail in Ellichpur. On hearing that the conflict which he had tried to prevent had broken out Rukn-ud-daula hastened to Ellichpur and patched up a temporary peace between the two disputants.

The situation after the battle of Panipat became one of the greatest dangers to the Maratha State. The combined armies of Janoji and Nizam Ali moved along the Bhima ravaging the *Peshva* Madhavrav's territory. The Marathas retaliated by similar process between Malkapur in the north and Hyderabad in the south. When the Marathas entered the Bhosle's possessions in Berar, Nizam Ali came on their heels and Pune shared a dreadful fate, a major portion of it being completely burned down. Secret negotiations were opened and Sakharam Bapu won over Janoji to the *Peshva's* side. On 10th August 1763, the *Peshva* defeated the Nizam at Rakshasbhuvan. Ismail Khan of Ellichpur was wounded, but Janoji, being true to his earlier friendship, had brought him to his camp. The Nizam gave to the *Peshva* territory worth 82 lakhs of rupees, out of which the *Peshva* handed over 32 lakhs of rupees worth territory to Janoji. However, when Madhavrav sent Vyankatrav Moreshvar and Ganesh Tukdev to Janoji to solicit his help for his Karnatak expedition, Janoji refused to accompany him. Moro Dhondoji, the Nizam's *sardar* in Berar, with his army of 2,000 horse, was attacked by Bhosle's army. Hence, the *Peshva* and the Nizam decided to attack the Bhosle's territory. Madhavrav set out from Pune on 17th October 1765 and was joined by Rukn-ud-daula near Kaigaon Toke. Raghunath too joined Madhavrav in December 1765 and the *Peshva's* army reached Daryapur. Shivbhat Sathe, Gopalrav Sambhaji Khandekar, Krishnaji Anant Tambe collected, on behalf of the *Peshva*, tribute from all directions, marching further in Berar. The Ellichpur army of 3,000 horse under Ismail went to support Janoji. But being not able to face the might of the *Peshva* himself Janoji sent from Nandgaon, Vyankatesh Moreshvar, the *Peshva's* *vakil* in his camp, for a truce to Madhavrav. However, Madhavrav was reluctant to fight with his own *sardar* and reconciled matters with the Bhosles. The treaty was signed at Kholapur, near Amravati, which stipulated that Janoji would return 24 lakhs of rupees worth territory to the *Peshva*, out of the 32 lakhs ceded to the Bhosle at Rakshasbhuvan, retaining only eight lakhs to himself. Out of this 24 lakhs rupees territory, the *Peshva* returned 15 lakhs to the Nizam as agreed between them before the expedition against Janoji was opened. The Nizam and Rukn-ud-daula, along with Sherjang and Jagannath Dhondoji, brother of Moro Dhondoji, took control of this territory after the official meeting of the Nizam and the *Peshva* on 23rd January 1766 at Kumarkheda.

Janoji, however, succumbed to the wicked advice of his minister Devajipant and coquetted with the *Peshva's* enemy. Madhavrav, after disposing of his uncle at the battle of Dhodap in June, 1768, decided to teach a severe lesson to Janoji. Madhavrav sent for

Nagpur minister Devajipant for a personal visit at Pune. The latter refused to obey the summons. When his stern warning fell on deaf ears, the *Peshva* at once opened hostilities. Devajipant realising the peril he was running into, came to meet the *Peshva* at Vashim in Berar. He was at once put under arrest. Gopalrav Patvardhan and Ramchandra Ganesh Kanade were ordered by the *Peshva* to fall upon Nagpur and ravage the Bhosle's territory. Rukn-ud-daula and Ramchandra Jadhav with 8,000 horse were despatched by the Nizam to the *Peshva's* help. Thus reinforced, the *Peshva* began aggressive movements with his 60,000 horse, marching through Sholapur, Tuljapur, Dharur, Pathri, Bid, Nandasi Brahmani, Kalamnuri, Vasim, Mangrulpur, Pinjar, Karanja and Amravati. The Bhosles removed their family to Gavilgad and Narhar Ballal with his 5,000 horse protected the fort. Bapu Karande marched to Burhanpur but was obstructed by the *Peshva's* officers there. Anandrav Gopal and Balaji Keshav Sapre defeated Bapu Karande and Narhari Pant near Akola at Panchagavan on 10th January 1769. Narhar was killed in action. His nephew, Vitthal Ballal, with 2,500 horse devastated the territory, marched to Burhanpur and returned to Malkapur, to effect junction with Jachak and Karande. However, Vitthal was severely wounded and his family was put under arrest by the *Peshva's* agent to Burhanpur. Janoji's camp was at Nandgaon, near Amravati with 15 to 20 thousand horse. Piraji Nimbalkar effected junction here on 6th December 1768 with Janoji. Five thousand horse of the Bhosle army was at Narnala under Tulaji. Tulaji being sick in body, his nephew took this band and joined Janoji and Piraji on 17th December 1868. However, Ismail Khan of Ellichpur refused to join the Bhosles. On 1st December 1768, the *Peshva* had halted at Badner Gangai and the Bhosle camp was in front, 25 *cos* but on the 10th, the distance separating the two was still less, as the Bhosles had on 11th their camp at Nandgaon, near Amravati. Devajipant, however, opened negotiations and offered fifteen lakhs of rupees to the *Peshva*. Acting on the advice of Devajipant, Janoji, being unable to meet the *Peshva's* strength, adopted guerilla tactics and gave out that he would march upon Pune, liberate Raghunath and instal him in the *Peshva's* seat. For three or four days during February, Pune was in a great alarm and confusion. The *Peshva* had already plundered Nagpur on 11th January 1769. In March, Janoji's brother, Mudhoji joined the *Peshva*. However, the exhaustion of both the parties induced them to seek a termination of their hostilities by coming to a mutual accommodation. A treaty of mutual friendship was ratified at Kanakapur or Brahmeshvar, at the confluence of the two rivers, the Godavari and the Manjra, on 23rd March 1769. The Bhosles agreed not to increase the prescribed number of their army and to pay a tribute of 5 lakhs yearly in five instalments.

In 1770 the southern tracts of Berar were in a disturbed state. The *zamindar* of Nirmal who had rebelled was attacked by Zafar-ud-daula, the general of the Nizam, Nizam Ali Khan and fled.

His adherents seem to have crossed the Penganga into the Yeotmal district whither they were pursued and the occurrence led to a quarrel between Zafar-ud-daula and Ismail Khan, the Governor of Berar. Madhavrav *Peshva* died on 18th November 1772 and Janoji Bhosle too had died in the same year in May. The death of Janoji gave rise to the usual succession disputes and a civil war ensued between the two brothers Mudhoji and Sabaji. The former was supported by Raghunath and Sakharam Bapu from Pune, and the latter by Narayanrav, Nana Phadnis and others.

Mudhoji with his three sons, Raghuji, Khandoji and Vyankoji was well supported by Balavantrav Mahipatrav, Ramaji Keshav, Tikhe, Bhavani Atole, Govindrav Mugutrav, Shivaji Talkute and Jagdev Gujar. Sabaji had in his entourage Khandoji Adhav from Berar and Shankarji Ghorpade, Ramasingh Nimbalkar and Zunjarrav Ghatge. The *Peshva*, sent Balaji Palande to reinforce Sabaji. The two armies met in battle in January, 1773, at Kumbhari near Akola. Jivaji Bhosle, son of Ranoji Bhosle of Amravati, died in action. Fighting was stopped for two days in mourning and thereafter, through the mediation of Ramaji Ballal this fratricidal war came to be temporarily composed and an agreement was arrived at, by which Mudhoji's son Raghuji was to be recognised as the ruler of Nagpur. But Mudhoji very soon released Devajipant and made him his *divan* and put under arrest Lakshmanrav, brother of Bhavani Munshi with his family, which induced Sabaji to leave Nagpur and collect fresh army. Sabaji on 23rd April 1773 and again on 5th June wrote to Anantbhat Chitale to hand over the charge of Amravati to Ranoji, son of Jivaji, as it was his hereditary *jahagir*. Sabaji was also reinforced by the Nizam's *divan*, Rukn-ud-daula and Khanderav Darekar, the *Peshva's* *sarlashkar*.

Rukn-ud-daula and Sabaji besieged Ellichpur as Ismail was supporting Mudhoji. Mudhoji hastened to Ellichpur but finding that Rukn-ud-daula and Sabaji commanded greater numbers, followed lingering tactics. Zamasingh, the fort-keeper of Gavilgad, too, in the interest of Mudhoji, surprised Sabaji's camp, many times. Ismail, once leaving the fort, dispersed the besiegers. Khanderav Darekar, however, could not reach Ellichpur as he was stopped by the army sent from Chandrapur by Mudhoji. Mudhoji also instructed Vyankatrav Kashi and his brother Lakshmanrav Kashi at Pune to support Raghunath against Narayanrav *Peshva*. One dark night in August, Raghunathrav tried to escape with the help of Lakshman Kashi. He was defeated by the guards and taken back to his custody. The murder of *Peshva* Narayanrav took place on 30th August shortly after mid-day. Vyankatrav and Lakshmanrav had an agreement with Raghunathrav on 4th September 1773 that Mudhoji and not Sabaji would be recognised as chief of Nagpur Bhosles. Mudhoji had reconciled Rukn-ud-daula through the mediations of Mahipat Dinkar and Balkrishna Bhat-Patvardhan. Not only Ismail and Rukn-ud-daula were reconciled, Sabaji and Mudhoji, too, brushed

up their differences. Mudhoji, after hearing the news of Narayanrav's murder went to Gavilgad and consulted Daryabai, wife of Raghuji I. Lakshman Kashi had gone to Ellichpur to take Mudhoji to Pune, hence Rukn-ud-daula and Dhousa left Ellichpur and Mudhoji joined Raghunathrav at Pedgaon, where Raghuji II, was declared *Sena Saheb Subha*. Raghunathrav and Mudhoji proceeded to Naldurg. Raghunathrav met Nizam Ali, negotiated a treaty of friendship whereby Mudhoji secured his agreement of 60 to 40 per cent share of Berar with the Nizam. Sabaji and even Daryabai joined the ministerial party against Raghunathrav. The ministers *Barabhais* put under arrest Mahipatrav Dinkar and Vyankatrav Kashi in the Chandanvandan fort but Mahipat was released on condition that he would secure Mudhoji's support for the ministers at Pune. However, Daryabai and Sabaji wrote to Sakharam Purandare to capture the two again, but Mahipat Dinkar along with Mahipat Kashi had already escaped to Ellichpur and joined Mudhoji there. Mudhoji finding money always short had plundered Amaravati but still the Pathans in his army had their salaries in arrears; hence, when Mudhoji returned from Ismail of Ellichpur, he was attacked by the Pathans on the way. Jagdev Gujar, Devaji Dongarde, Chimaji Chitnis met the Pathans' onslaught and Jagdev Gujar died in action. Mudhoji, breaking his thumb in action, was severely wounded¹. Devaji Dongarde, killing some of the Pathans finally escaped with Mudhoji to a Teli's shop. There too one Rohilla attacked Mudhoji with a dagger in hand but one pedestrian, rushing to Mudhoji's rescue, killed the Rohilla. Ismail, rushing to the spot, rescued Mudhoji and his wounds were nursed. The conspiracy was hatched by one Pathan named Navav in Mudhoji's army, who was later beheaded and Mahipat Subhedar who had gone to celebrate his son's marriage at Chandrapur, hastened to Ellichpur and controlled the situation. Raghunathrav sent Muhammad Yusuf to the care of Mudhoji. Muhammad Yusuf reached Ellichpur with 2,000 horse and Mudhoji set out for Nagpur. However, Ismail had refused help to Mudhoji. Sabaji was shot dead in action in the battle that was fought on 26th January 1775 near Pachgaon. Baburav Vaidya, Bhosle's *vakil* at Pune, brought to Nagpur the honours of *Sena Saheb Subha*, from Madhavrav II, the *Peshva*, on 24th June 1775. Vyankatrav Kashi was also set free.

In the meanwhile, the ministerial party promised Shivaji Bhosle of Amaravati, *Sena Saheb Subhaship* and supported him against Mudhoji. On April 6, 1775, the *Peshva* gave Shivaji his new *sanads* and Shivaji raised an army, soliciting support from the partisans of Sabaji. Bhavani Shivram² escaping from the battle-field of Pachgaon, joined Shivaji. However, Shivaji could not secure adequate military help from Pune court and the Nizam. Mudhoji had sent Devajipant to the Nizam who reconciled him

¹ Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 203.

² Bhavani Shivram, thereafter, joined the Nizam and later returned to the *Peshva* and never went back to Nagpur, Kale, *op. cit.*, foot-note, 109.

to Mudhoji's interests and the ministers at Pune were too engrossed in their own affairs. Shivaji too had no adequate finances to raise fresh armies and hence Shivaji's efforts against Mudhoji were of no avail. Mudhoji, too, joined the ministerial party at Pune and secured the *sanads* in the name of Raghuji II. The relations of Bhosles of Amaravati and Nagpur were permanently strained¹ and Mudhoji deprived the Bhosles of Amravati of their control over Amaravati and other areas. Mudhoji Bhosle was compelled by the *Barabhais*, the ministerial party, to withdraw his protection from Muhammad Yusuf, who for a time, remained concealed in the forests of Madhya Pradesh². But he was discovered, captured and put to death on 26th November 1775.

In 1775 Nizam Ali, taking advantage of the existence of a strong party opposed to Mudhoji Bhosle in Nagpur, sent Ibrahim Beg against him, and himself advanced as far as Ellichpur. Mudhoji, unable to cope at the same time with his foreign and domestic enemies, obtained a cessation of hostilities by causing Gavilgad and Narnala to be surrendered to the Moghal officers and submitted himself, with his son Raghuji, to Nizam Ali in Ellichpur. Here the wily Maratha, by the humility of his demeanour, succeeded with the help of Nizam's troops in suppressing the Gonds and Gavilgad and Narnala were restored to him. At the same time Nizam Ali's eldest son, Ali Jah, was appointed *subhedar* of Berar. Ismail Khan was in disgrace. Rukn-ud-daula who had befriended him, had been killed and his place had been taken by Ismail's former enemy, Zafar-ud-daula. Before Rukn-ud-daula's intrigues at court, he had left Ellichpur without leave and presented himself before Nizam Ali. This breach of official etiquette was made the pretext for his degradation and he was informed that *jahagir* had been assigned to him in Balapur and that he had been degraded to the position of governor of that district. The message delivered to him was purposely made as galling as possible. He was ordered to vacate Ellichpur and appear before Nizam Ali and was advised that his surest avenue to favour was to apply for an interview through Zafar-ud-daula. The headstrong Afghan refused so to humiliate himself, and on this refusal being reported to Nizam Ali, Zafar-ud-daula was sent against Ellichpur and was closely followed by Nizam Ali himself. Ismail Khan marched out of Ellichpur and attacked Zafar-ud-daula with great determination, but though the vigour of the attack threw the enemy into confusion for a time, the garrison of Ellichpur was no match for the army of Hyderabad. Ismail Khan was surrounded and overpowered and when he fell his head was severed from his body and sent to the Nizam. Nizam Ali

¹ Vyankatrao Kashi and Mahipat Dinkar were kept as prisoners in Gavilgad by Mudhoji, though later on Mahipatrao was released.

² Haripant Phadke despatched Krishnarao Kale and Parashuram Patvardhan against Muhammad Yusuf. Yusuf marched to the north and intended to cross the Narmada, but Mudhoji's *sardar* Tajkhan Rohila captured him at Shivani. Tajkhan, on instructions from Mudhoji, handed him over to Parashuram Patvardhan. Haripant Phadke brought him to his camp near Malegaon. Kale, *op. cit.*, 210.

marched, on, and on May 14th encamped at Ellichpur and made a Pilgrimage to the shrine of Abdur Rahman. Zafar-ud-daula was rewarded for this victory with the title of Mubariz-ul-Mulk. Bahram Jang was appointed Ali Jah's lieutenant in Berar, Sayyad Mukarram Khan was appointed *divan* of the province, and a Hindu, Shamrav, was made *faujadar* of Ellichpur.

The next few years were taken up by the growing conflict between the Marathas and the English and the intrigues of Raghunathrav against the *Peshva* Savai Madhavrav supported by the latter. Before the defeat of the English at Talegaon in January 1779, they tried to induce Mudhoji Bhosle of Nagpur who had assumed power after the death of his brother Sabaji to claim the *Chhatrapatiship* at Satara where Ramraja had died on December 9th, 1777. Mudhoji, however, wisely refused to fall in the trap. The defeat of the English left Raghunathrav without a protector for the time being and he ultimately agreed to acknowledge Savai Madhavrav as *Peshva* and renounce all his claims to *Peshvaship*. He, however, escaped while he was being conveyed to his *jahagirs* by Hari Babaji and went to Surat where he was welcomed by the English General Goddard. At the help of affairs in the Maratha court was Nana Phadnis who realised the dangerous postures the English were assuming and decided to form a grand quadruple alliance against the English with the *Peshva* Government, the Nizam, Haider Ali and the Bhosle of Nagpur as partners. This alliance proved to be a gamble, because Warren Hastings first detached Nizam Ali from the alliance by promising him the cession of Guntur. The Bhosles who had joined in the alliance and were ready to march against the English possession of Bengal were weaned away from the alliance by a clever stroke of diplomacy by Hastings who made an offer of 50 lacs to Mudhoji who succumbed to the temptation. Mudhoji Bhosle and his sons Khandoji *alias* Chimnaji and Raghuji were all a party to this seduction by the English. Bengal at that time (February 1780) was denuded of troops and English troops were to march to Bengal though Orissa which was then a Nagpur protectorate. The English whose position had become critical in Bengal sought the permission of Khandoji Bhosle to allow Colonel Pearse to march his troops through Orissa on the promise of payment of part dues, which promise, Khandoji accepted. In regard to this episode Hastings wrote "We ordered Colonel Pearse to march and use every studied precaution for preventing rupture with the government of Berar. At the same time Mr. Anderson was deputed to Cuttack to notify these orders to Chimnaji Bhosle. Colonel Pearse crossed the Suvarnarekha in good order. Chimnaji very readily signified his assent to the passage, to minister to all its wants, which he did most abundantly. The march to Gunjam was quiet and easy. We agreed to relieve the distresses of Chimnaji's army by giving him a gratuity of 16 lacs. Chimnaji has agreed to furnish two thousand horse to be under the order of Colonel Pearse, their pay to be disbursed by us at the rate of one lac per month. I have endeavoured to

excite the ambition of Mudhoji to the acquisition of the (Maratha) *raj*; but I am apprehensive he will not undertake any plan hostile to the young *Peshva*"¹.

The war between the Maratha State and the English, however, continued but not with the same vigour as it would have been under the aegis of the great quadruple alliance. It came to a close by the peace treaty of Salbye signed on 17th May 1782.

In 1783 Bahram Jang was removed from his appointment in Berar and was succeeded by Zafar-ud-daula's son Ihtisham Jang. Zafar-ud-daula had died in the meantime and his title was bestowed upon his son. The second Zafar-ud-daula was intent on breaking the power of the Marathas in Berar and was preparing to besiege Gavilgad and Narnala and expel the Maratha revenue collectors from Berar when Mudhoji Bhosle became aware of his designs and complained to Nizam Ali that the governor of Berar was meditating the violation of treaty agreements. Zafar-ud-daula was, therefore, removed and Muhammad Kabir Khan, one of the *jahagirdars* of the province, was appointed in his place. In 1790 Muhammad Kabir gave way to Salabat Khan, the elder son of Ismail Khan. In 1792 Bahlol Khan, Salabat Khan's younger brother, was appointed *subhedar* of Berar and Aurangabad. Bahlol was a debauchee with a taste for architecture and spent all the revenues which his able *divan*, Khvaja Bahadur, could squeeze out of the province on his pleasures and his hobby. He was summoned to Hyderabad and ordered to render an account of his stewardship, which proved to be unsatisfactory that he was thrown into prison, where he remained for some years, and officers were sent to search his house in Ellichpur. If they expected to discover hoarded money they were disappointed for Bahlol had spent the money as he received it. In 1794 trouble erupted between the Marathas and the Nizam after a lapse of nearly 25 years over the payment of *chauth* by the Nizam to the Marathas. In 1794 the Nizam sent his minister Mir Alam to Pune to negotiate settlement. But the mission failed and war seemed imminent. The Nizam who used to pay to the Bhosle of Nagpur a certain proportion of the revenues from Berar, now refused to make the stipulated payment and announced a complete repudiation of all Maratha claims by Nagpur. War was, therefore, declared against the Nizam and all Maratha chiefs, including Raghuji Bhosle, assembled with their troops. The English maintained an attitude of neutrality in this Maratha-Nizam conflict. The armies of the Marathas and the Nizam met at Kharda and victory declared for the Marathas on 11th March 1795. The Nizam, among other conditions, agreed—(1) to pay three crores on account of *chauth* and two more for the expenses of war, and (2) restore to the Bhosles of Nagpur all the territory of the Bhosle, recently captured along with its accumulated revenues. The terms were, however, never fully realised and the Nizam, Nizam Ali managed to wriggle out of the same.

¹ Gleig's *Memoirs of Warren Hastings* Vol. 2, p. 358.

The deputy governor of Berar in 1801 was Gangaram Narayan, who in that year caused an emeute in Ellichpur. He introduced a new tax apparently for the purpose of augmenting his private income, and attempted to levy it from all the inhabitants of the town alike, including soldiers and other customary exemptees. The malcontents rose and attacked the fort of Ellichpur. When they burst in, the wretched Gangaram threw himself at their mercy and promised never more to offend them. Thus were the people satisfied and the power and prestige of the government help up to scorn. It is not necessary here to detail the intrigues in the Maratha Court from the accession of Bajirav, the son of Raghunathrav, to *Peshvaship* after the death of Savai Madhavrav till his flight to the English in 1802 and the signing of the treaty of Bassein which reduced the Maratha State to the position of vassalage of the English. The gravity of the situation thus created was soon realised by the principal chiefs of the Maratha State viz., the Shinde, the Holkar and the Bhosle. The restoration of Bajirav to the *Peshvaship* by the English on May 13, 1803 further complicated the situation. The English assumed the posture of the protectors of Bajirav and opened negotiations with the Maratha chiefs. When these parleys were going on Shinde, Holkar, Bhosle and other Maratha noblemen were attempting to organise a grand coalition against the English. When the Governor General got the news of this move a warning was issued to Shinde that such attempts on his part would be treated as an act of war by the English. A similar remonstrance was also dispatched to Raghuji Bhosle. At that time (June-July 1803) Shinde's forces were camping in Berar. General Wellesley decided upon south Berar as the theatre best suited for military operations in the event of war and issued instructions to various station commandars to concentrate on Shinde's forces in Berar. Shinde and Bhosle met on 4th June 1803 at Bodvad near Bhusawal in Jalgaon district. Colonel Collins, the British resident with their camp, was instructed to demand that they should at once withdraw from Berar. He was met by a refusal which was regarded as tantamount to a declaration of war and was dismissed from their camp. Considerable time was wasted in replies and counter-replies between the English on the one hand and the Shinde, the Holkar and the Bhosle on the other. However the bitter enmity between the Holkar and the Shinde prevented the participation of Yeshvantrav in this grand design against the English. In this situation the English decided to single out their opponents and deal separately with them. In this policy the English succeeded beyond measure. The Bhosle suffered a crushing defeat at Adgaon near Balapur on 29th November 1803 and the Shindes were defeated in the battle of Lasvadi on November 1803. The English signed the treaty of Devgaon with the Bhosles on 17th December 1803 and that of Surji Anjangaon with the Shinde on 30th December 1803.

Under the terms of the treaty of Devgaon, Raghuji Bhosle agreed to withdraw from the plains of Berar to the east of the Wardha river, retaining, however, the fortresses of Gavilgad and

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Narnala, and the Melghat. This treaty, which was described by the Governor-General in a private letter to his brother as 'wise, honourable, and glorious', was followed by another with the Shindes, signed on December 29th at Anjangaon in the Daryapur tahsil. These two treaties brought the second Maratha war to a conclusion. After the treaties of Devgaon and Anjangaon Wellesley marched back through the district to Jalna, and in the middle of 1804 recorded his opinion of this part of Berar, which, it must be remembered, had suffered from famine as well as from war. "Sindkhed", he wrote, "is a nest of thieves. The situation of this country is shocking; the people are starving in hundreds; and there is no government to afford the slightest relief."

In 1804 the Nizam signed a treaty with the East India Company known as the partition treaty in addition to the one signed as October 12, 1800¹.

By the partition treaty of Hyderabad (dated 1804), the whole of Berar, including districts east of the Wardha but excluding certain tracts left with the Nagpur Chief and the *Peshva*, was made over in perpetual sovereignty to the Nizam. The forts of Gavilgad and Narnala remained subject to Nagpur. Certain tracts about Sindkhed and Jalna, in the south-west corner of Berar, were restored by Shinde to the Hyderabad State. When in 1803, war had broken out with the Marathas the force sent by the Nizam with Wellesley's army had been commanded by one Raja Mahipat Ram. After peace was established, Mahipat Ram was appointed to manage Berar. Raja Mahipat was in charge of the Nizam's forces stationed in the western parts of the Nizam territories. After the death of Arastujah, the prime minister of the Nizam, in 1804, Mahipat Ram entertained hopes to succeed to the post held by Arastujah. But on the advice of the British resident, the Nizam Sikandar Jah appointed Mir Alam as prime minister which Mahipat Ram resented. In the year 1804 when the British undertook a campaign against Holkar, Mir Alam ordered Mahipat Ram to join the British with the stipulated forces as provided for in the treaty of 1800. The troops that joined the British under Mahipat Ram were few in number and extremely ill-equipped. They were also suspected to be anti-British being the remnants of the troops trained by the French. The British suspicion naturally fell upon Raja Mahipat Ram. Soon after the close of the campaign, Raja Mahipat Ram returned to Hyderabad on 3rd

¹The Treaty of 12th October 1800 A. D., concluded between the Nizam and the East India Company altered the status of Hyderabad from an Independent Political Unit to that of a State in subordinate co-operation with the British while the troops of the East India Company, known as the Subsidiary Forces were to be stationed in perpetuity in the State of Hyderabad. The Nizam, on his part undertook, "neither to commence nor to pursue in future any negotiations with any other power whatever, without giving previous notice and entering into mutual consultation with the Honourable East India Company's Government, and never to commit any act of hostility or aggression against any power whatever; and in the event of any differences arising, whatever adjustment of them the Company's Government weighing matter in the scale of truth and justice, may determine, shall meet with full approbation and acquiescence."

October 1805 and rapidly gained influence with the Nizam, Sikan-dar Jah. He counselled the Nizam against the British and Mir Alam and in his intrigues found a colleague in the person of Raja Raghottam Rav. However, through the efforts of some prominent noblemen and leaders of the palace, a complete breach between Mir Alam and the Nizam was prevented and Mahipat Ram left Hyderabad on 7th May 1806 to take up his post in Berar. Raja Mahipat Ram continued his intrigues from Berar goading the Nizam to adopt a defiant attitude towards the British. This found Mir Alam, a partisan of the British in extraordinary circumstances. The British were also perturbed and the resident on 28th November 1806 visited the Nizam and advised him to remove Raja Mahipat Ram from the Governorship of Berar and restore the prime minister Mir Alam to his former confidence and dignity. As this had no effect upon the Nizam, the resident decided to force the issue and issued secret orders to the commanding officers of the subsidiary force to hold in readiness for immediate movement the two regiments of cavalry and a battalion of sepoys with two brigades of fieldpieces. This had the desired effect and the Nizam on the advice of Amjad-ul-Mulk issued orders for the dismissal of Raja Mahipat Ram from the Governorship of Berar and restored Mir Alam to confidence.

Raja Mahipat Ram was succeeded in the government by Raja Govind Baksh as *subahdar* of Berar and Aurangabad.

As stated earlier it was in 1803 that the British defeated Shinde and Bhosle and concluded separate treaties with them, *viz.*, Surji Anjangaon and Devgaon, respectively. These treaties clearly defined the boundaries of the States of Hyderabad, Nagpur and Gwalior and brought about the realignment of their territorial possessions. As they also affected Berar, as Berar was ceded to the Nizam, the terms of both the treaties are reproduced below:—

Treaty of Devgaon:—

- (1) The province of Cuttack with its whole coast to be ceded to the English;
- (2) The province of western Berar up to the river Wardha to be ceded to the Nizam;
- (3) Bhosle to respect the treaties concluded with his feudatories by the British.
- (4) Bhosle to dissolve the Maratha confederacy and entertain no enemy of the English in his service.

Treaty of Surji-Anjangaon:—

- (1) Shinde to cede to the British the Yamuna-Ganga Doab, the Delhi-Agra region along the Yamuna, parts of Bundelkhand, Broach and some districts of Gujarat, the Fort of Ahmadnagar and the Ajanta region up to the Godavari;
- (2) Shinde to renounce his control upon the Emperor, and also;
- (3) To relinquish all claims on the *Peshva*, the Nizam, and the Gaikwad and recognise the independence of all those feudatories who had made separate engagements with the British;

(4) Shinde not to entertain in his service any Frenchman or American or any other enemies of the British. Shinde was asked to accept a British Subsidiary Force which he declined to. On further representation Burhanpur and Ashirgad were restored to him. The territory of Berar ceded by Bhosle was given to the Nizam for his co-operation in the war.

The peace of Devgaon put a stop to actual warfare in Berar; but the people continued to suffer intermittently from the inroads of Pendharies, and incessantly from misgovernment. The province had been restored to the Nizam just at the time when confusion in his dominions was at its worst. The

A.D. 1813. Nizam's territories are, writes General Wellesley (January 1804), "one complete chaos from the Godavari to Haidarabad." In 1803 Barsi Takli, Kantal and Argaon, small country towns, were sacked by freebooting bands.*

"It was now that Meer Allum determined to reform the corps of infantry in Berar, and place them on a respectable footing under the command of English officers who are already in the service of this State. To effect this reasonable reform and to enable the English officers to create and maintain a proper influence and authority over their respective corps, it will be of much importance that a detachment of British troops should be stationed in Berar. By the general influence and example derived from the presence of a British detachment, and under the regulation which Meer Allum intends to adopt, for the regular payment, clothing, and equipment of the corps in Berar, it may be expected that these corps will gradually attain to a degree of discipline and subordination which may render them useful and creditable auxiliaries in any future war." In 1809 the Pendharies advanced close up to Ellichpur, but retired on finding the

A.D. 1809. place too strong for them. Another party plundered Basim at the time; and Pimpalgaon, near Jalgaon, was sacked and gutted on another occasion. Patur was burnt to ashes, they say, in 1808. In 1813 two Marathas leaders occupied Fatekherda *paragana* for more than three

A.D. 1813. months; they sacked Fatekherda town, and generally plundered the country. Then (according to local information) came the Naiks, who robbed house by house, and shared with the Pendharies a violent aversion to written papers. Like Jack Cade, they thought it a lamentable thing that parchment being scribbled over should undo a man; and so they are said to have destroyed many valuable *sanads* among other documents.

It may be doubted whether these self-confessed robbers were more injurious to the country than were the great revenue farmers who succeeded them. Extravagance at the capital necessitated the raising of large loans at exorbitant rates of interest. When these fell due they could not be met and the device adopted

*An interesting account of the Nizam's infantry stationed in Berar is found in the dispatch of the Resident dated 10th December 1806.

for satisfying the creditors was to grant them leases of the revenue in Berar, the richest province of the Deccan. The tenure of these farmers was uncertain, for loan succeeded loan, and as each successive creditor became importunate he received a lease, often in supersession of his predecessor, who seldom abandoned his rights without a struggle. The condition of the country may be imagined. It was to the interest of each revenue farmer to realize as much as he could in the shortest possible time and without the slightest regard to the interests of the rival who should succeed him or of the wretched cultivator. It is not surprising that of all these lessees one firm only, that of Messrs. Pestanji and Company, attempted to improve in any way the condition of the cultivator and the resources of the province.

During this period there were a number of mutinies in the Nizam's army against the Europeans. The reform of the Nizam's troops including those in Berar was taken up. "The regular corps in the service of the Nizam form a body entirely distinct in every particular from the corps composing the remainder of his army. They now consist of three brigades two in the Berar and one at Hyderabad. Of the two brigades in Berar the first is commanded by Mr. Elliot, who has been 17 years in the Nizam's army, and served during the Seringapatam campaign in 1799, and the second by Mr. Fraser, who was formerly in His Majesty's 65th Regiment, and entered the Nizam's service in 1809." Under the new scheme "the whole force of irregular cavalry in Berar was to consist of 8,000 men distributed into four separate *risalas* of 2,000 men each. The organization of these troops was placed in the hands of a European officer as Commandant, aided by five of the Company's officers, one of whom was to be a staff officer of the Commandant." In 1816 the depredations of the Pendharies in Berar roused the British Government to expostulate with the Nizam; and by the Resident's counsel no less than 7,500 horse were stationed in the province for its protection. "The State of Hyderabad at this time was in a very bad condition. The army of Hyderabad which was a mere rabble was nearly 70,000 in strength and was costing the State exchequer a major portion of the revenue. Large parts of the State were in a state of prolonged rebellion against the Government which was ineffective in dealing with them. The Hutkers, a war-like community in the districts of Nanded, Parbhani and Berar across the river Painganga, were in open rebellion from 1798 A. D. Similarly, the *zamindars* of Sirvanha and Mahadevpur were in rebellion from the same year. There was practically a collapse of administration in the country at this time. Added to this financiers like Palmer and Company were exploiting the financial embarrassment of the State to the fullest extent. It was at this time that the Third Maratha War started. In 1817 the *Peshva* Baji Rav II, fought against the British in the battle of Khadki. He was defeated and had to flee from Pune. The Nizam's army was co-operating with the British in this war and the Hyderabad contingent took a leading part in the operations in the Deccan

and Malva. Not all of the Nizam's officers were friendly to the British".

The war of 1817-18 did not seriously affect the tranquillity of Berar, though there was fighting with the Maratha A.D. 1817-18. State on the east and west, and against the Pendharies beyond the Satpudas. The Hyderabad subsidiary force had been moved up to Ellichpur, and took part in the campaign. When the *Peshva* had been driven out of his territories in 1818 he fled across the southern part of Berar by Umarched towards Chandrapur, pursued by Generals Doveton and Smith; but he stopped at the junction of the Painganga and Wardha, having discovered that no aid from the Bhosle chief could be expected. Here he got hemmed in, and at Seoni (or Pandarkauda), in the south-east corner of the Wun district, he lost many men in a skirmish with Colonel Adams. Thence he fled northward into the Satpuda hills and finally surrendered from Dholkot, near Ashirgad.

"Thus the Maratha War ended with the surrender of Baji Rav on 6th June 1818 A. D. In the arrangements with the Nizam which followed, the British gave up their claims to *chauth* on Hyderabad to which they had succeeded after the Marathas. Portions of the *Peshva's* territory situated in Berar were also handed over to the Nizam. The Nizam's Government was thus freed from the perpetual domination of the Marathas and could now breathe a sigh of relief."

It may here be pointed out that the Hyderabad contingent forces were now placed on a very efficient footing. "They were nominally in the Nizam's service but the actual control over them with regard to their formation, location and disposal was in the hands of the Resident. It was with these forces that the British were able to put down rebellions against Hyderabad which were continuously taking place in one part or the other of the State from 1818 down to 1857 A. D.". Thus the Berar infantry along with the Russell Brigade and Reformed Horse was used to suppress the rebellion of Naiks in the neighbourhood of Umarched in 1819. Similarly, the Berar infantry was also used in the suppression of the *zamindars* of Sironcha and Mahadevpur in 1823.

After the conclusion of the War of 1818 with the Marathas a fresh treaty was made in 1822, which settled the frontier of Berar, and conferred upon the Nizam all the country west of the Wardha. The tracts lying east of that river were at length formally ceded to Nagpur, but the districts taken by the *Peshva* in 1795, and those which had been left to the Bhosle in 1803, were all restored to the Hyderabad State. Thus the *paraganas* across the Wardha of Ashti, Arwi, and Amner, which had belonged to Berar from very early days, were at length separated from this province; but the forts of Gavilgad and Narnala were recovered, with the subjacent *paraganas* of Akot, Argaoon, and others, and all the hill-range known as the Melghat. Umarched and other tracts in the

south-east were taken from the *Peshva* while all claims by the Marathas on the Nizam for *chauth* were for ever extinguished.

The reigning Nizam was at this time Sikandar Jah, a prince who had neither the will nor the capacity to look-

A.D. 1822. after public business; and his minister was Raja Chandu Lal, a clever revenue officer, who, having been lifted to the highest pinnacle of state entirely by British influence, broke down eventually as an administrator, and by his corruption and weakness disorganised the government. Sikandar Jah died in 1829, but Chandu Lal did not resign until 1843, having in the interval shown a real genius for maladministration, of which Berar bore its share.

From the report of Sir H. Russell, Resident at Hyderabad it appears that in 1820 the troops in Berar amounted nominally to 26,000, an extravagant number which proves the disorder of the country and the improvidence of its rulers. The report says further that "this province is naturally the most fertile part of the Nizam's dominions, but that it has suffered severely from Pendharis and from the depredations of Naiks and Bhils, in so much that the net revenue collected is not now (1815-20) more than half the sum which the province was estimated to yield at the close of the war in 1803. This is just what Wellesley predicted in 1804. "Unless the *Subah* (he writes*) be forced to reform his military establishment, take my word for it that the average of the Nizam's receipts (from Berar) for the next ten years will be even less than those of the last ten". And Wellesley goes on to point out, with characteristic sagacity, how the sudden cessation of arms in the Deccan must for the time even aggravate civil disorder under native government. Large bodies of troops are disbanded, who become gangs of plunderers too strong for the weak police; while the spread of British annexation establishes rigid irresistible order all round, and drives all the brigands of India within the narrow limits of Native States which they can ravage with impunity.

The Nizam, writes Sir H. Russell, is considered the universal heir of all his subjects. This was the ancient prerogative of the Moghal emperors, who maintained it in a country upon which we now hesitate to impose a slight legacy-duty, but it must have seriously checked the investment of capital in Berar. Then the whole of the Nizam's land-revenue was at this period farmed out to publicans, who adhered to no rates, but squeezed what they could out of the ryot's crop, his goods and chattels. One Raja Bisan Chand, who held the greater part of Berar valley in farm about 1831, has left a name at which the Kunbi

A.D. 1831. still grows pale to pronounce it of a morning early is unlucky. Petty local revolts were common; the *deshmukhs* stood up for their hereditary rights; the farmers took what they could by main force; and there was frequent faction

*11th February 1804, Despatches.

fighting in the towns between Rajputs and Musalmans. Both parties, however, were good shooters and bad hitters; more goods were lost than lives; but campaigns lasting several days were fought out in the streets of Akot, each side being joined by partizans from the whole country-side; and Malkapur was on one occasion fairly sacked and clean swept by the victorious Hindus.

This affray at Malkapur only five years before Berar was assigned to the Company is a fair example of the estimation in which the Government was held as the guardian of the peace. In 1837 a Musalman shot dead a Rajput of Dattala who had insulted him at the Pimpalgaon fair. The act generated a blood feud, and twelve years later Lal Singh of Dattala, without warning or fresh provocation, assembled a band of nearly three thousand Hindus to avenge his relation's death. The fanatical Sikhs of Nanded on the Godavari sent a contingent of five hundred men and the first news of the impending attack came to the Musalmans of Malkapur from their friends at Patur, who sent hasty word that this formidable company was marching by. The Rajputs and Sikhs assaulted Malkapur. There was the usual street fighting, burning, sacking, and slaying, though not many lives were lost, and the Muhammedans were worsted. This was, however, only the first game of the rubber, for the Musalmans were flocking to the fray from neighbouring towns; from Burhanpur especially a strong body had set out. The police and the local militia under the *talukdar* were utterly powerless, but detachments of the Nizam's army¹, under Major Arthur Wyndham, then arrived and found Malkapur empty and deserted. The Musalmans had been driven out and the Rajputs had retreated to Dattala, where they afterwards had a skirmish with the troops.

The country was harried from time to time by bands of men under leaders who set up in defiance of the government on various pretexts, but always with the real object of plundering. Such a captain would start with a small party, and would soon be joined, unless at once put down, by all the adventurers of the Deccan. If a Hindu, he sometimes pretended to be Apa Saheb (the Nagpur Raja, he who escaped from British custody in 1819); and preached delivery of Berar from the Musalman yoke. In

A.D. 1841. 1841 one Mogut Rav came with a small company to a village near Jalgaon, declaring himself to be a chief of the Shindes family, and offering great rewards to all who would join him in conquering Berar. He assembled a crowd of armed persons, and even seduced some men of substance; with these he drove out the Nizam's officers and for a short time occupied that side of the country. He was put down and driven off by the combined forces of the talukdars and the irregular force under British officers, but not without much marching and skirmishing of a rather serious kind. Mogut Rav had hoisted

¹The Hyderabad contingent.

the Bhosle flag on the walls of Jamod (Akola district), and make a fair stand there, the *deshmukhs* and *deshpandes* all assisting him. Then in 1848 came from Nagpur a man who called himself Apa Saheb, the *ex-Raja* of Nagpur. In the Wun district he publicly proclaimed his pretension to Berar, and was actively supported as usual, by all the hereditary Hindu officials. With their aid he collected troops and arms throughout Berar, engaged a gang of Rohilas, and openly took the field with about 4,000 men. The British irregular forces pursued him, and attacked his party posted among hills near Kalam, when the rebels were driven off; but Brigadier Onslow died on the field from a fall from his horse. This was in May 1849. In June Brigadier Hampton's cavalry by forced marches got Apa Saheb's banditti within reach of their sabres; after a sharp and spirited action, in which the Brigadier was dangerously wounded, Apa Saheb was captured, and his followers dispersed¹.

Throughout these troubles the behaviour of the Hindu *deshmukhs* and other *paragana* officers was most significantly treasonable against the Nizam's government. They did their best to thwart his commanders and to abet the pretenders, although the rebel bands plundered and ravished wherever they went².

After the old-war-time came the "cankers of a calm world". For then began the palmy days of the great farmers general at Hyderabad, who flourished like green bay-trees. Messrs. Palmer and Company overshadowed the Government, and very nearly proved too strong for Sir C. Metcalfe, when he laid the axe to the root of their powers; they had made large loans at 24 per cent. to the Nizam's government, for the maintenance of that very numerous cavalry which (as has been already mentioned) was organised at the instance of the British Resident for the protection of Berar. Then Puran Mal, a mighty money-lender of Hyderabad, got most of Berar in farm, but in 1839 he was turned out of his districts by the Nizam's minister, under pressure from the British Resident. Puran Mal refused to quit hold of his security for advances made and showed fight when Messrs. Pestanji sent agents to take his place—for after all the Nizam had only changed his banker. However, Puran Mal had to give up; but he presented to the Hyderabad government an account showing balance due to him of two millions sterling, which the ministry altogether refused to pay, proving, by a different system of book-keeping, that Puran Mal was deeply in debt to the treasury.

Messrs. Pestanji and Company had no better luck in the sequel. These were enterprising Parsi merchants, who in 1825-26 made,

¹ It may here be mentioned that the last fight of this kind in Berar was at Chichamba, near Risod, in 1859, with a plundering party of Rohilas was pursued by a detachment of the Haidarabad Contingent into the village. Being thus driven to bay behind walls, they resisted an assault by the fatigued Contingent infantry and Captain Mackinnon was then killed.

² Military correspondence in Presidency office.

according to their own statement, the first considerable exportation of cotton from Berar to Bombay. They gave liberal advances to cotton-growers, set up cotton-screws at Khamgaon and other places, and took up generally the export of produce from the Nizam's country. In 1841 large assignments of revenue

in Berar for reimbursement of advances to the State were made to them by Chandu Lal; but in 1843 that minister resigned, having conducted the State to the verge of bankruptcy, and Pestanji had to deal with another cabinet. He claimed about forty lakhs of rupees. Nevertheless, in 1845, he was ordered to give up his Berar districts; and his collecting agents were attacked at Parbhani, Balapur, and Akola. Sixteen of his men were killed at the place first named, so he was forced to evacuate the assignments; while his subsequent importunities for payment seem to have been stayed off by exchequer bills and cheques on native bankers, which all proved inconvertible currency¹.

Messrs. Pestanji and Co. had made large and liberal advances to land tenants in Berar; they had thus restored cultivation over wide tracts, and rekindled the lamp in many deserted villages. Among Berar agriculturists they have left a very good reputation.

All these proceedings may have damaged the State's credit, as Raja Chandu Lal's financing had hampered its revenue; for in 1845 and in several succeeding years, the pay of the Nizam's irregular force maintained under the treaty of 1800 had to be advanced by the British Government. In 1850 it had fallen again into heavy arrears. There were other unsatisfied claims of the British Government on the Nizam; and his whole debt amounted to forty-five lakhs in 1853. The bankruptcy of the Hyderabad Government disorganized

their administration; the non-payment of the troops continued to be a serious political evil. Therefore, in 1853, a new treaty was concluded with the

Nizam, under which the existing Hyderabad contingent force was maintained by the British Government, in lieu of the troops which the Nizam had been previously bound to furnish on demand in time of war; while, for the payment of this contingent, and other claims on the Nizam, districts yielding a gross revenue of fifty lakhs of rupees were assigned to the British Government. And the districts in Berar—Payinghat and Balaghat—which this treaty assigned to British management, are now popularly understood to form the province of Berar, although they do not all coincide in extent with the boundaries of that province under the Nizam, still less with the imperial *subah*. Berar was thus divided into two

¹ "How do you mean to pay the native bankers?" said Sir C. Metcalfe to Chandu Lal, when the Nizam's debts were under adjustment. "Pay them," answered the Minister, "why I don't mean to pay them at all; they have received interest over and over again, and I'll pay no more." Speech of Mr. Russell before the Court of Proprietors (1825), quoted in Briggs's Nizam.

Districts—South Berar (the Balaghat) with headquarters at Hingoli and North Berar with headquarters at Buldhana.

The territory made over to the British under this treaty comprised, besides the Assigned Districts as they now exist, the districts of Dharashiv (Osmanabad) and the Raichur *Doab*. It was agreed that accounts should be annually rendered to the Nizam, and that any surplus revenue should be paid to him. The Nizam was released from the obligations of furnishing a large force in time of war; the contingent ceased to be part of the Nizam's army, and became an auxiliary force kept up by the British Government for the Nizam's use¹. The detail of the background to the treaty of 1853 from the time General Fraser came to Hyderabad as resident in 1837 are as under:—

General Fraser came to Hyderabad as a Resident in 1838. He perceived very early that the Government of Hyderabad was involved in financial difficulties due to the pernicious principle of farming out districts and assignment of revenues for meeting its debt obligations. The expenditure on its irregular army was very heavy with the result that while on the one hand the debts of the State were increasing, there was also an annual deficit of about 60 lakhs of rupees in the State finance. Hyderabad had paid heavily for its financial difficulties when in 1822-23 Hyderabad had to forgo the *Peshkash* from the Fraser perceived that Chandu Lal the Minister had outlived his Co. Difficulties on the same scale were mounting up in Hyderabad in 1840-41. There was no attempt at reforming the administration and the uncertain policy of the Residents after the departure of Sir Charles Metcalfe in not forcing Hyderabad to adopt measures of revenue reforms and cutting down expenditure, had brought the administration virtually to a standstill. General Fraser perceived that Chandulal the Minister had outlived his usefulness and that he was the general obstacle to reforms. Chandu Lal had stood by the British, assisted them in the third Maratha war, agreed to the establishment of the Contingent, had never opposed its increased numbers of expenses and had accepted any and every measure which would benefit the East India Company in any war; but he had never shown any urge to reform the administration. His one aim was to maintain his power with the help of the British.

The Government of India was always reluctant to ask for reforms in the State on the grounds that this would amount to interference in the internal affairs of the State; but where it was the question of the consolidation of the Contingent the Government of India always found means to take strong and effectual measures without any scruples. General Fraser urged constantly the necessity for reforms in the State but this was not agreed to by the successive Governors-General of his period, viz., Lord Auckland, Lord Ellenborough, Lord Hardinge and Marquis Dalhousie.

¹ Aitchison's *Treaties*.

General Fraser's first efforts were directed towards the removal of Raja Chandu Lal from his post. This result was achieved when owing to increasing financial embarrassment and the lack of support from the Resident, Raja Chandu Lal made one last desperate attempt in April 1843 by applying for a loan of one crore of rupees to clear off the debts of the State in lieu of assignment of territory yielding 17 lakhs of rupees annually as security for the payment of the debt. This was not agreed to with the result that Raja Chandu Lal resigned in 1843. He was succeeded by Siraj-ul-Mulk after a long delay of 18 months. Siraj-ul-Mulk's ministry was also a failure as nothing could be done to meet the financial obligations. Meanwhile Lord Dalhousie had arrived in India. After a brief tenure as minister, Siraj-ul-Mulk was removed from his office on 10th of November 1848 and Shams-ul-umra was appointed as minister in his place. Lord Dalhousie continued to insist on the discharge of the debt for the Contingent and would do nothing to accept the Resident's recommendations for reforms in the State. Shams-ul-umra too resigned after a brief period of five months. The prospect of the settlement of debt remained as remote as ever and the monthly payment of the Contingent continued to remain in arrears. Lord Dalhousie directed the Resident to require that the whole amount should be paid by the 31st of December 1850; in case of failure decided steps which would mean the exaction of territorial security for the amount would be taken. Lord Dalhousie even enquired of the districts which would be useful for this purpose. It was found that these districts would be the Berar's. The average annual expenses of the Contingent were about 40 lakhs of rupees; besides this the Nizam's own army consisting of irregulars was costing the Government of Hyderabad double this sum. It was due to this heavy expenditure and also mal-administration that the Government of Hyderabad had run into heavy debts. The debts of Hyderabad to the East India Company had by 1850 amounted to 64 lakhs of rupees. The duties of Shams-ul-umra were now entrusted to Raja Ram Buksh. Even he could not carry on for a long time and after a brief interval Siraj-ul-mulk was once again made the minister. The Hyderabad Government had by this time paid upwards of 42 lakhs of rupees under heavy pressure and a second instalment of about 32 lakhs of rupees had been promised to be paid by the end of October 1851. As by this time, the Nizam had announced that in the reduction of troops contemplated, the Contingent would not be included. Lord Dalhousie decided in January 1852 not to proceed for some time to extreme measures. These extreme measures which had been contemplated were to take over some districts in mortgage as security for the debts. Although this plan was suspended for some time, protracted correspondence went on between the Resident and the minister on the very partial imperfect manner in which the arrears of the Contingent was being paid. By this time Lord Dalhousie had made up his mind to have the Berar province by means of treaty. He had already on 10th of April 1852 directed the Resident to make every possible arrangement for the regular payment of the

Contingent, "abstaining at this moment from pressing for the payment of the principal of the Company's debt." This Lord Dalhousie achieved by the treaty of 21st of May 1853. General Fraser resigned in November 1852 and was succeeded by Colonel Low. On taking charge, the Resident had to advance a large sum of money from the Company's treasury to pay the Contingent so that by March 1853 the debt of the Government of Hyderabad had again gone up to 45 lakhs of rupees. In April 1853 the Resident under the orders of the Government of India placed before the Nizam a proposal for a new treaty. This treaty concluded on 21st of May 1853 laid down that "in lieu of the present Contingent the company agreed to maintain an auxiliary force to be paid from the Nizam's revenue and entitled the Hyderabad Government and to provide for the regular payment of this force and certain obligations." The Nizam agreed to assign districts yielding an annual gross revenue of 50 lakhs of rupees. Reciprocally the Government of India accepted that any surplus revenue accruing from these districts, after the necessary charges were met, were to be made over to the Nizam. The treaty secured to the Nizam the full use of the auxiliary troops. It also released him from the liability of being called upon to supply a large military force in times of war and from the immediate payment of 50 lakhs of rupees.

Thus the province of Berar and the districts of Osmanabad and Raichur were taken over by the East India Company and these regions passed under its direct administration.

As stated earlier, the Berars were divided into northern and southern Berar and the administration of the Berars was vested in the British resident at Hyderabad. The northern Berar had an area of 6,400 square miles and a population of 9,50,000 with an annual income of Rs. 25,40,500. The southern Berar occupied an area of 8,200 square miles and had a population of 5,13,000 yielding an annual revenue of about Rs. 7,70,800. The southern Berar included some parts of the ex-Hyderabad State such as Hingoli.

It may be pointed out here that the provisions of the Treaty of 1853 which required the submission of annual accounts of the Assigned Districts to the Nizam, were productive of much inconvenience and embarrassing discussions. Difficulties had also arisen regarding the levy of the 5 per cent. duty on goods under the commercial treaty of 1802. To remove these difficulties, and at the same time to reward the Nizam for his services in the revolt of 1857 which had scarcely affected Berar a new treaty was concluded in December 1860, by which the debt of fifty lakhs due by the Nizam was cancelled; the territory of Surapur, which had been confiscated for the rebellion of the Raja, was ceded to the Nizam; and the districts of Osmanabad and the Raichur Doab were restored to him. On the other hand the Nizam ceded certain districts on the left bank of the Godavari, traffic on which river was to be free from all duties and agreed that the remaining Assigned Districts in Berar together with other districts, making

up a gross revenue of Rs. 32,00,000 should be held in trust by the British Government for the purposes specified in the Treaty of 1853, but that no demand for accounts of the receipts and expenditure of the Assigned Districts should be made¹. Certain territorial exchanges were also made, with the object of bringing under British administration those lands within these districts which were held in *jagir* for payment of troops, or which were allotted for the Nizam's privy purse.

The history of Berar since 1853 was marked by no important political events besides the change made under the Treaty of 1861. Its smooth course was scarcely ruffled even by the struggle of 1857.

After the Mutiny the province was reconstituted into East Berar with headquarters at Amravati and West Berar with headquarters at Akola, the present Buldhana district being included in the latter. In 1858 Taty Tope got into the Satpuda hills, and tried to break across southward that he might stir up the Deccan; but he was headed at all outlets and never got away into the Berar valley. It was in 1858 that Amravati and Akola districts were created and Wun district which later became Yeotmal was formed in 1864. In the same year the tahsils of Malkapur, Chikhli and Mehkar were separated from the West Berar district and formed into an independent charge styled the South-West Berar district, a clumsy designation which was changed in the following year to the Mehkar district. In 1867 Buldhana was selected as the headquarters of the district, to which it thenceforth gave its name. In 1868 Basim district was formed while Achalpur and Mehkar which had been at one time districts were abolished. An agent of the Resident at Hyderabad was posted at Amravati for the better administration of Berar.

The management of these districts by the Nizam's officers had been worse than the contemporary administration of the adjoining Nagpur territory, which was during a long minority under British regency, and which continued to be well governed until it lapsed. Consequently, a stream of emigrants had flowed toward the Nagpur country across the Wardha from Berar. "And thus" (writes Sir R. Temple in 1967)² "the condition of Berar when the province was assigned to British management, though weakly and needing restorative measures, was not beyond the hope of speedy recovery. And fortunately the means of restoration were at hand; for its fertility; and its repute, always high, was further enhanced by the fact of so much of it having remained fallow during the years, a circumstance which was supposed to ensure a rich return to those who reclaimed the waste and raised the first crops on virgin culture. The neighbouring districts were full of families who had emigrated thither from Berar, and who with the usual attachment of the people to their original patrimony, were anxious to return on any suitable opportunity. Thus hundreds of families and thousands of

¹ Wun Revenue Records.

² Then Resident at Hyderabad.

individuals immigrated back into Berar. Many villages in the Nagpur country lost many of their hands in this way, and were sometimes put to serious straits. Some apprehension was even caused to the Nagpur officials. But of course the natural course of things had its way, and eastern Berar became replenished. This was only one mode out of several, which it would be tedious to detail, whereby the cultivation of Berar was restored and augmented.

"But there shortly supervened the consequences of the American war, which indeed stimulated many parts of India but which (if the metaphor is admissible) positively electrified Berar. Before this, cotton had been one out of many staples. It now became the prevailing, absorbing, predominating product. Much of other sorts of culture was displaced to make room for it. The people imported quantities of food-grain from the Nagpur country, in order that they might have the more land whereon to raise the remunerative cotton crop. The staple, too, is one that requires much manual toil in weeding, picking, ginning, packing, and the like. Hence there arose a great and urgent demand for rural labour, which of course operated to raise the standard of wages. A great exportation of cotton to Bombay was soon established. The importation of foreign produce was far from proportionate; consequently, much of the return for this cotton consisted of cash and bullion. This circumstance making money cheap, tended to raise the prices of all things. Another effect was that the labouring and producing classes, especially the agriculturists, were rapidly enriched.

"At the very same time, the construction of railway works throughout the whole length of the province was at its full swing, not only causing the employment of all labour, skilled and unskilled, that could be got on the spot, but also introducing a large foreign element, which settled temporarily, at least, in the province. Thus the value of labour, and the rates of prices generally, were still further enhanced.

"In other parts of India the operation of these or similar causes has been perceptible, but in many parts it has been partial only; in others its force may have been detracted from by other influences. But in Berar it was universal, extending from one end of the province to the other; and there was nothing whatever to counteract its force. It is this sort of universality which constitutes, perhaps, the peculiarity of the process in these districts.

"This state of things has rendered the people generally prosperous, progressive, and contented. Some classes do, unfortunately suffer therefrom. This, though perhaps it may be mitigated cannot altogether be helped. Those who suffer will naturally complain, but that the accession to provincial prosperity has been vast and rapid is unquestionable. The most sanguine anticipations of the growth of the province in importance have been more than realized, and there is everything in favour of its further increase."

Berar was now clamouring for the establishment of local self-Government. Taking a bold attitude the *Warhad Samachar* expressed the popular feeling that people feared to oppose the Government officers not from any hope of advancement but fear of being removed, if they opposed the wishes of officers who nominated them. An instance was cited when in the course of discussion and in the presence of the Commissioner the resolution on female education was opposed by the officials even when it was carried by the non-official majority. Complaints were made by them that the non-official section of the municipal committees did as they liked regardless of public interest. It had been announced in 1881 by the Berar Government that a municipal committee would be established in each town having a population of 5,000 people and on which five members would be appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. This committee would look to the cleanliness and other matters in the town. There were, however, serious complaints about the personnel of these committees.

In an editorial dated the 15th January 1883, the *Warhad Samachar* stated that it was our duty to awaken all people of Berar to make a demand for local fund committees being fully administered by peoples' representatives. Now, the Deputy Commissioner spends local funds according to his own sweet-will without caring for the public. Therefore, people of various places should note that they should stand united behind the right to demand local self-government. They should send their resolution to the committee established at Akola in connection with the movement for the introduction of local self-government. The people of Akola should organise a squad of propagandists and popularise the demand in various places and should take the initiative in organizing a provincial conference to consider the matter. Apparently as a result of this agitation, the Resident at Hyderabad called a conference and decided finally that Berar should have elected representatives in its local bodies and the announcement was widely acclaimed.

The Municipal Act of 1883 was extended to Berar in 1887 and district boards were established. The Berar Government in its report of 1889 to 1890 referred to their work and were glad to note that our municipalities with the new phase of elective franchise are progressing steadily and satisfactorily and are all in a financially sound state.

The education department was established in Berar in 1866-67. A teachers' association was also started in Berar, the first meeting of which was held in August 1883. The whole system of education was so rudimentary that it was fit only for a semi-civilised, backward people; not for a land of ripe and ancient civilization which had long ago given light and learning to the West. The new education was meant to make the people soft, docile and unenterprising.

There were, however, separate schools for European and Anglo-Indians in which the system of teaching was different and the syllabus was according to Cambridge University. It was brought

home to the students in these schools that the Europeans were the rulers and the Indians ruled.

An incident reported in the *Berar Samachar* in its issue of 6th May 1877, reveals to what insane extent this attitude can go:

"A European was walking on the road in Nagpur and taking umbrage at a Kunbi caught hold of him and commanded Ramdayal, a municipal peon who was near at hand, to cut off his head. Ramdayal was aghast at the order of the *sahib* and when the latter had left the spot, he let him off. Seeing this the *sahib* returned and asked Ramdayal in anger why he had not carried out the order. Thereafter, the *sahib* stabbed poor Ramdayal as a result of which he died. He was produced before a magistrate but was discharged on the plea of not being in his proper senses when he stabbed the peon."

This was not an isolated case of racial madness. The *Berar Samachar* in its issue of the 3rd September 1876, published the following account of the inconsiderate behaviour of the head of the province:

"The Chief Commissioner, Mr. Morris, one day saw an innocent unlettered Indian going to fetch water from the well situated in the compound of his bungalow. Mr. Morris challenged him upon which the poor Indian apologised and said that he would not have dared had he known that the bungalow was occupied by a *bara sahib*. Not being satisfied, Mr. Morris had him arrested and the man was produced before a magistrate who let him off. But Mr. Morris was not going to leave him at that; he ordered his retrial by another magistrate who fined him four rupees. The Judicial Commissioner, Colonel Mackenzie, before whom the case went up in appeal, acquitted the man and passed structures upon the magistrate who had found him guilty."

Now, the point of this incident is that a responsible officer like the Chief Commissioner was so callous in his treatment of an Indian whose only offence was that he wanted to draw water from the well in his compound. The *Berar Samachar* summed up its comments on this episode by saying that it was not safe to leave lakhs of people of the Nagpur province to the tender mercies of a Chief Commissioner like Morris.

The birth of the Indian National Congress had a profound effect on the political situation in Berar as in other parts of the country. Though the policy of the British to divide and rule was paying them rich dividends, it was creating a turmoil in the minds of the people and the atmosphere was seething with discontent. The district of Buldhana had its own share in these happenings.

Another important organisation founded at this time was the *Gorakshan Sabha* which had considerable political influence though primarily its interest was to preserve the cattle wealth of the country. Forty-nine such *sabhas* were established in Central Provinces and Berar which gradually assumed the form of an All-India organisation.

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It may be noted that the younger generation of Berar had to a great extent been educated in Pune and Bombay and was greatly attracted towards the Congress. The Indian National Congress elicited an official ill-will on the part of the British Government and in Berar a warning from Government sources was sent to *patels*, *patwaris* and *deshmukhs* asking them to keep aloof from the Indian National Congress and its activities.

The first session of the Congress held in Nagpur was in 1891 and was attended by 480 delegates from Berar. This session gave a great stimulus to the National movement in the Central Provinces and Berar. Most of the English knowing persons—pleaders, land-holders and men of various professions—attended the session. Every one seemed to be inspired with the idea that he had come to Nagpur for the sake of the nation and returned filled with the zeal to serve the nation's cause. It was at this time that Lokamanya Bal Gangadhar Tilak began to play an increasingly active part in the life of the country through his rousing articles in *Kesari*.

The last decade of the nineteenth century was almost continuously haunted by famines. The settlement rates of revenue carried out in 1891 were so high that the cultivator could hardly pay them. The famine first struck in 1892 which was followed by one in 1894 and by another in 1894-95 and again in 1895-96. The *Berar Samachar* published stories of the sufferings of the people. While these series of famines devastated the Central Provinces and Berar, the western and northern parts of the country were visited by the pestilence of bubonic plague which took a heavy toll of life. But the plague had another, indirect and far-reaching consequence on the politics of the country. The behaviour of the military which was called out to deal with the situation arising from the pestilence in the country aroused great indignation. It was at this time that Rand and Ayerst were murdered by the Chafekar brothers. Tilak was tried and sentenced to 18 months rigorous imprisonment. It was under the shadow of this gloom that the thirteenth session of the Congress was held at Amravati in Berar. It condemned the reactionary policy of the Government. It thus appeared that a new note had begun to be heard in the country—the strident, impatient, challenging voice of a nation groaning under years of bureaucratic rule.

BRITISH PERIOD

It was during the viceroyalty of Lord Curzon that Berar was permanently ceded to the British by the Nizam. It was announced from Fort William that Berar had been administered by British under the treaties of 1853 and 1860 for meeting the expenses of the Hyderabad contingent, and any balance of revenue was to be handed over to the Nizam; but this arrangement had not worked satisfactorily. Therefore these were being redrafted and that henceforth, while the British recognised the suzerainty of the Nizam, Navab Mir Sir Mahbub Ali Khan, the latter had leased Berar permanently to the British who would pay him 25 lakhs of rupees every year, and that the British would have full

rights of Government over Berar, and make such arrangements regarding the contingent as may be considered desirable. This agreement was signed on the 5th of November, 1902, by Lieutenant-Col. Sir David Barr on behalf of the Government of India, and by Maharaja Sir Kishen Prasad on behalf of the Nizam. Lord Curzon further proposed the addition of Berar to the Central Provinces, and this was proclaimed on 17th September 1903. Thus the provinces of the Central Provinces and Berar came into existence. In the Residency Order, dated the 30th September 1903, and under notification by the Government of India, dated the 11th September 1903, it was published that the administration of Berar had been made over to the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, and that under orders of the India Council, the Governor-General directed that all the power of the Resident of Hyderabad would be exercised by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, and wherever in any law the name of the Resident appeared, the name of the Chief Commissioner would be substituted. There was some agitation, prominently by Muhammadans and a few *jagirdars*, against joining Berar to the Central Provinces, and a meeting was held in Amravati on 21st February 1903, in which the decision of the Government of India was opposed. A committee was also appointed which sent a representative to the Government of India.

It was at this time that Lord Curzon took the momentous decision of partitioning Bengal. This added to the tension and resentment in the country. There was a great political upsurge in India and the district of Buldhana had its own share in vehemently opposing the measure. In 1904 a meeting was held at the residence of Tilak in which the leaders of Central Provinces decided to support Tilak in his fight against the Government and popularise their stand through public lectures and the press.

Out of the anti-partition agitation was born the cult of *Svadeshi* and boycott. No wonder the 1905 session of the Congress met at Benaras in a grim and indignant mood. The leaders from the Central Provinces such as Dadasaheb Khaparde, Dr. Munje, Mudholkar and Chitnavis made their mark in this session, the former two representing the extremist group of Tilak and the latter two representing the moderate school. The viceroyalty of Lord Curzon ended in 1906 and this marked the beginning of India's aggressive political awakening. The 1906 session of the Congress was held in Calcutta which declared *Svaraj* as its immediate goal. The session was dominated by the extremists headed by Lal, Bal and Pal. It was at this time that the terrorist movement began to assume serious proportions.

An extremist organisation called *Rashtriya Mandal* was established at Nagpur which utilised Shivaji and Ganesh celebrations for propagating the idea of National Education and *Svadeshi*. The next session of the Congress was to be held at Nagpur and the extremist group including Khaparde and Munje toured the province to marshal their forces in preparation for this session.

They visited Wardha in early May and on 12th they went to Seoni where they heard of the arrest of Lala Lajpatrai. At all the places they visited they addressed largely attended public meetings and established branches of the nationalist wing of the Congress.

The meeting of the reception committee convened on the 22nd September 1907, at the Town Hall in Nagpur to elect Lokamanya Tilak as president of the session could not be held due to the tense and excited atmosphere and the venue of the session had to be changed to Surat. This precipitated a breach between the moderate and the extremist sections of the Congress. The spasmodic and hesitating attempts made by the British Government to grant political reforms to India were too little. Agitation, repression and violence followed in their wake. Bureaucracy was in alarm. Even a minor episode caused ferocious reaction on the part of the Government. In the midst of this fury of repression, many parts of the country including the Central Provinces and Berar were affected by famine in 1907-08. In the meanwhile the slow moving process of constitutional reforms was working itself out in the British Parliament. The Morley-Minto reforms were introduced in 1909. They did little however to assuage public opinion. There was keen and widespread disappointment as Lord Minto made it clear in his address to the Imperial Legislative Assembly in 1909 that the provincial councils and the Central Assembly were not intended to transfer any power to Indians. The consequent wave of discontent resulted in the imprisonment of many political leaders. Ironically enough the first fruit of the new reforms was the suppression of nationalist papers.

The year 1911 was significant because determined efforts were made by some Hindu and Muslim leaders to bring about unity between the two communities. The communal spirit had taken deep roots in the minds of the people due to the subtle and calculated attempts of the British Government to divide the Muslims from the large body of the Indian public, and drive a wedge between them. The Muslims numbered 2 lakhs in the provincial population of 88 lakhs in 1891 and even after Berar was joined to the province the population of Muslims did not exceed 4 per cent. The Muslims were neither appreciably influenced by the national movement nor did they join the Congress. As a matter of fact the Chief Commissioner of Nagpur, Mr. Craddock exhorted the Muslims to keep away from the Congress. He followed a communal policy in every department of administration. The Muslim League was established under the protective wings of Lord Minto. Though the session of the Muslim League held in Delhi in 1909 decided to establish the league in Central Provinces the unity conference which was held before the next session of the league in Nagpur in 1910 by a resolution defined its object as the attainment of self-government under the British Empire. Like other parts of the country the Central Provinces were also caught up in the maelstrom of communalism and

public life was often punctuated by communal riots. The Congress subsequently adopted and endorsed its complete accord with the resolution of the unity conference and declared that the political future of the country depended on the harmonious working and co-operation of the various communities in the country. The year 1913 saw the beginning of a new era in the Central Provinces with the formation of the Central Provinces Legislative Council on 8th November of that year. In August 1914 war broke out in Europe and the reaction in India was one of unanimous and enthusiastic support to the cause of the allies. Little did the Indians expect at that time that the reward for so lively an effort would be so little. The first meeting of the Legislative Council was held on 17th August 1914. The Chief Commissioner, Sir Benjamin Robertson, exhorted the members to enter upon their responsibilities with seriousness and courage and expressed the hope of fullest co-operation from the province in the war efforts. But the passing of the Defence of India Act in 1915 shattered all these hopes. Under these circumstances the Home Rule League was established in 1916 aimed at the attainment of *svarajya* by all constitutional measures. The leaders for the Central Provinces headed by Khaparde whole heartedly supported the Home Rule League. A provincial association was formed in 1916 with members representing every district of the province. Meanwhile Muslim opinion in India was also becoming suspicious of Britain. An attempt at rapprochement between Hindus and Muslims was made. The 1916 Lucknow session of the Congress and the Muslim League forged unity between the Congress and the League resulting in the conclusion of the famous Lucknow Pact. The Congress and the Muslim League thus presented a united front to the British Government. In the meanwhile the provincial association was held in 1916 at Amravati which asked for—(1) the establishment of municipal committees in all towns with a population of 5,000 and above with $\frac{3}{4}$ of the members being elected; (2) the administration of the district councils through the representatives of the people; and (3) establishment of the *gram panchayats* all over the province. The Government was however in a belligerent mood and refused to listen to reason.

Soon after the Congress Session of 1916 the Home Rule agitation led by Tilak and Mrs. Beasant, gathered momentum. Almost all the prominent leaders of the Central Provinces joined the movement. The student population was also caught up by the wave of national movement. A number of students were expelled from their schools for joining in the demonstrations and public meetings. It was against this background that the new Secretary of State for India Mr. Montague took office in July 1917. He made a conciliatory statement in the House of Commons laying down the fundamental objective of the British policy as the increasing association of Indians in every branch of administration and the development of self-governing institutions. He expressed his desire to personally visit India and consult the

Indian leaders in the scheme of reforms. However the British Parliament was in no mood to respond to these sentiments, due to its pre-occupation with the problems of war. The bureaucracy in India was far too unimaginative and wooden to understand the significance of the popular agitation. The situation would not have worsened if the Government had not appointed a committee under the chairmanship of Justice Rowlatt to enquire into criminal conspiracies and the spread of revolutionary associations in India and to advise what legislation should be undertaken to deal with them. This provoked and exasperated the people. It was also a warning that more weapons were being acquired for the chastisement of the so called sedition mongers.

The Calcutta Congress of 1917 condemned this new development. Tilak undertook tour of the Central Provinces and covered a number of places in Nagpur and Berar divisions. In the meanwhile tension between the Government and political leaders in India mounted. In 1918 it was proposed to send a deputation to England composed of Pal, Kelkar and Khaparde but under the orders of the War Council in England they were not permitted to sail. This caused resentment which found expression in the sixth provincial conference held in March 1918. At the same time in the mounting wave of discontent Montague was touring the provinces of India. He met Dadasaheb Khaparde, Mudholkar, Chitnavis, Moropant Joshi and other leaders from the Central Provinces. By now the district political conferences had become a regular feature and helped to spread political awakening in rural areas. They hastened the transformation of the political struggle from a middle class movement to a mass movement. Due to the worsening of the war situation, the Viceroy called a war meeting in Delhi. In Nagpur an impressive *darbar* was held attended by several loyalists. But the voice of the people was heard elsewhere at a number of tahsil meetings where resolutions demanding *svarajya* and national education were passed. The repressive policy of the Government however continued and many leaders were prosecuted and jailed under the Defence of India Act. In this atmosphere of repression and awakening the Montague-Chelmsford report was presented to the British Parliament. The report evoked a sharp criticism from the leaders of the Central Provinces in the provincial conference though a few of them viewed it with favour. The Congress as also the Muslim League voiced their dissatisfaction. When these developments were taking place in regard to constitutional reforms, the report of the Rowlatt Committee was also published which found nothing new and recommended special trials without jury for political cases. The promises, half-hearted, though they were, embodied in the Montague-Chelmsford report were nullified by the unmistakable repressive measures suggested by the Rowlatt Committee. The war ended in 1918. It brought in its wake the epidemic of influenza followed by the failure of harvest resulting in heavy casualties. In the midst of this situation the Rowlatt Bill was brought before the Imperial Legislative Council. Protest

meetings were held in every town of the Central Provinces as elsewhere in India. The bill was vehemently opposed by all the political leaders including those of the Central Provinces. In spite of such an unprecedented unanimity of disapproval the Rowlatt Bill became an Act. It is worth noting that the expeditious manner in which this legislation was rushed through was in striking contrast to the leisurely, almost deliberately obstructive manner in which the reforms bill was handled. It was in December 1919, about twenty months after Montague had submitted his report, that the recommendations contained in the report were embodied in the form of an Act. The interval between the passage of Rowlatt Act and the Montford reforms saw repression in almost all parts of India. It was at this time that a new figure arrived on the political horizon of India that was to guide the destiny of India till the dawn of Independence in 1947. The new figure was that of Gandhiji. Gandhiji had struck a new note by imploring the Viceroy not to give his assent to the Rowlatt bill and had declared that if the bill became law he would start *satyagraha*. The proposal for *satyagraha* found widespread support in the Central Provinces and was observed with remarkable success as in other parts of the country. There was trouble in many parts of the country. Then came the horror of Jallianwala Bagh on 13th April 1919 where the notorious General Dyer by ordering indiscriminate firing brought about a massacre of a number of innocent men, women and children. The tragedy shocked the people of Central Provinces immensely and evoked strong criticism from political leaders. The *satyagraha* was suspended by Gandhiji. The Government of India at this inopportune time decided to celebrate the victory gained by the allies in the great World War. This was grossly callous and the celebrations in the Central Provinces were far from popular.

The period under review had however, a bright streak on the otherwise dark horizon of Indian politics. It saw for the first time an unprecedented unity among the Hindus and Muslims. The national struggle was strengthened by the Khilafat movement. The Ali brothers who were in the forefront of the movement and Gandhiji became for the time being at least the country's most conspicuous leaders. Meanwhile the Montague-Chelmsford reforms were put through. The Central Provinces were allotted 5 seats in the Indian Legislative Assembly and two in the Council of States—Moropant Joshi and other moderates were among the few who pleaded for the acceptance of the reforms. But theirs was a lone voice. Everywhere strong opposition was seen to the acceptance of the reforms. District conferences were held in the first half of 1920 and the message for struggle travelled from district to district. At this time India suffered a tragic loss in the death of Lokamanya Tilak. Meetings were held in every part of the country and a countrywide hartal was observed. However the appointed task had to be performed and in the special session of the Congress held in Calcutta in September

1920, the Congress outlined the programme of non-co-operation and adoption of *swadeshi*. Opposition to the resolution of the Congress from the Central Provinces came from Khaparde who pointed out that the resolution sought to divert the energies of the Congress towards attaining soul force and moral excellence, thus losing sight of immediate political objects. Opposition also came from members of the Imperial Legislative Council. In this atmosphere the Congress session was held at Nagpur. The session unanimously adopted the resolution on non-co-operation and established finally the unquestioned leadership of Gandhiji in the freedom struggle. The session was eventful as it displayed a rosy picture of Hindu-Muslim unity.

The Nagpur session also passed other resolutions which were destined to have far-reaching influence on the country in the years to come. It was at Nagpur that the Congress adopted the linguistic principle for the realignment of the provinces. Accordingly, a provincial Congress Committee was formed and the Central Provinces were grouped under three committees, the Berar, the Hindi C. P. which later came to be called Mahakosal Provincial Committee and the Marathi C. P. which became later the Nagpur Provincial Committee. This had an important consequence on the growth of the movement in Central Provinces which was formerly centred in Nagpur only. The two new centres, viz., Jabalpur and Amravati, became the radiating nuclei from where the movement spread out into the districts. Soon after the session Mahatma Gandhi toured the province explaining to the people the decisions taken by the Congress. People were quick to respond. The district councils insisted on hoisting the national flag on their buildings defying Government orders. In Berar, the national movement had taken firm roots long before it spread to other parts of the province. It now progressed under the leadership of B. G. Khaparde, Dr. Munje, M. S. Aney and Veer Wamanrao Joshi. There was, however, a divergence of opinion in regard to the non-co-operation movement in Berar. Veer Wamanrao Joshi and his followers however whole-heartedly supported it. In 1921 Lord Reading succeeded Chelmsford as Viceroy. In the same year the Prince of Wales decided to visit India. His arrival was greeted with *hartal* and protest meetings in Central Provinces as elsewhere in India. The year 1922 dawned and Gandhiji was ready with the programme of mass civil disobedience whose cause he had fervently propagated after the Ahmedabad session of 1921. But Gandhiji had to suspend the movement which was to start at Bardoli due to the tragic happenings at Chauri Chura where a few constables were killed by a mob. This led to the arrest of Gandhiji on 10th March 1922. In the meanwhile the Central Provinces Legislative Council decorously debated various topics under the indulgent eye of the bureaucracy. Though none of the resolutions sponsored by the peoples representatives could get through, they at least served the purpose of voicing public grievances. With political agitation outside being ruthlessly suppressed, the legislatures now provided

as possible alternatives of action. Some even thought of using them in obstructing the machinery of Government. This mood was reflected in the thinking of Dr. Munje. In Berar too the enthusiasm for the programme of civil disobedience was waning. In fact Berar had not at any time, wholly accepted the programme of non-co-operation and this was the reason why the leadership in Berar during the days of non-co-operation had passed into the hands of Veer Wamanrao Joshi. It was therefore natural that the views of the Berar Congress Committee also were now veering round to Dr. Munje's. This mood was reflected in other parts of the country as well and with the beginning of 1923 an able and powerful group led by C. R. Das and Pandit Motilal Nehru set about forming the *Svarajist Party* to carry the fight into the legislatures. By this time the reforms had been in operation for well over two years. But a number of events besides the use of Viceroy's special powers had lifted the veil of pretext and make believe about the reforms. A further tightening of control by the bureaucracy seemed imminent. The memorandum presented by the C. P. and Berar association of the services to the Lee Commission was an example of unabashed piece of effrontery in cursing the reforms, the Indian Press and politicians and in a minor key the Government of India and the India office. In spite of these wranglings the All-India Congress Committee which met at Bombay on 25th May 1923 decided to contest the forthcoming general elections. However, at this time staunch protagonists of non-co-operation were active in the Central Provinces especially at Nagpur and they made an issue of the hoisting of the national flag on Municipalities and District Councils. Volunteers poured from every district. *Satyagraha* and defiance of the Government ban prohibiting the hoisting of the national flag became a daily, deliberate ritual. There was no frivolity or bravado about it. The affair now no longer remained a provincial one but assumed country-wide importance. 18th June 1923 was observed as a flag day in Nagpur. Volunteers from distant parts of the country joined in the procession taken out on that occasion. Such a determined movement could not be ignored by the legislative council which passed a resolution demanding the repeal of the order of the Deputy Commissioner of Nagpur which the *satyagrahis* were defying. The Delhi session of the Congress held on 18th September 1923 recorded the success of the Nagpur struggle.

Meanwhile the life of the first legislature formed under the reforms came to an end with the monsoon sitting of 1923. The new elections were held in 1923 and the Svarajists secured a clear majority in the Central Provinces. In the Central Assembly they formed a compact group of 45 in a house of 140. Among them were Abhyankar, Dr. Gour and Misra from the Central Provinces. The Svarajists under the leadership of Dr. Munje refused to accept office in the Central Provinces and brought a vote of no-confidence against the Government which had been formed by the nomination of ministers by the Governor. The motion was passed. The jubilant Svarajists then successfully voted out the

money bills and blocked the working of the Government. Similar incidents indicated the opposition of the people's representatives to any half-hearted measures on the part of the Government.

In the Central Provinces the matters took a dramatic turn with the budget having been thrown out. The Governor in this situation certified the expenditure on reserved subjects and restored that on transferred subjects to the amount required for meeting the committed expenditure. Thus there was a shortfall in the latter. Government used this as a stick to beat the Svarajists within the public eye and to malign the party. A circular was issued by the chief secretary to all officers in the districts asking them to bring home to the electorate the effect of the destructive policy followed by the Svarajist party in the Legislative Council. The governor, Sir Frank Sly, himself gave the lead in his speeches at Malkapur, Hoshangabad and Jabalpur. Obviously the aim of the government was to rally round itself the landholding and aristocratic classes to fight the Nationalists. Amidst this constitutional crisis when the diarchic system of government failed to work, communal riots flared up in many parts of the country including the Central Provinces. With the virtual extinction of the Khilafat movement, with the repudiation of the Caliph by Turkey, the cause of Hindu-Muslim unity in India, lost as if its very foundation. The British were not slow to take advantage of the situation. What they feared most as a danger to their rule was communal unity in India. It was a situation that irresistibly brought Gandhiji to action. On 18th September 1924 he started a 21 day fast in the house of Mohammad Ali at Delhi. This had a desired effect at least temporarily. Subsequently a conference of all party leaders at Delhi adopted a long resolution on communal toleration. On 21st November 1924 another all parties conference was held in Bombay which appointed a committee to report on *swaraj* including a communal settlement. The committee met on 1st March 1925 but adjourned *sine die* without coming to any conclusion. This was perhaps expected as a result of the challenging communal situation that had developed over a period of time. The Hindu Mahasabha, and the Muslim League presided over by Jinnah represented the extremist elements in the Hindu and Muslim communities, respectively. Jinnah considered Hindu-Muslim unity as essential before the question of *swaraj* could ever be discussed. It was now that the term of the legislature elected in 1923 was coming to an end and new elections were to take place in November 1926. This gave a splendid opportunity to extremist elements in the country to fan the fire of communalism. The period before the elections and after, saw the orgy of communal terror let loose in various parts of the country. The degree of estrangement between the two communities can be gauged from the virulent anti-Hindu tirade coming from a moderate body like the Khilafat conference in May 1926. In the atmosphere of this mounting tension came the news of the murder of Svami Shraddhanand by one Abdul Rashid. The murder to some extent chastened the extremists in both the

communities and attempts were made to bring them to a common basis of understanding. An appeal to this effect was issued by the Congress President Shrinivas Iyenger. The appeal did not achieve any substantial result. The announcement of the appointment of a statutory commission on reforms consisting wholly of Englishmen, however, brought forth nationwide protest. This gave a promise of a renewed effort by all parties to work unitedly for the cause of the nation.

When these events were taking place the Government of India was following a policy of repression. This was marked by the issue of the notorious Bengal ordinance. But when total unity was necessary a schism was appearing in the rank of *Swarajists* especially in the Marathi districts of Central Provinces and Bombay. On 8th October 1925, Shri Tambe decided to accept the membership of the executive council of the Central Provinces and this was followed by a resolution of the executive committees of the Berar Swarajya Party which declared that the time had come to adopt a policy of co-operation. It was in the meeting of the All India Swarajists Executive held at Nagpur that the breach was complete. Motilal Nehru remarked that "Maharashtra was a diseased limb of the Swarajya Party and he was quite prepared to amputate it." He took a hurricane tour of Berar vehemently criticising the stand of the responsivists. The Congress session at Cawnpore in 1925 carried by a large majority the resolution proposing a course of action within the Legislature sponsored by Motilal Nehru. The responsivists of Berar declared their opposition to this resolution and when the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces met on 4th March 1926 they expressed it by remaining in the council when the entire Swarajist opposition walked out. In the face of this stark opposition the Government suspended diarchy in the Central Provinces. The 1926 elections were now approaching. The Swarajists as also the responsivists started marshalling their forces for the ensuing elections. Another important group which fought the elections in Berar was the Non-Brahmin Party which contested 7 out of seventeen Berar seats. The Swarajists lost considerably in the elections, the responsivists in Berar having succeeded in winning a number of seats. Berar also returned Shri Aney to the Central Assembly. The next session of the Congress held at Gauhati saw a stiffening of the Congress attitude towards the acceptance of office and set the tone of policy of the Congress members in the legislatures for the next three years. These years, therefore, saw the unusual spectacle of the stream of the national movement being fed and strengthened by the incidents inside the legislatures rather than the events in the wider public life.

In the Central Provinces Legislative Council the Congress found itself in a minority with independent Congress party members entering into coalition with responsivists, Non-Brahmins and independents. This coalition of 33 members thus formed the Nationalist party. Though the budget was passed in spite of stiff opposition it was predicted that the Nationalists' coalition

would not survive long due to the loose bonds that held it together. It was in the midst of this situation that the appointment of an all-White Reforms Commission occurred, as stated earlier, headed by Sir John Simon. This step displayed a great ignorance of the Indian sentiment by the Government. The result was a spontaneous denouncement of the commission from all parts of the country.

All parties joined hands in protesting against the commission, the Congress spearheading the opposition. It was decided to boycott the commission. The Congress went a step ahead and in its Madras session declared that the goal of the Indian people was complete national independence. The Simon Commission landed at Bombay on 3rd February 1928. The day was observed all over the country as a day of mourning. In the Central Provinces Legislative Council a motion expressing no-confidence in the commission was carried by a majority. The positive response of India to the British government was, however, contained in the Nehru Report which was the result of the all-parties conference held in Delhi and Bombay. The report laid down dominion status as the basis of the constitution of India and recommended the abolition of separate electorates. Jinnah who first supported the report later became its staunchest opponent after the trip to England in 1928. Rabid communalism was raising its ugly head again. In the momentous session of the Congress held at Lahore in 1929 with Jawaharlal Nehru as President, the entire political mood of the country seemed to have changed. Gandhiji declared that *swaraj* would mean complete independence. This was the call for the struggle to come. The promise of the Government given a few days before the session to call a Round Table Conference of the leaders of all political parties after the Simon Commission had submitted its report came very late indeed. The tremendous effect of this call for the struggle which was to be launched against the Government in the form of civil disobedience could be visualised when in far away villages of the Central Provinces, not to speak of the more accessible parts of Province, groups of men, women and children gathered in an open place in the early hours of the morning, hoisted the tricolour flag, sang the national song and listened to the message of independence. From now on events began to move rapidly towards the predestined struggle. In obedience to the resolution of the Lahore Congress, members of Central Assembly and Provincial Legislatures resigned their seats. The spread of the movement in the Central Provinces and Berar was preceded by a great awakening. It gave a fillip to the youth movement. Youths' and Students' Conference and Berar Hanuman Vyayam Mandal played a constructive role in the freedom movement. The salt law was broken in Berar at Dahihanda as in all parts of the province and a War Council was formed in Berar with Waman Rao Joshi as president and Brijlal Biyani as secretary. Batches of *satyagrahis* defied the salt law and a decision was taken to defy the forest law and sedition law as well. The government became alarmed at this turn of

events and decided to swoop down upon the leaders. Abhyankar and Wamanrao Joshi were arrested. With these leaders behind the bars it fell to Bapuji Aney to inaugurate the forest *satyagraha* on 10th July 1930. With a party of volunteers he cut grass from the reserved forests at Pusad near Yeotmal and was arrested. At the same time other leaders of Berar, viz., Brijlal Biyani, Gole, Patwardhan and Soman were arrested. The *satyagraha* now spread in all parts of the State. The adivasis too participated in thousands in the *satyagraha*. The government used all the repressive measures at its command to put down the popular upsurge. To deal with the youths and students who joined the struggle and also to intimidate the Adivasis who played a great part in forest *satyagraha*, the Central Provinces Government adopted the punishment of whipping. Since early August, this brutal form of punishment became very popular with authorities. Fines they found difficult to collect; imprisonment required them to provide accommodation, however filthy. But whipping did away with both these problems and, besides, gave them a sadistic pleasure. From August to December, 164 persons were tortured in this way. It is significant that when appeals were preferred against this form of punishment the Sessions Judge at Buldhana set aside the sentence in twenty cases, while in Raipur the Judge substituted the punishment of imprisonment in place of whipping in six cases. But many others who scorned to go in appeal bravely suffered. It also issued the Press ordinance demanding securities from a number of nationalist papers.

Till now Government had refrained from arresting Mahatma Gandhi. He was now arrested at Dandi. This was followed by the arrests of Abbas Tyabji and Sarojini Naidu. Repression also continued unabated. Picketing was made an offence and all Congress committees were declared unlawful. The Simon Report had been published. All eyes were now turned towards the Round Table Conference. The Central Provinces had only one representative on it, viz., S. D. Tambe. The Round Table Conference met on 12th November 1930 but in the absence of the Congress, the voice of India was nowhere to be heard. The proceedings of the Round Table Conference were affected by sectarianism. The Labour Government also lost interest in the Round Table Conference facing as it was an insecure position in the home politics. Ramsey Macdonald, the P. M., therefore hurriedly concluded the Round Table Conference on 19th January 1931, promising that steps would be taken to enlist the co-operation of those sections of public opinion which had held aloof from the conference. This meant that the door was kept open for negotiations with the Congress. The statement of the Prime Minister was followed by the unconditional release of Gandhiji and other political leaders. Gandhiji agreed to hold talks with Lord Irwin, the viceroy, of which the famous Gandhi-Irwin or the Delhi Pact was the result. The main outcome of the pact was the participation of the Congress in the next Round Table Conference. Gandhiji reluctantly attended the Round Table Conference in London. Because of the

high ideals and self-effacing patriotism of Gandhiji and the cynical self-interests of many others from India, the conference was doomed to fail. The constitution it evolved was a sheer mockery. Gandhiji returned to India more frustrated than disappointed. Government had resolved to carry out a policy of suppression. Instructions were issued to the provincial governments to supply evidence to prove that the Congress was not abiding by the terms of the pact. The Governor of Central Provinces, Sir Montague Bulter accused the Congress of fomenting a war mentality. The alleged attitude of the Congress was taken as a pretext for repressive measures. The situation was further aggravated by the bad harvest in Nagpur and Berar. There was great discontent among the agriculturists. In spite of the attitude of the government the Congress decided to extend its hand of co-operation. It was however refused. The Congress, therefore, resolved to call upon the nation to resume civil disobedience. The Government took this as a threat. There was a wave of arrests and among the leaders arrested from Berar were Waman Rao Joshi and Brijlal Biyani. The Congress reacted sharply and established war councils in place of district congress committees. However, the protest meeting held by people all over were dispersed by severe lathi charges. A notable factor in the popular and spontaneous upsurge that had taken place in the Central Provinces was the increasing number of women volunteers participating in the *satyagraha*, which continued unabated.

The newspapers were doing the great work of taking the message of the movement to the masses. The Government promptly suspended such newspapers. The gagging of the newspapers led to the ingenious method of spreading the messages of the movement through Congress bulletins. In this situation the Congress decided to hold its session at Delhi which the Government forestalled by arresting Pandit Malaviya, the president elect, and subsequently all those who had assembled. This was followed by a joint conference of Mahakosal, Nagpur and Berar Congress at Nagpur on 29th May 1932. The same story of the arrest of the president elect and other delegates as in Delhi was repeated here also. The movement received an accession of strength when the working classes decided to join it. The Government, however, was not satisfied with the mere arrest of political leaders. It meted out harsh treatment to them in jails. The Central Provinces Legislative Council debated an adjournment motion on this issue also. It was at this time that the communal award was made public by the British Prime Minister. It attempted to cut off the Harijan community from its Hindu fold. On this, Mahatma Gandhi launched on 20th September 1932 his historic fast unto death. The leaders, however, made frantic efforts for a compromise. This resulted in the Poona-Pact according to which separate electorates for the Harijans were done away with and the life of Gandhiji was saved. The fact stirred the nation into a social awakening and the emphasis at least for the time being shifted from political struggle and civil disobedience to social

reform. During this period of civil disobedience, the central and the provincial councils had become mere tools in the hands of the bureaucracy. Certain measures such as the Ottawa agreement, Criminal Law Amendment Bill of 1932, etc., passed by the central legislature had been harmful to the future of the country. When in this situation the Congress decided to hold its session in Calcutta, the political leaders began actively to think of new paths. The leaders who assembled at Calcutta including M. S. Aney were arrested. In the wake of these arrests came the White Paper containing the proposal for constitutional reforms. The White Paper contained obnoxious proposals such as safeguards, and reservations, and they were roundly condemned by the Congress. Gandhiji was now released from prison. He decided to call off the civil disobedience movement which was now a spent force. He now shifted his headquarters from Sabarmati to Sevagram in Wardha and resolved to launch the constructive movement of Harijan uplift. From Sevagram he commenced his ten months long Harijan tour and went to Nagpur in November 1933 and thence into Berar on 16th November and toured the whole of Central Provinces. In the meanwhile the leaders of the Congress were working out a plan for a positive course of action. The All-India Congress Committee which met at Patna decided to suspend the civil disobedience movement and adopted a resolution favouring re-entry into the Councils by fighting the approaching elections with an animated vigour. In the elections to the Central Assembly the Congress nominees were swept to the polls everywhere. From Berar M. S. Aney was elected on the Nationalist Party ticket. At this time the Central Provinces lost one of its brave freedom fighters by the death of M. V. Abhyankar, in January 1935. The Government was now preparing the ground for the inauguration of the Government of India Act passed in July 1936. Elections under the new Act were to take place in 1936. Though the Act was regarded as unsatisfactory and, therefore, condemned by every shade of public opinion, the Congress decided to fight elections. The elections were a phenomenal success for the Congress. It captured 72 out of 112 seats in Central Provinces. Under the directive of the All-India Congress an assurance was asked for from the Governor of the Province by the leader of the party that the council of ministers would be consulted by the Governor, and the latter would not use his discretionary powers. The Governor refused to give such an assurance. In such an eventuality the Congress decided not to accept office. This led to an unconstitutional action by the Governor in setting up a council of ministers consisting of Dr. Raghavendra Rao and others who had no following. On 1st April 1937, the ministry took office. To save the ignominy of defeat for this puppet cabinet, the Governor did not summon the meeting of the Assembly. The elected members on the other hand met at Nagpur and elected a speaker and a deputy speaker and condemned the previous ministry. This provoked an unprecedented constitutional crisis. Ultimately the Government of India gave in and declared that the Governor would at all time be concerned

to carry his ministers with him. On this background the puppet ministry resigned and the Congress which had accepted the clarification by the Government formed its first ministry on 14th July 1937, headed by Dr. Khare. The ministry carried out many useful reforms in social, educational and economic fields. It was, however, faced with an immediate crisis regarding the question of responsibility of the ministers. Dr. Khare argued that the ministers could be responsible to the local members alone whereas the Congress insisted that the ministers were responsible to the central parliamentary board of the party. Dr. Khare resigned on this issue and a new ministry was formed with Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla as the Chief Minister. The assumption of power by the representatives of the people changed the entire tone of public administration. In the midst of the working of the popular ministries the Congress held its successive sessions in Haripura (1938), and Tripuri (1939) in the Central Provinces. Events followed in quick succession after Tripuri. Soon after the second World War began. The Congress whole-heartedly supported the cause of the allies in their fight against Nazi Germany. It, however, reiterated its stand that the issue of war and peace for India must be decided by the Indian people. When the Congress Working Committee met at Wardha on 8th September 1939, it demanded the right of self determination for the Indian people for framing their own constitution through a constituent assembly. The Government desided this outlook of the Congress and called it as ill-timed and calculated to cause embarrassment to England in its life and death struggle. The viceroy invited the leaders of various political parties including the Congress for interviews. He spoke of the progressive attainment of dominion status. There was, however, an ominous note in his statement which said that "representatives of the minorities have urged most strongly on me the necessity of a clear assurance that full weight would be given to their views and interests in any modification that may be contemplated." This could at best be described as an attempt by the Government to drive a wedge between the Congress which represented the national feeling and the minorities, especially the Muslims who were showing restive signs under the leadership of Jinnah. The statement also displayed complete lack of vision and statesmanship on the part of the Government of India. The Congress could not accept such a situation and directed the Congress ministers to resign. The Congress ministers resigned. The League Working Committee congratulated the Government for repudiating the claim of Congress to represent India and extended its whole-hearted co-operation in the prosecution of War. Again infructuous interviews with political leaders by the viceroy including Gandhiji and Jinnah followed. However no common ground for co-operation was discerned. This, however, brought the Muslim League closer to the Government. The viceroy wooed the League which responded with protestations of injured innocence. The solicitude and eagerness on the part of the Government to placate the Muslim sentiment was a counterpoise to the Congress. Before the ministry in the Central

Provinces resigned, a debate on the resolution of War took place in which the Chief Minister compared the partisan attitude of the Government with Nazi techniques. The Muslim league true to its form, repeated its familiar allegation against the Congress. With the resignation of the ministry, the parliamentary form of Government came to an end in the Province. Jinnah, loath to lose any opportunity to belittle the Congress gave a call to the Muslims to observe 22nd December 1939 as a day of deliverance from the Congress rule. He did not want the Congress even to quit office in a blaze of approbation. The resignations by the ministries foreshadowed a storm ahead and the working committee which met at Wardha from 18th to 22nd December gave a call to the nation to prepare itself for the achievement of complete independence. It was at this critical time that Jinnah put forward his two nation theory and demanded a separate state for Muslims. Meanwhile the war situation was worsening for the allies. The Congress again renewed its offer of whole-hearted co-operation in the war efforts if only Britain would declare the grant of complete independence to Indians as its object and as an immediate step consent to the formation of national government at the centre. The Viceroy came out with what later became known as the August offer which meant nothing so as to include a few more Indians. The August offer was unequivocally rejected by the Congress. In this situation *satyagraha* became inevitable. However the mode of *satyagraha* was to be such as would not embarrass the Government. In other words the *satyagraha* was to be individual and not collective. The individual *satyagraha* gradually gained momentum. From the Central Provinces the arrested leaders included Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla, D. P. Mishra, Gokhale, Seth Govinda Das, Brijlal Biyani and C. J. Bharucha. The stand of the Muslim League was not only not sympathetic but adamant and obstructive. In its meet at Madras in 1941 it reaffirmed in the strongest possible terms the demand for Pakistan. Not content with this Jinnah tried to disrupt Hindu society by suggesting the creation of Dravidistan. The British Government was still following its policy of placating the Muslims. This was amply revealed by the manner in which one of the Muslim League leaders, Siddique Ali Khan, of the Central Provinces, charged under the Defence of India Act for instigating riots in Amravati, was released at the instance of the Government of India. The war situation in the meanwhile grew worse with the entry of Japan. With the dire peril of war on the very door of the country the Government released all the political prisoners. The bombing on the eastern coast created a panic among the masses and there was a stream of refugees from Malaya and Burma into India. The Congress Working Committee met at Bardoli on 22nd December 1941, but did not evolve a clear cut line of action. In the midst of this came the Cripps offer in March 1942. The offer was vague in its contents and unsound in principle. It was rejected by the Congress as a post-dated cheque on a tottering bank. Jinnah also rejected the offer. The whole episode brought in its train frustration and an enervating

feeling of despair. It convinced the leaders of the country that the interest of the country lay in the immediate and orderly withdrawal of the British from India. From this conviction was born the slogan Quit India which was soon to plunge the country into a great movement. The Congress Working Committee which met at Wardha on 14th July reiterated this stand and resolved in case of its non-acceptance to use all non-violent means for the vindication of the political rights and liberty of the people of the country. Anticipating *satyagraha*, the Government of the Central Provinces issued directives to all the Deputy Commissioners to mobilise resources to deal with the situation arising out of such an emergency. The Congress Working Committee was to meet in Bombay in August. The leaders from the Central Provinces left their headquarters for Bombay after exhorting people to carry on the struggle. The 'Quit India' call came on the night of 8th August. All the top-ranking leaders were arrested in the early hours of the morning. The masses were stunned at the news of the arrest of the leaders. An added provocation was the forces of repression used by the Government to crush the movement. The leaders of Central Provinces decided to return to their own Provinces but were arrested at Malkapur. The mass movement spread to the Central Provinces as in all other parts of the country. It took a violent turn as a result of indiscriminate police firing. The district of Buldhana had its own share in this great national uprising. The effect of the policy of repression followed by the Government was to drive the extremist leaders underground. The dawn of 1943 saw no abating of the nationwide unrest. In the meanwhile the tide of war was changing in favour of the allies. But the leaders languished in jail. Months passed by. The place of Lord Linlithgow was taken by Lord Wavell in June 1943. The years dragged on. The war came to a close and the allies emerged victorious in both the western and eastern theatres of war. The days of frustration seemed to have ended. Efforts were afoot to solve the Indian tangle. In the midst of an expectant atmosphere Lord Wavell presented the famous Wavell plan in June 1945. The leaders of the Congress were released to facilitate their participation in the negotiations with the Viceroy. The plan envisaged representation to the main parties in the Viceroy's Council. Jinnah, however, proved to be the main stumbling block because even with the grant of parity to the Muslims in the council with the Hindus he could not deny majority to the Congress backed by Hindus and other minority communities. A deadlock was thus created. The Viceroy saw another opening to the problem in the light of the verdict of the electorate and announced that the elections to the central and provincial council would take place soon. This was followed by the announcement of a parliamentary delegation to visit India in order to establish personal contacts between India and the British Parliament. The delegation subsequently visited India. Meanwhile in the elections Congress won a resounding victory. In the Central Provinces it captured 94 out of 112 seats. It also gave a lie to the separatist propaganda of the Muslim

League by claiming a majority in the North-West Frontier Province and Assam claimed by the Muslims. In the Central Provinces, Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla formed the ministry on 27th April 1946. On assumption of office it released all political prisoners. However, conditions in the provinces whose resources had all been drained by the six years of war were not very happy. In the midst of this came the Cabinet Mission composed of Lord Pethick Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps and A. V. Alexander for crucial talks with Indian leaders. There was good-will on both the sides. What emerged from the talks was a general agreement regarding the setting up of a Constituent Assembly to draft a constitution of India and the formation of an interim government having the support of the major political parties. But the Muslim League again proved a stumbling block with Jinnah claiming the right of the League to nominate Muslim candidates on the interim cabinet. The interim cabinet, therefore, could not come into being immediately and the League gave a call for direct action which was aimed at securing Pakistan by inflaming communal riots, leading to senseless massacre of innocents. In the Central Provinces isolated cases of disturbances occurred. In the meanwhile Lord Wavell invited 12 leaders of his choice to form his cabinet including Nehru, Patel, Rajendra Prasad and Rajagopalachari. This was a spectacle galling to Jinnah who now sent the names of five of his nominees for inclusion in the cabinet declaring that it was with the ostensible purpose of getting a "foothold to fight for our cherished goal of Pakistan". The entry of the League which had not withdrawn its call for direct action was not to the liking of the Congress. The League joined the cabinet now but it refused to join the Constituent Assembly which created a very anomalous position. The intention of the British Government to divide the country became clear. It was now that Lord Mountbatten was appointed to succeed Lord Wavell. At the same time the labour Government declared its intention to transfer power into responsible Indian hands by a date not later than June 1948. The arrival of the viceroy was greeted by a frenzy of communal riots in Punjab, N.W.F.P. and Assam sparked by the League mainly to discredit the Congress Governments there. The game of the League now become apparent and the nationalist leaders were forced to realise that freedom for the country could be gained by partitioning the country. Jawaharlal Nehru declared that if Muslim League wanted Pakistan they could have it. Northern India now witnessed an atmosphere of tense anxiety in the following period. Lord Mountbatten left for England for consultation on 18th May 1947 and on his return called a conference on 22nd June to which he invited J. Nehru, S. Patel, A. Kripalani, Jinnah, L. A. Khan, Abdur Rab Nishtar and Sardar Baldev Singh. A plan to partition India into two states *viz.*, India and Pakistan was announced the next day. The actual transfer of power took place on the midnight of 14th-15th August amidst wild scenes of jubilations. Similar scenes occurred in the Central Provinces where Mangaldas Pakwasa took oath

as free India's first Governor of the Province of which the district of Buldhana formed an integral part.

INDEPENDENCE AND AFTER

From 1947 to 1956 the district of Buldhana along with the other districts of Vidarbha region continued to form part of the Central Provinces. With the reorganization of states in 1956, Buldhana along with the other districts of Vidarbha was transferred to the bilingual State of Bombay which came into existence in that year. In 1960 with the formation of the State of Maharashtra it formed part of the newly created State.

Since Independence the district has made commendable progress in economic, social and educational fields. This has been mainly the result of a liberal policy of socio-economic reforms followed by the government which is dedicated to the programme aimed at the implementation of the socialistic pattern of society. Over a period of years the population of the district has increased from 6,17,990 in 1901 to 12,62,978 in 1971. The population has mainly remained agricultural though agriculture is not today bound by the orthodoxy and conservatism that haunted it in the past. The farmer has become more conscious to the changing needs of time and the various measures undertaken by the government such as provision of irrigation facilities, supply of better seeds and chemical fertilizers, introduction of modern methods of production including tractors, etc., have contributed immensely to the productivity of agriculture.

In no lesser degree has the progressive legislation such as:

- (i) Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947;
- (ii) Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958;
- (iii) Central Provinces Tenancy Act, 1920;
- (iv) Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950;
- (v) Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954; and
- (vi) Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, undertaken by the government contributed to the prosperity of agriculture in the district, which has been reflected in the increasing living standards of the people. As in agriculture so in industry the efforts of the government have been directed towards bringing about a balanced growth of the district economy by encouraging industrial development. The increase in the number of persons employed in industry and allied occupations over a period of time is not the only indication of the industrial growth of the district but the growing urbanization that has taken place during the last 25 years, the response that the government's policy of encouraging industrial growth by inaugurating industrial estates has received in the district as also the change in the nature and composition of industrial organisation in the district

are also the definite indicators of the same. That the government is conscious to the needs of the industry in the district in regard to its demand for capital and adequate labour force could be seen from the financial help extended by it through various institutions both at the district and state levels as also by various measures undertaken by it in regard to labour welfare in general and for improvement of labour conditions in regard to wages, hours of work, etc., in particular, as for example:—

- (i) Industrial Disputes Act, 1926 ;
- (ii) Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 ;
- (iii) Industrial Disputes Act, 1956 ;
- (iv) Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 ;
- (v) The Trade Unions Bill, 1950 ;
- (vi) The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 ;
- (vii) The Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946 ;
- (viii) Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1953 and
- (ix) Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946.

This progress which the district economy has achieved has been made possible due to the ambitious five-year plans the government has executed during the course of the last 20 years. Planned economy or attempt at deliberate economic growth which was unknown in the past has now become the watch-word in practically every field of the socio-economic life of the district and in the immense progress the economy of the district has made during the last few years.

This measure of progress which the district has achieved could not be possible without an enlightened public opinion. The policy of the State has been to encourage education and thereby create and perpetuate a sound public opinion. The progress, the district has made in this field could be seen from the increase in the number of educational institutions and the students taking advantage of them.

This progress in educational field has created a mass of enlightened electorate and has set in motion a liberal spirit that has transcended the bounds of social division which for so long had retarded the progress towards social and economic reforms. To-day no one no longer has a feeling of being persecuted or oppressed but everyone feels himself to be the part and parcel of the community of which he or she is a member. This liberalism has also destroyed the spirit of individualism and self-interest and individuals today have cast away their feeling of apathy towards their fellow beings and are moved by a sense of brotherliness and fraternity. The role of the State is definitely significant in creating such a positive approach on the part of the individuals towards life in general and their problem in relation to State in particular. The importance of associating the people with the

administration and the working of the district in particular and of the State in general was recognised by the State and was reflected in various measures undertaken by the State particularly the inauguration of the Zilla Parishad in the year 1962.

During the last 25 years or so after independence the country witnessed vast changes in the politico-economic fields. Thrice the country had to face foreign aggression. These phenomena and their repercussions though in a small degree were reflected in the day-to-day life of the district. Though local problems never turned the minds of the people from wider problems of national importance they definitely influenced the people of the district. Local leadership developed on the same lines as the national one and people were taken away by varying senses of loyalties and alignments. Such local problems were either of a political, social or religious nature for example:—

- (i) Problem of election,
- (ii) Problem of literacy and education,
- (iii) Insufficiency of factors of industrial production,
- (iv) Lack of sufficient transport facilities,
- (v) Problem of unemployment,
- (vi) Low standard of living,
- (vii) Inadequacy of water-supply.

But the people as well as the leadership never made these issues preponderate over the national emergency. The people of the district responded magnanimously at the time of the Chinese and Pakistani invasions and showed the spirit of oneness that had permeated through them for generations. For creating such a feeling of oneness, union and solidarity amongst the people of the district, the state and local leadership was mainly responsible. However, the horizons are wide, the progress to be achieved is immeasurable and the obstacles are many but the people of the district with glorious traditions of the past are definitely well-equipped to overcome these obstacles and to continue their onward march to further and better progress and growth.

CHAPTER 3 — THE PEOPLE*

POPULATION

ACCORDING TO 1971 CENSUS, BULDHANA DISTRICT accommodates 1,262,978 persons (m. 646,303; f. 616,675) as spread over its five tahsils. The following table gives the tahsil-wise population of Buldhana district in 1971:—

TABLE No. 1
TAHSIL-WISE POPULATION OF BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

Tahsil	Total Rural Urban	Area in km ²	Popula- tion per km ²	Population		
				Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Chikhli ..	Total ..	2,393.1	136	325,860	166,622	159,238
	Rural ..	2,371.8	114	270,456	136,917	133,539
	Urban ..	21.3	2,600	55,404	29,705	25,699
Malkapur ..	Total ..	1,686.1	159	268,235	137,015	131,220
	Rural ..	1,678.9	127	212,500	108,094	104,406
	Urban ..	7.2	7,720	55,735	28,921	26,814
Jalgaon ..	Total ..	1,227.7	114	139,829	71,280	68,549
	Rural ..	1,225.1	102	125,041	63,621	61,420
	Urban ..	2.6	5,644	14,788	7,659	7,129
Khamgaon ..	Total ..	1,838.9	130	238,160	122,603	115,557
	Rural ..	1,819.7	87	158,475	80,863	77,612
	Urban ..	19.2	4,152	79,685	41,740	37,945
Mehkar ..	Total ..	2,608.1	112	290,894	148,783	142,111
	Rural ..	2,600.9	106	274,698	140,263	134,435
	Urban ..	7.2	2,240	16,196	8,520	7,676
District Total	Total ..	9,753.9	130	1,262,978	646,303	616,675
	Rural ..	9,696.4	107	1,041,170	529,758	511,412
	Urban ..	57.5	3,853	221,808	116,545	105,263

* A part of the material for this chapter has been supplied by Shri T. V. Parvate, Bombay.

The table given above shows that the population of 1,262,978 is spread over the district area of 9,753.9 km² which works out at about 129 persons to a km². Of this 1,041,170 persons or 82.44 per cent are distributed over the rural area of 9,696.4 km² and the remaining 221,808 or 17.56 per cent over the urban area of 57.5 km². This shows a very low percentage of urbanisation in the district.

Variation in population 1901—1971.—The population of the district and decade variation rates since 1901 are given in the following statement. The figures for the earlier Censuses are however, adjusted to the present boundaries of the district. The statement, therefore, contains comparable figures for a study of growth of population during the last 70 years.

Year	Population	Decade Variation	Rate of Variation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1901	617,990	..	..
1911	673,698	+55,708	+9.01
1921	703,643	+29,945	+4.44
1931	766,584	+62,941	+8.95
1941	820,862	+54,278	+7.08
1951	870,168	+49,306	+6.01
1961	1,059,698	+189,530	+21.78
1971	1,262,978	+203,280	+19.18

The district population had increased comparatively with a very low rate varying between 4.44 per cent in 1911—21 and 9.01 per cent in 1901—11. It has been so in the neighbouring districts of Nagpur Division also. But there has been a radical change and the population in 1951—61 had increased by 21.78 per cent which is not only the highest rate of growth observed for the district so far but the absolute growth in the decade is also larger than the total growth of population in the earlier 30 years, i.e., from 1921 to 1951. Though the rate of growth of the district population in 1961—71 is slightly lower than in 1951—61, the absolute growth of population in the decade is quite larger.

The high increase in the population during the decades 1951—61 and 1961—71 is the result of control of epidemics and other diseases since 1950. Malaria, which used to be a major public health problem in the district has been controlled by DDT spraying. Campaigns for B.C.G. and vaccination against small-pox also have their share in improving the survival rate. The death rate has thus been reduced and has resulted in higher growth rate although the birth rate may not have increased at all.

The 1951—61 decade variation for the district and each of the tahsils is as follows :—

	Percentage Variation 1951—61
Buldhana District	+21.78
1. Jalgaon Tahsil	+26.22
2. Malkapur Tahsil	+16.08
3. Khamgaon Tahsil	+21.78
4. Chikhli Tahsil	+26.62
5. Mehkar Tahsil	+20.64

The net percentage increase since 1901, 1921 and 1961 for the district and the State was as follows :—

Period	Buldhana district	Maharashtra
(1)	(2)	(3)
1901—1971	+104.37	+159.57
1921—1961	+50.60	+89.71
1961—1971	+19.18	+27.45

Since 1901 the population of the district increased by 104.37 per cent against nearly 160 per cent for Maharashtra. During 1921—1961 the district population increased by 50.60 per cent against 89.71 per cent for the State.

Density of population.—The density of population in Maharashtra and Buldhana district in 1961 and 1971 is given below :—

	1961		1971	
	Density per sq. mile	Percentage of District Population	Density per km ²	Percentage of District Population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Maharashtra State ..	334	..	164	..
Buldhana District ..	281	100.00	130	100.00
Jalgaon Tahsil	244	10.90	136	11.07
Malkapur Tahsil	368	22.58	159	21.24
Khamgaon Tahsil	298	19.97	114	18.86
Chikhli Tahsil	280	24.45	130	25.80
Mehkar Tahsil	233	22.10	112	23.03

The density of population in the district increased from 187 persons per square mile in 1921 to 281 persons per square mile in 1961. Density in the district and the State was equal in 1901 (i.e. 164). It was higher for the district in 1921 than that of the State (182). The district density has however, been lower than the State average since 1931.

Density of population in 1971 varies from 112 persons per square km in Mehkar tahsil to 159 persons per square km in Malkapur tahsil. These differences generally correspond to those of topography and land utilisation.

The concentration of population in 1971 is more in Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils. Rural density is higher in Malkapur and Chikhli tahsils while urban density is higher in Khangaon and Jalgaon tahsils. Malkapur tahsil is known for rich black cotton soil, whereas Chikhli tahsil with medium black soil is well known for wheat crop.

Urban population.—The table overleaf gives the growth and percentage decade variation of urban population in the district since 1901.

The number of towns, the rate of decade variation in urban population and the percentage of urban population to total population at each Census since 1901 in the district and the State are as follows :—

Year	Buldhana District			Maharashtra		
	No. of towns	Rate of variation in urban population	Percentage of urban population to total population	No. of towns	Rate of variation in urban population	Percentage of urban population to total population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1901 ..	9	..	13.48	219	..	16.59
1911 ..	9	—18.60	10.07	232	+0.99	15.13
1921 ..	9	+31.38	12.66	238	+18.72	18.50
1931 ..	9	+17.61	13.67	258	+15.54	18.60
1941 ..	9	+13.15	14.44	266	+27.11	21.11
1951 ..	9	+21.11	16.50	383	+62.42	28.75
1961 ..	9	+22.17	16.56	266	+21.32	28.22
1971 ..	9	+26.43	17.56	289	+40.75	31.16

TABLE No. 2
TOWNS CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION IN 1971 WITH VARIATIONS SINCE 1901, BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Name of town (1)	Status of town (2)	Year (3)	Area (4) Sq. km.	Persons (5)	Decade Variation (6)	Percentage Decade Variation (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
District urban population	..	1901 1911 1921 1931 1941 1951 1961 1971	 57.57	83,315 67,822 89,105 104,792 118,571 143,597 175,438 221,808	.. —15,493 +21,283 +15,687 +13,779 +25,026 +31,841 +46,370	.. —18.60 +31.38 +17.61 +13.15 +21.11 +22.17 +26.43	42,798 35,347 46,276 55,470 61,364 74,257 92,181 116,545	40,517 32,475 42,829 49,322 57,207 69,340 83,257 105,263
Khangaon	(M)	1901 1911 1921 1931 1941		18,341 10,123 19,962 23,462 26,402	.. —8,218 +9,839 +3,500 +2,940	.. —44.81 +97.19 +17.53 +12.53	9,470 5,545 10,664 13,113 13,770	8,871 4,578 9,298 10,349 12,632

(M) = Municipality.

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TABLE No. 2—contd.

Name of town (1)	Status of town (2)	Year (3)	Area (4)	Persons (5)	Decade Variation (6)	Percentage Decade Variation (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
Khamgaon—contd.	(M)	1951	Sq. km. ..	36,734	+10,332	+39.13	19,102	17,632
		1961	..	44,432	+7,698	+20.96	23,437	20,995
		1971	13.36	53,692	+9,260	+20.84	28,216	25,476
Malkapur	(M)	1901	..	13,112	..	..	6,762	6,350
		1911	..	12,391	-721	-5.50	6,463	5,928
		1921	..	14,947	+2,556	+20.63	7,851	7,096
		1931	..	17,565	+2,618	+17.52	9,350	8,215
		1941	..	20,598	+3,033	+17.27	10,684	9,914
		1951	..	24,941	+4,343	+21.08	12,802	12,139
		1961	..	29,687	+4,746	+19.03	15,512	14,175
		1971	1.55	35,476	+5,789	+19.50	18,417	17,059
Shegaon	(M)	1901	..	15,057	..	..	7,815	7,242
		1911	..	11,962	-3,095	-20.56	6,290	5,672
		1921	..	14,531	+2,569	+21.48	7,519	7,012

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Nandura	(M)	1931	..	14,699	+168	+1.16	7,583	7,116
		1941	..	15,294	+595	+4.05	7,886	7,408
		1951	..	18,655	+3,361	+21.98	9,639	9,016
		1961	..	21,674	+3,019	+16.18	11,204	10,470
		1971	5.83	25,993	+4,319	+19.93	13,524	12,469
		1901	..	6,669	..	..	3,430	3,239
		1911	..	6,794	+125	+1.87	3,464	3,330
Buldhana	(M)	1921	..	6,667	-127	-1.87	3,353	3,314
		1931	..	11,212	+4,545	+68.17	5,675	5,537
		1941	..	13,292	+2,080	+18.55	6,758	6,534
		1951	..	15,722	+2,430	+18.28	8,108	7,614
		1961	..	17,405	+1,683	+10.70	9,072	8,333
		1971	5.67	20,259	+2,854	+16.40	10,504	9,755
		1901	..	4,137	..	..	2,225	1,912
		1911	..	3,820	-317	-7.66	2,037	1,783
		1921	..	5,691	+1,871	+48.98	2,992	2,699
		1931	..	7,504	+1,813	+31.86	4,208	3,296
		1941	..	8,849	+1,345	+17.92	4,671	4,178
		1951	..	10,797	+1,948	+22.01	5,723	5,074
		1961	..	15,985	+5,188	+48.05	8,798	7,187

TABLE No. 2—contd.

Name of town (1)	Status of town (2)	Year (3)	Area (4)	Persons (5)	Decade Variation (6)	Percentage Decade Variation (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
Buldhana—contd.	(M)	1971	Sq. km. 3.96	25,303	+9,318	+58.29	13,749	11,554
Chikhli	(M)	1901	..	5,889	..	..	3,029	2,860
		1911	..	4,731	-1,158	-19.66	2,406	2,325
		1921	..	6,093	+1,362	+28.79	3,164	2,929
		1931	..	7,041	+948	+15.56	3,663	3,378
		1941	..	8,480	+1,439	+20.44	4,381	4,099
		1951	..	10,547	+2,067	+24.38	5,489	5,058
		1961	..	13,499	+2,952	+27.99	7,231	6,268
		1971	13.49	18,634	+5,135	+38.04	9,936	8,698
Jalgaon	(M)	1901	..	8,487	..	..	4,217	4,270
		1911	..	7,552	-935	-11.02	3,851	3,701
		1921	..	10,207	+2,655	+35.16	5,181	5,026
		1931	..	10,463	+256	+2.51	5,248	5,215
		1941	..	10,599	+136	+1.30	5,413	5,186

1951	..	9,764	-835	-7.88	4,936	4,828
1961	..	12,117	+2,353	+24.10	6,172	5,945
1971	2.62	14,788	+2,671	+22.04	7,659	7,129
1901	..	5,330	..	..	2,706	2,624
1911	..	4,423	-907	-17.02	2,279	2,144
1921	..	5,831	+1,408	+31.83	2,989	2,842
1931	..	7,009	+1,178	+20.20	3,694	3,315
1941	..	8,257	+1,248	+17.81	4,289	3,968
1951	..	9,256	+999	+12.10	4,821	4,435
1961	..	11,872	+2,616	+28.26	6,231	5,641
1971	7.23	16,196	+4,324	+36.42	8,520	7,676
1901	..	6,293	..	..	3,144	3,149
1911	..	6,026	-267	-4.24	3,012	3,014
1921	..	5,176	-850	-14.11	3,563	2,613
1931	..	5,837	+661	+12.77	2,936	2,901
1941	..	6,800	+963	+16.50	3,512	3,288
1951	..	7,181	+381	+5.60	3,637	3,544
1961	..	8,767	+1,586	+22.09	4,524	4,243
1971	3.86	11,467	+2,700	+30.80	6,020	5,447

The net growth in urban population of the district in 1971 over that of 1901 is 166.23 per cent as against 388.35 per cent for the State.

The district is less urbanised than Maharashtra as a whole. The proportion of urban population decreased both for the district and the State in 1911. Since then it has gradually increased. The number of towns has remained constant at nine since 1901. The redefinition of urban areas in the 1961 Census had no effect on the number of towns in the district, though it made a significant change for the State as a whole.

The 1951—61 growth of urban population has been at a higher rate (22.17 per cent) than the State average. But in 1961—71, growth of urban population of the State has been at a higher rate than the district average.

Khamgaon is the most important commercial centre in the district. The population of this town increased by 192.74 per cent in 1971 over 1901 and by 168.97 per cent over 1921. Malkapur is another important commercial centre in the district. Its population increased by 170.56 per cent in 1971 over 1901 and by 137.34 per cent over 1921.

Rural population.—The following table shows, for the district and for each tahsil, the number of inhabited villages and their population for each class of villages:—

TABLE No. 3

VILLAGES CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

(1)	District Total	Jalgaon tahsil	Malka- pur tahsil	Kham- gaon tahsil	Chikhli tahsil	Mehkar tahsil
Total number of inhabited villages.	.. 1,232	167	255	213	278	319
Total Rural population.	P. 1,041,170 M. 529,758 F. 511,412	125,041 63,621	212,500 108,094 104,406	158,475 80,863 17,612	270,456 136,917 133,539	274,693 140,263 134,435
Villages with less than 2,000 population—						
Less than 200	M. 3,10,018 F. 9,407	2,446 2,307	1,987 1,908	2,507 2,305	1,311 1,217	1,767 1,670
No. of villages	198	46	49	39	29	33
200—499	M. 55,739 F. 53,865	7,585 7,298	11,407 11,047	9,402 8,711	10,983 10,844	16,722 15,965
No. of villages	.. 313	44	65	56	59	89
500—999	M. 143,827 F. 139,622	18,201 17,495	25,833 25,004	23,527 22,657	35,374 34,559	40,892 39,907
No. of villages	.. 394	50	70	64	96	114

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TABLE No. 3—contd.

(1)	District Total	Jalgaon tahsil	Malka- pur tahsil	Kham- gaon tahsil	Chikhli tahsil	Mehkar tahsil
1,000—1,999 ..	M. 165,377 F. 159,957	10,070 9,684	35,590 34,494	31,791 30,656	46,773 45,470	41,153 39,653
No. of villages	.. 238	14	50	46	68	60
Villages with a Population of 2,000—9,999—						
2,000—4,999 ..	M. 111,853 F. 107,469	13,386 12,850	30,350 29,106	10,626 10,041	33,217 32,428	24,274 23,044
No. of villages	.. 76	9	20	7	23	17
5,000—9,999 ..	M. 42,944 F. 41,092	11,933 11,786	2,927 2,847	3,370 3,242	9,259 9,021	15,455 14,916
No. of villages	.. 13	4	1	1	3	4

The rates of variation in rural population and the percentage of rural population to total population of the district and the State since 1901 are as follows:—

Year	Buldhana district		Maharashtra	
	Rate of variation in rural population	Percentage of rural population to total population	Rate of variation in rural population	Percentage of rural population to total population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1901	..	86.52	..	83.41
1911	+13.32	98.93	+12.68	84.87
1921	+1.43	87.34	—6.77	81.50
1931	+7.69	86.33	+14.77	81.40
1941	+6.12	85.56	+8.54	78.89
1951	+3.46	83.50	+7.72	71.25
1961	+21.70	83.44	+24.51	71.78
1971	+17.74	82.44	+22.22	68.83

The net increase in rural population of the district has been 94.73 per cent in 1971 over that of 1901 and 69.42 per cent over that of 1921. The corresponding figures for the State are 114.54 per cent and 104.21 per cent, respectively.

The rates of variation in rural population have never followed any regular trend. Except for the decade 1901—11 the urban population had grown faster at the expense of rural population. As a result, the rural population increased at a lower rate than the total population. The percentage of rural population gradually decreased for the district since 1911.

Size of villages.—The distribution of population by size of villages for the district and the State in 1971 is as follows:—

Size Class (1)	Buldhana district		Maharashtra	
	Percentage of villages to total No. of villages (2)	Percentage of population to total rural population (3)	Percentage of villages to total No. of villages (4)	Percentage of population to total rural population (5)
Less than 500 ..	41.48	12.39	39.52	10.68
500—999 ..	31.98	27.22	29.43	21.80
1,000—1,999 ..	19.32	31.25	20.79	29.40
2,000—4,999 ..	6.17	21.07	8.67	25.87
5,000 and over ..	1.05	8.07	1.59	12.25

Villages with less than 1,000 population are 73.46 per cent of the total number of villages in the district and account for 39.61 per cent of the district rural population. Villages with more than 1,000 population are 26.54 per cent of the total number of villages and account for 60.39 per cent of the district rural population. More than 55 per cent of the rural population of the district is concentrated in villages with population between 500 and 1,999.

The average population per village in 1961 was 722 in the district as against 792 in Maharashtra. An average village in the district thus had a little less population than the average in the State.

The area, number of inhabited villages, total rural population and average number of inhabited villages per tahsil in 1971 are shown below for the State and district separately:—

(1)	Area in sq. km. (rural) (2)	No. of inhabited villages (3)	Total rural population (4)	Average No. of inhabited villages per tahsil (5)
Maharashtra ..	3,01,611.0	35,778	3,47,01,024	154
Buldhana district ..	9,687.5	1,232	1,04,11,70	246

Migration.—According to 1961 Census*, out of total population of 1,059,698 (m. 541,026; f. 518,672), 632,875 (m. 397,356; f. 235,519) or 59.81 per cent were enumerated at the places of birth. This percentage for males was 73.54 but for females it was only 45.48. The difference was due to women marrying outside their places of birth. This migration of females on marriage is revealed by a very high proportion of females among those born elsewhere in the district. The females have a preponderance over males even among the migrants from other districts of Maharashtra. The following statement gives proportions of population by places of birth.

(1)	Total population (2)	Place of enumeration (3)	Elsewhere in the district (4)	Outside the district but in Maharashtra (5)	Outside Maharashtra (6)
Persons	1,059,698	632,875	305,424	105,840	14,064
Males	541,026	397,356	100,858	34,709	7,408
Females	518,672	235,519	204,566	71,131	6,656
Percentage to total population—					
Persons	100.00	59.81	28.86	10.00	1.33
Males	100.00	73.54	18.67	6.42	1.37
Females	100.00	45.48	39.50	13.74	1.28

Age and Marital Status.—The percentages of population for broad age-groups classified by marital status, as per 1961 Census* are shown in the statement overleaf.

*1971 Census statistics are not available.

Age-group	Total	Marital Status							
		Never married		Married		Widowed		Divorced or separated	
		Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)
(1)	(2)								
0—14	100	99.14	93.77	0.84	6.06	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.10
15—34	100	32.89	4.61	63.92	90.27	1.75	2.83	1.44	2.29
35—54	100	1.70	0.44	88.22	70.82	8.42	27.03	1.66	1.71
55+	100	1.11	0.13	76.41	22.48	21.56	76.80	0.92	0.59
All ages	100	51.27	39.89	44.00	46.86	3.87	12.09	0.86	1.16

LANGUAGES*

The following table (No. 4) gives the population by nine major languages for the district and each tahsil and town separately.

The distribution of languages by rural and urban areas of the district in 1961 is as follows :—

Language (1)	Percentage to total population			Percentage of each language in	
	Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)	Rural areas (5)	Urban areas (6)
(1) Banjari	0.46	0.54	0.06	98.00	2.00
(2) Gujarati	0.47	0.18	1.94	31.73	68.27
(3) Hindi	4.50	2.82	13.01	52.19	47.81
(4) Kachchi	0.04	N	0.21	5.14	94.86
(5) Korku	0.19	0.23	N	99.90	0.10
(6) Marathi	83.82	88.48	60.32	88.09	11.91
(7) Sindhi	0.24	N	1.44	1.75	98.25
(8) Telugu	0.59	0.59	0.57	83.71	16.29
(9) Urdu	9.53	7.05	22.05	61.69	38.31
(10) Others	0.16	0.11	0.40	58.04	41.96
(11) All languages ..	100.00	100.00	100.00	83.44	16.56

N = Negligible

* 1971 Census statistics are still not available.

TABLE No. 4
POPULATION BY LANGUAGES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1961.

District/Tahsil (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Banjari		Gujarati		Hindi		Kachchi		Korku	
		Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)	Males (11)	Females (12)
District ..	Total ..	2,566	2,327	2,604	2,373	25,518	22,209	231	158	967	1,076
	Rural ..	2,512	2,283	809	770	13,044	11,864	12	8	965	1,076
	Urban ..	54	44	1,795	1,603	12,474	10,345	219	150	2	..
Jalgaon tahsil ..	Total ..	..	..	341	345	2,497	2,299	1	..	943	1,057
	Rural ..	..	..	132	138	2,041	1,871	1	..	942	1,057
	Urban ..	..	..	209	207	456	428	..	..	1	..
Malkapur tahsil ..	Total ..	1,106	955	503	400	5,322	4,752	52	39	1	..
	Rural ..	1,104	955	168	148	2,571	2,347	1	3	..	..
	Urban ..	2	..	335	252	2,751	2,405	51	36	1	..
Khamgaon tahsil ..	Total ..	23	2	1,253	1,177	7,341	6,348	117	92	..	..
	Rural ..	22	2	213	206	1,775	1,380	..	..	..	..
	Urban ..	1	..	1,040	971	5,566	4,968	117	92	..	..

THE PEOPLE

LANGUAGES

District/Tahsil (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Banjari		Gujarati		Hindi		Kachchi		Korku	
		Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)	Males (11)	Females (12)
Chikhli tahsil ..	Total ..	1,351	1,323	316	288	5,619	4,533	36	18	23	19
	Rural ..	1,337	1,321	134	137	2,765	2,796	4	5	23	19
	Urban ..	14	2	182	151	2,854	1,737	32	13	..	..
Mehkar tahsil ..	Total ..	86	47	191	163	4,739	4,277	25	9	..	..
	Rural ..	49	5	162	141	3,892	3,470	6	..	..	..
	Urban ..	37	42	29	22	847	807	19	9	..	..
TOWNS											
Jalgaon (M) ..	..	..	..	209	207	456	428	..	..	1	..
Malkapur (M) ..	..	2	..	301	230	2,033	1,753	42	30	1	..
Nandura (M) ..	..	..	..	34	22	718	652	9	6	..	..
Shegaon (M) ..	..	..	..	126	157	1,192	947	22	4	..	..
Khamgaon (M) ..	..	1	..	914	814	4,374	4,021	95	88	..	..
Buldhana (M) ..	..	7	1	54	40	1,151	537	16	7	..	..
Chikhli (M) ..	..	7	1	77	49	1,229	782	16	6	..	..
Deulgaon Raja (M) ..	..	..	..	51	62	474	418	..	..	..	..
Mehkar (M) ..	..	37	42	29	22	847	807	19	9	..	..

TABLE No. 4 — contd.

District/Tahsil (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Marathi		Sindhi		Telugu		Urdu		Others	
		Males (13)	Females (14)	Males (15)	Females (16)	Males (17)	Females (18)	Males (19)	Females (20)	Males (21)	Females (22)
District ..	Total ..	451,468	436,736	1,377	1,193	3,258	2,956	52,032	48,969	1,005	675
	Rural ..	396,333	386,052	42	3	2,686	2,516	31,832	30,478	610	365
	Urban ..	55,135	50,684	1,335	1,190	572	440	20,200	18,491	395	310
Jalgaon tahsil ..	Total ..	50,013	48,275	3	..	74	50	4,759	4,823	53	18
	Rural ..	46,037	44,364	2	..	70	49	3,238	3,429	49	14
	Urban ..	3,976	3,911	1	..	4	1	1,521	1,394	4	4
Malakpur tahsil ..	Total ..	100,192	96,989	651	584	705	623	13,551	12,378	297	204
	Rural ..	86,779	84,455	28	3	674	602	6,222	5,724	249	179
	Urban ..	13,413	12,534	623	581	31	21	7,329	6,654	48	25
Khambha tahsil ..	Total ..	86,840	83,442	620	540	288	322	12,030	10,989	91	62
	Rural ..	65,974	64,406	..	..	76	89	5,895	5,424	7	2
	Urban ..	20,866	19,036	620	540	212	233	6,135	5,565	84	60

Chikh i tahsil ..	Total ..	109,391	105,688	83	67	1,346	1,223	13,673	13,255	427	347
	Rural ..	96,422	93,977	7	..	1,085	1,102	9,750	9,574	195	132
	Urban ..	12,969	11,711	86	67	261	121	3,923	3,681	232	215
Mehkar tahsil ..	Total ..	105,032	102,342	10	2	845	738	8,019	7,524	137	44
	Rural ..	101,121	98,850	5	..	781	674	6,727	6,327	110	38
	Urban ..	3,911	3,492	5	2	64	64	1,292	1,197	27	6
Jalgaon (M) ..	..	3,976	3,911	1	..	4	1	1,521	1,394	4	4
Malakpur (M) ..	..	7,302	6,910	397	361	29	17	5,381	4,858	24	16
Nandura (M) ..	..	6,111	5,624	226	220	2	4	1,948	1,796	24	9
Shesgaon (M) ..	..	7,781	7,518	63	63	18	10	1,973	1,740	29	31
Khambha (M) ..	..	13,085	11,518	557	477	194	223	4,162	3,825	55	29
Buldhana (M) ..	..	5,976	5,343	9	11	178	60	1,374	1,167	33	21
Chikhli (M) ..	..	3,709	3,261	77	56	60	46	1,864	1,876	192	191
Deulgaon Raja (M) ..	..	3,284	3,107	..	..	23	15	685	638	7	3
Mehkar (M) ..	..	3,911	3,492	5	2	64	64	1,292	1,197	27	6

(M) = Municipality.

Marathi is the principal language and is the mother-tongue of 83.82 per cent of the population. In rural areas Marathi speakers account for 88.48 per cent of the population. They make only 60.32 per cent of the population in urban areas. Urdu has the second largest number of speakers. They make 9.53 per cent of the total population. It is spoken more in urban areas where its speakers make as much as 22.05 per cent as against 7.05 per cent for rural areas. Hindi has the third largest number of speakers. They make 4.50 per cent of the total population of the district. It is also spoken more in urban areas where its speakers make as much as 13.01 per cent against only 2.82 per cent in rural areas. Banjari and Korku are spoken mostly in the rural areas.

Gujarati has been reported as 0.47 per cent of the total population. Telugu speakers are found more in rural areas. Sindhi and Kachchi are spoken more in urban areas.

The comparative position of the languages in 1901, 1951 and 1961 was as follows :—

Language (1)	Percentage to total population		
	1901 (2)	1951 (3)	1961 (4)
(1) Banjari	0.80	1.16	0.46
(2) Gujarati	0.78	0.63	0.47
(3) Hindi	3.39	4.97	4.50
(4) Kachchi	..	0.05	0.04
(5) Korku	..	0.18	0.19
(6) Marathi	86.29	82.85	83.82
(7) Sindhi	..	0.19	0.24
(8) Telugu	0.47	0.44	0.59
(9) Urdu	8.10	8.99	9.53
(10) Others	0.17	0.54	0.16
All Languages ..	100.00	100.00	100.00

The proportion of Marathi speakers has decreased from 86.29 per cent in 1901 to 82.85 per cent in 1951 but has increased to 83.82 per cent in 1961. The percentage of Urdu speakers has increased from 3.39 per cent in 1901 to 4.97 per cent in 1951, and to 8.53 per cent in 1961. The percentage of Hindi speakers has increased from 3.99 per cent in 1901 to 4.97 per cent in 1951, but has again decreased to 4.50 per cent in 1961. The proportion of Gujarati speakers has decreased from 0.78 per cent in 1901 to 0.63 per cent in 1951 and to 0.47 per cent in 1961. Proportion of Banjari speakers had increased from 0.80 per cent in 1901 to 1.16

per cent in 1951 but decreased to 0.46 per cent in 1961. Kachchi has been reported first in 1951 and the proportion of Kachchi speakers has remained fairly constant over the decade. Korku was reported for the first time in 1951; its proportion has increased from 0.18 per cent in 1951 to 0.19 per cent in 1961. It may be added that the 1901 proportions pertain to the district as it existed in that year.

POPULATION BY RELIGIONS

The following table gives the population by religions in the district and each tahsil and town separately as per 1971 Census.

TABLE No. 5
POPULATION BY RELIGION, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

District/Tahsil/Towns (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Hindus		Muslims		Christians		Sikhs	
		Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)
Buldhana District	..	419,134	467,092	69,555	65,217	1,194	1,093	1,552	547
Tahsil—	..	410,775	395,436	42,920	40,820	702	409	1,373	377
Chikhli	..	80,359	71,656	26,635	24,397	492	684	179	170
Malkapur	..	125,156	118,624	18,783	18,157	632	519	438	25
Jalgaon	..	104,344	101,167	12,892	12,600	407	312	419	8
	..	20,812	17,457	5,891	5,557	225	207	19	17
Malkapur	..	105,915	102,006	16,668	15,314	40	33	103	149
Jalgaon	..	87,579	85,036	7,845	7,288	12	11	97	144
	..	18,336	16,970	8,823	8,026	28	22	6	5
	..	55,227	53,264	7,788	7,384	203	31	65	64
	..	50,007	48,362	5,769	5,532	201	29	58	58
	..	5,220	4,902	2,019	1,852	2	2	7	6
Khamgaon	..	89,317	83,724	14,728	13,401	259	448	148	145
	..	59,073	56,448	6,846	6,334	29	48	3	3
	..	30,244	27,276	7,882	7,067	230	440	145	142
Mehkar	..	115,519	109,474	11,588	10,961	60	62	798	164
	..	109,772	104,423	9,568	9,066	53	49	796	164
	..	5,747	5,051	2,020	1,895	7	13	2	..

TABLE No. 5 — contd.

District/Tahsil/Towns (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Buddhists		Jains		Other Religions and Persuasions		Religion not stated	
		Males (11)	Females (12)	Males (13)	Females (14)	Males (15)	Females (16)	Males (17)	Females (18)
Buldhana District	..	77,449	77,594	5,328	4,977	..	..	91	155
Tahsils—	..	71,126	71,652	2,772	2,569	..	..	90	149
Chikhli	..	6,323	5,942	2,556	2,408	..	..	1	6
Malkapur	..	20,284	20,666	1,326	1,250	..	..	3	7
Jalgaon	..	18,332	18,970	520	475	..	..	3	7
	..	1,952	1,686	806	775	..	..	..	..
	..	13,101	12,593	1,185	1,123	..	..	3	2
	..	12,153	11,571	405	354	..	..	3	2
	..	948	1,022	780	769	..	..	..	..
	..	7,715	7,597	253	134	..	..	29	75
	..	7,356	7,267	201	97	..	..	29	75
	..	359	330	52	37	..	..	..	..
Khamgaon	..	16,827	16,615	1,268	1,153	..	..	56	71
	..	14,470	14,391	387	363	..	..	55	65
	..	2,357	2,224	881	790	..	..	1	6
Mehkar	..	19,522	20,133	1,296	1,317	..	..	..	..
	..	18,815	19,453	1,259	1,280	..	..	..	..
	..	707	680	37	37	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 5 — *contd.*

TOWNS

Towns (1)	Urban (2)	Buddhists		Christians		Hindus		Jains	
		Males (19)	Females (20)	Males (21)	Females (22)	Males (23)	Females (24)	Males (25)	Females (26)
Buldhana M.	Urban ..	1,109	990	148	150	9,825	7,995	344	315
Chikhli M.	Do. ..	654	534	57	45	6,609	5,564	110	112
Deulgaon Raja M.	Do. ..	189	162	20	12	4,378	3,898	352	348
Malkapur M.	Do. ..	547	563	27	22	10,872	9,984	641	645
Nandura M.	Do. ..	401	459	1	..	7,464	6,986	139	124
Jalgaon M.	Do. ..	359	330	2	2	5,220	4,902	52	37
Khangason M.	Do. ..	1,084	1,061	176	370	20,758	18,475	777	703
Shegaon M.	Do. ..	1,273	1,163	54	70	9,486	8,801	104	87
Mehkar M.	Do. ..	707	680	7	13	5,747	5,051	37	37

M = Municipality

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*TOWNS—*contd.*

Towns (1)	Urban (2)	Muslims		Sikhs		Other Religions and persuasions		Religion not stated	
		Males (27)	Females (28)	Males (29)	Females (30)	Males (31)	Females (32)	Males (33)	Females (34)
Buldhana M.	Urban ..	2,319	2,103	4	1	..	..	..	..
Chikhli M.	Do. ..	2,506	2,443	..	..	..	..	..	..
Deulgaon Raja M.	Do. ..	1,066	1,011	15	16	..	..	..	..
Malkapur M.	Do. ..	6,324	5,840	6	5	..	..	..	..
Nandura M.	Do. ..	2,499	2,186	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jalgaon M.	Do. ..	2,019	1,852	7	6	..	..	..	..
Khangason M.	Do. ..	5,280	4,723	140	138	..	..	1	6
Shegaon M.	Do. ..	2,602	2,344	5	4	..	..	..	..
Mehkar M.	Do. ..	2,020	1,895	2	..	..	..	..	..

M = Municipality.

The distribution of religions in the district for the years 1901, 1961 and 1971 is as follows:—

(1)	Percentage of each community to total population		
	1901 (2)	1961 (3)	1971 (4)
Buddhists	..	13.11	12.28
Christians	0.04	0.54	0.18
Hindus	90.70	76.20	75.87
Jains	1.02	0.66	0.81
Muslims	8.16	9.44	10.67
Others	0.08	0.05	0.19
All Religions	100.00	100.00	100.00

The proportion of Muslims has increased from 8.16 per cent in 1901 to 9.44 per cent in 1961 and 10.67 in 1971. Percentage of Christians has increased from 0.04 per cent in 1901 to 0.54 per cent in 1961 and decreased to 0.18 in 1971. The percentage of Jains has decreased from 1.02 per cent in 1901 to 0.66 per cent in 1961 and slightly increased to 0.81 in 1971. The proportion of Hindus has gone down from 90.70 per cent in 1901 to 76.20 per cent in 1961 and to 75.87 in 1971 because some persons belonging to Hindu Scheduled Castes returned their religion as Buddhist or Nav-Bauddha. The combined proportion for Hindus and Buddhists has also decreased by more than one per cent during the last seventy years. The 1901 percentage, however, pertains to the district as it existed in that year.

Sex ratios for each religion as per 1961 Census were as follows:—

Buddhists 997, Christians 577, Hindus 976, Jains 791, Muslims 819 and all religions 959.

Higher sex ratio for Buddhists was due to their largest rural group. Christians had the lowest sex ratio.

SCHEDULED CASTES

The number of Scheduled Castes classified by literates in rural and urban areas of the district is shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 6
TAHSILWISE NUMBER OF SCHEDULED CASTES CLASSIFIED BY LITERATES, IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

District/Tahsil/Town (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Total population			Illiterates		Literates and educated persons	
		Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
Buldhana District ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	68,326 56,528 11,798	35,105 28,910 6,195	33,221 27,618 5,603	22,122 18,993 3,129	29,860 25,238 4,622	12,893 9,917 3,066	3,361 2,380 981
Chikhli Tahsil ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	19,259 15,868 3,391	9,997 8,139 1,858	9,262 7,729 1,533	6,136 5,289 847	8,350 7,106 1,244	3,861 2,850 1,011	912 623 289
Malkepur Tahsil ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	12,823 10,199 2,624	6,478 5,145 1,333	6,345 5,054 1,291	4,098 3,421 677	5,717 4,622 1,095	2,380 1,724 656	628 432 196
Jalgaon Tahsil ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	6,372 5,814 558	3,254 2,969 285	3,118 2,945 273	2,148 2,013 135	2,761 2,533 228	1,106 956 150	357 312 45
Khamgaon Tahsil ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	11,241 7,178 4,063	5,698 3,601 2,097	5,543 3,577 1,966	3,412 2,280 1,132	4,788 3,181 1,607	2,286 1,321 965	755 396 359
Mehkar Tahsil ..	Total .. Rural .. Urban ..	18,631 17,469 1,162	9,678 9,056 622	8,953 8,413 540	6,328 5,990 338	8,244 7,796 448	3,350 3,066 284	709 617 92

TABLE No. 6 — contd.
TOWNS

District/Tahsil/Town (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Total population			Illiterates		Literates and educated persons	
		Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
Buldhana ..	Urban	1,520	833	637	360	493	523	144
Chikhli ..	Urban	1,175	612	563	288	460	324	103
Deulgaon Raja ..	Urban	696	363	333	199	291	164	42
Malkapur ..	Urban	1,550	789	761	396	651	393	110
Nandura ..	Urban	1,074	544	530	281	444	263	86
Jalgaon ..	Urban	558	285	273	135	228	150	45
Khamgaon ..	Urban	2,688	1,397	1,291	703	1,033	694	258
Shegaon ..	Urban	1,375	700	675	429	574	271	101
Mehkar ..	Urban	1,162	622	540	338	448	284	92

In all 19 castes are notified as Scheduled Castes in the district but only 15 (including Mang Garudi) are reported in 1971 Census. The distribution of the 15 castes in the district is as follows :—

Scheduled Castes (1)	1961		1971	
	Population (2)	Percentage to total district population (3)	Population (4)	Percentage to total district population (5)
All Scheduled Castes ..	56,214	5.30	68,326	5.41
(1) Balahi	21	N	4	N
(2) Basor	180	0.02	102	N
(3) Bedar	153	0.01	246	0.02
(4) Bhangi	1,472	0.14	2,199	0.17
(5) Chambhar	18,756	1.77	23,018	1.82
(6) Dohor	1,091	0.10	880	0.07
(7) Dom	113	0.01	1	N
(8) Ganda	7	N	N.A.	N.A.
(9) Ghasi	1	N	13	N
(10) Kaikadi	575	0.05	767	0.06
(11) Katia	23	N	17	N
(12) Khatik	401	0.04	817	0.06
(13) Kori	19	N	4	N
(14) Mahar	7,417	0.70	7,408	0.59
(15) Mang (including Garudi) ..	25,710	2.43	31,364	2.48
(16) Others	..	..	1,486	0.12

N = Negligible.

The remaining 4 Scheduled Castes for which no one was returned in the district in the 1961 Census were : Bahna, Madgi, Sansi and Khangar.

Mang (including Mang Garudi) with 31,364 persons is the largest Scheduled Caste in the district in 1971. The second largest group is of Chambhar while Mahar, Bhangi and Dohor are the third, fourth and fifth, respectively. Ghasi, Ganda, Katia, Kori and Balahi have a very small population.

The comparative position of the Scheduled Castes population from 1951 to 1971 in the district is as follows:—

(1)	Percentage to total population		
	District Total (2)	Rural areas (3)	Urban areas (4)
All Scheduled Castes—			
1951	17.48	19.02	9.67
1961	5.30	5.22	5.71
1971	5.41	5.43	5.32

The reduction of the Scheduled Caste population from 17.48 per cent to 5.41 per cent is the result of a large number of persons from the erstwhile Hindu backward class returning their religion in the 1961 Census as Buddhist or Nav-Bauddha. Because of this change of religion these persons have not been treated as Scheduled Castes as the Constitution of India recognises Scheduled Castes from Hindu and Sikh religions only. The combined proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Buddhists in 1961 was 18.41 per cent which was slightly larger than that of Scheduled Castes in 1951.

The Scheduled Castes as a group do not seem to have made much progress in education. Mang which is a predominant group appears to be the most depressed so far as literacy is concerned. The females among the Scheduled Castes appear to be quite behind in literacy and education.

The following table throws sufficient light on the proportion of literacy among Scheduled Castes in the district:—

TABLE No. 7

CASTEWISE NUMBER OF SCHEDULED CASTES BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1971

Scheduled Castes (1)	Total Population			Illiterates			Literates		
	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Persons (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)	Persons (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)
Balahi	4	2	2	1	..	1	3	2	1
Basor	102	50	52	46	10	36	56	40	16
Bedar	246	109	137	221	87	134	25	22	3
Bhangi	2,199	1,157	1,046	1,605	672	933	594	484	109
Chambhar	23,018	11,853	11,165	16,467	6,796	9,671	6,551	5,057	1,494
Dohor	880	442	438	751	329	422	129	113	16
Dom	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	1	..
Ghasi	13	5	8	12	5	7	1	1	1
Kaikadi	767	381	386	643	292	351	124	89	35
Katia	17	11	6	15	10	5	2	1	1
Khatik	817	409	408	526	210	310	291	199	92
Kori	4	3	1	3	3	..	1	..	1
Mahar	7,408	3,929	3,479	4,837	1,958	2,879	2,571	1,971	600
Mang	31,364	15,784	15,580	23,916	11,303	14,613	5,443	4,481	967
Unspecified	1,486	969	517	939	447	492	547	522	25

CASTES

The Hindu Society is replete with sociological groups with varying degrees of respectability and circles of social intercourse. In recent decades, however, the rigidity of caste barriers has abated considerably, and caste as an institution perpetuating social exclusiveness has lost its former significance. With a view to discourage caste consciousness there has been no castewise enumeration since the Census of 1951. However, the hold of caste on Indian life is still found to be so deep that a working knowledge of the important caste groups in the district may be considered useful.

The *Buldhana District Gazetteer* published in 1910 has given a very vivid account of the various castes in the district. This account may not reflect the current picture of the caste groups. But it is of considerable interest from the functional, sociological and cultural point of view. Hence, a few passages from the old edition are reproduced below.

As in the other Berar Districts the great cultivating caste of the Kunbis preponderates. Next in numerical importance are the Mahars, and the Malis. The Malis are an important cultivating caste while the Mahars are chiefly employed as agricultural labourers or on menial posts and as village watchmen; the weaving of coarse cotton cloth is also a speciality of the caste. Other castes strongly represented in the District are Brahmans, Dhangars, Wanis, Wanjaris, Rajputs, Telis and Mangs. The Brahmans occupy the highest social position; they hold high Government appointments and are also largely represented among the village accountants. The Dhangars follow their traditional occupation of tending sheep and are also engaged in agriculture. The Wanis are in a small way the chief traders and money-lenders, and in their latter capacity they have obtained a hold over much valuable land. The Wanjaris, whatever their origin may have been, have now settled down to agriculture, and it is probable that the bulk of the Rajputs and Telis are likewise engaged. The Mangs are the well-known menial caste. The Kolis (9,000), have also taken to agriculture. The village servant and artisan castes are represented by the Malis, Chambhars, Sonars, Sutars, Shimpis, Lohars and Dohors.

The Baris are the *pan* cultivators, and the Marathas follow a variety of occupations. The Banjaras are the remnants of the old caste of carriers whom the advent of the railway has gradually driven to other pursuits.

Social Position of the Various Castes.—The following table was drawn up by Mr. Kitts in 1880 to show the relative social position, good or inferior of the chief castes¹:—

Castes of good social standing	Castes of inferior social standing
Brahman	Sutar, Lohar, Jirayat*
Rajput	Hatgar, Koshti, Rangari
Kayastha and Prabhu	Beldar, Kumbhar, Panchal
Wani	Kalal
Vidur, Golak*	Teli, Dhangar
Gurav, Jangam	Mhali
Gosavi, Bairagi, Jogi, Joshi	Gondhali
Bhat, Thakur	Koli, Andh*, Gond*
Sonar, Kasar	Bhoi
Manbhav	Dhobi
Shimpi	Pathrats*, Takaris*
Kunbi	Banjara
Gavli, Wanjari, Mali	Kolhati, Pardhi
Bari, Lodhi	Burud, Khatik, Waddar
	Borekar
	Chambhar, Dohor
	Mahar, Bedar
	Mang, Bhangi*

Castes of good social standing.—In social position the Brahman stands first. 'He is', says Manu, 'by right the Chief of this whole creation. He is born above the world, the chief of all creatures.' The Kayastha and Prabhu are regarded, probably by reason of their hereditary occupation, as superior to the Wanis or trading castes. Among the latter the traders from Gujarat take the highest social rank; and those from Marwad are placed above the Komtis, Lads, and Lingayat Wanis. After the Wanis come the half-castes, Vidur and Golak, who get this position by reason of the Brahman blood in their veins. According to some authorities, the Kunbi ranks next after those already mentioned; according to others, his place is lower. Kunbis, however, in many parts of Berar, have a higher social status than they possess in parts of the adjoining Presidency. Jangams and Udasis rank with Wanis. Guravs, the attendants in the temples of Shiva and Maruti, are slightly inferior to them, and below the Guravs come the religious mendicants. Bairagis, the smaller and more fanatical sect, are ranked below Gosavis. After the Bhats and Thakurs, or village bards and genealogists, come the highest artisan castes, those of the Sonar, Kasar, and Tambat castes, or workers in gold, brass

¹ The castes marked with an asterisk are of mentioned in Mr. Kitts' table.

and copper, respectively. Other artisans rank below the Kunbi. The position assigned to the Manbhavs is questionable. The Shimpi, or tailor caste, is also ranked above the Kunbi: it owes its position in some measure to the general intelligence and education diffused among its members. The castes of weavers and dyers resemble it in this respect. Although the Kunbi is ranked below the castes already mentioned, his position is certainly much lower than would be claimed by, or conceded to, many divisions of the caste. The Gujar, for example, takes rank above other agriculturists; but a Kunbi who claims Rajput descent and probably also a Kunbi who calls himself a Maratha, would object to yield him this precedence. The precedence among the different divisions of a caste is certainly as intricate a question and as difficult to determine as the social position of the caste as a whole. A 'Maratha' *deshmukh* often rejects the name of Kunbi altogether: he would scorn to be classed with the base-born Akaramase, and would probably claim a position immediately succeeding that of the Rajput. The Kunbi of Berar corresponds with the Kapu, or cultivator caste of Telangana, and the Vellalar of the Tamil country. Almost on a par with the Kunbis in social estimation, although generally less prosperous, are the Gavlis. With them are ranked the Wanjaris, a well-to-do and respected caste engaged in agriculture; they claim to be, and locally are distinct from the Banjara-carrying castes, in rites, customs, dress and features. They are slightly superior to the Malis. Inferior to the latter caste are the Baris and Lodhis. All these castes are of good social position, although the precise place at which the dividing line should be drawn must necessarily be a matter of somewhat arbitrary choice.

Castes of inferior social position.—The Sutar, or carpenter, is sometimes considered superior to the worker in brass or copper: the Lohar, with whom the Jirayat is on a par, is the lowest of the large artisan castes. The weavers and dyers rank next, Hatgars, or Bangi Dhangars, being however a higher caste than other Dhangars. Then follow the remaining artisan castes, the Beldar, Kumbhar and Panchal. The Beldars are a mixed race; their name means the mattock workers; their position is therefore questionable, and varies from part to part. Some Beldars are said to be remnants of Pendharis. The Kumbhars, or potters, are a caste of long standing in the land, who have probably sunk lower at each invasion. The worship of the potter's wheel, and the invocation of a potter as a layer of ghosts, indicate a feeling which can scarcely be of recent origin. Shalivahan, the legendary founder of the Maratha nation, was according to some accounts, a Kumbhar. 'His mother,' says a legend quoted by Grand Duff, was 'the virgin daughter of a Brahman,' who becoming pregnant by a snake of a sacred kind '(? by a man of the Nagvanshi race) was in consequence' supposed to be disgraced, and was driven from her father's threshold; but she was received into the house of a potter, by whom she was protected. The Panchals and Ghisadis are rough ironsmiths; they owe their low social rank to their

poverty and vagrant habits. The Pathrats also belong to the same social stratum: they are a poor people: their lowly position shows that stone-dressing is not so honourable an occupation as metal-working or carpentry. The Kalal owes his low rank to his reprehensible calling: a priest may not eat the food of one who sells fermented liquors: drinking is one of the six faults which bring infamy on married women; and even eating what has been brought in the same basket with spirituous liquor is an offence which causes defilement. The Telis, on a par with whom are the Tambolis, are decidedly inferior to the large agricultural castes. The distinction between Tili and Teli, observed in Bengal, is unknown in Berar: although there are divisions, of which the Rathod Teli is the higher, within the caste itself. The Dhangars or tenders of sheep and goats, naturally rank below the Gavlis or cow-herds. The Halbis, who in Berar are a weaving rather than an agricultural caste, are socially on a par with Dhangars. Mhalis, or Hajams, probably owe their low position to their being village servants, obliged not only to shave the community, but also they act occasionally as torch-bearers or as personal attendants. The low position assigned to the Gondhalis, the sect devoted to nocturnal song and vigil in honour of the local goddess Hinglaj Bhavani, marks the contempt inspired by neo-Brahmanism for the older local cult. The Kolis would scarcely take precedence of the Bhois, but that part of their number were reclaimed from a wild life at an earlier period than the rest; they 'have among them several substantial' patels, and they have fairly reached the agricultural 'stage of society here'. The Bhoi, or fishermen caste, ranks below the Koli. The Warthi or Dhobi, or village washerman, comes low down on the social scale, probably because of his calling. The castes which remain belong to a much lower level than any of the preceding. They are not so much socially inferior, as beyond social notice altogether. The Banjaras come first and if the Wanjaris were originally the same people as the Banjaras, they have certainly achieved a wonderful rise in social rank, amid a population very conservative of social distinctions and differences. Decidedly inferior to the Banjaras, in the esteem of their neighbours, are the Kolhatis and Kaikadis; the Chitrakathis, who are vagrant mendicants; the Pardhis, or Baurias of Upper India; and the Takankars, or Bagris. Below these again, or rather of equal inferiority in a different sphere, are various castes of settled habits. The Jingars, who make native saddles, and the Buruds, who work in bamboo, are socially on a par with the Khatik or Hindu butcher. The professional slaughterer of animals, notwithstanding the number of his customers and notwithstanding that he never lifts his hand against the sacred kine, is placed near the foot of the social ladder. The Waddars, are, in the villages of their own country, relegated to a separate quarter, which in appearance is not less poverty-stricken and squalid than that of the Mahars: in Berar they live in little *pals*; they rank below Khatiks. The leather-working castes are superior to the Mahars; the lowest position of all is assigned to the Mangs and Mang Garodia.

Variety of opinion.—The arrangement, which has been indicated, although as accurate as information will allow, must be partly conjectural. The distinctive and segregative nature of the caste system, rendering each caste in social matters a world apart, renders at the same time any system of precedence between different castes to some extent unnecessary and impossible. With castes which never mix in social intercourse, their relative social rank, if nearly the same, must remain undetermined. The feeling on such matters may vary from tahsil to tahsil; probably it also varies from generation to generation. The wealth and rank attained by its prominent members may, even among so conservative a people, raise the social estimate in which a caste is held: the Wanjaris and Kolis are examples in point. The numbers of a caste produce a similar effect: and local opinion is, therefore, safest in its estimate of the local precedence of the largest castes. A brief description of the castes is given below.

Andh.—The Andhs are probably an aboriginal tribe, but nothing can be ascertained as to their origin, and they are not found in any other Province. They have now adopted nearly all the practices of Kunbis and are hardly distinguishable from them in dress or personal appearance. In social status they are generally considered to be only a little lower than the Kunbis, and cultivate in the ordinary manner like them. They employ Brahmans as their priests, and profess to be Vaishnavas by religion, wearing sect-marks on their foreheads. In religion, says Mr. Kitts, the Andhs are more Hinduised than other aborigines. They worship Khandoba, Kanhoba, Maruti, Bairam, and the goddess Elamma or Bhavani. Some worship Daval Malik and others reverence Haji Saiyad Sarvar. Widow-marriage is practised, but a widow is not permitted to marry the younger brother of her deceased husband. Divorce is not allowed by the caste on any ground. At the time of birth of a child the elderly females of the caste act as midwives. The mother remains impure only for seven days after the birth of a child. The caste buries its dead and performs the mourning ceremony on the tenth day, but they observe no *shraddha*.

Bairagi.—The Bairagis, lit., a person disgusted with the world, are wandering ascetics or beggars.

Banjara.—The Banjaras of Berar are the same people as the Lambadis of the Madras Presidency and the Manaris mentioned by Tavernier. They are supposed to be the people mentioned by Arrian in the fourth century B. C. as leading a wandering life, dwelling in tents, and letting out for hire their beasts of burden. Their home seems originally to have been the long tract of country under the northern hills from Gorakhpur to Hardvar. In Berar as in the Punjab the Banjaras are often, if not generally, known as Labhanas. Although the Charan if asked his caste will answer Labhana, and, if asked what Labhana, will answer Charan Labhana. There are in all six divisions, four Hindu and two Musalman. The highest in rank of the Hindu Banjaras are the

Mathurias, who claim to be Brahmans and wear the sacred thread. The Labhanas or salt-carriers evidently came from further north than other Hindu Banjaras. Their claim to be descended from Gaud Brahmans, when coupled with the details of their serpent worship as described by Tavernier, suggests that they are possibly connected with the Gaud Taga tribe. They are considered socially superior to the Charans. Like the Mathurias their women wear *sadis*, while Charan women wear *lahengas*. They wear the sacred thread. The Charans are said to be of Rajput origin. The story of their creation by Mahadev to replace the feeble Bhats is well-known. Under their leaders Bhangi and Jhangi Naiks, they came first to this Province with the army of Asaf Khan in the campaign which closed with the annexation by Shah Jahan of Ahmadnagar and Berar. The two Banjara leaders had with them 190,000 bullocks, and in order to keep these well up with his force Asaf Khan was induced to issue an order engraved on copper and in gold letters, as follows:—

Ranjan ka pani, Chappar ka ghas,

Din ka tin khun muaf,

Aur jahan Asaf Jan ke ghore,

Wahan Bhangi Jhangi ke bail,

which being freely translated runs: 'If you can find no water elsewhere, you may even take it from *ranjans* (pots) of my followers; grass you may take from the roof of their huts; and if you commit three murders a day I will even pardon this, provided that where I find my cavalry I can always find Bhangi Jhangi's bullocks'. The Duke of Wellington subsequently in his Indian campaigns regularly employed Banjaras as part of the commissariat staff of his army. On one occasion he said of them: 'The Banjaras I look upon in the light of servants of the public, the price, of whose grain I have a right to regulate'. The Charans do not allow infant marriage; they worship Mariai, the cholera goddess, and the famous bandit Mitu Bhukia, to whom in nearly every *tanda* a hut is set apart surmounted by a white flag. The original occupation of the Banjaras was to convey for sale articles for trade such as wheat, salt, rice, red ochre, etc., from one place to another on pack bullocks. When there were no railways, trade was monopolised by them. They have now settled down to ordinary labour and private service.

Bar: The Baris, that is, those who direct water, are found in the Jalgaon tahsil. They are a caste whose speciality is to keep *pan-gardens*, but they are also engaged in agriculture. They have a legend that at some former time at the Diwali festival the daughter of a Bari affixed a mark of vermilion to the forehead of a Kumbhar's son who presented her with a creeper which she should cultivate and thereby earn her livelihood. In token of their gratitude the Baris still take water from the hands of a Kumbhar. A Bari will never give betel-leaves folded in a bundle to a Kumbhar as he will do to people of other castes. Infant marriage is also allowed. They both bury and cremate their

dead. The corpse is laid in the grave on one side with feet to the north, head to the south, and face to the east. They place some food and an earthen pot filled with water for the use of the disembodied soul. A *pan*-garden can be cultivated successively for five years. In the sixth year they must change its site. The Baris eat fowls and eggs and take the flesh of a goat or sheep. They can take food from the hands of a Kunbi, a Phulmali and a Brahman.

Bedar.—The Bedars are immigrants from the Karnatak. They are a labouring caste.

Beldar.—The Beldars are earth-workers who get their name from the use of the Bel, or mattock in digging, and are principally found in the plain tahsils.

Bhangis.—The Bhangis are the Hindu scavenger caste and are employed almost exclusively as sweepers.

Bhoi.—The Bhois are fishermen. They still cleave to their hereditary caste occupations much more closely than is the case with many castes, and are consequently to be found where rivers or tanks supply them with fishing. They belong to the Dravidian family of aboriginal races. Like the Pardhis the Bhois have forsworn beef. Like the Dhangars they wear *tanwad* ear-rings. Their women wear the toe-rings but not the nose-rings of Hindu women: like Gond women they wear brass bangles, which they do not remove, although they discard the black bead necklace during widowhood. Their funeral ceremony resembles that of Gonds. Cremation is rare. After a burial each mourner repairs to the deceased's house and then fetches his own dinner and dines with the chief mourner. On the third day after the birth of a child the Bhois distribute to other children food made of *juari* flour and butter-milk. On the fifth day the slab and mortar, used for grinding the household corn, are washed, anointed and worshipped. On the 12th day the child is named and shortly after this its head is shaved.

Borekar.—The Borekars are a comparatively new caste. They are practically confined to the Jalgaon tahsil, and are mat-makers. At the time of marriage the bride and bridegroom are seated on mats prepared by the elderly persons of the caste.

Brahman.—Almost all the Brahmans are Maharashtra Brahmans of the Deshasth, Konkanasth and Karhada Sub-divisions. The foreign Brahmans are mostly to be found amongst pleaders, *munims* and traders, whilst Berar Brahmans are chiefly to be met with in Government service, as patwaris and *karkuns*. The following note on Brahmans made by a former Deputy Commissioner of Akola is worthy of reproduction:—"Brahman women are regarded by them as but a little lower than men. Their presence is required at many religious ceremonies. The husband publicly eats with his wife on the occasion of his marriage. Their funeral ceremonies are the same. In the 'worship of fire' the wife may perform the ceremony alone should her husband be absent from

home for a time, whereas the reverse is not the case. The tuition of girls is not general, certain hymns taught to boys may not be imparted to girls; although others, which it is considered derogatory for a boy to learn, are taught. Brahman widows may be known by their not having a red mark on their forehead; by their sadis being white, red or yellow, and composed of either cotton or silk; by their not wearing a *choli*, glass bangles; or a *mangal sutra*; and by their heads being clean shaven. Although allowed to pray at the temples they are not allowed to take part in any religious ceremony of a festive nature. If their relatives are too poor to maintain them, Brahman widows are frequently employed by their caste people as cooks; and sometimes they will secretly wash clothes for certain families, or gain a livelihood by grinding grain. The intellect of a Brahman is incisive rather than powerful; his peculiar characteristic is self-complacency. He considers no position too high or difficult; he knows that no act, however mean and bad, can prevent his re-admission into his own, the foremost caste. He is envious of those in power, even if placed there by himself. To his exclusiveness much of his influence is due; this, however, is gradually giving way to the requirements of the public service. Brahman schoolmasters, patwaris and others are obliged to reside in small villages where, if they are to have any society at all, they must forget their exclusiveness and mingle with Kunbis on a footing approaching equality."

Burud.—The Buruds are practically confined to the Khamgaon tahsil. They are makers of baskets and matting.

Chambhar.—The Chambhars are leather workers. The Harale or (Marathe) Chambhars claim the highest rank. In religion they are devoted to Mahadev, whom they worship on a Sunday in the month of *Shravan*. The *Sadhu*, who acts as *guru* to his flock, makes a visitation once every four or five years. They will eat pork but not beef. They dye leather, make shoes, *mots* and *pakhals*. They will not use untanned leather, nor will they work for Mahars, Mangs, Jingars, Buruds, Kolis or Halalkhors. If one of these buys a pair of shoes, they will ask no indiscreet questions, but they will not mend the pair as they would for a man of higher caste. Their womenkind work the silk pattern which adorns the native shoes.

Dhangar.—The Dhangar caste, to which the Holkar family belongs, are hereditary tenders of sheep and goats, corresponding to the Gadarias elsewhere. They are also weavers of woollen blankets, and a large number have settled down to agriculture. The Hatgars or Bangi Dhangars, that is shepherds with spears, were originally a division of Dhangars, but having adopted military service they became a separate caste. They also have settled down to agriculture.

Dhobi.—The Dhobis otherwise known as Warthi and Parit are village *balutedars*. Besides the grain at harvest time they also receive presents when a child is born to any of their employers.

Dohor.—The Dohors are principally found in the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils. They are one of the most important divisions among the leather-working castes, and probably immigrated into this District from Khandesh. They worship chiefly Mari Mata and sometimes Bhavani. Their spiritual interests are in the care of Bhats or Thakurs. They will work for all castes except Mangs. They dye leather and make shoes, but not *mots* and *pakhals*. The men do not wear *dhotis* as do the Harales; the Harale women again wear *ludgas* which they bind round the waist, whereas the Dohor women wear *lahengas*, which they tie round like a petticoat. The dead are usually buried and mourned for three days. Those who die married, if well-to-do, are burned.

Gavli.—The Gavlis include the Ahirs, Gavlans and Gavaris which are synonymous names. They are a pastoral caste, but have taken to agriculture and other pursuits. They are supposed to be an old Indian or half Indian race, who were driven south and east before the Scythian invaders. Like the Jats and Gujars they retain the Scythian custom whereby the younger brother takes the widow of the elder brother as his wife. Before the Christian era they were near the north-west frontier of India: they passed down through Upper to Lower Sindh, and thence to Gujarat; 'when the Kattis arrived in Gujarat in the eighth century they found the greater part of the country in the possession of the Ahirs'; meanwhile part of the tribe had journeyed east. They are spoken of as settled in Khandesh. And an inscription in one of the Nasik Buddhist caves shows that early in the third century the country was under an Ahir king; and 'in the *puranic* geography the country from the Tapi to Devagiri is called Abhira, or the region of cowherds. It seems probable that they were connected with the Yadavas, who were in power in the eighth, and again appear as the rulers of Devagiri or Daulatabad in the twelfth and the thirteenth century. 'The Ahirs or cowherd kings', says Meadows Taylor, 'ruled over the wild tracts of Gondvana, and parts of Khandesh and Berar, and had possession of fortresses like Ashirgad, Gavilgad and Narnala, and other mountain positions, where they remained secure and independent, tributary however to the Yadavas of Devagiri, or to the Hindu dynasties of Malva as long as they existed, and afterwards acting independently.' Berar was in those days a troublesome border country, and the Ahirs seem to have fallen into a secondary position before the influx of Kunbis.

Ghisadi. The Ghisadis are practically confined to the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils. They sometimes claim a Rajput origin. They are inferior blacksmiths and do rough work only. Among them large bride prices varying from Rs. 300 to Rs. 500 are paid in cash to the parents of the girl before the performing of the betrothal ceremony. The marriage is performed after the Maratha ritual, and widow-marriage is also practised, but divorce is not allowed on any ground. An unmarried girl puts a round patch of vermilion on her forehead, but after her marriage this is replaced by lines. The caste generally buries its dead and

some *ghee* (clarified butter) is put in the mouth of a corpse before it is buried. The Ghisadis are worshippers of Khandoba, Ambamai and Mhasoba. They eat the flesh of a goat, fowl, and deer, but abstain from pork.

Golak.—The Golaks are almost all found in the Chikhli tahsil. They are a class of inferior Brahmans; the offspring of a Brahman father and a Brahman widow. Pure Brahmans neither eat nor marry with them.

Gond.—The Gonds are practically all found in the Jalgaon tahsil. They mostly belong to the labouring class.

Gondhali.—The Gondhalis are a sect of wandering beggars recruited from all castes. They are especially attached to the temples of the goddess Tukai at Tuljapur and the Goddess Renukai at Mahur. Hence arise the two great divisions of the caste, the Renukai and the Kadamrai, who do not intermarry. Other divisions are known as Maratha, Kunbi, and Mali Gondhalis: these are the descendants of children of the castes named, offered in fulfilment of vows at the shrine of the goddess. The Gondhalis perform what is known as the *Gondhal* ceremony. The chief occasions are the worship of Bhavani at the *Dasara*, and the worship of Tukai and Renukai on Hanuman's birthday. The ceremony is held at night. The Gondhalis are previously feasted: they eat flesh. The image of the goddess is placed on a stool and a sacred torch is lit. By the side of the idol a pot filled with water is placed, betel-leaves are put around its mouth, and a coconut is placed on them. The rest of the stool is covered with offerings of fruits and spices. The Gondhalis now worship the goddess, wave the lighted torch around their bodies and chant monotonous hymns in honour of the deity all through the night. At other times of the year the Gondhalis subsist upon alms by reciting ballads called *povade*. They wear a string of cowries round their necks: this string is put on at the time of marriage, and marks the wearer's right to perform the *gondhal*, a right forbidden to the unmarried.

Gosavi.—The Gosavis (Gosains) are mostly religious mendicants, but a few are engaged in agriculture, trade and money-lending.

Gurav.—The Guravs are attendants in the temples of Maruti and Shiva, are sellers of *bel* leaves for offerings to the idol. They receive the food offered to the idol. As trumpeters they were formerly employed in the Maratha armies. They are to some extent mendicants but they do not wander.

Jangam.—The Jangams are mostly found in the Mehkar tahsil. They are priests of the Lingayats.

Jat.—The Jats are mostly found in the Mehkar tahsil. Most of them are agriculturists but a few are weavers. They claim a Rajput origin.

Jirayat.—The Jirayats chiefly occur in Malkapur and Jalgaon tahsils. They are said to be immigrants from the south. The majority of them are ironsmiths whose speciality is fine work, but

here and there one is found following some other handicraft than that peculiar to the caste. Infant marriage prevails in the caste, and the parents of a girl attaining puberty before marriage are excommunicated temporarily from the caste. Flesh of sheep or goat is permitted. Persons eating fowls or pork are outcasted, but can be readmitted into the caste after providing a feast. The caste can eat food cooked by a Brahman, Kunbi, Rajput and Phulmali.

Jogi.—The Jogis or Yogis (*lit.*, contemplative saints) are Shaivite beggars.

Joshi.—The Joshis are beggars and astrologers.

Kalal.—The Kalals are mostly agriculturists.

Kasar.—The Kasars take their name from the bell-metal (*kansa*) in which they work, and rank high among artisans.

Kayasth and Prabhu.—The Kayasths and Prabhus are the well-known writer class. The former trace their descent from Chitragupta, the recorder of Yama, and the latter from King Chandrasen.

Khatik.—The Khatiks are Hindu butchers, and by reason of the impurity of their calling rank very low in the social scale.

Kolhati.—The Kolhatis are most numerous in the Malkapur tahsil. They are a wandering tribe of acrobats.

Koli.—The Kolis are principally found in the Malkapur tahsil. Little is known regarding their origin. They are said once to have been soldiers and guardians of the Berar hill passes, and their hereditary occupation is said to be that of fishing. There are a large number of Ahir Kolis in the Malkapur tahsil, immigrants from Khandesh. They are said to be frequently employed as watchmen, and to work ferries and grow melons in the beds of rivers. They eat pork but not beef.

Koshti.—The Koshtis are the well-known weaving castes. Their speciality is white cotton clothes with coloured borders.

Kumbhar.—The Kumbhars are potters and brick and tile-makers. They have no competition from outsiders to contend with in their caste occupation, and there are few instances in which Kumbhars have adopted handicrafts entirely foreign to the caste occupation.

Kunbi.—The Kunbis are the most numerous in the district population. The *deshmukh* was originally the manager or headman of a circle of villages, and was responsible for apportioning and collecting the land revenue. The office was hereditary and was usually held by members of the Tirole sub-caste of Kunbis, though other castes such as Brahmans, Rajputs, Marathas, Malis and Muhammedans also shared the privilege. The Kunbi *deshmukhs* have now developed into a sort of aristocratic branch of the caste and marry among themselves when matches can be arranged. They do not allow the marriage of widows nor permit their women to accompany the wedding procession. A *deshmukh*

sabha has been formed for Berar, one of its aims being to check intermarriage with ordinary Kunbis. *Deshmukhs* have also lately begun to wear the sacred thread, and in three generations of the family the latest member may be seen wearing it, while the two older members are without it. Some *deshmukhs* now repudiate their Kunbi origin and prefer to be called Marathas, thus claiming through that name to belong to the Kshatriya clan.

The sect of Kunbis known as the Leva Patidars is only found in Berar in the Malkapur tahsil of this District, and deserves a separate notice. The Leva Patidars (Pajne) are found in about 80 villages near Khandesh. Another local name for them is Revas, which is apparently a variant of Levas who form the largest subcaste of Kunbis in Gujarat. They seem to have broken off from the parental stock so long ago that they have forgotten all connection with it, and account for their names by somewhat curious folk-etymologies. The word Pajne is traced to Pavakhand which they say formerly formed a part of Gujarat, and Reva is supposed to be derived from the river Reva in Gujarat. In Gujarat, however, Leva is said to mean mild as opposed to Kadva (bitter), another subcaste of Kunbis. The men of the Leva subcaste wear a head dress like that of Gujarati Wanis and they themselves claim to be Wani immigrants from Gujarat afterwards repudiated by their caste fellows owing to their having mingled with the local Kunbis. The Leva Kunbis of Gujarat are really of Gujar origin, and the recollection of the Levas is so far correct that they originally belonged to a different caste, but their claim to be Wanis is merely presumptuous. In religion they worship all Hindu gods, but there is a special sect called *Malkari* or *Bhagvat panthi* which confines its worship to Vithoba, Rama and Mahadev. The *gurus* of Muktabai at Edalabad, Dnyaneshwar at Alandi, Tukaram at Dehu, Vithoba at Pandharpur, Nivrittinath at Trimbakeshwar, Eknath at Paithan, and Sopandev at Sachole initiate disciples into the sect by bestowing upon them wreaths of beads of *tulsi* plant, at the same time advising them to observe *ekadashi* (fasting), to worship daily the *tulsi* plant in the *angans*, to offer daily prayers to god, and to attend without fail the *Ashadhi* and *Kartiki* fairs at Pandharpur with Pandharpur *patkas* (flags). In their social customs and ceremonies the Leva Patidars follow, generally the Marathas, slight differences being that Leva females on the bridegroom's side attend marriages, and before the marriage ceremony takes place the bride and bridegroom are made to worship a dunghill. Leva Patidars cannot marry with other Kunbis, but inter-dining is not prohibited. Widow-remarriage is permitted. The marriageable age is for a girl seventeen years and for a boy 25 years. After marriage the women wear in one ear an ear ornament called *pachatur*, a ring of gold with five corals and five beads of gold; the poorer women wear rings of corals only. The wearing of this ornament is a certain means of identifying a Leva Patidar. Leva Patidars are exclusively moneylenders or cultivators. Now-a-days They have

made immense progress in education. They have a reputation for economy; borrowing for marriage ceremonies is strictly prohibited, the expenditure being limited to a sum fixed alike for rich and poor by the community. They are very industrious and assist each other in need. They abstain from the use of alcohol and both socially and mentally they rank above the other Kunbis. Some of them are *watandar patels*.

An excellent account of the Kunbis as a class given by an anonymous writer¹ is deserving of reproduction.

'The Kunbi is a harmless, inoffensive creature, simple in his habits, kindly by disposition, and unambitious by nature. He is honest, and altogether ignorant of the ways of the world. He knows little of the value of money, and when he happens to earn any, he does not know how to keep it. He is satisfied with very little, and is contented with his lot, however humble. His passions are not strong, he is apathetic, and takes things easily, is never elated with success, nor is he readily prostrated by misfortune. He is patient to a fault, and shows great fortitude under severe trials. He is a thorough conservative, and has a sincere hatred of innovations. He cherishes a strong love for his *watan* (hereditary holdings and rights), and whenever any trivial dispute arises in connection with these he will fight it out to the very last. He will often suffer great wrongs with patience and resignation, but his indignation is aroused if the least encroachment be made upon his personal *watandari* rights, though they may yield him no profit, but happen on the contrary to be a tax upon his purse. If the regulated place be not assigned to his bullocks when they walk in procession at the *Pola* feast, or if he has been wrongfully preceded by another party in offering libations to the pile of fuel, that is to be fired at the *Holi*, the Kunbi at once imagines that a cruel wrong has been done him, and his peace of mind is disturbed. He will haunt the courts of the tahsil and District officials for redress, and neglecting his fields, will pursue his object with a perseverance worthy of a better cause. The Kunbi's domestic life is happy and cheerful; he is an affectionate husband and a loving father. He is a stranger to the vice of drunkenness, and in every respect his habits are strictly temperate. He is kind and hospitable towards the stranger, and the beggar never pleads in vain at his door. In short, the Kunbi, within the scale of his capacities, is endowed with most of the virtues of mankind, and exhibits but few vices. We cannot, however, accord to the Kunbi the merit of energy. Industrious he is, he rises early, and retires late; in the hottest time of the year he works in the field under the burning rays of the sun; at other seasons he has often to work in the rain, drenched to the skin: he is to be seen in the fields on a bitter winter morning, defying the cold, clad only in his simple coarse *kambli* (blanket). Thus

¹ Notes on the Agriculturists of Aurangabad quoted in Mr. Kitts' *Benar Census Report* of 1881, p. 111 foot-note.

his life is one of continued toil and exposure. But, while admitting all this, it cannot be denied that he works apathetically and without intelligent energy of any kind. The Kunbi women are very industrious, and are perhaps more energetic than the men. Upon them devolves the performance of all the domestic duties. They have to carry water from the river or well, grind corn, prepare the meals, sweep the house and plaster it with liquid clay or cowdung, clean the cooking vessels, wash the linen, and attend to their children. For a part of the day they are also employed on light field work. Besides getting through these multifarious duties, the women of the poorer classes generally manage to find time to gather a headload of either fuel or grass, which they carry to their own or any other adjoining village for sale. From these hardly acquired earnings they purchase salt, oil, and other necessities for household use. If all the women in the family have not enough work on their holdings, some of them go out to labour in the fields of other holders, and their earnings form no mean addition to the income of the Kunbi cultivator. The women work as hard as the men, and fortunate is the cultivator who is blessed with a number of female relatives in his family, for, instead of being a burden, their industry is a steady source of income to him. With a heavy load on her head, an infant wrapped up and slung to her back, the Kunbi woman of the poorer classes will sturdily tramp some six or seven miles to market, sell the produce of her field there, and from the proceeds buy articles for household consumption; she will then trudge back home in time to prepare the evening meal for the family'. Regarding their treatment of children the Deputy Commissioner, Akola, writes: 'For the first day or two after birth a child is given milk; and then it is allowed to take the mother's milk; if this is insufficient a wet-nurse is called in. Until the child is six months' old, its head and body are oiled every second or third day, and the body is well hand-rubbed and bathed. The rubbing is to make the limbs supple, and the oil to render it less susceptible to cold. They are very kind to their children, never harsh or quick-tempered. This may in part be due to constitutional lethargy. They seldom refuse a child anything; but, taking advantage of its innocence, will by dissimulation make it forget it. The time arrives when this course of conduct is useless, and then the child learns to mistrust the word of its parents. This evil effect is intensified by the dissimulation and reticence necessary among members of large families who wish to live together peaceably. Children thus learn not to repeat what they have seen or heard, and hence arises a tendency to dissimulation'.

Lad.—The Lads who claim to be a subdivision of the Wani or Bania caste are most numerous in the Malkapur tahsil. They are immigrants from Gujarat and take their name from Lat, the classic name of the southern portion of Gujarat.

Lohar.—The Lohars or *Khatris* when *balutedars* of their villages do the iron work of the agricultural implements and perform the necessary repairs.

Mahar.—Customs and ceremonies : The old local religion, as might be expected, survives more markedly among Mahar and Mang castes than among those higher in the social scale, although the Brahmans have impressed the mark of their creed upon the more important occasions of life. The auspicious day for a marriage is ascertained from the village Joshi, a Brahman, who receives a fee for his information. And although some peculiar custom may here and there be kept up, as when a Mahar bridegroom drops a ring into a bowl of water, which the bride picks out and wears, or as when a Chambhar bride twice or thrice opens a small box which her future spouse each time smartly shuts again, still the ceremony is conducted, as far as possible, according to the ordinary Hindu rites. Furthermore, as the Joshi will not come to the marriage, it can only take place on the same day as a marriage among some higher caste, so that the Mahars may watch for the priest's signal, and may know the exact moment at which the dividing cloth (*antarpat*) should be withdrawn, and the garments of the bride and bridegroom knotted, while the bystanders clap their hands and pelt the couple with coloured grain. The identity of time and the proximity of position multiply the opportunities and the temptation to copy the marriage rites of the higher castes. So, too, after a death, the chief mourner mourns for ten days and observes the general rule of abstinence from all sweet or dainty food during the days of mourning. If a Mahar's child has died he will, on the third day, place bread on the grave; if an infant, milk; if an adult, on the tenth day, with five pice in one hand and five *pan* leaves in the other, he goes into the river, dips five times, and throws them away; he then places five lighted lamps on the tomb, and after these simple ceremonies gets himself shaved as though he were an orthodox Hindu.

Somas Mahars and other divisions : One division of the Mahars is called Somas or Somavanshi, and claims to have taken part with the Pandavas against the Kauravas in the war of the *Mahabharat*, and subsequently to have settled in the Maharashtra.

After the Somas Mahars the three most important divisions are the Ladvan or Ladsai, the Andhvan and the Bavane or Baonya. The latter sometimes become Manbhavs: they have the same scruple as the Balahi has to grooming a stranger's horse; they will not eat with any other division of Mahars. The total number of subdivisions is $12\frac{1}{2}$, the half caste being sometimes given as the base-born and sometimes as the religious mendicants. Illegitimate children are more often than others consecrated to divine service, and hence the confusion. The Gopals are sometimes looked upon as the half caste of Mahars. The Bankar, Goski, Holar and Lotval castes are also Mahars. Other divisions of the caste are given as Kachore, Kharse, Nimari, Malvi, Kathalya, Dharkia, Pendaria and Ghatole.

Social life and village duties of the Mahars: The men among the Mahars wear a black woollen thread around their necks: their women share the common aversion to shoes with pointed

tops. As fourth *balutedar* on the village establishment the Mahar holds a post of great importance to himself and convenience to the village. The knowledge gained in his official position renders him a referee on matters affecting the village boundaries and customs. To the *patel*, *patwari* and the 'big men' of the village, he acts often as a personal servant and errand-runner; for a smaller cultivator, he will also at times carry a torch or act as escort. To the latter class, however, the Mahar is an indirect rather than a direct boon, in as much as his presence saves them from the liability of being called upon to render the *patel* or the village personal service. For the services which he thus renders as *pandhevar*, the Mahar receives from the cultivators certain grain-dues. The regular payment is made when the grain has been threshed. The amount of the due and the mode of calculation vary greatly, almost from village to village. The calculation is sometimes made upon the total area of land cultivated (e.g., one *seer* per acre cultivated), but in other parts land cultivated with edible grain is alone liable to the payment (e.g., $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 *seers* per acre of edible grain).

Mali.—The Malis are found in strength in the Malkapur, Jalgaon and Khamgaon tahsils but are less numerous in the Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils. The word Mali is derived from Sanskrit *mala* (a garland). The caste cannot be said to be a very old one. Generally speaking, it may be said that flowers have scarcely a place in the *Vedas*. Wreaths of flowers are used as decorations, but the separate flowers and their beauty are not yet appreciated. That lesson was first learned later by the Hindus when surrounded by another flora. Similarly among the Homeric Greeks in spite of their extensive gardening, and their different names for different flowers, not a trace of horticulture is yet to be found¹. The caste is chiefly engaged in raising vegetable and garden crops. The chief subdivisions of the caste are Phulmali, Jire, Ghase, Kosaria, Baone and Lonare. The Phulmalis who take their name from *phul* (flower) are considered the highest. The Jire are the cumin-seed growers; the Kosarias derive their name from Kosala, the classic name of Chhattisgad; the Baones are named after Berar, 'the revenue of which was fifty-two (*bavan*) lakhs as against six lakhs only obtained from the Jhadi or hill country'; and the Lonare are the residents of the country round about Lonar lake which is about 12 miles south of Mehkar. The Phulmalis will neither cultivate nor boil turmeric. The reason alleged is that in the turmeric flower is the outline of a small cow tied with a rope, to which in boiling turmeric damage might ensue. The Jire Malis will both grow and boil turmeric for which they are despised, but they will not grow onions. From his dealings in flowers which are used in worship and on all ceremonial occasions the sight of a Mali is considered lucky. In social characteristics the Malis resemble the Kunbis. The Phulmalis take the flesh of a goat, but abstain from liquor.

¹ Schrader. *Prehistoric Antiquities*, 121, quoted by Crooke on page 453 of Vol. III of his *Castes and Tribes of N.W.P.*

and the flesh of fowls; the Ghase Malis have no objection to eating eggs and fowls. The caste performs the marriage ceremony according to the Maratha ritual. Widow marriage is also practised and divorce allowed. The Malis are the votaries of Devi and Kal Bhairava and also worship all the gods of the Hindu pantheon. They stop their ordinary work on the day of *Nag Panchami* festival and offer worship to their trade implements on *Dasara*.

Manbhav.—The Manbhavs are a local *Vaishnav* sect and some of them are religious mendicants. The caste is steadily decreasing.

Mang.—The Mangs are a menial caste ranking only above Bhangis. There are many customs and legends connected with the Mang caste which prove them to be of very long standing in the country. The first Mang, Maghya, was created by Mahadev to protect Brahmadev from the winged horses which troubled him in his work of creating the world. The devotion of the Mangs to Mahadev is noticeable: it shows the kind of religious conceptions once current in the country, which that name has been made to. The Mangs still worship Mari Mata, Asura and Vetala or Brahma. Like the Mahars they worship no graven image: the visible representations of their deities are round stones daubed with vermillion. Occasionally they worship Dawal Malik, and Khandoba, but no god belonging strictly to the higher Hindu pantheon. Maghya Mang waxed proud and was humbled by being ordered by Mahadev to castrate oxen for the Kunbis, an office still performed by the village Mang who receives six or eight annas or four or eight seers of grain per job. At the *Navratra* a Mang woman is still sometimes worshipped, a custom, the origin of which dates according to the legend, from the time of Parashuram.

Status in village: The Mang is a *balutedar*: formerly he acted as hangman when necessary, and occasionally as watchman: his wife acts as midwife. At marriages he beats the drum and plays the crooked horn. His salutation is 'Farman' as that of the Mahar is 'Namastu'. He uses a slang language, some of the words in which are of Dravidian origin. The Mangs are men of strong passions.

Subdivisions: There are nominally 12½ divisions in the caste, but the names given differ in different parts, and are often merely descriptive of their residence or occupation. Thus the Ghatole Mangs are Mangs from the Satmala Ghats: the Madhige division are probably Telgu Madigas: the Uchles are pickpockets, and the Pendhari Mangs are highway robbers; Pungivalas play on the pipe, and Daphlevalas on the tom-tom. The different divisions sometimes contract prejudices which tend to perpetuate the distinction. The Berar Mangs and the Buruds (who are reckoned as the half caste in the enumeration) make baskets of bamboo and use a knife known as the *bhal*, while the Dakhani Mangs will not touch this knife, and work with date-palm leaves.

Customs and religious observances: The ordinary trade of a Mang is to prepare brooms or date-palm matting. On the *Akshya-tritiya*, when offerings to the dead are made, the Mang supplies a new broom to each of the more important houses in his villages.

Like the Mahars, the Mangs always bury their dead. They do not use a bier, and make no distinction of persons further than that the deceased, if married, is dressed in new clothes and mourned for ten instead of three days. On each of the three days succeeding the death, the mourners hold a feast, on the first two days generally at their own expense, but on the third day always at the expense of the chief mourner, who on the tenth day gets himself shaved and gives a caste dinner.

Their marriages take place usually in the month of *Ashadh*, the 15th of which month is sacred to their worship of the deity Mari Mata. Those of the girls who are not married before they reach the age of puberty become Muralis or Joginis.

Maratha.—It is difficult to avoid confusion in the use of the word Maratha, which signifies both an inhabitant of the area in which the Marathi language is spoken and a member of the caste to which the general name has, in view of their historical importance, been specifically applied. The native name for the Marathi-speaking country is Maharashtra, which has been variously interpreted as 'the great country' or 'the country of the Mahars'. Another, and perhaps the most probable, derivation is that it is named from the Rashtrakuta dynasty, which was dominant in the area for some centuries after 750 A. D. The name Rashtrakuta was contracted into Ratta; and with the prefix Maha, 'great' might evolve into the term Maratha. The Marathas are a caste formed from military service, and it seems probable that they sprang mainly from the peasant population of Kunbis, though in what period they were formed into a caste has not yet been determined. The designation of Maratha first became prominent during the period of Shivaji's guerilla warfare against Aurangzeb. Several of the Maratha clans have the names of Rajput tribes, as Chauhan, Ponvar, Jadhav, Solanki and Suryavanshi, and in 1836 Mr. Enthoven states that the Rana of Udaipur was satisfied from enquiries conducted by an agent that the Bhosle and certain other families had a right to be recognised as Rajputs. But the general feeling does not admit this claim. The caste is of a decidedly mixed nature, as is apparent from its internal structure. In Buldhana they are commonly spoken of as Maratha Kunbis. Indeed in the Berar Census of 1881 they were amalgamated with Kunbis, and have only been recorded separately in the last two generations. They are not mentioned as a separate caste by Sir A. Lyall in the Berar Gazetteer. In Buldhana the Marathas will take daughters from the Kunbis in marriage for their sons, though they will not give their daughters in return. But a Kunbi who has got on in the world and become wealthy may, by a sufficient payment, get his sons married into Maratha families and even be adopted as a member of

the caste, just as a successful soap boiler in England occasionally becomes a peer and sets himself up with a complete portrait gallery of Norman ancestors. It seems a necessary conclusion that the bulk of the caste are of much the same origin as the Kunbis, though some of the leading families may have had Rajputs among their ancestors. The family of the Jadhav Rajas of Sindkhed, from a daughter of which the renowned Shivaji sprang, is the leading Maratha family of Buldhana and Berar, and claims to be of the purest Rajput blood. In 1870 Sir A. Lyall notes that this family had recently made a show of great reluctance to permit a poor kinsman to espouse the Gaikvad of Baroda's daughter. A notable trait of this and similar families is the fondness with which they cling to their hereditary *watans*. In Buldhana the Marathas are principally engaged in cultivation and moneylending, though many of them have taken up personal service and are also employed in Government service as clerks, peons, and constables. The caste eat the flesh of clean animals and of fowls and wild pig. Their rules about food are liberal like those of the Rajput, a too great stringency being no doubt in both cases incompatible with the exigencies of military service. They observe the *parda* system with regard to their women, and will go to the well and draw water themselves rather than permit their wives to do so; but the poorer Marathas cannot maintain the system, and they and their wives and children work in the fields. The men often in imitation of the Rajputs have their hair long and wear beards and whiskers. They commonly wear a turban made of many folds of cloth twisted into a narrow rope and large gold rings with pearls in the lower part of the ear. They assume the sacred thread and invest a boy with it when he is seven or eight years old or on his marriage though this is not strictly observed. Some Marathas do not wear the sacred thread at all, saying their forefathers never wore it. In appearance the men are often tall and well-built and of a light wheat-coloured complexion. The principal deity of the Marathas is Khandoba, a warrior incarnation of Mahadev. He is supposed to have been born in a field of millet near Pune; and to have led the people against the Muhammedans in early times. He had a watch dog who warned him of the approach of his enemies, and he is named after the *khanda* or sword which he always carried. The Marathas are generally kind to dogs, and will not injure them.

Mhali.—The Mhalis are barbers and *balutedars*. The Mhali shaves the heads, chins, and armpits of his clients and pares their nails. When the first son is born to any of his clients, the barber carries the good news to the relatives. He takes a bamboo stick in his hand, adorns it with cloth, and crowns it with an earthen pot. For this, and in return for the presents of sugar and *pan* leaves which he then distributes, he expects to receive from each man a rupee, a turban or a shoulder cloth, or at least a few handfuls of grain as a reward. In the case of a marriage among Shudras, it is the village barber who takes out

the invitations and who subsequently superintends the bathing of the bridegroom. The barbers also light the lamps and hold the torches during the ceremony, and at its close two of them take the bride and bridegroom in their arms and distribute the sugar sweetmeats (*van*) which have been provided for the Brahmans.

Panchal.—The Panchals are vagrant blacksmiths. They have been in Berar for some generations. They live in small *pals* or tents, and move from place to place with buffaloes, donkeys, and occasionally ponies to carry their kit.

Pardhi.—The Pardhis from the Marathi word for a huntsman are a wandering people ostensibly occupied in snaring game. Malkapur seems to be favourite tahsil with them, as a large proportion of their number was enumerated there both in 1881 and in 1891. There are three well-known divisions of Pardhis, the Shikari, Phans and Langoti Pardhis. The Pardhis of Berar admit that they are Baurias, who originated from Rajputana and are held to be aborigines of that part of India. The Pardhis have the custom whereby on the death of an elder brother the younger takes his widow to wife. They pay for their wives. At the time of marriage a mock resistance is sometimes made generally, however, the couple walk round the encampment under a cloth borne on four poles. In front of them walks a married woman carrying five pitchers of water. The couple eat grain from the same dish or throw it on each other's head. The bridegroom gives the bride a dress, a bodice, and a fold of the paper helmet which he himself wears. A Brahman is asked to name an auspicious day for the event, and among the Phanse Pardhi division he is also asked to officiate. In religion, besides worshipping their ancestors, they worship goddesses who are now identified with the Hindu goddess Devi, but who are known in the caste by many different names. Sometimes they carry small silver images of these deities; at other times they fashion one of clay.

Pathrat.—The Pathrats whose name is a contraction of Patharvat or stone dresser, are stone workers.

Rajput.—The Rajputs may be divided into two classes, (1) those who were originally of foreign origin and (2) those who have assumed the name of Rajputs but who are really of humbler birth. The Rana Rajputs chiefly found in the Malkapur and Jalgaon tahsils are believed to be of Maratha origin. Agriculture is the ordinary occupation of the Rajput caste.

Rangari.—The Rangaris, the caste of dyers, are mostly found in the Malkapur tahsil. They worship Hinglaj Bhavani, Daval Malik and Khandoba; and beginning on the *Gudhi Padva* or Hindu New Year's Day they observe a fortnight's holiday, during which all business is suspended, and a subscription is raised in order that a caste dinner may be held. They use as dyes morinda, indigo and safflower but aniline dyes are also in considerable vogue. They are governed in caste matters by a *panch* or council, and an elective headman or *chaudhari*. The caste is said to have come originally from Gujarat.

Shimpi.—The Shimpis are tailors. They are divided into the Jain, Marathi and Telugu Shimpis. The Jains belong usually to the Setval caste; the Marathi Shimpis are often Lingayats; and the Telugu division are generally Vaishnavas. The Jain Shimpis claim the hero Neminath as a caste-fellow; the Marathis claim the noted saint Namdev as such.

Sonar.—The Sonars, workers in precious metals, are the most important of the artisan castes. Among the Sonars there are several divisions, the most important being the Vaishya, Malvi, and Panchal. The Vaishya and Panchal Sonars invest their children with the sacred thread when they are seven years old, the ceremony sometimes being performed by a Brahman, and sometimes by one of their own castemen. The Vaishya and Panchal Sonars have religious teachers of their own caste and they are said to have claimed and vindicated their right against the Brahmans to perform their own marriage ceremonies. The Sonars discountenance the remarriage of widows. In his business life a Sonar is noted for his astuteness.

Sutar.—The Sutar are carpenters. They probably take their name which means literally a 'maker of string' on a 'worker by string' either from their sometimes joining planks by string or from their skill in planning or measuring. Some Sutar wear the sacred thread; the well-to-do assuming it in childhood, and the poorer from the time of their marriage. The Sutar heads the list of village *balutedars*. The highest division of the caste are the Kharatis or turners who come from Northern India.

Takari.—The Takaris mend the handmills (*chakkis*) used for grinding corn. They are practically confined to the plain tahsils.

Teli.—The Telis are oil pressers by origin. Their hereditary trade has suffered from the introduction of cheap bulk oil and also from the oil mills worked by steam power. They have largely taken to agriculture.

Thakur.—The Thakurs are almost identical with the Bhats. They are the hereditary village bards, members of the village community. Many of them have taken to labour and cultivation.

Vidur.—The Vidurs are almost, if not quite, synonymous with Krishnapakshis. In dress the Vidurs copy the Brahmans.

Waddar.—The Waddars have decreased considerably. They are immigrants from Southern India and are earth-workers, and are constantly moving about in search of work. Their movements depend upon the demand for labour for roads and other public works.

Wani.—The Wanis or Banias are chiefly of foreign origin, being immigrants from Marvad, Gujarat and Rajputana. Most of them are traders, money-lenders, shroffs and grocers, but a large number have also taken to agriculture. Being strangers in the land, Wanis are generally distinguished among Beraris by the name of their country or their sect. Lingayat Wanis affix the term *appa* to their names, as Kunbis and others affix *ji*.

Wanjari.—The Wanjaris are said to have come into this District from the Nizam's Dominions where they are still found in large numbers. The caste claims to be of Maratha origin and yet they aver that they were originally Paundrakas, a tribe inhabiting the old Paundra country, that is, Bengal and Bihar. They allege that they with seven other castes were allies of Parashuram when he ravaged the Haihayas of the Vindhya mountains, and that after this the task of guarding the passes was entrusted to them. From their prowess in keeping down the beasts of prey which infested the gorges and ravines under their charge, they became known as the *Vanya Shatru*, subsequently contracted into Wanjari. In course of time their services were rewarded with grants of land similar to the Metkari Inams and one division of the caste is now known as the Metkari Wanjaris. Though some Wanjaris connect their name with *wanja* or trading by pack bullocks yet to confound them with the Banjara carrier castes gives them great offence. They, however, are unable to reconcile their claim of Maratha origin with the Bengali one which they also claim and of which no traces in their manners, customs, or *gotras* now remain. Other subdivisions of the Wanjari castes are Raojin, Bhusarjin, Ladjin and Kanarjin. These subdivisions neither intermarry nor eat with each other. Each subdivision has twelve-and-a-half minor divisions; each minor subdivision has also 50 *kulas*, and each *kula* has 4 *gotras*. Among the 4 *gotras* of a particular *kula* no intermarriage can take place as they are considered to be descendants from the same parental stock. Infant marriage prevails in the caste. The betrothal ceremony is performed by presenting the girl with new clothing (*phadki* and *parkar*), washing her feet with water, and affixing a patch of *kunku* to her forehead. A piece of sugarcandy is put in her mouth and packets containing coriander, sugar, *kunku* and five small pieces of cocoanut are put in her *dhoti*. The father of the boy then distributes *pan-supari* to the men assembled, while the father of the girl applies red *gandh* to the forehead of each man. This ceremony is called *Sakharpuda*. Women do not accompany men to the village of the girl. A few days before marriage there takes place the ceremony of *Waghinseo* or *Hobas*, apparently a corruption of *Wag-Nischaya*, or settling the marriage contract by word of mouth. The boy's father visits the girl's village and presents her with ornaments and clothing. In addition to the above the following things are given, *gur* (unrefined sugar), cocoanuts, *khurma*, cardamom *godambi*, *kunku*, coriander and sugarcandy. The ceremonies known as *Shalmundi* and *Gondhal*, also take place before the marriage is performed. In the first the father of the girl visits the village of the boy and presents him with a gold ring, an *uparna* and a turban. At the second from one to five goats are sacrificed though sweet-meats are sometimes substituted. The Wanjaris follow the Maratha ritual of marriage in which bride and the bridegroom stand facing each other with a curtain drawn between them, and the assembled guests throw *juari* dyed yellow on the contracting couple. The marriage ceremony is performed on the *mutha* (a sort of country saddle used

for the bullock). Widow-marriage is allowed by the caste, but a bachelor is not allowed to marry a widow. The dead are both burnt and buried, the corpse is laid in the grave, flat on the back, with feet to the north and the head to the south. By religion Wanjaris are Shivites or worshippers of Shiva; some of them are the followers of the Daval Malik sect. Drinking is prohibited amongst them. No *parda* system is observed by them. They are now mainly engaged in agriculture and in nearly every point they resemble the Kunbis. They eat from the hands of Kunbis and Marathas. The Bhusarjin and Kanarjin subdivisions are scarcely found, but the Ladjin and Raojin subdivisions are common. Men and women of the Raojin subdivision are allowed to eat flesh, whereas the women of the Ladjin subdivision do not touch it, but the prohibition is not extended to males. The *Dhola* ceremony is performed when the woman is in the seventh month of pregnancy. On this occasion green *lugdas* are given to her and new clothes are presented to her husband as well.

HINDUS

Except for the small body of Banias who follow Jainism, the Hindus of the District belong to two main classes; (1) Brahmanic Hindus who follow Brahmanic Gods; these include all Brahmans and similar castes; they employ Brahman priests and (2) other and tribal Hindus who mainly worship non-Brahman and animistic gods.

Deities.—The religion of Brahmans is Hinduism of which they are priests and exponents. Most Brahmans belong to a sect worshipping especially Shiva or Vishnu, Rama and Krishna or Shakti or Devi.

The Hinduism of Berar in general and this district in particular is undoubtedly a religion of local origin which has been moulded and modified by external forces. Shiva, the chief deity is held by some as of Dravidian origin. Others believe that it was the inhabitant of the Western Himalayas who elevated Rudra Shiva to be their protecting deity just as Vishnu became the god of the nations on the Ganga.

The external forces which prior to the arrival of Muhammedans moulded or modified local religion were the Aryan element, the Buddhist and Jain religions and the neo-Brahmanic revival. Traces of the Aryan element are very faint. The various sacrificial fires or *homas* at various religious ceremonies appear to be a relic of the worship of *Agni*. The worship of the sun in the *sandhya* performance in the form of the recitation of *Gayatri* is another such relic. The indirect influence of Buddhism may perhaps be recognised among the *Gosavis*, *Manbhavs*, *Gondhalis* and other sects who recruit their ranks from the Shudra Castes. To the example of Buddhists and Jains is probably due the predisposition among the Hindus of Berar to the frequent canonisation of saints, a cult which in due course extended to the worship of even canonised Musalmans. The diverse elements were welded together by Brahmanic influence to some

extent, but the Brahmans never had the power, even if they had the will, to make the man homogeneous.

Mahadev or His forms: The great festival in honour of Mahadev is the *Mahashivaratri* but at this *Linga* is the object of worship and although the sect of Lingayats is comparatively modern, the worship of the *Linga* is supposed to be intimately connected with the old serpent worship. Among the other castes Bhairoba as an incarnation of Shiva is much worshipped while among agricultural and some other castes the most popular incarnation is Khandoba. It was in his honour that in former days women used to swing themselves by iron hooks fastened into their flesh after first naming their petition to the priest. Men also drew strings of heavy carts by means of iron hooks fastened into their bodies. In many houses there is a silver image of the god, sword in hand, on horseback, before which on the *Champa Shashthi* day is waved a copper platter, bearing cocoanut, jaggery, turmeric and sixteen small lamps made of wheat flour. His votaries also offer him brinjals and onions, his favourite diet, which they may not use themselves before this day. The black dog of Khandoba on which he rides is also worshipped. Sunday is the day held sacred to this deity and alms are solicited on this day in his name. He is also known as Martanda, a Sanskrit name for the sun.

Devi Worship: The favourite incarnation of Devi is Bhavani in whose services the Gondhalis are traditionally enrolled. She is worshipped for the nine days, *Bhavani Navaratra*, which precedes the *Vijaya Dashmi* or *Dasara*. The idol is placed on a basket crowned every day with fresh flowers. The basket rests on a pot full of water and for the whole period of nine days, a light is kept burning on a stand before the image. On the 10th day, the head of the village used to slay a buffalo in remembrance of the victory of Devi over the demon Mahishasura. An unmarried girl also is placed beside the image of the Devi on this day and worshipped, the ceremony probably being a relic of the left-handed ritual of former days. Bhavani is also worshipped on the new and full-moon day.

Maruti: Maruti or Hanuman is another deity whose worship in this district is universal. He is represented as a monkey. He is the guardian of villages and all Hindus celebrate his birth day on the full day in *Chaitra* every year. Maruti is invoked at the time of birth, marriage and death and on all occasions when the necessity of any help for the success of an undertaking arises.

All the three gods described above are believed to represent deities of other than Aryan origin and are more popular than those of Aryan origin such as the incarnations of Vishnu, of whom two are recognised as the most important *viz.*, Rama and Krishna. The latter is better known as Balaji. A great festival to commemorate their birthdays is held annually. They are known as *Ramanavami* and *Gokulashtami*.

Ancestor Worship: The growth of ancestor worship into the worship of saints and heroes is exemplified in the local religion. Some castes *e.g.*, Telis keep small metal images made in honour of

their ancestors. Food is offered to the dead man's spirit after every funeral. The Brahmanic custom is to offer to the ancestors on the anniversary of their death. In this district, some castes omit this observance and only offer their oblations, which may be nothing more than a handful of food or a little ghee thrown into the fire on two fixed days in the year. The first is the third day in the month of *Vaishakh* known as *Akhaji* or *Akshayatriya*; the second is the *Pithori Amavasya* and it is one of the occasions on which barren women worship the attendants of Durga in the hope of offspring.

Cases of hero-worship are not very frequent. Only ancient heroes like Rama, Krishna and Hanuman are worshipped. But the list of saints is continually on the increase. They are supposed to act as intercessors between mortals and the unseen powers or at any rate to possess some mysterious influence for good or for evil which can be propitiated by sacrifice and offering. Pilgrimages are made to the tombs of these saints. When an ascetic or a man widely renowned for virtue has acquired the name of a *sadhu* or a saint, he is often consulted much during his life time and a few lucky prescriptions or prophecies gain him a reputation for working miracles. Many large fairs have taken their origin from the annual concourse at the shrine of these *sadhus*.

Ghosts: All classes of people have a firm belief that the spirits of the dead are inclined at times to trouble the living. The spirits are classed according to the status of their owners at the time of death. A *Jhoting* is the spirit of a child who was not invested with the sacred thread; a *munja* is that of a child who wore the thread but died before marriage. A *bhut* is an adult male ghost. Female ghosts are known as *chudel*, *dakin*, *hadal* or *manvin*. A *Brahmasamandha* or *Brahmarakshasa* is the ghost of a miserly Brahman. It is believed that a *munja* spirit will cause the death of one child after another who is named after him and the terrified parents will call their next offspring a blockhead or a dunghed (Dhondya or Ukirdya) in the hope that the angry spirit may be appeased. If a child is sickening from this cause, its parents will give a dinner at a banyan tree to unmarried boys; or he may tie a silken cord round the child's waist and prepare an offering of red lead, limes, betelnut and leaves, cocoanut and dates. At night he may call a Kumbhar or other exorcist who brings with him a small drum. After worshipping it, he plays on the drum as he sings invocations to each unmarried man who had died in his family. He will sprinkle the mouth and eyes of the afflicted person with water over which *mantras* have been repeated. After being repeatedly questioned, the evil spirit explains who he is and how he entered it. More sprinkling and *mantras*, with an occasional tap from the exorcist's wand, decide the spirit who promises to depart if he receives the offering due to him. This is made. The affected person takes an old shoe between his teeth and goes to the abode of the spirit and thence to a *pipal* tree, at the foot of which he is supposed to fall senseless and to be free from the incubus. A nail is driven into the tree

to prevent the spirit's return; or if the exorcist can manage it, he shuts up the spirit in a bottle which is buried deep underground. Should the foot or any single limb be affected, the ceremony of *dora-bandhan* is frequently performed. A piece of string is suspended over a wood fire, *mantras* being repeated all the while; the smoke when it touches the string indicates the effectual *mantra*. The string is then bound around the sufferer's foot and the regular offering to evil spirits follows. If it be a *manvin* or the spirit of a married woman, who is troubling one of her own sex, an image of her is made and worshipped. Often, in order to appease her, before a marriage, a bodice-piece, bangles, red and yellow turmeric, tooth powder, a betel-nut and leaf are presented to a married woman who comes from her own house to receive the offerings, bathes and is then led back. If a *Jhoting* be troublesome, a patch of ground at the side of a river or road or at the village burial place is plastered over with cow-dung and on the smooth surface, the figure of a man is sketched in red lead. To this grains of *udid* and jowar coloured yellow, red and turmeric with white oleander flowers are offered; little lamps of wheat flour containing linseed oil are lit and scents and camphor are burnt. Limes, dates, almonds, plantains and lumps of turmeric, five of each and a cocoanut are then offered. After this, the worshippers return home and bathe.

Demon Gods and goddesses: These spirits of evil are rarely remembered beyond a second generation and are very inferior to the demon gods and goddesses, represented by the rude heaps of red daubed stones which so frequently meet the eye by the roadside under the trees. At the head of these demons stands Bhairava or Vetala king of the *bhuts*, and Mhasoba or Mahishasur, the haunter of running waters who every now and again drags under and destroys a victim or two and through fear of whom a *mot* is never worked from a stream. The Chief female demons are now nearly identified with Devi. There is Meskai whose shrine is visited by Kunbis, Salis and Bhois on the eve of a wedding. There are Mari Mai and Mata Mai, goddesses of Cholera and Small-pox; Panchvai and Satvai, who are propitiated on the fifth and sixth day after the birth of a child, but these are common to people all over Maharashtra. There are the seven *asuras*, water spirits like Mahishasur, but who trouble chiefly the female sex. An offering similar to that made to a *Jhoting* is made when one of these demons, in revenge for its haunt being disturbed, has seized a victim; but to the fruits and flowers must be added the blood of a cock or a kid, slain at the shrine. Sometimes, the Gondhalis also are called in to sing through the night.

Tree Worship: Tree worship is also prevalent as well as the use of trees in worship. The *pipal* tree as being the abode of the *munja* spirit is worshipped every Sunday evening. The *umbar*, the *tulas* and the *bel* are sometimes the objects of daily worship, particularly by women. *Bel* leaves, with rice grains, sandal paste and flowers are offered to Mahadev daily before taking a meal. The *Shami* tree, the *apta* tree and the *agara* plant are worshipped on the

Vijayadashami day. The *palas* is worshipped by Kunbis on the *pola* day and its branch is considered as particularly fruitful in the *Medhajanana* rite during the *upanayana samskara* among Brahmans. The *avala* tree is an object of worship after the rains and under its shade a community meal is taken. The banyan tree is worshipped on the full moon day of *Jyeshtha* by women when long life for their husbands is prayed for. When the marriage booth is erected, the astrologer insists on twigs of mango, *shami*, *jambul*, *apta*, and swallow-wort for being hung in corners and in the centre. After death too the *tulsi* leaf is considered as indispensable for being put in the mouth of the dead body.

Serpent Worship: The worship of the Cobra seems not to obtain among the hill tribes as much as among the pastoral and menial castes of the plains. Dhangars, Kolis, Berads, Banjaras, Mahars, Mangs, Chambhars, etc., are the chief serpent worshippers. A living Cobra is worshipped only when it is brought and taken from place to place by the *garudis* by offering milk to it. Sometimes, a metal or wooden image of a Cobra is substituted or a snake is fashioned out of clay. Generally the worship is performed at an ant-hill and if a cobra is seen it is taken as a good omen. Twigs of nim tree are fixed in the ground around an ant-hill; a yellow thread is wound round them and offerings of grain, jowar, and milk are deposited within the circle. The simplest form of worship is pouring of milk on an ant-hill, but the ceremony, whether simple or complex, is performed by the people without the aid of Brahmans.

Metempsychosis: The belief in metempsychosis is general. The good deeds done in the present life are balanced against the evil and the nature of the dying man's next life is determined by the preponderance of one side or the other. Sex alone remains unchanged. At the moment of death, a person will single out that form into which his soul will pass from amongst 84 lakh of possible existences. His relatives in their anxiety to learn his future fate, seek his resting place on the tenth night after death and there sprinkle the ground with rice or jowar flour, smoothing it with a brass plate. They place boiled rice and water in a vessel to satisfy the dead person's wants and cover the whole with a basket, sometimes leaving a lamp burning. In the morning they come betimes and look for marks in the flour which shall indicate to them the animal into which his soul has gone. This observance is more common in the lower castes but is not unknown among the Kunbis who, however, substitute red turmeric for flour. The Musalman Bhils, notwithstanding their conversion, keep up the custom, but postpone this performance till the 40th day after death.

Sorcery and Witchcraft: The belief in sorcery and witchcraft is also widespread. Those through whose agency the evil comes or by whose influence it is removed are feared rather than respected; their power is, however, supposed to cease as soon as their teeth fall out.

Worship of implements of handicrafts: One more phase of Hindu beliefs claims notice. Their pantheistic piety leads them to invest with a mysterious potentiality the animals which are most useful to man and even the implements of a profitable trade. The Kunbis worship their bullocks at the *pola* festival and their ploughs on the *Dasara* day. The Dhangars bow down to their sheep on the full moonday of *Ashadha*. Bankers reverence their books at the time of *Diwali* and clerks their stylus. The Teli worships his oil-mill and his worst fear is that after his death his soul should pass into one of his own bullocks. Artisans do homage to their tools and the implements of their respective crafts. The bricklayer worships his trowel and the Kaikadi his pruning hook.

Omens.—At the commencement of a journey or an enterprise, Ganesh should be invoked according to the Brahmans. Ganesh is, however, popularly supplanted on such occasions by the observance of omens, which are much the same for all castes, though to this rule also there are exception. The sight of a corpse or flesh is lucky omen except with the Lads and Sonars. To Gosavis and Bairagis, salt, earth, and a potter are inauspicious but not to other castes; while a Brahman with a headcloth on his head and his caste marks painted brings good luck, misfortune is the result if he should be encountered bare-headed. A married woman is lucky to meet; a widow is inauspicious. A pot full of water is a good thing to see; an empty pot is not so. If a man has a twitching in his right eye the omen is good but not so if it occurs in his left eye. With a woman the case is reversed. A sweeper bearing night soil is a lucky man to meet, a Teli with an oilpot is unlucky. Should a spider cross one's hand it is a good omen, but house lizard falling on one's body is bad. A single sneeze when a person is speaking denotes good luck to him, but an additional sneeze will change it. A deer, blue-jay, peacock or ichneumon on the left hand are all harbingers of good as are also mongoose, a cow with a calf and an ox, but if one's path is crossed by a jackal or a cat or a dog is heard yelling or an owl hooting are bad forebodings. A wild parrot perching on the head or shoulder, the sound of joy music, dreaming a good dream or meeting a corpse borne by four men are all omens of good import while a lamp falling, a man's *pagdi* or a woman's toe rings coming off or ring-dove entering the house are events fraught with evil consequences. If a ring dove enters the house, the occupants leave it for three days; on the third day a cow is brought into the house and food and alms are given to Brahmans and after this it becomes habitable.

Religion of an ordinary Hindu.—At the Census of 1901, it was suggested that an attempt should be made to explain the actual working or popular belief of an ordinary Hindu, his standards of right or wrong and his belief as to what will happen to him if he disregards them. Mr. A. D. Chinoy, the author of the Berar Census Report, 1901 records the results of his observations as follows which hardly admit of any change even to this day: "The religion

of an ordinary Hindu of Berar, who may be taken to be a person no way learned in the ancient lore of his religion nor affected by the march of modern thought, is theism. He has, however, a vague notion of his religion. He is both a monotheist and a polytheist. He believes in the existence of one Supreme God whom he regards as almighty, omniscient, all-pervading and the creator and destroyer of this universe. He also believes in the existence of many subordinate orders of gods. His ancient religion of the *Vedic* period which consisted of the worship of the Sun, the fire, the water or Varuna, is nearly unknown to him. Celebration of sacrifices to fire has dwindled down to a very small offering called *Vaishwadeva* in the houses of Brahmans. Rama, Krishna, Shiva, Vishnu and others who may be regarded as accretions of the *Puranic* period are held by him in reverence. He hears their praises sung in the *kathas* or recitations of *purans* and *kirtans* or sermons, the text of which is interspersed with music. The deities round which his daily life revolves are the village Maruti and his own family tutelary deities worshipped everyday in the houses. The temple in the village he visits daily, if religiously minded and does ceremonial worship there only on special occasions. He observes fasts the most popular of which would appear to be *Ekadashi*. Pilgrimages form an important item in his creed, but are not regarded as compulsory. Banaras, Rameshwar, Pandharpur and Mahur are some of the sacred places to which he would like to go, if circumstances permit. Feeding Brahmans and giving presents to them are pious acts, necessary on certain occasions and considered meritorious at all times. Life in all the sentient forms is more or less sacred to him. In the lower animals, the cow commands his veneration and affection. Among plants, *tulsi*, *pipal*, *bor* and *bel* are most worshipped. To argue the *pros* and *cons* of a question is not his forte and he will not readily engage himself in a controversy with the representative of another religion. To him every religion is true and good for him who is born in it. This attitude though seemingly passive has important consequences on his daily life and makes him a peaceful and desirable neighbour. As a first and most obvious result, an ordinary Hindu is usually tolerant of other religions and their observances to such an extent that he, not unfortunately, is found to worship the foreign deities himself. He willingly admits that gods worshipped by other religions are also representatives of his own, so there is no cause to quarrel or disagree.

"He believes that a very strict account is kept of his good and bad actions and that he is as sure of getting his reward or punishment, very often in this world but generally after death. His belief in a region beyond the grave is very firm. There he will meet with his deserts and after enjoying the bliss of heaven or enduring the tortures of purgatory, he will be sent back into this world in the incarnation of man or beast, according as he has made good or bad use of his time in this life. Thus expectancy of rewards and danger of punishments, in other words, hopes and fear constitute the working belief which controls most

of his actions. He believes firmly in dreams, auguries, miracles, meteors, comets and a number of other matters, which are usually called supernatural. Portents to him are very important and must be carefully attended to before undertaking anything. Astrology, as an interpreter of these, plays a great part in his life. Choice of the bride or bridegroom, the dates of marriages, and other important events of life are fixed in consultation with its dictates. To him the censure of being called superstitious means nothing. He thinks that there is an internal and unknown reason for all the so-called superstitious observances and when the foreigner blames or laughs, he returns the compliment by pitying the latter.

An ordinary Hindu is ignorant of any theory or theories of morals, though unconsciously he learns many moral lessons from the *Puranic* stories, which he hears in *kathas* from religious preachers. However, his working standard of right and wrong is that he should avoid injury to any living being as much as he can and if he is led into a bad act, either by mistake or by stress or circumstances, an expiatory ceremony called *prayashchitta*, done through proper repentance, would be potent in wiping off sin and restoring him to favour with God. To save life or bring about a marriage or other good thing, he believes, he is permitted to depart from truth. Fear of law and disapprobation of society no doubt induce him to be virtuous. These, however, work rather as checks on wrong-doing than as motives to virtue. He believes that he will get no worldly happiness in this life or that is to come, if he does not do right and will be punished in this world as well as in his future existence. But these notions are often regarded as hypothetical and do not sufficiently control his actions, because the rewards and punishments do not follow immediately and are not traceable to their origins. He sees that a wrong-doer sometimes flourishes and a pious man is often miserable. This to some is staggering and leads them to enter into an imaginary compromise with the eternal powers, by doing evil whenever self-interest requires it and then seeking expiration through *prayashchitta*".

Rituals and ceremonies.—Life for a Hindu is a round of rituals and ceremonies and most of the Hindu customs and traditions consist of ritualistic practices related to various religious observances known as *samskaras* or sacraments. According to the Hindu *Dharmashastra*, the individual has to pass through many *samskaras* which are really *sharira samskaras* for these are intended to sanctify the body (*sharira*) beginning from the moment the foetus is laid (*garbhadhana*) to the death (*antyeshti*) of a person. The number of the *Samskaras* differs according to different communities. Some say there are 16 which are obligatory and 24 which are optional, called *nitya* and *naimittika*, respectively. These are usually conducted under the direction of Brahman priests who on their part say that they use *Vedic* texts for Brahmans and

Puranic texts for others. Of late, even the 16 of these sacraments are reduced to half a dozen or even less in most of the Hindu communities and are observed in respect of birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. A *samskara* is usually preceded by a symbolic sacrifice (*homa*).

Pregnancy and Child-birth: *Garbhadhana* or the foetus laying ceremony which has to be performed as signifying consummation of marriage had social significance when child-marriages were in vogue. At present the ritual is symbolically included in the marriage ceremony without any bustle.

The *grihyasutras* have prescribed for the benefit of the pregnant woman a number of observances of a magico-religious nature and believers in the efficacy of *Vedic* rights follow them to varying extent. The *pumsavana samskara* or the male-making rite may be performed during the third month of the wife's pregnancy, so that the deities governing the sex of the foetus would be propitiated and a male issue assured.

The *jatakarma samskara* may be performed at the birth of the child. Here the father has to touch and smell the child, utter benedictory *mantras* into its ears expressing his wish that it may be endowed with long life and intelligence. However, the first popular ritual in an infant's life is the *panchavi* and *shashthi*, i.e., the ritual observed on the fifth and sixth day after birth. On the fifth day, a configuration of a betel-nut, rice, flowers, sandal paste and a sickle or a sword arranged on a *pat* in the lying-in room in the name of *panchavi* or the mother fifth is bowed to by the mother with a prayer to save the child from the attacks of evil spirits. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper and a red pen and an ink-stand are set on a stool and worshipped as Mother Sixth, i.e., *Satvai* and a few friends are feasted. Though these worships have no *Vedic* basis as a *samskara*, they are observed among all castes including the Brahmans.

In the seventh month of the first pregnancy of a woman is performed the ceremony known in this district as *dohojan* which is the corrupt form of *Dohale Bhojan*. An auspicious day is fixed by the village Joshi and on this day, the pregnant woman is dressed in green clothes. Preceded by music she is taken through the several roads of the village. She then visits Maruti's temple and bows down before the image. After bathing, she is dressed in a green *lugade*, a green *choli* and green glass bangles and is seated on a cradle fixed in the courtyard of the house. Five kinds of food, i.e., *malti*, *gahule*, *walwat*, *shivaya* and *shev* are sewed in five cups and covered with plates. The pregnant woman is asked to remove the plate from any of the cups. If she uncovers the cup containing *malti*, it is believed that a girl will be born to her; if the cup containing *gahule* is uncovered it is considered that she will have a son. After this the assembled women are treated to a dinner and the pregnant woman receives presents of new clothes from them. A pregnant woman should not cross the *pai bund* (ropes tied to the bind legs) of a

mare. If she does so, her delivery will be seriously delayed because a mare gives birth to a foal after twelve months. She should avoid the sight of a corpse and remain at home during an eclipse. Mang women act as midwives. A broom, a shoe and a knife are placed under the cot in the lying-in room. Also a pot containing cow's urine with some *nim* leaves in it is placed just at the entrance of the room and any one entering it, has to sprinkle a few drops of it on his feet. A few leaves of cotton plant and a little sand are also kept on both sides of the door to drive away evil spirits.

When a delivery is delayed and the woman's life is supposed to be in danger, all the male members of the village stand in a row from the house of the woman to the side of the village river. A relation of the woman then fills a *ghada* with river water and passes it on to the person who stands next to him. The *ghada* is thus passed from hand to hand without being placed on the ground until it reaches the woman's house. A cupful of water from the *ghada* is given to the expectant woman which hastens the delivery. This water is called *maleche pani* or *hat pani*. Another device is to give water in which a gold *mohur* of Akbar's reign has been dipped. On the birth of a first male child the father, if well-to-do, dresses himself in new clothes, enters the lying-in room with honey filled in brass cup and sees the face of the child reflected in honey. This is perhaps done to bring all good qualities to the boy, because the honey is composed of the essence of several flowers. The navel cord is cut and buried with the placenta in the compound of the house. The mother and child are bathed in lukewarm water. Castor oil mixed with honey is administered to the child three times during one day and a half. The mother suckles the child on the evening of the second day. The mother is given *harira* (jaggery cooked with dry ginger) for the first five days. She is then given *sanja* or wheat flour cooked in water with ghee and *gur*.

The mother remains impure for five or six weeks. After the expiry of this period she may cook food for the family, but the period varies a good deal according to the position in life, sometimes it being as short as even 12 days. A child born with feet first is called *payalu* and is believed to be in special danger from lightening. To avert this calamity the child is bathed in water in which a cobbler has dipped old shoes for repair. It is believed that a *payalu* has the power of seeing treasure in the earth and people put lamp black in his eyes and ask him to tell the whereabouts of hidden treasure. A *payalu* also by touching the part with his right foot will remove pain in the back.

A barren woman desiring to get a child is said to resort to some of the following devices :—

- (1) Eating the navel cord of a new born child.
- (2) Killing a scorpion and eating it with *gur*.
- (3) Walking round Maruti at dead of night.

(4) Making a mock baby of kneaded flour with a big hole in the stomach. It is placed (with a lighted lamp in it) where four roads meet. If a woman having children walks over it, it is believed she will lose her children one by one and these children will be reborn in the womb of the barren woman who performed this magical ceremony.

(5) Performing the *balirana* ceremony. The stone which is used for grinding chillis, etc., is covered with a new bodice cloth and a necklace containing golden beads is tied to it. On the 12th day when the new born child is placed in the cradle, the barren woman stands on one side of it and the woman who gave birth to the child on the other side. The latter hands over the stone dressed like a child to the former and it is believed that by doing so the sterility of the woman is removed. The birth of a boy after three girls is considered inauspicious and to avert the impending misfortune, the father of the boy climbs to the roof of the house and makes a loud noise to frighten away the evil spirits.

Naming Ceremony: The *namadheya* rite is performed on the 10th day or twelfth day after the birth of the child when it is given a name. Popularly the ceremony is known as *barse* and its observance varies according to caste. In higher castes, a Brahman is usually called in and he proposes certain names considered auspicious in view of the astrological circumstances of child birth. The family selects one of these names and sometimes more are given, one of which is kept for common use and the other for ceremonial use. A horoscope is usually cast, the name proclaimed, *pansupari* is distributed and drums beaten. In some castes, a ceremonial cradling is held by the women in the afternoon and the naming celebrated. On this day, the child receives gifts from relatives in the form of clothes, gold and cash. The *karnavedha* (piercing of the ear-lobes) ceremony may take place the same morning or may be postponed to the sixth or twelfth month. If the male child is subject to a vow, his right nostril is pierced and a gold ring put into it. The 12th day is also important in that on this day the mother, who since giving birth to the child was considered unclean is proclaimed to be clean. On this day the confinement room is thoroughly cleaned and this is the first day on which the menfolk could go to see the mother and child.

Annaprashana: Among better placed Hindus, a ceremony called *annaprashana* celebrates the first feeding of the child. It may take place in the fifth or sixth month after birth but some castes perform the ceremony for the male child in the seventh month and for a female one in the sixth month. An auspicious day is chosen and relatives are invited who come with gifts for the child. Food which is usually rice boiled with milk and sugar is put in the mouth of the child with a golden ring or a silver spoon. In some castes, the maternal uncle officiates at this function.

Javal: Then comes the hair cutting ceremony known as *javal*. As a *samskara*, it is known as *chudakarma* or the first tonsure of

hair for the sake of *dharma* and is performed in the first or third year or at any age according to the tradition of the family. At present the rite is gone through prior to the *upanayana* among some castes; some other castes are much more keen to observe it as a ceremony, believing that the hair of the child when it is born is impure and must be removed with social celebration.

Upanayana: The thread-girding ceremony or *munja* as it is popularly called is prescribed for all Hindus claiming to belonging to the first three *varnas*. The ceremony is also called *upanayana* or *vrata bandha*. After this ceremony a boy is supposed to live with his teacher and study the *vedas* and other sciences. Until this ceremony is performed he is not really a *dvija* and is not bound to observe the caste rules and restrictions.

A boy (*kumara*) undergoes the *upanayana* at the age of eight or after eighth, eleventh or twelfth years from birth being considered proper time for the ceremony. There are also rules regarding the *muhurtas* (auspicious times) to be determined according to the birth stars of the boy. The ceremony always takes place between morning and noon, never after mid-day.

Preparations may begin a few days before the thread girding day. Drummers and pipers to play at the ceremony are engaged. A booth or perch is built in which a *bahule* (decorated platform) is constructed. Invitation cards are sent to relatives and friends. Kinspeople and intimate friends ask the boy to *kelavana* or congratulatory feast and make presents to him. A formal invitation (*akshat*) ceremony is held a day or two before the thread-girding when the local temple of Ganapati is visited and the god is prayed to be present at the thread ceremony. Personal invitations are given to local relatives and friends.

On the early morning of the lucky day, musicians start playing on the drum and pipe. The *ghana* ceremony is gone through with the help of not less than five *suvasinis*. Prior to the *upanayana* ceremony proper, the usual propitiatory rites are gone through with the same procedural details as before the performance of an auspicious *samskara*. These are Ganapati and *matrikapujana*, *punyahavachana* and *devaka pratishtha* i.e., worship of Ganapati, and the *matrika* deities, the holy day blessing and installation of *devaka*. The ceremony of *chaula* (shaving of the boy's head), if it was not performed in childhood is gone through. The boy is then bathed and taken to the dining hall. Boys called *batus* who are girt with the sacred thread but not married, and usually of the same age as that of the boy are seated in a row and fed. While they eat, the boy's mother sitting in front of the *batus* seats her son on her lap, feeds him and herself eats from the same plate. The ceremony is known as *matribhojana* or mother's meal. It is the last time that the boy and his mother eat from the same plate. This over the boy is taken to the barber who shaves all the locks except the topknot. The boy is then bathed and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

The boy and his parents enter the booth and take their seats on the three *pats* (wooden low stools) arranged on the *bahule*. The father begins the ceremony by giving some cash to make up for the neglect in failing to perform the *samskaras* at their proper time. The father then sits on a *pat* with his face to the east while the boy stands before him facing the west and priests hold between them a curtain marked with *svastika* in vermillion. Priests recite *mangalashtakas* (auspicious verses) and guests throw *akshatas* (whole rice grains mixed with *kumkum*) at the boy and his father. At the proper *muhurta* (auspicious moment) the priests stop chanting, musicians redouble their notes, the curtain is pulled to the north and the boy lays his head at the feet of his father. The father blesses him and seats him on his right. Guests are then regaled with *pan*, perfume and rosewater and sweet drink. It is now getting customary for the guests to make some present to the *batu* (boy) on this occasion.

The *upanayana* ritual now begins. A *vedi* (earthen altar) traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) spread over it and a *homa* (sacrificial fire) is kindled on it. Offerings of *ajya* (ghee), sesamum and seven kinds of *samidhas* (sacred fuel sticks) are made on the sacrificial fire. With folded hand the boy then approaches the *acharya* (head-priest) with a request to make him a *brahmachari* (Vedic student). The *acharya* grants his request. He daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *langoti* (loin cloth) to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pancha* (short waist cloth) round the boy's waist and white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it is hung on the boy's left shoulder. He hands over to him a consecrated *yajnopavita* (sacred thread) and a *danda* (staff) of *palas*. The boy is asked to pass between the fire and his father and sip three *achamanas* and repeat texts. He then goes back between the fire and his father, and takes his seat. The preceptor then gives the boy a coconut and taking him by the hand goes out of the booth and both bow to the sun. On their return to the seats the preceptor takes the boy's right hand and asks him to state his name and to say whose *brahmachari* he has become. When the boy mentions his name and says he is his preceptor's *brahmachari*, the preceptor lets go the boy's hand, takes him round the sacrificial fire and seating him by his side drops nine offerings into the fire. He then says to the boy "You have now become a *brahmachari*; you must observe religious exactness; you must sip *achamana* before taking food; you must not sleep during the day; you must control your speech; you must keep alight the sacred fire; and cleanse your mouth after taking food." The boy then sitting to the north of the sacrificial fire bows to the preceptor and begs to be initiated into the mysteries of the sacred verse; the boy and the preceptor or the father are covered with a shawl and the preceptor thrice whispers the sacred *gayatri* into the boy's right ear first syllable by syllable, next phrase by phrase and then the whole verse.

The shawl is taken away and all return to their seats and give blessings to the *Vedic* student and the father.

The preceptor then makes four offerings of *samidha* to the fire and then the boy makes an offering of one *samidha* and wipes off his face thrice with words purporting "I anoint myself with lustre and may *Agni* and *Indra* bestow on me insight, offspring and vigour." The preceptor concludes the sacrifice with the final oblations and sprinkles sacred water over the head of the boy and in all directions. Money presents are then given to the priests who bless the *Vedic* student and the father.

At noon, the preceptor teaches the boy to recite *madhyanha sandhya* (midday prayer) and in the evening the *sayam sandhya* (evening prayer). The ceremony of *bhikshavala* (begging alms) is then held. The boy and his relatives go in procession to the temple of *Ganapati* with music and company and on return, the boy is seated near the altar. To his mother who approaches him there, the boy says "*Bhavati bhiksham dehi*" (Lady, be pleased to give alms) and holds a cloth wallet before her. The mother blesses him and puts in the wallet some sweet balls, rice and gold or silver coin. Other married women follow suit to each of whom the boy addresses in the same manner and each presents him some sweet balls and money. The contents (eatables) of the wallet go to the priest who gives part of the sweetmeats to the boy and keeps the rest for himself.

The whole of the *upanayana* ceremony, now-a-days is wound up within a day. Formerly when it used to last for four days, each day the boy was taught to offer his morning, midday and evening prayers and made to worship the sacred fire kindled on the first day. The last rite of the *upanayana* ceremony is *medha-janana*. A small square earthen mound is raised and a *palas* branch planted in it. The boy pours water round the plant and prays *medha*, the goddess of mind, to give him knowledge and wealth. The boy is now a *brahmachari*, an unwed *Vedic* student and from now on for some years should learn the *Vedas* at the feet of his *guru* and on completion of the studies should undergo *samavartana* (return) ceremony. But according to current custom, *samavartana* or the *sodmunj* as it is called follows immediately after *upanayana*. The boy makes over to the priest the loin cloth, the staff, the deer skin, etc. and puts on new clothes, a *jari* or silk cap, a pair of shoes, takes an umbrella and sets out as if on a journey to Banaras. Usually, the boy's maternal uncle persuades him to give up the journey and promises to give him his daughter in marriage so that the boy may end *brahmacharyashrama* and become a *grihasta* (householder).

cremate their dead. Some backward communities either bury or
 Death rites: Hindus who follow *Vedic* or *Puranic* rites usually burn. Tribals have their own peculiar funerary customs. *Sanyasis*, when they die, receive a ceremonial burial called *samadhi*. Infants who have not cut their teeth and those persons who have

died of small-pox or leprosy are buried. Bones and ashes of the dead are generally thrown into the sea or a river. Sometimes part of them are preserved for being consigned to the waters of a sacred river like the Ganga.

When a person is on the point of death the nearest kin sits close to the dying man and comforts him assuring him that his family and affairs will be well taken care of. A small piece of gold is laid in his mouth and a few drops of Ganga water are poured into it with the addition of *tulsi* leaves. When life is extinct the body is removed from the bed or cot and laid with the head to the north on the ground and washed with cowdung water. Holy water is sprinkled on it and wreath of *tulsi* leaves is placed round the neck. The chief mourner has to undergo a purificatory bath, while the priest chants some *mantras*. If the deceased is an ascendant, the chief mourner and other mourners have to shave their heads (except the topknot) and moustaches. Having done this, he offers oblations of rice (*pindas*) in honour of the dead. The corpse is bathed and wrapped up in a new *dhotar* or *lugade* according as the deceased is a man or a woman. If the deceased is a female with her husband living, she is arrayed in a yellow cloth and with some of the ornaments in her customary use, decked with flowers, rubbed with turmeric paste and *kunku* marks are put on her brow. These honours are not shown to a widow. All the relations present, men and women bow to the dead. Finally the corpse is put on a ladder like bier of bamboo and borne by four persons on their shoulders to the cremation ground, the priest and the chief mourner (who holds the sacred fire for burning the dead body) walking in front of the bier. Women do not accompany a funeral procession. All persons attending the procession are bare-headed. Half way to the cremation ground the oblation of rice is repeated. They are offered a third time on reaching the cremation ground. With the help of the live charcoal brought along, a fire called *mantragni* is prepared, the corpse is laid on the pyre and the chief mourner ignites it with the fire. Immediately after the body is burnt, the chief mourner goes round the pyre thrice with a trickling water pot (in which the fire was brought) and finally throws the pot backward over the shoulder spilling the water over the ashes, to cool the spirit of the dead which has been heated by the fire. He then pours water mixed with sesamum and the rest of the mourners follow suit. The party goes back home only after the body is completely consumed. During the first ten days, all persons belonging to the *gotra* of the deceased observe mourning (*sutak*).

Obsequies: The *shraddha* and funeral obsequies are the only ceremonies performed for the salvation of the ancestors. A special ceremony called *Narayana bali* may be performed for those that have died of accident; but in the case of one dying childless, no departure from the ordinary rites takes place. The funeral obsequies are performed during the first 13 days after death. Oblations of rice are offered every day in consequence of which the soul

of the deceased is supposed to attain a spiritual body limb by limb till on the thirteenth day it is enabled to start on its further journey. Oblations are also offered on the 27th day and sometimes thereafter on the day of the death, once in every month for a year of which the six monthly and the *bharani* oblations i.e. the *shraddha* performed on the 5th of the dark half of the month of *Bhadrapada* are essential; and after a year has elapsed, the oblations of the first anniversary day are celebrated with great solemnity. The annual *shraddha* is performed on the day corresponding to the day of death in the latter half of the month of *Bhadrapada*. Where the family of the deceased can afford it, a *shraddha* is also performed on the anniversary day. While performing the *shraddha* for one's deceased father, offerings are also made to other ancestors and to deceased collaterals. Women dying within the lifetime of their husbands have special oblations offered to them during their husband's lifetime. This takes place on the 9th of the *pitripaksha* and is called *Avidhava Navami* day.

Marriage and Morals.—Hindu *Dharmashastra* considers that it is obligatory on every person to marry as according to it, *vivaha* (marriage) is one of the *sharirasamskaras* (sacraments sanctifying the body) through each of which every man and woman must pass at the proper age and time. Though marriage is thus prescribed for all, the institution as such is hedged in with several rules and restrictions which fall under two main heads, viz., endogamy and exogamy.

A Hindu may not marry outside his caste or his particular sub-caste which according to social custom is considered endogamous. He is confined for the choice of a wife within this group. Outside the caste or the sub-caste within which a man must marry are set of further sub-divisions which prohibit the marriage of persons related through males which are called endogamous groups. Marriage is also prohibited within certain degrees of relationship. Marriage within the same *gotra* is prohibited. In the twice-born castes, marriage is usually avoided between persons related on the woman's side within three or sometimes five degrees. The marriage of the children of two sisters is looked down upon, but that of a sister's son and a brother's daughter is not only allowed, but also favoured among many Hindu communities including some Brahman sub-castes. Hypergamy relates to the social rule by which a woman should be married to a man who is either her equal or superior in rank, wealth and social status. Taking more than a wife was not prohibited till a few years ago, but in recent years under the influence of modern liberal ideas, most Hindu communities have been monogamous and the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 has completely reformed the law relating to Hindu marriage all over India and has made monogamy compulsory among all classes of Hindus.

It was customary to have girls married before they reached the age of puberty, but the Sarda Act prohibited those marriages, although breaches of it are not few and not strictly frowned

upon. Adult marriage has always prevailed among Banjaras, Andhs and Rajputs. Every family has to observe some sort of *kulachara* in this district and the following two may be noted as specimens as recorded by the old Buldhana Gazetteer.

After a marriage is over a trench about eight feet by two feet is dug in front of the house. It is filled with fuel and burnt. After the flames have subsided and while yet the ashes are hot, the parents and the wedded couple, headed by the family priest, have to walk over the ashes bare-foot. Another *kulachara* called *swamy* is also very common among some classes. After the marriage is over, a widow whose hair is shaved is called to dinner. She is made to wear a green *sadi*, a *choli* and the nose ring. A patch of red powder is affixed to her forehead. The meaning of this ceremony is not known.

The custom of widow remarriage prevails among the agricultural communities and perhaps, more or less, among all except Brahmans, Baniyas and highest families of any caste. Divorce by mutual consent and deed of separation is also permitted and the divorced woman marries again. Such unions are called *pat* marriages, but they are quite reputable and their off-spring is legitimate.

In Hindu religious books eight forms of marriage are enumerated. Of these only two are in vogue at present viz., *brahma* and *asura*. Conforming to the former form of marriage, a *hunda* (dowry) is paid by the bride's parents to the bridegroom. The respectable name for it is *varadakshina*. This generally prevails among the so-called higher castes. Among the so-called lower castes, the bride's parents usually take what is called *dej* (bride price) thereby conforming to the *asura* form. The monetary aspect in the settlement of a marriage may assume diverse forms which are devices to circumvent the demands of extortionate *hunda* which is now prohibited by law.

Social usage in relation to Hindu marriage has been considerably affected by various legal enactments passed right from 1833 when the regulation prohibiting *sati* was proclaimed. A common form of civil marriage for all communities in India was provided by the Special Marriage Act III of 1822 which made it possible for any Indian of whatever caste or creed to enter into a valid marriage with a person belonging to any caste or creed, provided the parties registered the contract of marriage, declaring *inter alia* that they did not belong to any religion. This Act was amended by Act XXX of 1923, making it possible for Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains (but not Christians, Jews, Parsees and Muhammedans) to declare their religion and yet get their marriages registered. The Child Marriage Restraint Act of 1929 as amended by Act XIX of 1946 prohibited marriages of boys under 18 years of age and girls under 14. The Hindu Marriage Disabilities Removal Act XXVIII of 1946 validated marriages between parties belonging to the same *gotra* or belonging to different sub-divisions of the same caste and the Hindu Marriage

Act of 1955 which abrogates and modifies all past legislation has made Hindu marriage now strictly adult and monogamous and done away with the caste and *gotra* restrictions which limited the field of marriage. It has set down definite conditions under which a decree of nullity and further of dissolution of marriage could be obtained.

As marriage from the Hindu point of view created an indissoluble tie between husband and wife, divorce was not known to Hindu *Dharmashastra*. Neither party to a marriage could, therefore, divorce the other unless divorce was allowed by custom as among the lower castes. The Indian Divorce Act of 1869 provided *inter alia* for dissolution of marriage but it applied only to cases where "the petitioner or respondent professed the Christian religion." However according to Sections 10 to 13 of the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 reliefs by way of judicial separation, declaration of nullity of marriage and divorce are recognised.

When a Hindu marriage is about to be settled, the priests from both sides in common consultation fix the day and hour for the auspicious event and it is the priest belonging to the bride's side who generally officiates with his assistants.

The essential marriage rituals which obtain are *Vagnishchaya*, *Simantapujana*, *Madhuparka*, *Antarpat*, *Sutraveshtana*, *Panigrahana*, *Lajahoma*, *Saptapadi*, etc. In interpretation of these injunctions from the *grihyasutras*, the following ceremonies are gone through in a popular way :—

Akshat : When the wedding day is fixed, invitations by way of printed letters are sent round beginning with the house gods. On an auspicious day the relatives of the bride and the bridegroom go together in a procession to the temples of Ganapati and Devi to invite the god and the goddess and offer them coconuts, betel-leaves, *kumkum* etc. The priest accompanying the procession invokes the god to be present at the wedding and ward off all evil. Next a married pair from each party go round inviting friends and relatives.

Simantapujana : In the evening previous to the marriage day the ceremony of *Simantapujana* is held. The parents of the girl with their relatives go to the bridegroom's house with gifts. There, they first worship Ganapati (represented by a betel-nut), Varuna (represented by a waterpot), a lamp and the earth; they wash the feet of the bridegroom and offer him a dress. Next the bride's mother washes the feet of the groom's mother; and fills her and her female relations' laps with wheat and pieces of dry coconut kernel. Assembled guests are presented with betel-leaves and betel-nuts and Brahmans with money-gifts.

Vagnishchaya : *Vagnishchaya* or the ceremony of betrothal takes place at night. The bridegroom's parents and their relatives go to the bride's house with a dress and ornaments for the bride. The fathers of the bride and the groom exchange a coconut and embrace each other. The bridegroom's father presents the bride with the ornaments and dress brought for her. After distribution of betel-leaves and betel-nuts they disperse.

Halad (turmeric) ceremony : In the morning of the wedding day, the bride is rubbed with turmeric paste at her house by some married ladies on both sides, the remaining portion of which is taken to the groom's house where he is rubbed with it in a like manner.

Devakpratishta or gods-installing : Before the ceremony begins, the bride with her parents is bathed with hot water by some unwidowed women. After changing clothes and bowing to the house-gods and elders, the bride's parents begin the ceremony which consists of the worship of the planets, called *Grahamakha* and *Ganapati*, *Varuna* and *Avighna-Kalasha*. The last is an earthen jar daubed with white and red colours. It contains turmeric roots, betel-nuts, a copper coin and sweetmeats and its mouth is covered with an earthen lid tied to it with a piece of cotton thread passed round several times. It is prayed to ward off all evil. This ceremony takes place at the bridegroom's house also.

Gauripujana is performed only by the bride. She worships in the house the goddess *Parvati* or *Gauri* and sits there till the wedding time, praying the goddess with words, "Gauri, Gauri, grant me a happy wifehood and long life to him who is coming to my door."

Rukhvat : When the wedding time draws near, a party from the bride's side takes several dishes of sweetmeats to the bridegroom's house and serves them to the bridegroom and his relations. The bridegroom is worshipped and presented with articles of dress by the bride's father. The priest then asks the bridegroom to bow to the house-gods and elders. The bridegroom garlanded, dressed in new clothes with a finger mark of lamp black on his either cheek, rides a horse or is seated in a car. He is taken in a procession to the bride's house, the females walking just behind him and the males behind the females.

Mangalashtaka : When the procession reaches the bride's house, cooked rice mixed with curds is waved on the bridegroom's face. Next, the bride's mother washes the feet of the bridegroom's mother who returns to her place as she must not hear the marriage verses. The bridegroom is then led to the marriage booth, where the priests lay two low stools of wood and ask the bride and the groom to stand on them facing each other. They are each given a garland of flowers to hold and are told to look at the lucky cross on the curtain (*svastika*) and pray to their family gods, *mangalakshatas* (reddened and unbroken rice) are distributed among the guests. The priests standing on either side of the curtain start chanting *mangalashtakas*, auspicious benedictory verses and they and the assembled guests and relatives throw the reddened rice at the pair at the end of each verse. When the chanting of verses is over, the curtain is withdrawn to the northern side amidst a noise of clapping, drums and pipes. This is done just at the auspicious moment fixed. The eyes of the boy and the girl meet. The bride first puts the garland in her hand round the groom's neck and the groom

follows. They then throw the mixture of rice grains, etc., over each other's heads. Guests, relations and friends are entertained. Each is given a flower bouquet, a sprinkle of rose water, a smear of *attar*, and *pan-supari*. They are regaled with spiced milk or drinks. Money is distributed to Brahman priests.

Kanyadana : It is an elaborate rite by which parents of the girl hand over the bride to the bridegroom's care and request him to treat her well during her life-time.

Marriage Sacrifice or Lajahoma : The pair is led to the altar where fire is kindled. The priest asks them to worship the fire and throw parched rice and ghee into it. Next, he asks them to take mutual oaths that they will be each other's partners, during their lifetime for weal or woe. These oaths are taken in the presence of the fire, the earth, the priest and gods.

Saptapadi : Seven small heaps of rice are made on the altar and a betel-nut is placed on each of them. The priest recites *mantras* and the bridegroom lifts the bride's right foot and places it on the heaps in succession. When the seventh heap is crossed the marriage is complete.

Sutravesthana and *Kankanabandhana* : The priest passes cotton thread round the pair twelve times which is then taken off and divided into two parts. The pair are made to fasten these on each other's wrists.

Sadi Ceremony : The bride is presented with a *sadi* and *choli* and her lap is filled with cocoanut, wheat and some fruits by the priest and some *suvasinis*.

Sunmukha : The bridegroom's mother puts on the bride's person all the ornaments made for her and looks at her face. She presents the daughter-in-law with new clothes and puts sugar in her mouth.

Zal or Airani pradana : An *airani* or *zal* which is wickerwork basket containing several gifts such as cocoanuts, betel-nuts, fruits, cooked food, etc., is presented by the bride's father to the groom's mother and other relatives. The basket is held on the head of the person to be honoured and while some water is poured on it, the priest on behalf of the bride's father says: "We have given you this good-natured daughter well-nourished and healthy and request you to treat her kindly."

Varat : The procession, both of the bride and bridegroom in which the latter takes the former to his house in a carriage or on horseback with music follows. Males and females of both sides accompany them.

Lakshmi puja : The *Varat* is followed by *Lakshmi puja* that is the worshipping of the goddess of wealth by the bride and the bridegroom at his house.

Naming : The maiden name of the bride is changed. She is given a new name by which she is formally known afterwards in her husband's family. Betel packets and sugar are distributed to

the party assembled and money to Brahmans. A ritualistic closure to the ceremony is put whereby the deities that had been invited before the ceremony began are bid a formal farewell and the marriage booth dismantled. Socially, exchange of feasts ends the ceremony.

MUSLIMS

Muslims number a little over a lakh or 9.44 per cent of the total population of Buldhana district. They are found in larger numbers in Malkapur and fewer numbers in Jalgaon tahsils. Sir Alfred Lyall wrote in 1870¹, "Of the Muhammedan religion of Berar little need be said for it has no provincial peculiarities. Probably a Wahabi would find cause to protest against excessive veneration of dead hermits and martyrs and against the admission of Hindus, for the value of their offerings, to worship at the tombs of men who preached and fought against idolatry. Some notable *pirs* and *pirzadas* lie buried at Ellichpur, Mangrulpir, Patur, Jamod, Balapur, Kholapur, and other places. The more celebrated sepulchres are well endowed while very many villages keep a lamp burning over the grave of some obscure *fakir*. In Berar as all over India, still flourish the real original fairs (holy day gatherings) which have dwindled away in Europe, the annual concourses at celebrated shrines and places of pilgrimage; but they are already losing their importance and commercial utility by the rapid opening out of communications. Yet they still combine very conveniently the attractions of religion, profit and pleasure; for though the ancient holy day is fast merging into the modern holiday, it is in either sense a day very popular among women and religious fraternities. Of course all the festivals thus celebrated are Hindu; for the Musalman calendar knows no feasts, only days of solemn prayer, but several of the shrines which gather pilgrims are of Muhammedan saints. The *urus* or annual commemoration of a local Muhammedan saint has degenerated into much that is mere carnal traffic and pagan idolatry, a scandal to the rigid Islamite. Yet if he uplifts his voice against such soul-destroying abuses, he may be hooted by loose-living Musalmans as a Wahabi, who derives the power of intercession; while the shop-keepers are no worse than Ephesian silversmiths at crying down an inconvenient religious reformer. Heresy is represented by only a few Bohras who have immigrated recently from the west, but even they have been cleft into two distinct communities. All religions in India belong to the fissiparous order; they have the property of dissection into minute portions each of which retains life and growth."

Writing in 1881, Mr. Kitts remarked², "Although there are a few good families among the Musalmans, some are not very favourable specimens of their creed and race. In physiognomy, many resemble Hindus and a few bear traces of a Siddi origin.

¹ Old Berar Gazetteer, pp. 175—195.

² Kitts' Census Report, page 69.

As regards their own religion, their notions are not farther advanced than that of an enumerator who held that in doubtful cases, a Musalman woman could always be distinguished by her wearing a pair of trousers. Even that was no guide, however, as to the sect, and the same enumerator complained that when he inquired "*Sunni* or *Shiah*?" it is often supposed that he wanted to insult people. All who did not know their sect were entered as *Sunnis*. In 1921, Mr. Chinoy described the religion of an ordinary Musalman and his actual working belief as follows.

Working belief of Muslims.—"Muhammedanism in Berar has no peculiarities to exhibit and its followers, though commonly believed to be backward in education, are by figures shown to be ahead of Hindus. The working belief of an educated or uneducated is one and the same and simple enough to be clearly understood by any one. They are strict Unitarians acknowledging 'no God but the one time god with and Muhammad as his Prophet'. Their prayers are recited in Arabic and religious education, wherever imparted begins with the study of the *Koran* in the original. Idols and symbols of any kind are carefully avoided. The lower orders have, however, by constantly associating with Hindus of their position in life, adopted or rather, fallen a prey to some of the superstitious observances of the latter and all the pomp and circumstance of the annual *Muharrum* are due to what may be called the sympathetic feeling of surrounding superstition. This feeling is probably helped forward and may be easily understood when it is remembered that the forefathers of many Muhammedans now existing in the province were originally Hindus and that the converts have endeavoured to retain their reverence for the old Hinduism by taking advantage of such loopholes as they could find in the religion of their adoption. Some *deshmukhs* and *deshpandes* will furnish striking examples of this phase of religious belief. They profess Muhammedanism in public and employ Brahmans in secret to worship their old tutelary deities, retaining even Hindu surnames in rare cases. They have veneration for astrology. On marriage and similar occasions, even those who may be presumed to know better are glad to be guided by the village Joshi in the choice of day for proper celebration. They firmly believe in a life after death, but have no faith in the theory of reincarnation. A day of judgment is an important article of their creed and they believe that on that day their actions in this world will be finally judged and rewards and punishments apportioned according to their merits. They are usually fatalists of the most extreme type, but the pernicious effects of the doctrine are obviated by a sense of responsibility attaching to the moral quality of their thoughts. The actions may be predestined, but the workings of the mind are free and so long as one does not yield to the temptations of the *shaitan* (satan) he has nothing to fear in the afterworld. In food, they avoid pork as an abomination and in social matters regard seclusion of their womenfolk as an integral part of their religion. In practice, however, the poorer classes permit their

females to go out for labour and marketing and some of them vend articles of food and luxury. Drinking is bad and prohibited by the *Koran*, but some of the lower orders especially Gavlis or cowherds indulge in it on special occasions". The Muslim faith is divided into two main sects, viz., *Sunni* and *Shiah*, which differ in certain beliefs and customs. In Buldhana, the majority of Muslims are returned as *Sunnis*.

Religious officers.—The religious officers of the Muslims are the *kazi* or judge, but now chiefly the marriage registrar, the *khatib* or preacher, the *mulla* or priest, and the *mujavar* or beadle. Besides the religious officers certain *pirzadas*, or sons of saints hold a high position among Muslims. They are spiritual guides and have religious followers. These *pirzadas* live on estates granted to their forefathers by the Musalman rulers of the Deccan.

Five Duties.—The five duties of the Muslim law are to believe in the principal tenets of the faith: To observe the five daily prayers; To keep fasts during the month of *Ramzan*; To make the pilgrimage to Mecca; To give alms called *zakat*. Of these the first three are binding on all, the fourth and the fifth only on the well-to-do.

Of the Muslims about ten per cent may be teaching their children to read the *Koran*. All of them are careful about circumcising their male children, to perform the initiation or *bismilla* ceremony and to have their marriages and funerals conducted by the *kazi* or his deputy. Though most do not attend the mosque daily, they are all present at the special services on the *Ramzan* and *Bakari-Id* festivals and are anxious to give alms and pay the *kazi* his dues.

Among Muslims celibacy is condemned by the Prophet and every Muslim is enjoined to marry by his religion. The prohibited degrees among them include consanguinity, affinity, fosterage with the wife's sister during the lifetime of the wife, of the wife of another until the period of *iddat* probation has expired and polytheists. According to the *Koran* they are permitted to have four wives. A second wife, however, is rarely taken except among the rich.

Festivals.—The festivals common with all Muslims are *Muharrum*, *Ramzan* and *Bakari-Id*. *Muharrum*, the first month of the Muslim year is celebrated as the anniversary of the martyrdom of Hussain at Karbala. It is a month of mourning. The *Ramzan* fast, which is incumbent on every Muslim is broken on the day called *Id-ul-Fitr* or *Ramzan-Id* (first day of Shawwal). The *Ramzan-Id* which is believed to have been initiated by the Prophet is a day of rejoicing, thanks-giving and bounteous charity. *Bakari-Id* or *Id-ul-Azha* (tenth day of the last month) is a festival of sacrifice 'in the name of God'. The *Wafat* or the day of the Prophet's death (12th of *Rabi-ul-Awwal*) is another holy day of great religious importance.

Customs.—The Muslims like the Hindus desire an issue, especially a male one. The issueless parents resort to charms and mystic means suggested by the exorcist. Pregnant women are required to abide by several restrictions regarding their food, behaviour and movements. They are supposed to be alerted about spiritual charms and evil spirits. For the first delivery, the newly married wife goes to her parents and stays there for some time after confinement. The newly born babe is given a bath and the words *Allaho Akbar* (God is great) are spoken in his ears.

This is followed by a number of rituals, including the naming ceremony. The *Bismillah* ritual takes place when the child reaches the age of four years, four months and four days. The *sunta* or *khutna* is gone through at the age of six or seven. When a girl arrives at the age of puberty, she is secluded for seven days and for this period eats only butter, bread; sugar, fish, flesh, salt and acid food are prohibited.

Marriage.—Among Muslims marriage is a contract for the fulfilment of social obligations. If both persons are legally competent and contract marriage with each other in the presence of two males or one male and two females, it is sufficient. As a rule the *kazi* performs the ceremony and reads four chapters of the *Koran* with the profession of belief, the bridegroom repeating them after him. The parties then express their mutual consent and the *kazi* raising hands recites a benediction. A dowry or *meher* must be paid to the wife which is entered in the register. The wedding is, however, usually accompanied by feasts and celebrations not less elaborate or costly than those of Hindus. The couple is acquainted with each other during the *jatra* ceremony. The main rituals come to an end with the ceremony of *rukhsat* (leave-taking) when the bride accompanies the groom to his house.

Several Hindu ceremonies at the marriages of the lower class Muslims still persist, e.g., anointing the bride and the groom with oil and turmeric and setting out earthen vessels which are meant to afford a dwelling place for the spirits of the ancestors. Another essential rite is the rubbing of the hands and feet of the pair with *mehendi* or red henna.

Divorce.—Divorce is at the option of the husband who can divorce his wife at his own will and the *Koran* does not demand any justification from the husband. He has only to pay alimony (*meher*) to the divorced wife. A woman can claim divorce on grounds of ill-treatment, insufficiency of maintenance and impotence on the part of the husband. Three major forms of divorce are recognised by Muhammedan law, viz., *talak-i-asham*, *talak-i-rajai* and *talak-i-husn*. The first two forms are reversible, while the third one is irreversible. A divorced woman cannot remarry for three months; this period of probation is called *iddat*. Her first husband is supposed to support her during this period.

Cases of women asking for divorce are rare. A woman seeking divorce has to apply to the *kazi* which according to Muslim law is a repudiation of her wifehood at her own desire. In this case

she forfeits her claim to *meher*. Divorce is regarded as a social disgrace among the so-called higher classes of Muslims. The lower classes do not attach much importance to it.

Funeral Rites.—Muslims bury their dead and the same word *janazah* is used for the corpse, the bier and the funeral. When a man is at the point of death, a chapter of the *Koran* telling of the happiness awaiting a true believer in the future life is read and he is given a few drops of *sarbat*. After death, the body is carefully washed and wrapped in three or five clothes for a man or a woman, respectively. Some camphor or other sweet-smelling stuff is placed on the bier. Women do not usually attend funerals and friends and relations of the deceased walk behind the bier. To carry a bier is considered a very meritorious act and four of the relations relieving each other in turn, bear it on their shoulders. Muslims allow no delay for carrying their dead to the place of internment and necessarily attend the funeral on foot. The funeral service is recited in a mosque or in some open space close to the graveyard. Usually the family priest or the village *kazi* recites the service. Coffins are used only by the rich. When the body has been lowered in the grave, each person takes up a clod and pronouncing over it a verse from the *Koran* places it gently over the corpse. When the grave is completely filled in, two stones are kept over it on either ends and two plants or branches of trees are planted. Then the *fatiha* i.e., the opening chapter of the *Koran* is read. On the third day, a feast is given in the morning and after that trays of flowers with a vessel containing scented oil are handed round and the guests pick flowers and dip them into the oil. They then proceed to the grave and the oil and flowers are poured over the grave. On the morning of the tenth day this procedure is repeated. Other feasts are given on the fortieth day and at the expiry of four, six and nine months and one year from the date of death. Rich people spend large sums on these feasts. These observances are not prescribed by the *Koran* but have been retained from pre-Islamic times or adopted in imitation of Hindus.

SOCIAL LIFE, PROPERTY AND INHERITANCE

In respect of inheritance, the Hindus are governed by the Hindu law and the Muhammedans by the Muhammedan law. Prior to the passing of the Hindu Succession Act in 1956, the Mitakshara School of Hindu Law applied to Buldhana according to which the succession was mostly agnate in the line, its general principle being that property devolved on the sons on the death of the father. According to Manu 'to the nearest *sapinda* the inheritance next belongs'. As soon as the last owner of the property passed away, the property devolved upon his nearest *sapinda* or the person connected nearest. By stressing agnate succession, inheritance, according to Hindu law became essentially patriarchal. Widows and sons' widows were entitled to maintenance and daughters to maintenance before marriage and to expenses incurred at their marriage, out of the joint family funds.

In the past a person lost his right to property if he changed his religion but as early as 1850 this was rectified by the Caste Disabilities Removal Act. Similarly, if a widow married again she lost her rights but with the passing of the Hindu Widows' Remarriage Act in 1956, this disability was removed. However, a woman could own the personal property (*streedhana*) given to her at marriage. The agnate succession was also modified by the passing of the Hindu Women's Right to Property Act of 1937 under which in certain cases, the widow became entitled to the same share as a son and in the case of a joint family the widow took the place of her deceased husband.

Legislation in recent years has included measures of reform affecting the law of inheritance among all classes of Hindus. The Hindu Succession Act of 1956 aims at simplifying the law of Hindu Succession. The Act removes the inequality between man and woman in regard to rights of property. It does away with the distinction between the Mitakshara and Dayabhaga laws of Succession. However, special provision is made for regulating succession to the property of intestates. The Act has made the following changes: (1) All property held by a Hindu woman is now her absolute property and there are no restrictions on her rights, (2) The heirs of a deceased Hindu are entitled to get a share even in the undivided interest in the coparcenary property. A Hindu can make a will even of his individual interest in the coparcenary property. In its classification, it could be said that before the passing of this Act, excepting *streedhana*, a woman was not supposed to be the last owner of the property, now a married daughter could claim right in her father's property. But now a daughter has as good a claim over her father's property as the son, provided her father does not debar her by a specific will. Secondly, a widow had only life-interest in the property and she was not legally entitled to dispose of her property as she liked. That disqualification is now removed.

Among the Muhammedans the father has absolute right in the property and he can debar any of the sons from inheritance if he was not satisfied with him. According to Muhammedan law, the daughter has as good a claim over her father's property as the son.

FEASTS AND FESTIVALS

Every year, a Hindu generally goes through the following cycle of feasts and festivals.

Gudhi Padva.—The first day of *Chaitra* is called *Gudhi Padva* which is the Hindu New Year day observing the *Shalivahana Shaka* (era). With this day begins the new season, the spring. It is ushered in by householders by setting in front of the house a *gudhi*, i.e., a bamboo pole cupped with a small silver or copper pot and a new piece of cloth hanging to it as a flag and offering it the routine worship. Eating a mixture of *nim* leaves, *gul* and cumin seeds is a special observance of the day. The day is considered auspicious for any new enterprise or putting a child to school.

Ramnavami.—On the bright 9th of *Chaitra* anniversary of the Rama's birthday is celebrated. He is the hero of the *Ramayana* and the seventh incarnation of Vishnu. People flock in holiday dress to the temple of Rama where a silk doll is made to represent Rama and all the ceremonials connected with child-birth are gone through. At 12 noon, the *haridasa* announces the birth by tossing *gulal* (red powder) and the baby is cradled. *Arati*, distribution of *sunthavda* (a mixture of ginger and sugar), *tirtha-prasada*, *kintana* and *bhajana* in praise of Rama are the usual functions held at the festival.

Hanuman Jayanti.—On the full moon day of *Chaitra* at sunrise, a festival is arranged to celebrate the birth of Maruti in a similar way.

Maha Ekadashis.—The eleventh day occurring in the bright halves of *Ashadha* and *Kartika* are considered very sacred. They mark the beginning and the end of *Chaturmasa* (four holy months) and are observed as fast and prayer days by a very large section of Hindus. Followers of the *varkari* sect make it a point to visit the temple of Vithoba of Pandharpur on those days.

Gokulashtami.—On the dark of 8th of *Shravana* falls the festival of Krishna's birthday. Exact midnight of this day was the time of the birth of Krishna. Next day the babe was taken to Gokula. The way the occasion is celebrated varies from place to place. Usually, people fast on the day, worship a clay image and celebrate the birth by the distribution of *sunthavada*. The next day is *dahikala* or Gokula day when a boisterous play-ritual of breaking the *handi* is celebrated.

Pola.—The principal festival of the Kunbis and other agricultural classes is the *Pola*, falling at about the middle of the rainy season (*Shravana* 30th) when they have a procession of plough bullocks. An old bullock goes first and on his horns is tied a *makhar*, a wooden frame with pegs to which torches are affixed. They make a rope of mango leaves, stretched between two posts and the *makhar* bullock is made to break this and stampede back to the village followed by all the other cattle. It is said that the *makhar* bullock will die within three years. Behind come the bullocks of proprietors and then those of tenants in the order not so much of their wealth as of their standing in the village and of the traditional position held by their families. A Kunbi feels very bitterly if he is not given what he considers to be his proper rank in this procession. Bullock and cart races are also held on this day, the winners receiving salutary prizes.

Ganesh Chaturthi.—On the bright fourth of *Bhadrapada* falls the celebration of Ganesha, the god of learning. A painted clay figure of Ganapati is specially purchased for the day from image-vendors and worshipped with offerings of *Modakas* (sweet dish made by the combination of cocoanut kernel, sugar and a covering of rice flour). A special feature of the festival is that in towns, apart from the function in the family, the worship is celebrated on a community scale by public contribution and with

the added attraction of religious and semi-social programmes held each day during the festival which continues for ten days till *Ananta Chaturdashi*. Out of a superstition still current, a person avoids looking at the moon on the *Ganesha Chaturthi* day lest he might get involved in a baseless theft charge.

Gauri Pujan.—Conjoined to the Ganesha festival women hold a celebration in honour of Parvati or Gauri, mother of Ganesha. The first is *Gauryavahana*, invitation to Gauri, second one is *Gauri-pujana*, worship of the goddess, and the last day *Gaurivisarjana*, the immersion day.

Dasara.—In the month of *Ashvina* falls the great festival of *Navaratra* (nine nights) cluminating in *Dasara*, so-called from *dasha* (ten) and *ahar* (days) it being a ten-day festival in honour of the goddess Durga. It is also called by the Hindus *Vijaya Dashmi*, the day of victory gained by Rama over his enemy Ravana. It is also the day on which the goddess Kali vanquished the buffalo-demon Mahishasura and in some places it was once the practice to kill a buffalo. The offering of goats is usual. The first nine days are known as *navaratra*; on the first day is performed *Ghatasthapana* or the invocation and installation of the goddess in a *ghata* (jar). On the 10th day, every householder worships his caste insignia represented by tools and instruments. All have sumptuous meals at noon and towards the evening, they don holiday attire and gather together to worship *shami* or in its absence *Apta* tree. *Apta* leaves symbolise gold on this day and they are exchanged while greeting one another. *Dasara* is considered highly auspicious for any new enterprise or putting children to school.

Diwali.—Twenty days after *Dasara* comes *Diwali*, when Lakshmi, the goddess of wealth is worshipped. She is supposed to pass over the land distributing her gifts of riches. All, therefore, illuminate their houses and shops in order that they may not be overlooked. The lights are often tastefully arranged. The festival is one of the prettiest of the whole year. Two days after *Diwali* comes *Yamadutiya* when Yama, the god of death, was entertained by his sister Yamuna. On this day, brothers visit their sisters and are entertained by them; in the evening sisters return the visit, perform the *arati* ceremony and receive gifts from brothers.

Holi.—The year closes with Holi when the demoness Holika is propitiated. This very popular and joyous festival is the occasion for a great deal of mirth, revelry including splashing of colours. The *puja* of Holi is accompanied by bonfires, symbolism of the destruction of evil amid joyous shouting. At some places the fire is first kindled by a Mahar. A cocoanut is hung from a pole in the middle of the fire and when it falls people secure the burnt core, eat it and smear themselves with ashes of the fire. Next day follows a period of license and enjoyment in which they throw mud and coloured water at one another and indulge in revelry. Folk-songs and group dances in the street express the people's joy.

Women's vows.—A number of ceremonies of the nature of *vratas* (vows) and propitiatory worship occur throughout the year. In the month of *Chaitra* starting from the bright third and on any convenient day *Suvasinis* hold in their homes the ceremony of *Haladikunku*. The full-moon day of *Jyeshtha* known as *Vatapurnima* is observed by married women as a day of prayer so that their husband's lives may be prolonged; a banyan tree or its bows is worshipped and *vayans* (special offerings) are distributed to Brahmans and *suvasinis*. Some observe a *vrata* (vow) for three days during which they live on fruits, tubers and milk only. During *Chaturmasa* (four months of the rainy season) some women observe the *Sola Somwar vrata* (vow observed on 16 successive Mondays) at the end of which they hold a grand worship of Shiva and Parvati and feast seventeen *dampatis* (couples). Similarly newly married girls vow to offer *Shivamuth* (handful of grain) to Shiva every Monday of *Shravana* for the first five years of their married life. They also worship Mangalagauri on every *Shravana* Tuesday for the same period. Fridays of the same month which go by the name *Sampad Shukravars* are observed by women with the worship of goddess Lakshmi drawn on a small earthen pot. On the third and fifth of bright *Bhadrapada* come *Hartalika* and *Rishipanchami* which are observed as days of fast by women. The first is kept by married women and young girls in honour of *haratalika* (Parvati) who is said to have successfully resisted her father's wish to marry her to Vishnu and married Shiva whom she loved. The second is observed by elderly women in honour of the *rishis* (seers) to make amends for sins committed without knowledge. On that day, they do not eat anything that is grown with the labour of cattle or any other animal, but eat only hand-grown fruits and vegetables. *Vasubaras* which falls on the 12th of dark *Ashvina* is observed by some women in order to have children; they fast for the day and at night after worshipping a cow, give a calf in charity. The day previous to *Sankranta* in the month of *Pausha* is called *Bhogi*. On that day, a special dish known *khichadi* is offered to gods and eaten. On the *Sankranti* day *sugads* (auspicious jars) are presented to Brahmans and the following day known as *Kinkranta* is celebrated by married girls with *lutne*, a free distribution to *Suvasinis* of auspicious articles.

HOUSES AND HOUSING

A house is one of the indices of the cultural development of any section of society. Economic considerations weighed against better housing in the past. Houses of the majority of the people and especially those of the peasants, craftsmen and labourers were merely dwellings providing shelter against the sun, the wind and cold and rain. The prime consideration for a house-builder in the past was to ensure safety and protection.

During the past few decades the pattern of houses and housing has considerably changed. The change has been more marked

in the towns. However, town-planning as an art and a science has not largely influenced house-building in most towns and cities.

Excepting newly built houses in Buldhana and other towns, most urban dwellings are built in bricks and mortar and have a stone foundation. The walls are plastered with mortar or cement.

Houses owned by the old aristocracy are built around a quadrangle with walls of stone or burnt bricks, tiled roofs and verandahs. Galvanised sheets are used for roofing purposes. These houses are generally one or two-storied. The most remarkable feature of these houses is exhibited in the spacious and imposing gate which leads to the quadrangle and a congregation of room. The congregation comprises broad verandahs, a watch-room (*devdi*), store-rooms, kitchen and living rooms. On one side of the quadrangle, there is a cattle-shed and store-room of agricultural implements. Very often there is a small well and bathrooms. But houses of this type are gradually becoming unpopular.

The majority of the houses in Buldhana are built with burnt bricks, dressed stone, teakwood beams and poles, bamboo ceiling and have tiled or flat roofs. The building structure is based upon strong stone foundation and is supported by teakwood poles and thick sidewalls. The walls are commonly built of bricks and mortar; but clay walls are not uncommon. Houses occasionally have a flat top (*dhaba*) of whitish grey earth, but more frequently they have sloping roofs of tiles or galvanised sheets. It is only the poorest, generally living on the outskirts of villages who use thatch.

Very few houses in the villages are properly ventilated. An average house is designed to provide hardly a couple of small windows, a couple of apartments and a kitchen which is very often adjoining to the bathing corner. The floor is made of earth, whereas the bamboo ceiling has the slow percolation of earth from above. In the majority of cases, the upper floor of the house is utilised as a store-room.

The rich have independent bungalows comprising a verandah, a drawing-room, bed-rooms, kitchen, a parlour and a pantry. The rooms are so arranged as to have an independent access to each. The walls are of stone or brick masonry in lime or cement mortar. The doors are panelled or glazed. They are built with due consideration for ventilation and convenience. A few housing co-operative societies have come up which provide independent flats.

According to the 1961 Census there are 2,14,002 occupied houses which housed a population of 10,59,698 in the district. Of these 1,79,245 are in rural areas and 34,757 in urban areas. The following table gives the total number of houses and the uses to which they are put in the district in 1961.

TABLE No. 8
HOUSES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1961.

District/Tahsil	Total Rural Urban	Total No. of Census Houses	Census houses vacant at the time of houselisting	Occupied Census houses used as				Shops excluding eating houses
				Dwellings	Shop-cum-Dwellings	Workshop-cum-Dwellings	Hotels, Sarais, Dharam-shalas, Tourist homes and Inspection houses	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
District	Total	389,239	43,142	212,224	1,432	3,598	346	4,925
	Rural	332,305	37,511	178,594	1,082	2,607	142	3,001
	Urban	56,934	5,631	33,630	350	991	204	1,924
Jalgaon Tahsil	Total	46,738	4,621	25,326	131	288	55	407
	Rural	42,714	4,129	22,845	114	241	43	358
	Urban	4,024	492	2,481	17	47	12	49
Mulapur Tahsil	Total	89,054	13,708	48,152	262	853	37	1,188
	Rural	74,368	12,380	38,973	198	621	23	625
	Urban	14,686	1,328	9,179	64	232	14	563
Khamgaon Tahsil	Total	87,335	10,266	45,166	309	506	82	1,411
	Rural	63,449	8,388	32,069	172	227	17	535
	Urban	23,886	1,878	13,097	137	279	65	876
Chikhli Tahsil	Total	82,607	7,816	48,148	347	1,341	124	1,045
	Rural	71,822	6,238	41,523	251	940	25	745
	Urban	10,785	1,578	6,625	96	401	99	300
Mehkar Tahsil	Total	83,505	6,731	45,432	383	610	48	874
	Rural	79,952	6,376	43,184	347	578	34	738
	Urban	3,553	355	2,248	36	32	14	136

TABLE No. 8—*contd.*

District/Tahsil	Total Rural Urban	Occupied Census houses used as—						Public health and medical institutions, hospitals, health cen- tres, doctors' clinics, dis- pensaries, etc.	Others
		Business Houses and Offices	Factories, workshops and worksheds	Schools and other educational institutions including training classes, coaching and shop classes	Restaurants, sweetmeat shops and eating places	Places of entertainment and community gathering (Panchayat- ghar)	(15)		
(1)	(2)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
District ..	Total ..	1,091	4,502	2,118	333	5,053	550	109,922	
	Rural ..	434	3,065	1,600	237	4,107	316	99,609	
	Urban ..	657	1,440	518	96	946	234	10,313	
Jalgaon Tahsil ..	Total ..	102	474	264	44	588	59	14,379	
	Rural ..	50	421	223	32	531	42	13,685	
	Urban ..	52	53	41	12	57	17	694	
Malkapur Tahsil ..	Total ..	230	1,236	455	50	948	168	21,767	
	Rural ..	120	810	398	40	757	108	19,315	
	Urban ..	110	426	57	10	191	60	2,452	
Khamgaon Tahsil ..	Total ..	376	1,031	520	84	1,254	132	26,198	
	Rural ..	69	427	265	46	798	53	20,383	
	Urban ..	307	604	255	38	456	79	5,815	
Chikhli Tahsil ..	Total ..	242	956	526	76	1,146	120	20,720	
	Rural ..	88	666	375	48	966	63	19,894	
	Urban ..	154	290	151	28	180	57	826	
Mekhar Tahsil ..	Total ..	141	808	353	79	1,117	71	26,858	
	Rural ..	107	741	339	71	1,055	50	26,332	
	Urban ..	34	67	14	8	62	21	526	

According to the 1971 Census, there are 233,730 occupied residential houses which housed a population of 126,978 in the district. Of these, 193,513 houses are in rural areas and 40,217 in urban areas.

FOOD

The dietary of any people generally is determined by the availability of the chief agricultural produce of the district concerned and fish and other possible animal food. Brahmans, Jains and Marwadis are generally strict vegetarians and others too are mainly vegetarian but do not object to fish and flesh whenever available and could afford it. Christians and Muslims are non-vegetarians as a rule. Beef is taboo for Hindus and pork for Muhammedans.

The vegetarian food consists of bread prepared from jowar flour and *amti* or *varan* prepared by the mixture of boiled pulses with condiments and spices, salt and chillies and vegetables like potatoes, *vangi* (brinjals), *bhendi* (lady's fingers), onion, cabbage, etc. On the days of feasts and festivals, the menu comprises rice, some sweet dish, often prepared with milk.

Those who observe fast on specific days eat fruits, and dishes prepared from *vari*, *sabudana*, *shingade*, groundnut, etc. Non-vegetarian food comprises preparations from meat, eggs, fowl, fish with other articles of food.

The afternoon (lunch) and evening food (dinner) consists of *bhakri* and *kalvan* (curry prepared from pulses) or *zunka* made of gram flour. Rice and wheat are consumed on festive occasions such as weddings, family festivals and days like *Dasara* and *Holi*.

The middle class and well-to-do people eat rice, vegetables, curds, buttermilk, etc. They are more particular about the timings and the manner of taking their food. They sit on flat wooden stools (*pats*) and the meal is served in dining plates of metal (stainless steel and brass) with bowls for curry and metal glasses of water. Their diet includes side dishes like pickles of various sorts, *papads* and *koshimbir*.

Generally they take tea in the morning and morning meals at about 10 a.m. when they leave their homes for work. Tea-taking has become popular with all classes of people.

The main sweet dishes prepared on festive occasions are *puranpoli* (wheat bread stuffed with gram *dal* cooked with gul), *shira*, *puri*, *shrikhand*, *basundi*, *jilebi*, etc. Among the non-vegetarians chief dishes prepared are mutton and chicken, fried or in the form of curry, *khima* and preparations of eggs.

Milk of cow and buffalo is quite common in use. However, goat's milk is also used by poorer people. Fruits do not always constitute the item of common dietary. Fruits like bananas, guavas, oranges and mangoes are often taken by even common people during the season.

DRESS

The mode of dress of the people of Buldhana is more or less the same as elsewhere in Maharashtra. It is, however, more akin to the mode of dress in the neighbouring Berar districts. The articles of dress and the style of wearing them have undergone considerable changes during the last few decades. A man having moustaches, whiskers, top-knot or a bunch of hair on the clean shaven head dressed in *dhotar* and *uparane* of big, red silk borders and a loose or made up turban is not to be found very commonly, though he is by no means rare.

The most common articles of apparel are a *dhotar*, a shirt and a *pyjama*. These articles are being worn in urban as well as rural areas. The loose *pyjama*, pant, shirt or bush-shirt are fast replacing the old dress. Formerly the male upper garments were *uparne*, *barabandi*, *kurta*, *sadra*, *pairan*, *kabji*, *angarkha* and *dagla*. The head dress was *chakri pagote*, *pagadi*, *mundase*, *rumal* or *patka*. Now it has become quite fashionable to walk bare-headed. The educated people use *chappals*, shoes, or slippers as footwear.

The traditional Hindu woman's dress is the full Maratha *sadi* of nine yards and a *choli* reaching to the waist and covering both back and chest, the ends being tied or buttoned in front. The *sadi* is known as *lugade*. The mode of wearing it followed by women of the upper classes is with hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back centre. Women from the poor peasantry allow it to hang from the waist and draw its upper end (*padar*) which covers the bosom and back over the head. *Sadis* of five or six yards in length have become fashionable for the last two or three decades among young women in towns and villages as well. This *sadi* is invariably worn over a petticoat. Skirts are getting more and more popular. New types of *cholis* in the form of blouses with low cut necks and close fitting sleeves are also becoming popular.

The child's dress of either sex is more or less the same. The child is usually dressed in *jhable*, *angde*, *langot* and *topre*. When a girl grows about two years old she is dressed in frocks or *angi*. A boy is dressed in shirt or bush-shirt and *chaddi* or shorts. In well-to-do families, boys are dressed in shirt or *pairan*, *chaddi* and *tuman* or *cholna*. Girls start using skirts at the age of eight or nine.

Quite a considerable number of Muslims are dressed like Hindus. However, there is a definite difference between the typical Muslim and typical Hindu dress. Most of the orthodox Muslims and particularly women, retain their traditional mode of dress. The principal articles of dress are *kamij*, *shervani*, *pyjama*, *chuddidar pyjama*, *salvar*, *lungi* and *pairan*. Women are dressed in *kamij*, *salvar* and *odhani*. The headdress is often a Turkish fez, Jinnah cap or a turban. Bohras, Khojas and Memans use pre-formed turbans, and put on loose trousers, shirts, and long coats while going out.

Rich and middle class ladies observe *pardah* when they go out. Progressive Muslim families have discarded the system.

ORNAMENTS

Ornaments have a place in every home and women have an added attraction for them. They have a natural inclination to present a fascinating appearance with beauty-aids and ornaments made of gold, silver, diamonds and jewellery. In rural areas, ornaments are considered more as a store of value rather than for decorative use or their use as beauty-aids and as such rural folk are rather reluctant to spend on the goldsmith's labour or skill and the result is that their ornaments are specimens of clumsy form and workmanship.

Ornaments used by women and girls differ from those used by men and boys. The pattern of ornaments also differs from community to community and caste to caste. Hindus consider gold as a sacred metal and as such they do not wear gold ornaments below the waist to maintain the dignity of the sacred metal. A golden bead is used in the *mangalsutra* that is worn by Hindu women of Maharashtra. Generally Brahman and Maratha women will not have any ornaments for head and arms of any material other than gold. Gold and silver in ornaments is considered to have a protective magical effect that is attributed to charms and amulets. *Ayurveda* considers gold to have a medicinal value also. Due to constantly rising prices of gold, silver and precious stones, the tendency is witnessed to substitute these articles by alloys, cultured pearls and synthetic stones. Till recently, the use of ornaments was very common and customary among men. They were *bhikbali*, a gold ring set with pearls and a pendant-emerald hanging by the upper lobe, gold *salkadi* or a *pochi* on the wrist, a *goph* or chain worn with a locket round the neck, silver girdle and a gold armlet, pearl necklace, etc. The ornaments commonly used by men are a ring, and a silver chain girdle called *kargota* round the waist.

Fashions and modes of female ornaments have undergone considerable changes during the last few decades. Women from rich and aristocratic families used to wear a variety of ornaments. The head ornaments were *mud*, *agraful*, *rakhadi*, *ketki-kevda*, *gulabache-phul*, *bindi-bijora*, *chandrasurya*, *gonde-phul*, etc. The group of neck ornaments consisted of *chandrahar*, *chaplaha*, *bakuli*, *pushpahar*, *mohanmal*, *putalyanchi mal*, *bormal*, *kolhapuri saj*, *ekdani*, *sari*, *vajratik*, *thushi*, *petya*, *tanmani*, all made of gold. Ornaments of pearls, diamonds and precious stones are to be found in the families of the very rich. Gold bangles, *paṇya*, *gotha*, *bajuband*, and *tode* of various patterns are more common among the well-to-do. The peasantry and the class of labourers wear ornaments of silver. *Tode* made of silver are very common among the womenfolk in the rural areas of the district.

However, most of these ornaments are either uncommon or they have undergone a thorough change in their form. Heavy gold ornaments are becoming unpopular. Head ornaments have almost gone out of fashion. The ear ornaments at present are *kudya*, ear-rings, and *karnaphul*. Among the neck ornaments *mangalsutra* is the most important which is encumbent on every *suvasini*. Formerly it was made of black glass beads with gold half beads in the centre. Now-a-days the beads are woven in gold strings and are fashioned on different patterns. The *chandrahar*, *chaplaha*, *mohanmal*, *ekdani*, *tanmani*, *laffa* are more in vogue among Hindus. Nose ornaments are rarely used, barring *nath* and *chamki*. A pair of *jodvi* (silver rings in the toes) and *virolya* are generally prepared for the bride at the time of the marriage.

Child ornaments falling under the group of wristlets comprise *bindlya*, *mangatya* and *kaditode*. Necklaces put on by children are mainly *goph*, *hansli*, *sakhli*, *ṭāṭi* and chain lockets. *Sakhli* and *sarṇoli* are used on the waist and *ghungurvale* are worn on the ankles. These ornaments are made of either gold or silver.

GAMES AND AMUSEMENTS

Among the educated classes in towns, particularly among undergraduates and schoolboys cricket and tennis and football are becoming increasingly popular. Organised wrestling competitions are held only in the monsoon, the main days being *Naga-panchami*, *Janmashtami* and *Narali Purnima*. Bouts are also arranged at village fairs.

For the towns people occasional plays staged by travelling dramatic companies and the cinema theatres are the amusements, the latter having become quite a craze of late.

The extent of amusement for the villager is very restricted. Village gossip which usually flourishes at the *chavdi* or the temple is further embellished at the weekly trip to the nearest market, an occasional visit to a fair or *urus*. Occasionally, a troupe of strolling acrobats, *tamasgirs*, *garudis*, *nandivales* and *darveshis* etc., visit a village and people are called to witness their demonstrations. They enjoy their entertainment fare. Village boys have their games such as *Gilli Danda*, *Lonpat* and *Ardha Purdah*. In *Lonpat*, the ground is marked out in squares to each of which a boy of the defending party is posted. Their opponents try to pass through these squares and back again without being touched. If they do so, they win the game. *Ardha Purdah* may be compared to Blind Man's Buff. Players form equal sides and a curtain is held up between them. One boy then hides close up to the curtain and the opposite party is asked to guess his name. If they reply correctly he is blindfolded and sent on some errand, the fun of the game consisting in watching him stumble over and knock his head against the various obstacles placed in his path. Girls have their dolls and play at house-keeping. Their amusements are naturally more indoors.

Of all the village festivals, the *Pola* which is perhaps the most typical in Buldhana deserves fuller description. It is a religious holiday held on the new-moon day of *Shravana* or *Bhadrapada* after the ploughing or sowing has been done by the cultivator in honour of his greatest helper the bullock. On that day, all the bullocks of the village are gaily painted in various colours and their horns and necks covered with garlands. They assemble in one place where stands the *gudhi*, a sacred 'Maypole' of the *patel*; the Mahars beating drums in front of it, and a twisted rope of *mol* grass covered with mango leaves being stretched from it to a smaller pole on the right. This rope is known as the *toran* and is dedicated to Maruti. Under this stands the *patel's* bullocks, which should be a pair without spot or blemish, all white or all red, according to the custom of the village. To the left of the pole, a long line is formed of the other bullocks those of the *patel* family first, then a pair chosen to represent the *deshmukh*, a pair to represent the Savkar, the Patvari's pair and finally those of the other villagers. All do *puja* to the pair of bullocks under the *toran*. At a given signal from the *patel*, his pair are laid forward, the *toran* is broken and the remaining pairs follow in order through the place where it has been. With this procession the ceremony ends, but no bullock can be put to work on this day. For once in the year, they are given a full holiday and are fed sweets.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PEOPLE

Some characteristics of the Maratha people were noticed in 1827 by Sir R. Jenkins as follows¹:—

"The most remarkable feature, perhaps, in the character of the Marathas of all descriptions is the little regard they pay or show to ceremony in the common intercourse of life. A peasant or mechanic, of the lowest order will sit down of his own accord, tell his story without ceremony and converse more like an equal than an inferior; and if he has a petition to present, he talks in a loud and boisterous tone and fearlessly sets forth his claims. Both the peasantry and the better classes are often coarse and indelicate in their language and many of the proverbs they are fond of introducing into conversation are extremely gross. In general, the Marathas and particularly the cultivators are not possessed of much activity or energy of character but they have a quick perception of their own interest, though their ignorance of writing and accounts often renders them the dupes of the artful Brahmans."

In 1870, Sir Alfred Lyall thus described the people of Berar: "In manners and customs the Hindus as a body are the same (with very insignificant differences) all over the districts. The rustic population is generally rough and rude. They are shy of strangers and when in this mood their peculiar disposition is seen

in its worst shape; but to those they know and who can speak their language, they relax in their manners and become quiet, inoffensive and fond of ease. Their devotion to their homesteads and family is so great that they look upon a separation from them as a calamity of the worst kind. As a rule they are in their ways affectionate fathers and husbands, but hard task-masters so far that they in fact, expect their wives to lead a life of toil and labour; and though her labour does not extend to handling the plough, but to sowing, weeding, reaping and picking still, what with in-door and out-door toil, the woman's strength is overtaxed. Hard, dark-featured and bulky in appearance the Kunbi woman is more delicate than her sister of other castes. In this respect, the Gond, the Banjaras and other women entirely beat the Kunbin out of the field. The vital energy, the capacity for endurance and the strength to lift heavy loads, in the females of the caste last referred to is really wonderful. Though shrewd in the business transactions of life such as buying and selling, their ignorance reaches its climax on matters of religion. Quiet and implicit is their faith in the village idols, in witchcraft, in Brahmans. Besotted, priest-ridden and sunk in the grossest of superstition, they are incapable of refinement or improvement and sink into their graves none the wiser by past experience, which if anything, fans their idolatry, superstition and ignorance." Though most of the remarks still hold good in the case of remote villages, elsewhere the spread of education and political freedom have had their solvent effect on the mode of life of the people in general.

¹ Report on the territories of the Raja of Nagpur.
A-1198—18-B

CHAPTER 4—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION

BULDHANA DISTRICT HAS A LARGE AGRICULTURAL POPULATION. Out of the total workers in the district, 85.3 per cent constitute the agricultural workers as per 1971 Census. Agriculture is the main source of livelihood of the people in the district. Maratha, Kunbi, Lewa Patidar, Nihal, Korkus, Lamani, Banjara, Vanjari, Mahars, Kolis, Dhangars form the bulk of Buldhana district husbandmen.

The district is broadly divided into two zones.—(1) The Payanghat (or the plains) comprising Jalgaon, Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils. It has fertile soil, moderate rainfall and hot weather, as a result of which food as well as non-food crops are grown in this zone. This zone accounts for about half the total geographical area of the district.

(2) The other Zone is the Balaghat, comprising two southern tahsils of Chikhli and Mehkar. It has hilly land, forests, cool climate and shallow soils and it grows cotton, jowar, pulses and bajri on the uplands and wheat in the better soils in the valleys. The people living in 1,397 villages scattered throughout the district as stated earlier follow agriculture as their main source of livelihood and is the mainstay of the rural economy of the district. The table No. 1 gives the livelihood pattern of the people in the district in 1971.

TABLE No. 1
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1971.

Item (1)	Total			Rural			Urban		
	P (2)	M (3)	F (4)	P (5)	M (6)	F (7)	P (8)	M (9)	F (10)
I. Cultivators	1,78,121	1,26,492	51,629	1,71,439	1,20,701	50,738	6,682	5,791	891
II. Agricultural labourers	2,74,227	1,41,264	1,32,963	2,53,584	1,29,200	1,24,384	20,643	12,069	8,579
III. Livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied activities.	4,265	3,899	366	3,047	2,760	287	1,218	1,139	79
IV. Mining and quarrying	173	138	35	149	124	25	24	14	10
V. Manufacturing, processing, servicing, repairs— (a) Household industry (b) Other than household industry	10,631 9,776	8,860 9,185	1,771 591	8,999 4,009	7,561 3,755	1,438 254	1,632 5,767	1,299 5,430	333 337
VI. Construction	3,434	3,081	353	1,960	1,647	313	1,474	1,434	40
VII. Trade and Commerce	16,909	16,343	566	5,619	5,377	242	11,290	10,966	324
VIII. Transport, storage and communications	4,812	4,743	69	898	890	8	3,914	3,853	61
IX. Other services	27,848	25,413	2,435	15,510	14,604	906	12,338	10,809	1,529
X. Non-workers	7,32,782	3,06,885	4,25,897	5,75,956	2,43,139	3,32,817	1,56,826	63,746	93,080

P—Persons, M—Males, and F—Females.

The cultivators and the agricultural labourers constituted 33.6 per cent and 51.7 per cent, respectively, of the total working population of the district in 1971. Only 3.11 per cent and 2.00 per cent of the working population were engaged in trade and commerce and household industry, respectively, for their livelihood. The non-workers formed 58.00 per cent of the total population of the district.

RAINFALL

The south-west monsoon during June to September influences the agronomy of the district to a very great extent. It also affects the agricultural operations, culturable practices and the system of crop rotations. The rainfall during the north-east monsoon, i.e., October-November, though scanty, is very helpful for the *rabi* crops and also augments the water-supply in the wells and tanks. Some showers in the first quarter of the year have also beneficial effects on the growth of *rabi* and summer crops.

Only a few isolated villages in Chikhli, Mehkar and Khamgaon tahsils have suffered from scarcity conditions and there is no tract frequently affected by scarcity in the district.

The south-west monsoon rains start by the end of the first week of June. Rainfall is not uniform in all parts of the district. It is highest at Buldhana with an annual average of 873 millimetres as against the average of 715 millimetres at Malkapur. If the rains come in time and are spread over the monsoon period properly, the rainfall of 715 millimetres proves to be adequate for good crops in the district. The rains normally recede by the end of October.

The Payanghat zone of the district comprising Jalgaon, Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils receives moderate rainfall. The Bala-ghat zone which comprises Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils receives comparatively higher rainfall in the district.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS

As in the other area of the State, there are also two agricultural seasons viz., *kharif* and *rabi* in this district. The *kharif* season starts from June, i.e., from the first day of the *mrug nakshatra* and continues up to the end of November. The south-west monsoon starts from June. This is mainly useful for pre-sowing and preparatory tillage of the soil. The regular south-west rains set in by the fourth week of June. The sowing operations start as soon as sufficient rain is received. However special importance is given to sowing of cotton crop during the *mrug nakshatra*. Early sowing of cotton results in good yield. About 30 to 50 mm rainfall is deemed sufficient for sowing of *kharif* crops particularly cotton.

The main *kharif* crops are cotton, jowar, bajri, *mug*, *udid*, *tur*, *matki*, groundnut, chillis and *kharif* vegetables. Jowar is mostly grown in this district in *kharif* season. The sowing of *kharif* crops starts from June, if timely rains are received and harvesting

is done from September to November. Crops like cotton, chilis are picked up during October and December in a number of successive pickings each after an interval of 10 to 15 days.

Rabi season starts from the middle of the October and continues up to February. The major *rabi* crops in this district are wheat, gram, safflower and linseed. Sowing of wheat and gram begins from the first week of October. They are sown in the non-irrigated fields. The crops in the irrigated fields can be sown later. Wheat and gram are ready for harvesting in March. Linseed is harvested in February. *Rabi* wheat is taken as a second crop in fields retaining moisture and are sown after *mug*, *udid* and groundnut. Gram is taken as a second crop in fields occupied by bajri in *kharif* season. *Rabi* crops particularly wheat are grown in irrigated land for better yields. Spices and vegetables like radish, cabbage, brinjal, tomato, etc., are grown as second crops in *rabi* season when the *kharif* harvest is over. It will thus be seen that there are some crops like jowar, which are taken as either *kharif* crops or *rabi* crops depending mainly upon the system of crop rotation followed by the cultivators having regard to the type of the soil, climatic conditions, yield of the crop and the expenses to be incurred, etc.

The district has more area under *kharif* than under *rabi* crops. There are, however, local variations in this broad pattern. The southernmost tahsils (Mehkar) have considerable proportion of *rabi* crops, while in Malkapur and Jalgaon tahsils in the north, most of the cropped area is under *kharif* alone.

SOILS

The soils in the district are derived from trap rock of volcanic origin. There are three main categories of soils in the district viz., (i) *Bharkali*, which is deep black soil of very fine texture and extremely retentive of moisture; (ii) *Murmad*, which is black cotton soil containing lime and is less fertile than pure black cotton soil, and (iii) *Barad*, which is the shallow soil of the higher lands of the plateau and of black, brown and reddish colour. The profile description and analytical data of typical profiles are given in what follows.

STATEMENT SHOWING ANALYSIS OF SOILS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Phase and depth	PH				T. S. S.	Silt	Clay	Ex Ca	Ex Mg	Ex Na K	Total N per cent	Available	
								m. e. per cent				P ₂ O ₅	K ₂ O
					Per cent							mgm	Per cent
<i>Shallow</i> 0-22.5	7.9	0.44	16	51	58	6	..	0.060	10	24			
<i>Medium</i> 0-17.5	8.3	0.24	21	56	54	10	0.5	0.035	10	30			
17.5-40.0	8.4	0.30	12	63	55	11	1.0	..	..	..			

Description—

- (A) (1) Phase—shallow.
 (2) Place—Buldhana.
 (3) Depth in cm.—0-22.5—very dark grey brown clay, cloddy hard, full of lime nodules, clods breaking into crumbs.

Below 22.5 hard murum mixed with lime.

- (B) (1) Phase: medium deep.
 (2) Place: Buldhana.
 (3) Depth in cm.—0-17.5—very dark brown clay, angular blocky, hard verticle cracks up to 25 cm, fine black, and white concretions throughout the profile.
 17.5—40.0—black clay structure, hard and compact.

Below 40.0—hard murum mixed with lime.

The soils are clayey in texture and slightly alkaline in reaction. The soluble salt content is not high. The divalent bases constitute more than 90 per cent of total exchangeable bases. The soils are low in nitrogen and available phosphate and medium in available potash.

LAND UTILISATION

The total geographical area of the district in 1971-72 was 977,185 hectares. As compared to the State average the district has considerably lower proportion of area under forests and as barren, unculturable, cultivable wastes, current and other fallows; and the proportion of net area sown in the district is much higher (70.40 per cent of the total geographical area of the district in 1971-72) than the average for the whole State. The table No. 2 gives tahsilwise statistics of land utilisation in Buldhana district from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 2
 STATISTICS OF LAND UTILISATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1971-72.

Tahsil	Year	(In Acres*)												
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	5,92,095	73,173	19,868	14,694	9,370	28,588	1,759	8,031	43,284	1,98,767	3,93,328	21,266	4,14,594
	1960-61 ..	5,92,095	73,173	29,868	14,814	9,100	28,588	1,800	5,363	18,124	1,80,830	4,11,265	20,958	4,32,223
	1964-65 ..	5,92,095	73,173	22,826	14,551	9,873	28,705	1,026	3,084	17,238	1,70,476	4,21,619	18,294	4,39,913
	1968-69 ..	2,39,621	29,613	12,088	6,220	3,996	11,414	415	1,094	6,975	71,815	1,67,806	9,712	1,77,518
	1971-72 ..	2,39,623	27,366	12,088	6,267	3,805	11,413	415	1,056	8,673	61,181	1,68,540	15,905	1,84,445
Mehar ..	1956-57 ..	6,47,658	66,392	12,889	13,859	11,166	64,468	1,221	4,271	36,043	2,10,309	4,37,349	15,211	4,52,560
	1960-61 ..	6,47,648	66,392	12,090	14,137	10,500	77,665	1,448	4,917	23,497	2,10,646	4,37,002	20,406	4,57,408
	1964-65 ..	6,51,961	66,392	12,120	14,015	11,452	72,576	6,073	5,577	19,436	2,07,641	4,44,320	23,601	4,67,921
	1968-69 ..	2,62,103	26,869	4,995	5,781	3,715	21,722	712	2,477	5,084	71,355	1,90,748	8,118	1,98,866
	1971-72 ..	2,62,103	26,304	5,069	5,906	3,450	17,249	942	7,656	9,461	76,037	1,86,066	17,461	2,03,527

TABLE No. 2—contd.
STATISTICS OF LAND UTILISATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1971-72—contd.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Total geogra- phical area (3)	Forests (4)	Barren and un- cultura- ble land (5)	Land put to non- agri- cultural uses (6)	Cultu- rable waste land (7)	Per- manent pastures and other grazing land (8)	Land under miscel- laneous trees, crops and groves not included in area sown (9)	Current fallow (10)	Other fallow (11)	Total un- cultivated area (12)	Net area sown (13)	Area sown more than once (14)	Total cropped area (15)
Kham- gaon.	1956-57 ..	4,54,156	61,790	19,759	10,665	9,537	9,833	360	2,705	29,479	1,44,128	3,10,028	458	3,10,486
	1960-61 ..	4,54,150	61,790	10,186	11,115	9,925	19,872	..	3,415	23,824	1,40,127	3,14,023	328	3,14,351
	1964-65 ..	4,54,313	61,790	10,298	11,822	5,418	20,545	163	5,165	22,994	13,195	3,16,118	1,374	3,17,492
	1968-69 ..	1,84,349	24,974	2,478	4,786	4,857	8,174	168	4,487	9,716	59,640	1,24,709	536	1,25,245
	1971-72 ..	1,68,902	24,967	2,408	5,455	3,680	7,359	168	4,469	10,300	63,486	1,25,473	1,186	1,26,659
Malkapur.	1956-57 ..	4,17,350	28,824	8,898	13,179	6,460	18,295	310	2,039	17,845	95,850	3,21,500	1,939	3,23,439
	1960-61 ..	4,17,351	28,746	8,013	14,783	8,031	16,080	265	1,414	15,623	92,955	3,24,396	1,063	3,25,459
	1964-65 ..	4,17,351	28,746	6,329	14,861	6,673	14,515	250	3,929	17,987	93,290	3,24,061	949	3,25,010
	1968-69 ..	1,68,902	11,223	2,972	5,385	1,827	6,242	200	1,533	9,099	38,931	1,29,971	1,127	1,31,098
	1971-72 ..	1,68,902	11,093	2,938	3,997	350	7,846	139	1,512	11,699	39,574	1,29,328	1,921	1,31,249

Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	3,03,345	72,333	3,151	15,085	7,337	2,841	1,190	2,520	6,078	1,10,535	1,92,810	635	1,93,445
	1960-61 ..	3,03,347	72,333	4,266	14,102	4,798	5,201	1,283	2,151	4,838	1,08,972	1,94,375	518	1,94,893
	1964-65 ..	3,03,347	70,371	5,655	14,419	5,369	3,561	1,011	2,434	9,327	1,12,147	1,91,200	391	1,91,591
	1968-69 ..	1,22,210	28,479	1,884	4,634	1,703	1,656	65	3,293	2,530	43,704	77,966	278	78,244
	1971-72 ..	1,22,210	28,362	1,886	2,993	2,504	3,123	72	755	4,333	43,018	79,192	449	79,641
District Total	1956-57 ..	24,14,604	3,02,512	64,565	67,482	43,870	1,24,025	4,840	19,566	1,32,729	7,59,589	16,55,015	39,509	16,94,524
	1960-61 ..	24,14,591	3,02,434	64,423	68,951	42,354	1,47,406	4,796	17,260	85,906	7,33,530	16,81,061	43,273	17,24,334
	1964-65 ..	24,19,067	3,00,472	57,228	69,668	38,785	1,39,902	8,523	20,189	86,982	7,21,749	16,97,318	44,609	17,41,927
	1968-69 ..	9,77,185	1,21,158	24,417	27,256	16,098	49,208	1,560	12,884	33,404	2,85,985	6,91,200	19,771	7,10,971
	1971-72 ..	9,77,185	1,18,092	24,447	24,618	16,789	46,990	1,736	15,448	44,466	2,88,586	6,88,599	36,922	7,25,521

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

Within the district the proportion of net area sown to geographical area, was 64.80 per cent in Jalgaon tahsil; 74.14 per cent in Malkapur tahsil; 74.28 per cent in Khamgaon tahsil; 76.93 per cent in Chikhli tahsil and 70.98 in Mehkar tahsil during 1971-72. The proportion of net area sown is thus higher than the State average, in each tahsil of the district. As per the 1961 Census Jalgaon tahsil has nearly one-fourth of geographical area under forests and as such the proportion of net area sown is comparatively low in this tahsil. On the other hand Malkapur tahsil has very low proportion of area under forests, unculturable wastes and fallow land, as a result of which the proportion of net area sown in this tahsil is very high. In the southern tahsil of Mehkar, there is sizeable area under permanent pastures.

Forest Areas.—The total forest area in the district is 1,56,468 hectares which is 16.00 per cent of the total geographical area of the district in 1972-73. The forests lie mainly in the hilly tracts of Mehkar, Chikhli and Jalgaon tahsils. The district does not fall in the dense forest belt. However it accounted for forest wealth valued at Rs. 16,51,400 comprising timber, fuel-wood, bamboo and grass during 1972-73. Buldhana district is divided into following ranges:—

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)
(1) Buldhana	Buldhana.
(2) Khamgaon	Khamgaon.
(3) Ghatbori	Ghatbori.
(4) Mehkar	Mehkar.
(5) Jalgaon	Jalgaon.

The Buldhana forest division is coterminous with the Buldhana Civil District. The details of the forest area in the division in 1972-73 are given in the following statement:—

[In hectares]				
(1)	Reserved (2)	Protected (3)	Unclassed (4)	Total (5)
Revenue Department ..	..	2,471	38,381	40,852
Forest Department ..	1,06,355	9,261	..	1,15,616
Total ..	1,06,355	11,732	38,381	1,56,468

The forests are mainly situated on the Balaghat plateau of the Ajanta hills and in the Purna Valley. The forest belongs to the "Southern Tropical Dry Deciduous" type and can be further

classified as—(1) Superior teak forests, (2) Inferior teak forests, (3) Anjan forests, (4) Babul forests, (5) Mixed forests, (6) Salai forests, and (7) Grass and brushwood areas.

Teak is the main species found all over the district. Anjan is found in pure patches and babul is confined mainly to the river banks along the black cotton soil.

The forests in the district are classified into two categories, *viz.*, reserved and protected forests as per the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927). The reserved and protected forests are organised and managed under the prescription of working plan.¹

Exploitation of forests is regulated by scientifically prepared working plans which are different for different types of forests. The major forest products are timber and firewood. The minor forest produce mainly comprises temburni leaves, gum and rosha grass. The particulars of major and minor forest produce together with their value in 1972-73 are as under:—

Produce (1)	Quantity (in 1000 m ³) (2)	Value (in Rs.) (3)
<i>Major Forest Produce.</i>		
Timber	1.444	2,85,969
Fuel	10.122	1,28,740
Sandalwood	..	..
<i>Minor Forest Produce.</i>		
Bamboo	N. A.	3,683
Grass and grazing	N.A.	65,364
Tendu Leaves	N.A.	11,67,664
Gum		
Rosha grass		

Cropped Area.—Both the *kharif* and *rabi* crops are grown in the district. The main food crops of the district are *kharif* jowar and wheat among cereals; *tur*, gram, *mug* and *udid* among pulses; chillis among condiments and spices and fruits and vegetables. The main non-food crops primarily include cotton among fibres having 80 per cent of area under that group. Most of the remaining area under non-food crops is occupied by oil-seeds chief of them being groundnut and safflower; other oil-seeds like linseed, sesame have very insignificant area under them. The gross cropped area of the district in 1971-72 was 7,25,521 hectares, of which the area cropped more than once was 66,922 hectares, the net cropped area being 6,88,599 hectares. The following table

¹Workig plan is a document which lays down the details of scientific management of forests and exploitation, regeneration, plantation, and protection of forest for a number of prescribed years.

shows the percentage of food crops and non-food crops to gross cropped area in each tahsil during the years 1960-61 and 1971-72* :—

TABLE No. 3

PERCENTAGE OF FOOD AND NON-FOOD CROPS TO GROSS CROPPED AREA IN THE DISTRICT.

Tahsil (1)	Percentage of food crops to gross cropped area		Percentage of non-food crops to gross cropped area	
	1960-61 (2)	1971-72 (3)	1960-61 (4)	1971-72 (5)
Jalgaon Jamod	40.53	37.98	59.47	62.02
Malkapur	55.56	55.50	44.44	44.50
Khamgaon	47.54	51.99	52.46	48.01
Chikhli	64.92	63.35	35.08	36.65
Mehkar	66.71	56.32	33.29	43.68
District average ..	57.51	55.26	42.49	44.74

(*Source : Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay, 1972-73).

There was a slight increase in the gross cropped area to net cropped area in 1971-72 over the year 1960-61, viz., 2.79 per cent.

Out of the gross cropped area during 1971-72, 55.26 per cent was under food-grains, 0.2 per cent under sugarcane, 2.6 per cent under groundnut, 35.5 per cent under cotton and the rest of area was under miscellaneous crops.

During the period from 1960-61 to 1971-72, the percentage of area under food crops decreased from 57.51 per cent to 55.26 per cent. This decrease is mainly confined in Jalgaon, Mehkar and Khamgaon tahsils. However, the percentage of area under non-food crops has increased from 42.49 per cent to 44.74 per cent during the same period. This increase has been mainly in Jalgaon, Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils.

The following table indicates the increase or decrease in the area of the important crops during 1971-72 over 1960-61* :—

TABLE No. 4

INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE AREA OF IMPORTANT CROPS IN THE DISTRICT.

Crop (1)	1960-61 (2)	1971-72 † (3)
Rice	3,004	2,566
Wheat	44,386	32,029
Jowar	2,40,634	2,47,356
Total cereals	2,94,295	2,94,273
Total pulses	89,266	98,962
Total food-grains	3,83,561	3,93,235
Sugarcane	1,240	1,797
Total food crops	3,91,272	4,00,958
Cotton	2,45,198	2,58,266
Groundnut	35,262	19,104
Total non-food crops	3,06,542	3,24,563

(*Source : Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay, 1965-66 and 1972-73).

†Figures for 1960-61 are in acres and for 1971-72 are in hectares.

HOLDINGS

The study of the size of agricultural holdings is very important in the context of productivity of agriculture and well-being of the agricultural population. With the increase in population over the past few decades the pressure of population on available land has also increased and consequently the size of holdings is getting smaller and smaller due to sub-division and fragmentation of the existing holdings. The customary laws of inheritance and succession are also partly responsible for the small size of holdings.

The agricultural holdings in the district are divided into three classes, viz., A, B and C. Class A comprises persons who cultivate land by themselves with or without the aid of hired labour; class B consists of those who do not cultivate land by themselves but supervise and direct cultivation by farm servants; while class C comprises persons who receive rent from the land but do not participate directly or indirectly in cultivation. Broadly speaking, persons in the first two classes can be styled cultivators, while those in the last class can be described as non-cultivating owners. The quinquennial statement of holdings given in Table No. 5 gives an idea of the distribution of *khalsa* lands among the holders in relation to various magnitude groups.

TABLE No. 5

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RYOTWARI AREA IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1968-69.

Magnitude Group	Class A			Class B			Class C			Total		
	No. of persons	Area held in acres		No. of persons	Area held in acres		No. of persons	Area held in acres		No. of persons	Area held in acres	
		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Up to 5 acres	58,042	1,95,360	..	17,860	46,656	..	325	1,334	..	76,227	2,43,350	..
Over 5 acres, up to 15 acres.	51,274	3,99,169	..	15,371	1,45,212	..	279	2,662	..	66,924	5,47,043	..
Over 15 acres, up to 25 acres.	15,358	3,06,709	..	4,571	70,753	..	431	7,319	..	20,360	3,84,781	..
Over 25 acres, up to 100 acres.	13,188	3,16,217	..	6,003	3,98,197	..	412	19,457	..	19,603	7,33,871	..
Over 100 acres, up to 500 acres.	43	5,715	..	326	45,033	..	53	18,100	..	422	68,848	..
Over 500 acres	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

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This statement reveals that the largest number of landholders, viz. 76,227 possess less than five acres of land, whereas the highest acreage of land, viz., 7,33,871 is possessed by persons holding between 25 to 100 acres of land.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holding.—Sub-division and fragmentation of holdings are one of the principal reasons for uneconomic and less productive agriculture. The heavy pressure of growing population on agriculture coupled with the customary laws of inheritance has resulted in sub-dividing agricultural plots into smaller holdings. The problem is further aggravated because these fragments are not only small but are scattered all over. Consequently, the cost of agricultural operations has increased. The farmer has to take his bullocks and implements from one fragment to another which involves waste of time and labour. Close supervision also becomes very difficult. Some land is wasted in marking boundaries and bunds. The uneconomic holdings make it difficult to carry out any permanent improvements on the land. The farmer cannot spend on digging wells and providing draining facilities. This affects the productivity of agriculture. It was, therefore, deemed necessary to prevent sub-division of small holdings and to consolidate the fragmented plots of land. The Government of Bombay enacted the Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act of 1947, which was made applicable to Buldhana district recently.

The Act provides for determination of local standard areas and treatment of fragments, procedure for consolidation and actual consolidation. It also aims at prevention of further fragmentation. A fragment is defined as a plot which is smaller than the standard area determined under the Act. A standard area in respect of any class of land means the area which the Government determines, from time to time, as the minimum area necessary for remunerative cultivation in any area.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING

It may be pointed out that factors like increasing pressure of population on land, inequitable distribution of land, uneconomic size of holding, evil of acute fragmentation and sub-division of land, low productivity of the soil, traditional methods of cultivation, illiteracy of the farmers, meagre financial resources of the cultivators, etc., prove to be stumbling blocks in the implementation of plans for a progressive economy. In this context it may be noted that the 64th Session of the Indian National Congress held at Nagpur in 1958 pledged its overwhelming support to the adoption of co-operative farming. Co-operative farming implies pooling together of small plots of land and their joint management. When the cultivator becomes a member of the co-operative society, he can meet his credit requirement from the financial assistance extended by it. Besides, he is enabled to purchase and use modern machinery; to effect efficient division of labour, to

provide irrigation, to undertake measures for permanent development of land and finally to sell his produce advantageously, all of which normally could be beyond the capacity of an individual farmer to achieve.

There are four main types of the co-operative farming societies, viz.,—(1) collective co-operative farming societies, (2) joint co-operative farming societies, (3) co-operative tenant farming societies and (4) co-operative better farming societies. Of these only the first two types of co-operative farming societies are in existence in the district. The first collective co-operative farming society was established at Amdapur in Chikhli tahsil on 16th June 1955 whereas the first joint co-operative farming society was established at Tapovan in Malkapur tahsil on 31st December 1959.

There were in all 81 co-operative farming societies functioning in this district in the year 1968 of which 77 were collective co-operative farming societies and four were joint co-operative farming societies. These are spread throughout the district. The following table shows the tahsilwise distribution of the co-operative farming societies in the district :—

TABLE No. 6

DISTRIBUTION OF CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil (1)	Collective Co-operative Farming Societies (2)	Joint Co-operative Farming Societies (3)	District Total (4)
Mehkar	43	..	43
Chikhli	5	..	5
Khamgaon	14	1	15
Jalgaon	5	2	7
Malkapur	10	1	11
Total ..	77	4	81

The total membership of these societies was 1,079 as on 31st June 1968. Mehkar block has been selected as a pilot block by the Buldhana District Development Board for initiating the pilot scheme of co-operative farming societies.

There were 11 co-operative farming societies in this block, of which 9 were under the pilot scheme.

The following table gives information about co-operative farming societies in the district in 1968 :—

TABLE No. 7

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	Collective Co-operative Farming Societies (2)	Joint Co-operative Farming Societies (3)
Number of societies	77	4
Total land in possession of the societies	8,827 acres	651 acres.
Land under cultivation	6,610 acres	625 acres.
Share capital—	Rs.	Rs.
(a) From members	43,680	5,185
(b) From Government	36,829	5,000

The following statement gives the area under cultivation and the production in 1968 under the auspices of the co-operative farming societies in this district :—

Area under food grains	Total production in rupees	Area under commercial crops	Total production in rupees
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(Acres)		(Acres)	
3,239	43,272	2,169	32,592

Financial assistance is given by the Government to these societies in various forms so as to strengthen their financial structure and to help them to implement their schemes vigorously and effectively. The following table reveals the financial assistance made available to co-operative farming societies in the district till 1968 :—

TABLE No. 8

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN THE DISTRICT.

Particulars	Number of Societies	Loans in Rs.	Grants in Rs.	Share capital in Rs.
Land Development ..	70	2,79,520	..	..
Godowns	59	2,21,250	73,750	..
Share Capital	64	..	..	49,680
Administrative Grants ..	70	..	68,445	..
New wells	59	1,95,750	..	..
Total ..	..	6,96,520	1,42,195	49,680

Bank loans.—Besides the assistance rendered by the Government, the District Central Co-operative Bank also gives short-term and medium-term loans to the co-operative farming societies. The Bank also gives loans for hybrid crop cultivation to these societies. The categoriwise loan given by the Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank to these societies till 31st March 1969, is as under:—

	Rs.	Paise
Short-term loans	...	81,276 05
Medium-term loans	...	27,283 41
Hybrid crop loans	...	13,451 41
Total	...	1,22,010 87

Technical Guidance.—The Government has appointed two Agricultural Extension Officers for giving technical guidance to co-operative farming societies in the district. Out of 81 co-operative farming societies 36 were under the charge of Agricultural Extension Officer whose headquarters is at Buldhana; while 45 were under the charge of Agricultural Extension Officer whose headquarters is at Mehkar.

Loans for new wells.—Out of 81 co-operative farming societies, 59 societies were granted loans to the tune of Rs. 1,95,750 for digging new wells in 1965-66.

Loans for building godowns.—Government has also given loans and grants to these co-operative farming societies for building their own godowns for storing their produce. So far the Government has given loans of Rs. 2,21,250 and grants of Rs. 73,750 to 59 co-operative farming societies for the above purpose.

It may be noted that for providing guidance directed towards increasing the production capacity of the co-operative farming societies, the district organisation of co-operative farming societies has been established, having a membership of 59 co-operative farming societies.

CEREALS

The table No. 9 shows tahsilwise acreage under cereals in Buldhana district for some year from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 9
AREA UNDER CEREALS TAHSILWISE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Tahsil	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Other cereals	Total cereals
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Chikhli	1956-57	1,537	28,040	1,50,513	5,158	146	451	1,85,896
	1960-61	2,689	28,311	1,64,060	4,239	379	161	2,00,137
	1964-65	3,341	26,312	1,70,070	5,077	308	..	2,05,385
	1968-69	815	9,163	67,097	4,470	..	577	82,122
Mehkar	1956-57	2,976	56,592	1,51,074	2,075	478	1,924	86,442
	1960-61	4,330	63,255	1,59,914	1,941	522	126	3,423
	1964-65	7,252	59,432	1,58,289	2,208	242	116	2,30,427
	1968-69	1,624	18,209	73,566	1,178	..	501	2,27,502
Khangon	1956-57	1,393	17,680	64,528	1,194	..	1,647	86,442
	1960-61	69	9,019	98,173	2,378	15	3	1,09,778
	1964-65	38	10,252	1,00,561	2,177	35	8	1,13,171
	1968-69	80	8,390	96,006	1,828	31	..	1,06,475
Malkapur	1956-57	44	3,486	47,212	1,526	..	69	50,860
	1960-61	280	5,848	38,413	2,228	..	191	44,362
	1964-65	335	5,157	1,09,029	3,911	32	34	1,19,212
	1968-69	238	3,165	1,21,794	3,947	63	8	1,31,360
	1956-57	59	669	58,172	1,489	..	45	60,434
	1971-72	370	2,082	52,287	1,465	..	482	66,686

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 9—contd.
AREA UNDER CEREALS TAHSILWISE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Jowar (5)	Bajri (6)	Maize (7)	Other cereals (8)	Total cereals (9)
Jalgaon	1956-57	21	2,822	49,883	1,393	16	4	54,175
	1960-61	32	2,706	48,290	985	4	49	52,070
	1964-65	15	2,453	44,177	1,037	4	..	47,695
	1968-69	27	841	25,950	541	..	63	27,422
District Total	1971-72	40	640	18,623	910	..	128	20,341
	1956-57	4,883	1,02,321	5,58,672	14,915	687	618	6,82,484
	1960-61	7,424	1,09,681	5,94,619	13,289	1,003	342	7,27,165
	1964-65	10,926	99,752	5,81,987	12,591	598	..	7,06,401
	1968-69	2,576	30,884	2,71,997	9,204	..	1,255	3,15,916
	1971-72	2,566	32,029	2,47,356	7,950	..	4,372	2,94,273

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares

The net area sown in Buldhana district amounted to 6,88,599 hectares in 1971-72 as compared to 16,55,015 acres in 1956-57. Of this cereals accounted for 2,94,273 hectares or 42.70 per cent in 1971-72. The important cereals cultivated in the district comprise jowar, wheat, bajra and rice. Other cereal crops such as maize, barley, etc., are grown on a very small scale. The following table gives the outturn of important cereals in each tahsil of the district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72¹.

TABLE No. 10
OUTTURN OF CEREALS (TAHSILWISE) IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

[In Tons*]

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Jowar (5)	Bajri (6)	Maize (7)	Total cereals (8)
Chikhli	1956-57	133	6,384	30,031	668	23	37,239
	1960-61	350	5,449	37,867	524	57	44,247
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Mehkar	1956-57	425	12,885	30,369	222	76	43,977
	1960-61	483	10,322	33,466	232	101	44,604
	1964-65	450	10,718	37,879	197	22	49,266
Khamgaon	1956-57	12	2,537	20,818	287	3	23,657
	1960-61	4	1,647	25,050	542	8	27,251
	1964-65	5	1,500	21,939	225	6	23,675
Malkapur	1956-57	40	1,383	25,544	489	5	27,461
	1960-61	54	806	28,971	472	17	30,320
	1964-65	42	700	13,750	160	7	14,659
Jalgaon	1956-57	3	756	11,691	199	2	12,651
	1960-61	4	485	12,030	115	1	12,635
	1964-65	2	625	10,354	106	1	11,088
District Total..	1956-57	613	23,945	1,18,453	1,865	109	1,44,985
	1960-61	896	18,709	1,37,384	1,885	184	1,59,058
	1964-65	499	13,543	83,922	688	36	98,688
	1968-69	2,300	15,600	2,28,700	1,400	300	2,50,800
	1971-72	2,700	19,100	1,36,800	1,300	100	1,60,000

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in metric tonnes.

¹ Tahsilwise figures are not available.

A brief account of the important cereals such as jowar, wheat, bajra and rice grown in this district is given in the following paragraphs, while a detailed account of common pests and diseases of these cereals and their controlling measures is given separately under the section 'pests and diseases'.

Jowar.—Jowar is the most important food crop of the district covering slightly more than $\frac{1}{3}$ rd of the gross cropped area. Jowar is grown on the different classes of soils in the district. The later and heavier yielding varieties are usually grown on the deeper soils which are more retentive of moisture, while the earlier varieties except in years of short rainfall do fairly well on the lighter soils.

Jowar (*juari*), an Indian millet, forms the staple food of the cultivators while the fodder known as *kadbi* serves as the best cattle fodder. It covered an area of 2,47,356 hectares in 1971-72. Jowar is grown in all the five tahsils of district. However, Chikhli, Mehkar and Malkapur accounted for the largest area under Jowar, viz., 73,505, 64,528 and 52,287 hectares, respectively, in 1971-72.

Jowar is grown in *kharif* as well as in *rabi* season. However, *kharif* jowar is grown on a large scale in the district. A very small area is under *rabi* jowar in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils.

The land is harrowed twice before the rains, and another harrowing is given to kill the weeds, before the seed is sown, which is generally in the middle of July. In case of hybrid jowar it is sown from the third week of June up to first week of July depending upon the season. Sowing is done by three coultered seed drill, which is locally known as *niffan*. The seed rate for hybrid jowar is three kg. per acre and for local jowar 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ kg. per acre.

Generally jowar is grown after cotton and hence derives the benefit from manures applied to the previous crop; very often, therefore, it does not require special manuring. If found necessary five to ten cart-loads of farm-yard manure or 10 kg. of N_2 and 5 kg. of P_2O_5 is applied to local jowar, which increases its output. In case of hybrid jowar cultivators apply 10 kg. of N_2 and 5 kg. of P_2O_5 at the time of sowing if the crop is unirrigated.

Hoeing with the dawara (*daura*) is commenced about three weeks after sowing and is repeated three or four times at intervals of a fortnight or so. The crop is hand weeded, and 2 or 3 weedings are given.

The crop is harvested in the months of December and January. The outturn of local jowar is 400 kg. per acre and in case of hybrid jowar the average yield is 800 kg. per acre.

The local varieties of jowar viz., *amner*, *lahi amner*, *saoner* and *khondi* are cultivated in the district. The Agriculture department has also introduced many improved selections like NJ-164, NJ-156, Hybrid Commercial Jowar CSH-I, and Hybrid Jowar CSH-I in the district.

Wheat.—Wheat (*gahu*) is the second important cereal crop in the district which covered an area of 32,029 hectares in 1971-72. Wheat is chiefly grown in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils which together accounted for 25,821 hectares of the total acreage under wheat in 1971-72. It was grown on a smaller scale in Khamgaon, Malkapur and Jalgaon tahsils.

Wheat is produced as a cold weather crop and is sown when the October rains are completely over. It is generally grown on heavy and medium soils as an irrigated as well as an unirrigated crop. When wheat is to be produced land is generally kept fallow during *kharif* season and is prepared by giving one ploughing and 3 to 4 harrowings. It is also grown as a second crop immediately after *mug* and the early variety of groundnut. Wheat is drilled with a heavy *rabi-niffan* or *dusa*. About 25 kg. of seed is required for sowing an acre of land. No interculturing is done in this district for wheat. Three to four irrigations are given to the crop. Occasionally safflower is sown along the borders of the wheat crop just to protect the main crop. Generally manuring at the rate of 20 kg. of N_2 and 10 kg. of P_2O_5 per acre is given for unirrigated crop at the time of sowing. In case of irrigated crops 40 kg. of N_2 and 20 kg. of P_2O_5 are applied. Wheat generally requires three to four months to ripen and is harvested in the months of February and March.

The chief varieties grown in the district are Hy-65-4 and Vijaya and the other high yielding varieties such as NJ-917, NI-146, wheat 747-19, wheat S-227, wheat N-59, 64-Kalyan Sonora Sonalika, etc. Hy-65 wheat variety has been introduced by the Department of Agriculture under the "Pilot Wheat Seed Scheme". It is a rust resistant variety which yields higher when grown under irrigation. The yield of unirrigated crop is low. Vijaya variety fetches a better price than Hy-65 variety. The average yield of the crop in the district is 350 kg. to 400 kg. per acre depending upon the kind of soil and the method of cultivation.

Bajri.—*Bajri* is the next important food crop in the district. It is mostly grown on the poor *barad* soils of the plateau in rotation with cotton, math, *kutki* and cold season *mil*. It requires less water and plenty of sunshine. *Bajri*, spiked millet, occupied an area of 12,591 acres in the district in 1964-65. Chikhli and Malkapur are the main *bajri* growing tahsils which together accounted for 7,950 hectares of the total acreage under *bajri* in 1971-72, in the district. It is the staple food of the poor next to jowar and wheat. Its straw is used as a cattle fodder.

Bajri is sown in July along with jowar and is harvested in the months of November-December. It is sown with a three coultered drill. One or two hand weedings and two bullock interculturations are given to the crop. It is taken as a dry crop only and is manured only by a few progressive cultivators. The Agriculture department has introduced an improved variety, viz., H.B.I. for hybrid *bajri* cultivation.

Rice.—Paddy (*dhan*) is not an important crop in Buldhana district. It is cultivated in scattered patches throughout the district. It is sown with a drill in July just like other crops and generally the low-lying lands are put under rice cultivation. This crop is solely a rainfed crop and no water from wells is given to it. The local late variety is used on a very small area. Generally, coarse or early maturing varieties of paddy are grown in the district. The improved variety of rice, *viz.*, *chatri* is recommended for cultivation in the district. Paddy is harvested in the month of October, so that a second crop such as gram, etc., can be taken in the same soil.

Paddy occupied an area of 2,566 hectares in the district in 1971-72. Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils accounted for the largest area under paddy, *viz.*, 2,343 hectares in 1971-72. Area under paddy in Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils in the same year was 414 hectares, while that in Jalgaon tahsil was negligible.

PULSES

Pulses occupy an important position in the agrarian economy of the district. A number of pulses are grown in the district, the chief among them being *tur*, *mug*, *udid* and gram. The minor ones such as *math*, *chavali* and horse-gram are also grown in this district. The pulses occupied an area of 98,962 hectares or 12.90 per cent of the net area sown in the district during 1971-72. Table Nos. 11 and 12 give the acreage and outturn of pulses, respectively, in Buldhana district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72. *Udid* is the most important among pulses in the district and accounted for more than 34.62 per cent of the total area under pulses in 1971-72 in the district.

TABLE No. 11
TAHSILWISE AREA UNDER PULSES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Tahsil	Year	Gram	Green gram or mug	Tur	Black gram or udid	Horse gram	Math	Chavli	Total pulses
		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Chikhli	1956-57	6,104	5,756	14,338	20,697	7,043	802	664	55,554
	1960-61	4,817	6,234	14,863	29,310	5,403	798	853	62,491
	1964-65	3,626	6,842	17,565	26,453	6,636	890	412	62,533
	1968-69	1,237	4,231	6,034	11,284	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	27,595
	1971-72	1,212	6,116	6,511	10,728	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	28,886
Mehkar	1956-57	9,778	9,098	14,606	13,926	3,861	484	450	53,494
	1960-61	8,175	10,635	14,802	16,572	4,267	486	528	56,780
	1964-65	6,530	11,220	14,123	16,507	4,384	717	564	55,181
	1968-69	1,929	7,502	6,443	9,464	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	26,055
	1971-72	1,659	8,111	5,978	8,133	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	26,295
Khamgaon	1956-57	2,980	5,455	9,813	9,771	2,157	1,791	690	33,810
	1960-61	2,955	6,367	10,053	10,304	1,391	1,569	360	33,845
	1964-65	2,022	5,548	10,190	9,790	2,575	1,575	591	33,213
	1968-69	452	3,964	5,682	4,037	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	18,322
	1971-72	1,032	4,487	4,240	6,723	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	20,397
	1956-57	2,744	4,407	11,264	16,102	2,210	2,213	1,378	40,346
	1960-61	2,139	5,283	11,412	18,732	1,230	1,853	1,544	42,231
	1964-65	1,182	4,718	11,434	15,859	1,017	1,492	1,062	36,790
	1968-69	255	3,197	5,966	7,504	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	18,381
	1971-72	264	2,025	4,311	4,890	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	14,159

* Figures for 1968-69 & 1971-72 are in hectares.



TABLE No. 11 — contd.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green gram or mug (4)	Tur (5)	Black gram or udid (6)	Horse gram (7)	Math (8)	Chavli (9)	Total pulses (10)
Jalgaon ..	1956-57	1,881	3,197	6,515	11,540	119	400	263	23,957
	1960-61	2,723	3,277	6,850	11,524	30	465	284	25,191
	1964-65	1,272	2,787	9,136	10,959	21	174	139	24,492
	1968-69	385	1,702	2,961	4,268	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	9,595
District Total	1956-57	240	1,950	3,054	3,807	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	9,225
	1960-61	23,487	27,913	56,536	72,036	15,390	5,690	3,445	207,161
	1964-65	20,809	31,796	57,980	86,442	12,321	5,271	3,569	220,538
	1968-69	14,632	31,115	62,448	79,568	14,633	4,848	2,768	212,209
	1971-72	4,258	20,596	25,431	38,402	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	101,948
		4,407	22,689	24,094	34,281	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	98,962

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 12
OUTTURN OF PULSES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

(In Tons. *)						
Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green- gram or Mug (4)	Tur or Arhar (5)	Black- gram (6)	Total pulses (7)
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	1,363	450	1,727	1,432	5,853
	1960-61 ..	826	451	1,838	2,159	5,676
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Mehkar ..	1956-57 ..	2,183	652	1,565	964	5,703
	1960-61 ..	1,457	821	1,870	1,309	5,861
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Khamgaon ..	1956-57 ..	559	365	1,051	654	2,861
	1960-61 ..	514	475	1,326	754	3,177
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Malkapur ..	1956-57 ..	582	354	1,283	1,330	3,722
	1960-61 ..	356	389	1,472	1,455	3,763
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	353	223	698	799	2,074
	1960-61 ..	408	241	917	890	2,458
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	5,040	2,044	6,324	5,179	20,213
	1960-61 ..	3,561	2,377	7,423	6,567	29,935
	1964-65 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	1968-69 ..	1,400	N.A.	12,400	N.A.	27,300
	1971-72 ..	1,200	N.A.	14,300	N.A.	24,900

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in metric tonnes. Statistics for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are available for district only.

Udid.—*Udid* (black gram) is a paying pulse crop of Buldhana district and is grown almost all over the district. It is grown mainly as a mixed crop with *kharif* jowar and *bajri*. It thrives well on black and medium black soils, though it can be cultivated in inferior types of soils. Fairly distributed light showers are helpful for the healthy growth of the *udid* plants.

It is sown along with jowar in June or the beginning of July and harvested by the end of September. Harvesting is done either by picking the ripe pods or by uprooting the plants. The

Pods are threshed and grains are separated. The plants after being uprooted are dried and trampled under the feet of bullocks and the grains are separated from the stalks and chaff. Stalks and chaff are used as fodder for cattle. The yield per acre of this mixed crop ranges from 300 lbs to 1,000 lbs. An improved variety of *udid* has been introduced, the grains of which are larger and mature within 90 days.

Udid pulse is split and used in various preparations and curries. *Udid* flour is used for preparation of *papads*. People in the rural areas mix *udid* flour with jowar flour and prepare bread. The pulse is valued as a concentrated food for milch-buffaloes, cows and draught bullocks.

Udid crop covered an area of 34,281 hectares in the district in 1971-72. Its cultivation was prominent in Buldhana tahsil.

Tur.—*Tur* (pigeon pea) is by far the most important pulse crop next to *udid* among pulses in Buldhana district. It fetches fairly good cash returns to the cultivator. It covered an area of 24,094 hectares in the district in 1971-72. Chikhli tahsil claimed 6,511 hectares, Mehkar 5,978 hectares and Malkapur, Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils 4,311, 3,054 and 4,240 hectares, respectively, in 1971-72.

Tur is always sown as a mixed crop in rows at regular intervals with cotton and groundnut crops. It is sown in July and harvested in January.

The types of soils on which the crop is raised vary with the requirements of the crops with which it is mixed. But generally it is grown on all types of soils, from heavy to light. It is a hardy crop and resists drought remarkably well. *Tur* crop is highly sensitive to manurial treatment. It responds quickly to doses of green as well as chemical fertilisers. The general tillage required by the principal crop is also given to it. The plants bear pods after flowering. Harvesting is done by cutting the plants after all the pods get ripened and then threshing them. Threshing is done by beating the dried bundles of the plants against wooden planks.

The average yield of *tur* as a mixed crop is about 300 lbs to 350 lbs. per acre. The red as well as the white varieties are grown in the district. The improved strains *viz.*, *tur* No. 148, T. 84, have been recently introduced by the Department of Agriculture.

The green pods of *tur* are used in preparation of vegetables, whereas the ripe pulse is split and boiled for making curry (*varan*). It is also used in rice and some other vegetable preparations. The stalks are used for making baskets, brooms and thatching roofs of hutments. The dried leaves of the plants after being separated from the grains serve as good chaff.

Mug.—*Mug* (green gram) is another pulse which besides being an important food crop, has commercial importance. *Mug* covered an area of 22,689 hectares in the district in 1971-72. The area under this crop in Chikhli, Mehkar and Khamgaon

tahsils together accounted for 18,714 hectares. It is also grown in the rest of the tahsils. It is produced as a *kharif* crop and is sown in July. It is seldom taken as a single crop and is always mixed with jowar. Recently as a result of the recommendations of the Agriculture Department, a variety known as Kopargaon *mug* was taken as a sole crop. This was an early maturing variety and required only 60 days to mature. The yield of *mug* varies greatly from field to field. It serves as a good green manure crop. After the *mug* crop is taken in *kharif* season a second crop of wheat is taken in the same field.

The field is prepared by ploughing and harrowing. After the early monsoon showers, the field is harrowed again. Sowing is done by a three coultered drill. For an acre of land about 12 lbs. of seed are required. Interculturing is required to be done once in a fortnight. Frequent weedings are essential. By September, when the crop is ready for harvesting, either the ripe pods are picked or the pod bearing plants are cut. They are stacked at the threshing floor and are threshed by trampling under the feet of bullocks to obtain the grains.

Mug is exported from the district along with the other pulses to distant markets in the State. The green pods are eaten raw, whereas the ripe pulse is eaten boiled, mixed with spices. The *mug* dal is used in various vegetable preparations.

The nitrogenous nodules in the roots of *mug* plants restore fertility to the soil. Hence the crop is sometimes taken as a rotation crop. Gram and wheat crops thrive well after cultivation of *mug*.

Gram.—*Gram* (*harbhara* or *chana*) covered an area of 4,407 hectares in 1971-72, in the district. It was grown throughout the district though Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils accounted for most of the area, *viz.*, 1,659 hectares and 1,212 hectares, respectively, in 1971-72. It is always grown as a *rabi* crop, after the *kharif* jowar, *mug*, groundnut or *bajri*. It is grown on heavy and medium soils.

Sowing operations are usually done in October whereas harvesting follows in January-February. If sown late, there is a risk of evaporation of moisture. The crop thrives well on irrigation. But where irrigation facilities are not available, it is grown as a dry crop. The yield of irrigated crop is much higher than that of the dry one.

Chaffa, an improved variety of gram with yellowish colour, gives a higher yield. The top shoots of the plants are plucked and used as vegetable. Harvesting is done by cutting the ripe plants. They are stacked for about a week, dried and trampled under the feet of bullocks to get the seed.

The green pods are eaten either raw or after baking. The dry grains are eaten after boiling while gram *dal* is used in various food preparations. It is also fed to horses. The green

gram plants yield a kind of vinegar (*amb*) which is collected by spreading a cloth on the tops at night. Early in the morning it is taken out and the vinegar is squeezed. It has medicinal qualities.

Other Pulses.—Besides gram, *mug*, *tur* and *udid* there are a number of minor pulses grown in the district such as *chavali*, *math* (matki), *kulith* (horse gram), *watana*, *val* etc. Of these *math*, *chavali* and *kulith* are grown in *kharif* season. These are sown in June-July and harvested in October-November. *Watana*, *val* and at times *chavali* are grown in *rabi* season. These are sown in October and reaped in December. All these minor pulses together accounted for a very small area in 1971-72 in the district.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS

Drugs and narcotics occupy a very small area in the district. Tobacco and betel leaves (*nagvel pan*) are the only varieties grown in the district. The area under them was 25 hectares in 1971-72.

The following table gives the tahsilwise area under drugs and narcotics in Buldhana district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72. Table No. 14 gives the tahsilwise outturn of tobacco in the district for the same years.

TABLE No. 13
AREA UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS (TAHSILWISE) IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

(In Acres*)				
Tahsil	Year	Tobacco	Betel Leaves	Total Drugs and Narcotics
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Chikhli	1956-57 ..	51	..	51
	1960-61 ..	37	66	103
	1964-65 ..	2	..	2
	1968-69 ..	1	N.A.	1
	1971-72 ..	..	..	..
Mehkar	1956-57 ..	22	..	22
	1960-61 ..	3	..	3
	1964-65 ..	..	..	..
	1968-69 ..	..	..	..
	1971-72 ..	..	..	..
Khamgaon	1956-57 ..	43	..	43
	1960-61 ..	83	..	83
	1964-65 ..	4	..	4
	1968-69 ..	..	..	..
	1971-72 ..	..	..	..
Malkapur	1956-57 ..	102	..	102
	1960-61 ..	77	..	77
	1964-65 ..	11	..	11
	1968-69 ..	1	..	1
	1971-72 ..	..	..	..

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

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TABLE No. 13—contd.

(In Acres)*				
Tahsil	Year	Tobacco	Betel Leaves	Total Drugs and Narcotics
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Jalgaon	1956-57 ..	3	..	3
	1960-61 ..	3	69	72
	1964-65 ..	..	..	..
	1968-69 ..	..	..	30
	1971-72 ..	..	..	25
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	221	..	221
	1960-61 ..	203	135	338
	1964-65 ..	17	..	17
	1968-69 ..	2	..	32
	1971-72 ..	..	..	25

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 14

TAHSILWISE OUT-TURN OF TOBACCO IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

(In Tons)					
Name of the Tahsil	(Year)				
(1)	1956-57	1960-61	1964-65	1968-69	1971-72
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Chikhli	8	5	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Mehkar	3	1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Khamgaon	7	5	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Malkapur	16	13	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Jalgaon	..	1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
District Total ..	34	25	N.A.	..	..

Tobacco.—Tobacco (*tambakhu*) occupied an area of 188 acres in 1961-62 and 2 hectares in 1968-69. Tobacco crop thrives well in red, sandy loams and rich alluvial soils. Dry climate and low rainfall are suitable for the good growth of tobacco leaves. The seed is sown in specially prepared seed beds by the end of June and the seedlings are transplanted in August-September. The transplantation is done only when the seedlings have four leaves and are about four inches in height. They have to be protected from animals as also from heat by covering them with thorned sticks and straws. They also have to be carefully protected from caterpillars. The crop requires liberal manuring. The crop matures within five months. Only well grown leaves are maintained and the others are nipped off. Harvesting is done in February and March, as the leaves are ripe by that time. After harvesting, the leaves are dried in the sun for about a week. A decoction of hot spices like *lavang*, *ale* etc., is spread on the leaves which are kept under a heap of soil for some days to be ready for marketing. Tobacco is usually purchased by the wholesale merchants of tobacco in the district.

Betel-leaf.—Betel-leaf (*vidyachi pane*, *nagvel pan*) is one of the garden crops in this district and occupied a very small area. It is grown only in Jalgaon and Chikhli tahsils. The varieties grown are the *kapuri* and *bangala*. The crop requires abundant supply of water. In order to support the betel vines, numerous trees and plants such as *shevri*, *pangara*, *hadga* and *shevga* are planted. The vines are planted in October with cuttings obtained from the best shoots of older plants. The leaves are ripe for picking after two years. The vines continue to bear for twenty to thirty years if they are properly maintained. The cultivation of betel-vines is very costly and hence requires adequate financial resources. The vines have to be protected from the hot winds in the summer.

Besides medicinal uses, betel leaves are chewed with betel nut, lime, catechu and sometimes with tobacco and aromatics like cloves, cardamom and nutmeg.

SUGARCANE

Sugarcane (Ocs) is mainly grown as a garden crop in the district. The local varieties are "*pondha*", a whitish green soft cane considered excellent for chewing, and *katha*, *kala* and *banglia* with harder and thinner cane, grown for *gur*. Sugar cane occupies an area of 2,992 acres in 1961-62 and 1,797 hectares in 1971-72. Mehkar and Chikhli, the major sugarcane growing tahsils, accounted for 1,620 hectares or 90.15 per cent of the total area under sugarcane cultivation in 1971-72 in the district. The table No. 15 gives tahsilwise area and outturn of sugarcane for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 15

TAHSILWISE AREA AND OUT-TURN OF SUGARCANE, IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Area under Sugarcane (In Acres*) (3)	Out-turn of Sugarcane (In Tons†) (4)
Chikhli	1956-57	905	724
	1960-61	1,595	1,176
	1964-65	1,633	..
	1968-69	563	..
	1971-72	888	..
Mehkar	1956-57	546	541
	1960-61	1,317	1,300
	1964-65	1,626	..
	1968-69	826	..
	1971-72	732	..
Khamgaon	1956-57	46	56
	1960-61	56	54
	1964-65	82	..
	1968-69	74	..
	1971-72	117	..
Malkapur	1956-57	61	66
	1960-61	63	60
	1964-65	67	..
	1968-69	61	..
	1971-72	37	..
Jalgaon	1956-57	27	30
	1960-61	32	32
	1964-65	62	..
	1968-69	48	..
	1971-72	23	..
District Total	1956-57	1,585	1,417
	1960-61	3,063	2,622
	1964-65	3,470	..
	1968-69	1,572	11,900
	1971-72	1,797	11,700

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

†Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in terms of gur. District figures are available only.

Sugarcane is usually grown as an irrigated crop in rich black soil, though highly manured, light soils are also favourable to its growth. The crop requires intensive cultivation, ample manurial treatment and plenty of irrigation water. Deep ploughing, harrowing and clod crushing are essential. Before planting, farmyard manure is spread and ridges and furrows are prepared. Necessary channels are also prepared for irrigation. The selected choppings or sets (seed cane cut into pieces) are then planted in January. Frequent waterings are done after planting. Interculturing and weeding are essential till the plants are young. Top dressing in the form of groundnut cake and sulphate of ammonia result in good growth of the crop. Harvesting of sugarcane starts from December and lasts up to March.

An improved variety of sugarcane Co-419, has recently been introduced in the district. The variety gives a better yield. A Sugarcane Development Scheme has recently been implemented in the district with a view to increasing its production, by adoption of improved agronomic practices.

OIL-SEEDS

A variety of oil-seeds is grown in Buldhana district. They comprise groundnut, safflower, linseed, sesame, rape, mustard, castor-seed etc. Groundnut, safflower and sesame are important among edible oil-seeds whereas linseed, castor-seed among non-edible oil-seeds. The acreage under oil-seeds in the district in 1971-72 was 62,063 hectares. Out of the net area sown viz., 6,88,599 hectares in 1971-72, oil-seeds accounted for only 9.16 per cent. Table Nos. 16 and 17 give tahsilwise acreage and outturn of oil-seeds in Buldhana district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 16
AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN EACH TAHSIL OF BULDHANA DISTRICT

[illegible]

TABLE No. 16 — contd.

Tahsil	Year	Groundnut	Sesame	Safflower	Total edible oil-seeds	Linseed	Castor-seed	Total non-edible oil-seeds	Total oil-seeds
Jalgaon	1956-57 ..	1,409	947	9	2,378	376	9	386	2,764
	1960-61 ..	3,644	1,056	23	4,738	318	29	347	5,085
	1964-65 ..	5,029	977	6	6,016	76	33	110	6,126
	1968-69 ..	1,748	..	1	..	..	..	..	2,282
	1971-72 ..	2,813	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,197
District Total	1956-57 ..	88,058	5,082	46,427	145,212	4,004	199	4,594	149,806
	1960-61 ..	87,134	5,143	45,078	137,958	3,758	296	5,130	143,128
	1964-65 ..	77,257	4,336	39,841	122,028	2,613	146	3,415	125,443
	1968-69 ..	16,465	..	17,109	..	..	..	..	36,788
	1971-72 ..	19,104	..	37,265	..	..	..	..	62,063

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 17

TAHSILWISE OUT-TURN OF OIL-SEEDS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

(In Tons)

Tahsil	Year	Ground-nut	Sesame	Linseed	Castor-seed	Total Oil-seeds
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	5,190	79	83	5	5,372
	1960-61 ..	5,526	80	76	28	5,739
	1963-64 ..	2,524	68	49	34	2,695
Mehkar ..	1956-57 ..	2,844	73	20	6	2,973
	1960-61 ..	2,724	93	94	7	2,953
	1963-64 ..	1,935	92	64	7	2,143
Khamgaon	1956-57 ..	5,239	103	111	1	5,460
	1960-61 ..	4,500	124	101	3	4,733
	1963-64 ..	4,060	103	8	2	4,251
Malkapur	1956-57 ..	5,487	1,253	90	5	6,838
	1960-61 ..	1,590	79	83	7	1,761
	1963-64 ..	1,521	51	86	5	1,665
Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	396	83	34	1	515
	1960-61 ..	6,861	102	32	3	6,999
	1963-64 ..	764	32	10	8	815
District Total	1956-57 ..	19,156	1,591	338	18	21,158
	1960-61 ..	21,201	478	386	48	22,185
	1963-64 ..	10,804	346	290	56	11,569
	1968-69 ..	12,280	300	400	..	..
	1971-72* ..	11,200	300	400	100	..

*Figures for 1971-72 are in metric tonnes.

Groundnut.—Groundnut (*bhuimug*) is the most important oil-seed crop of the district and covered an area of 19,104 hectares in 1971-72. It was grown in almost all the tahsils of the district with Khamgaon and Chikhli accounting for a large area of 12,916 hectares in 1971-72. Malkapur tahsil ranked next in order. The groundnut crop in Buldhana district accounts for 30.78 per cent of the total area under oil-seeds crops.

Groundnut is grown as a *kharif* crop in the district. It requires about 25 inches of rainfall for dry farming. Good alluvial loams, medium black, light sandy and well drained sandy loam soils are congenial to its growth. Black cotton soils are also put to groundnut cultivation.

Deep ploughing, intensive harrowing and inter-culturing are of prime importance in regard to this crop. It is sown from the last week of June up to the first week of July. When it is grown on medium types of soils a second crop of wheat is produced wherever irrigation facilities are available. This crop is usually rotated with cotton and jowar. Cowdung manure is generally applied to the crop; 10 kg. of N_2 and 10 kg. of P_2O_5 are given to the crop at the time of sowing.

Groundnut seeds are sown in rows either by the dibbling method or drilled with *argada* and *sarata*. Under the former, furrows are opened by the coultered drill and seeds are dibbled by hand in the furrows. Under the latter, seeds are dropped in bowls which are connected to the coulters by means of hollow bamboo tubes. The latter method is common though the dibbling method which saves seeds and assures germination is regarded better. Nearly 40 kg. of kernel are required for sowing an acre of land.

Groundnut is adaptable to a wide range of climatic conditions. Bright sunshine is essential for flowering while moist and friable soil is good for penetration of the peg and subsequent development of pods. An alternate spell of dry and wet weather is very conducive to pod formation. Inter-culturing and weeding has to be done regularly. At least 3 hoeings are given by *dawara*, as also two weedings. The crop is ready for harvest by the middle of October. Harvesting is done by uprooting plants from the ground, and pods are separated by hand or by beating the pod bearing plants on a log of wood.

The Department of Agriculture has introduced in the district a scheme for multiplication and distribution of the groundnut variety AK 12-14. Besides, there are other varieties of groundnut grown in the district such as Lal Japan, Tija (AK-10) etc. The average yield per acre varies from 500 kg. 700 kg. The yield of the irrigated crop is much higher.

Groundnut kernel is used in a variety of ways. Its oil is used for cooking. The cake is used as a manure especially for bananas. It is also a good nutritious food for cattle.

Safflower.—Safflower (*karadi*) is usually grown as a mixed crop with *rabi* wheat, gram, and jowar, though it can be grown as a pure crop or as a border crop to serve as fence to keep away stray cattle. It is sown in October-November and harvested in February-March.

The preparations for sowing are the same as the ones given to the crop along with which it is grown. Two inter-culturings are given after the crop comes up. The crop is ripe in about four months. The plants are uprooted and stacked for a few days. The dried plants are threshed with sticks and the seeds are separated.

The safflower crop requires medium to heavy soils. The average yield per acre is about 200 lbs. to 250 lbs. Recently improved strains of *karadi* have been introduced. Edible oil is extracted from the seeds. Oil cake is utilised as a good cattle-feed. The tender leaves of safflower are used as a vegetable.

Safflower covered an area of 20,462 hectares or 46.99 per cent of area under oil seeds in the district in 1971-72. Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils covered about 9,007 and 11,241 hectares, respectively, in 1971-72, while Khamgaon, Malkapur and Jalgaon had a negligible area under this crop.

Linseed.—Linseed (*Jawas* or *alshi*) is a *rabi* crop grown along with wheat and jowar with strips of about nine rows alternating with a few rows of wheat and gram. Linseed covered an area of 2,613 acres in 1964-65 in the district. It is also grown as a border crop around fields of wheat or gram. Black cotton soils with their characteristic high clay and lime contents, and alluvial soils are congenial for its good growth. Though irrigation assures better growth, it can be produced as a dry crop also. Sowing is done with wheat or gram in October-November and is harvested in January-February. As the seeds, after ripening, shed easily, the plants are uprooted when the capsules are just ripe and begin to open. The dried plants are beaten with sticks to thresh out the seeds completely. A good crop yields about 400 to 500 lbs. per acre. But the average yield is 200 lbs. only. So far, no improved strains have been introduced. Many a cultivators use linseed oil for cooking. Linseed cake is a good manure as also the best food for milch cattle.

Sesame.—Sesame (*til*) accounted for a very small area of the total acreage under oil-seeds cultivation in the district in 1964-65. It is grown both as a *kharif* as well as a *rabi* crop throughout the district. When produced as a *kharif* crop, it is sown in June-July and harvested in October. Local non-descript varieties are grown in the district. Generally three kinds of *til* are grown, one with red, one with white and one with black seed. The first is a cold season *til* and commonly known as *boria til*; the other two known as *houri til* are sown at the beginning of the rainy season. Early *til* is sown on the soil that is considered too poor for cotton or jowar whereas for cold season *til*, a good soil is selected.

The outturn on poor soils is about 250 lbs. per acre. *Til* oil is used for cooking and the cake is used as cattle-feed.

Sesame gives a good return to the cultivators. It is generally grown as a mixed crop with cotton, groundnut and jowar. Moderate rainfall and occasional sunshine are congenial for its good growth.

Castor-seed.—Castor-seed (*erandi*) is a catch-crop grown on the farm boundaries and waste lands. It is often grown mixed with other crops. There are two types of plant varieties, annual and perennial. The annual varieties are much smaller than the perennial ones. The latter grows rapidly even up to a height of 4.57 to 6.09 metres. Perennial castor plants are chiefly grown along irrigation water channels, on borders of garden lands or irrigated lands.

Sowing is done by dibbling the seeds in June-July. The crop is ready for harvesting in February-March. When it is grown as a pure crop the seed is sown at a distance of 0.91 metre either way. As a mixed crop the seed is mixed with those of the main crop in any proportion. Castor-seed cultivation is a good source of income to the farmers.

An improved strain (S-20) which gives better yield and more percentage of oil has been introduced recently in the district.

Other Oil-seeds.—Besides the oil-seeds described so far, other oil-seeds such as mustard, niger seed, etc., are also grown in this district. These occupied an area of 5,694 hectares in 1971-72. Of this, Mehkar tahsil covered 533 hectares, Khamgaon 667 hectares, Chikhli 780 hectares, Malkapur 3,330 hectares, and Jalgaon 384 hectares in 1971-72.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES

Condiments and spices are important cash crops of the district. Chillis (*mirchi*), coriander (*kothimbir*), garlic (*lasun*), methi, turmeric, etc., are the important condiments and spices. They together occupied an area of 3,030 hectares in 1971-72. Chillis, however, accounted for major area under condiments and spices.

The following table gives the tahsilwise area under condiments and spices in the district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72:—

TABLE No. 18

AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

[In Acres*]

Tahsil	Year	Chillis	Coriander	Garlic	Fenugreek (Methi)	Total Condiments and Spices
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Chikhli	1956-57 ..	1,744	67	8	20	1,839
	1960-61 ..	1,818	51	36	6	1,912
	1964-65 ..	1,796	16	30	19	1,867
Mehkar	1956-57 ..	1,530	16	29	11	1,586
	1960-61 ..	1,636	92	47	50	1,827
	1964-65 ..	1,655	..	21	40	1,729
Khamgaon	1956-57 ..	1,227	55	6	16	1,304
	1960-61 ..	1,056	37	12	9	1,116
	1964-65 ..	626	79	8	30	745
Malkapur	1956-57 ..	5,414	86	40	15	5,555
	1960-61 ..	5,505	25	27	26	5,625
	1964-65 ..	5,328	50	14	3	5,395
Jalgaon	1956-57 ..	742	16	5	7	770
	1960-61 ..	992	30	3	..	1,026
	1964-65 ..	1,017	4	2	..	1,024
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	10,657	240	88	69	11,054
	1960-61 ..	11,007	235	125	91	11,506
	1964-65 ..	10,422	149	75	92	10,760
	1968-69 ..	..	..	..	..	4,009
	1971-72 ..	..	..	..	..	3,030

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 (district totals) are in hectares.

Chillis.—Chilli is mainly grown as an irrigated crop as well as a rain-fed crop. The area of the crop under irrigation was 4,540 acres in 1961-62 and 1,548 hectares in 1971-72. Malkapur tahsil occupied a major portion of the area under irrigation, i.e., 737 hectares in 1971-72, while Jalgaon and Mehkar tahsils had a negligible area i.e., 119 and 117 hectares in the same year.

The following table gives the total outturn of chillis in each tahsil of the district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 19

OUTTURN OF CHILLIS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

[In Tons*]

Tahsil	Year	Outturn
(1)	(2)	(3)
Chikhli	1956-57	80
	1960-61	570
	1963-64	660
Mehkar	1956-57	342
	1960-61	484
	1963-64	402
Khamgaon	1956-57	351
	1960-61	316
	1963-64	334
Malkapur	1956-57	1,354
	1960-61	2,398
	1963-64	1,714
Jalgaon	1956-57	169
	1960-61	129
	1963-64	338
District Total	1956-57	2,296
	1960-61	3,943
	1963-64	3,438
	1971-72*	1,800

*Figures for 1971-72 are in metric tonnes.

The seedlings are first grown on separate well prepared and raised seed-beds in June and are transplanted in the field after about one and a half months. Inter-culturing is done regularly.

Chillies thrive well on deep black as well as medium black soils. Heavy doses of green manure, viz., 15 to 20 cart-loads are given for an acre. The crop however could be taken on a wide range of soils and under different climatic conditions.

Green chillies are ready for plucking from September onwards. The green as well as ripe chillies are picked. The picking of chillies goes on for three to five months. Red chillies are plucked and dried in sun in the months of December and January.

The local variety is short, yellowish and red. *Lawangi*, *Delhi* and *Gaoran* are the varieties grown in the district.

Coriander.—Coriander (*kothimbir*; *dhane*) is grown in the district for seed (*dhane*) as well as for green vegetable. It covered an area of 149 acres in 1964-65 in the district. It is grown throughout the district. Its seeds are locally known as "*dhane*" which possess medicinal properties. Coriander is practically grown throughout the year. The crop is harvested by uprooting the plants after about three months from its sowing. Generally threshing is done by beating with sticks.

Garlic.—Garlic (*lasun*) is grown on a very small scale in the district. It covered an area of 75 acres in 1964-65. It is taken as an irrigated crop usually on black soils. It is planted in October-November and harvested after three months. The bulbs are uprooted either by hand or with light pick-axe.

Turmeric.—Turmeric (*halad*) grown as an irrigated crop, covered a very small area of about 5 hectares in 1971-72 in the district. It was mostly grown in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils. The crop can be taken in medium types of soils. Intensive ploughing pulverising and manuring are of prime importance for turmeric. It is mainly an irrigated crop. The rhizomes are planted in early June and harvested in January-February.

All these condiments and spices find a ready market in the district itself. Chillies are sometimes exported to other States.

The area occupied by all condiments and spices was 3,030 hectares in 1971-72. Malkapur tahsil accounted for the major portion of the area under condiments and spices in the district in 1971-72.

FIBRES

Cotton, *ambadi* (Deccan hemp) and sann-hemp (Bombay hemp) are the fibre crops grown in the district. Fibres occupied an area of 2,61,184 hectares in 1971-72 in Buldhana district. Cotton accounted for a little over 98.88 per cent of this area. This district is famous for the production of cotton which has a very wide market. Table No. 20 gives the total area (tahsilwise) under fibre crops in Buldhana district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72. Table No. 21 gives the total outturn of fibres in each tahsil of the district for some years from 1956-57 to 1971-72.

TABLE No. 20
AREA UNDER FIBRES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

[In Acres]*					
Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann- Hemp (4)	Ambadi (5)	Total (6)
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	117,354	1,462	1,775	120,591
	1960-61 ..	110,392	1,400	1,325	113,117
	1964-65 ..	125,462	2,005	1,236	128,703
	1968-69 ..	47,335	..	..	48,484
	1971-72 ..	46,724	..	..	48,112
Mehkar ..	1956-57 ..	142,113	1,631	1,312	145,056
	1960-61 ..	126,993	2,406	1,292	130,691
	1964-65 ..	141,380	3,732	1,338	146,450
	1968-69 ..	62,423	..	..	64,006
	1971-72 ..	58,541	..	..	59,742
Khamgaon ..	1956-57 ..	131,417	214	541	132,172
	1960-61 ..	133,597	93	493	134,183
	1964-65 ..	144,641	220	329	145,190
	1968-69 ..	49,302	..	..	49,437
	1971-72 ..	52,034	..	..	52,155
Malkapur ..	1956-57 ..	132,384	97	832	133,313
	1960-61 ..	124,376	96	572	125,044
	1964-65 ..	146,308	93	412	146,813
	1968-69 ..	48,537	..	..	48,575
	1971-72 ..	54,906	..	..	55,042
Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	110,660	182	294	111,136
	1960-61 ..	110,539	148	211	110,898
	1964-65 ..	111,550	154	145	111,849
	1968-69 ..	37,717	..	..	37,858
	1971-72 ..	46,061	..	..	46,133
District Total	1956-57 ..	633,928	3,586	4,754	642,268
	1960-61 ..	605,897	4,143	3,893	613,933
	1964-65 ..	669,341	6,204	3,460	679,005
	1968-69 ..	245,314	..	..	248,360
	1971-72 ..	258,266	..	..	261,184

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 21

OUTTURN OF FIBRES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

[In Tons]

Tahsil	Year	Cotton*	Sann-Hemp	Ambadi	Total Fibres
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Ch, khli ..	1956-57	56,870	49	32	56,951
	1960-61	62,214	42	57	62,313
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Mehkar ..	1956-57	70,694	51	23	70,768
	1960-61	76,920	74	65	77,059
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Khamgaon ..	1956-57	63,698	7	11	63,716
	1960-61	83,920	3	23	83,946
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Malkapur ..	1956-57	66,109	3	17	66,129
	1960-61	80,796	3	26	80,825
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Jalgaon ..	1956-57	55,039	7	7	55,053
	1960-61	64,900	5	11	64,916
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
District Total	1956-57	312,410	117	90	312,617
	1960-61	368,750	127	182	369,059
	1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	1968-69	12,280	..	..	..
	1971-72†	92,700	..	..	..

*Out-turn in terms of bales.

†Figures for 1971-72 are in metric tonnes.

Cotton.—Cotton (*kapasi*) occupied an area of 6,46,496 acres in 1961-62 as compared to 2,58,266 hectares in 1971-72. Cotton is locally known as "*kapasi*". Cotton crop is generally grown in heavy medium and black alluvial soils, and needs rainfall ranging between 50.8 mm. and 76.2 mm. (20 and 30 inches). Medium and light soils that are well drained also give satisfactory yields. It is grown all over the district mainly as a dry crop. One ploughing is essential for cotton. As the crop is a deep rooted crop, two or three harrowings are given in April and May and the land is kept ready for sowing in June.

Generally sowing is done in the month of June as soon as sufficient rains are received. The usual method of sowing is to drop the seed in the furrows through a *sarata* or a bamboo tube of the seed drill. This pre-monsoon sowing is practised only where irrigation facilities are available. The seed is sown on *chaufuli* (a square formed by horizontal and vertical rows in the field) and is dibbled by hand and the individual plants are watered. Two or three such waterings are essential for the pre-monsoon crop. When the seed is drilled by a three tined seed drill, the distance between the rows varies from 18" to 22". Where the soil is very fertile the middle tine is sometimes taken out and the seed is sown in lines 34" apart. The two tined seed drill with lines 21" apart is in common use in black soils. In poor soils the rows are kept closer and the plants are not thinned out in the rows.

The seed rate per acre is 5 to 6 kg. of seed when sowing is done by drilling; when the crop is sown by dibbling the seed rate is 3 to 4 kg. per acre. The thinning of crop is done 10 to 15 days after sowing, when the seed is sown by drilling.

Nearly all available supply of manure is applied to the cotton fields. Cattle dung is almost the only manure used; the supply of which however is very limited as much of it is used as fuel. Lands near the larger towns are sometime manured with the village rubbish including sweepings and night soil. Herds of goats and sheep numbering about one to two hundred are sometimes folded in the field after harvest. Their droppings, have a considerable manurial value. However the supply of manure is still very inadequate. This crop requires heavy manuring. About 5 to 10 cart-loads of farmyard manure is applied before sowing. Now artificial manure amounting to 20 kg. of nitrogen and 20 kg. of P_2O_5 is generally given to the unirrigated crop. For irrigated crop 40 kg. of nitrogen and 20 kg. of P_2O_5 are given; full dose of nitrogen and P_2O_5 is given at the time of sowing and half dose of nitrogen is given one month after sowing.

After six weeks from sowing the seeds begin to sprout, and four weeks later, the crop is weeded by hand. When the rains are heavy the second weeding is done in about 2 weeks and three weeks afterwards the operation is repeated for the third time. About 4 to 5 hoeings and 3 to 4 weedings are given to the crop.

The crop flowers in about four months after sowing and in another month and a half it is ready for the first picking. Picking season starts from November. Second picking takes place two weeks later from the first picking.

As a rule cotton is sown as an entire crop. However, jowar, sesame and *ambadi* seeds are occasionally mixed with cotton seed at the time of sowing. Tur is sown after every 10th to 25th line of cotton. Rotations usually followed are jowar and groundnut.

The varieties of cotton sown in the district are *American* cotton, *buri-147*, *deshi* varieties, AK-277 and AK-235. The average yield

per acre amounts to 100 to 150 kg. *Deshi* variety yields about 150 to 200 lbs. per acre whereas the yield of the American variety is 300 to 350 lbs. per acre.

Cotton is a cash crop and had an area of 2,58,266 hectares under it in 1971-72. Malkapur and Mehkar tahsils are the major cotton producing areas. Khamgaon and Chikhli tahsils come next in order. Jalgaon tahsil has also a considerable area under cotton crop.

The *Cambodia* cotton which is cultivated on a smaller scale is an improved variety. Another variety of American cotton known as *buri*, acclimatised in the Vidarbha region, is also grown in this district. Its lint is as good as that of *bani*. The percentage of lint is 33 as compared to 26 of the *bani* variety. Its yield is considerable and the lint is worth 50 per cent more than that of "*jari*". However the lint of this variety is found to be weak in some parts of the district. Attempts were made, therefore, to get a strain with consistent lint strength. Intensive selection yielded the improved strains *buri* 147 and *buri* O394. Those have a much higher ginning outturn as well as higher yield, and also a longer staple length. They belong to the *Gossypium hirsutum* species.

Among "*deshi*" varieties *bani* was the common variety grown in Vidarbha region. But on account of its low ginning, poor yield and susceptibility to wilt it was soon replaced by a mixture of coarse type known as *jadi* found in Jalgaon and Dhulia districts. Efforts were made to get higher yielding strain from *jadi* variety.¹

Malkapur, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Jalgaon, Chikhli, Mehkar, Deulgaon Raja and Buldhana are the important cotton markets in the district. The Agriculture department under its Improved Seed Multiplication Scheme has introduced a system of cotton pool based on the percentage and the purity at the pool centres. The "A" and "B" class registered growers are induced to contribute their produce to the pool where it is graded by the expert staff of the department. The cotton thus collected is sold by public auction in the premises of agents appointed by the Agriculture department for the storage and distribution of cotton seed. The seed is purchased and further distributed to cultivators.

The minor fibres grown in the district comprise sann-hemp (Bombay Hemp) and ambadi (Deccan-Hemp) which occupied an area of 6,204 acres and 3,460 acres, respectively, in the district in 1964-65. The fibre is largely used by farmers for their personal domestic requirements.

Ambadi (Deccan-Hemp).—*Ambadi* (Deccan-Hemp) belongs to the cotton family. It is a *kharif* crop and is not exacting in its requirements. It is, therefore, adaptable to a wide range of climates and soils. It grows best in the alluvial and medium deep soils. It is grown as a mixed crop along with jowar, *bajri* or

¹A high yielding hybrid variety of cotton, viz., H-4 is being popularised in the district. It has a very long staple.

pulses. It is sown in June-July and ripens in August-September. The crop is harvested when the stalks are dry. The plants which ripen in October and November are uprooted, dried in sun for a few days and tied into separate bundles. The leaves and capsules are easily separated by beating the bundles. The seed is removed from the capsule by beating and is cleaned by winnowing. As leaves provide excellent manure, the ripe crop is left standing in the field for about a month.

The land is ploughed annually during February and April and is then levelled with the *vakhar*. The crop does not grow on poor soils. When the crop is raised for fibre the plants are pulled out in September or October but when required for seed, they are allowed to ripen for a fortnight longer. When the plants are uprooted, they are tied in bundles, and placed standing in a pool of water where they are allowed to rot. The threshing operation in which the fibre has to be stripped by hand, is very tedious. The fibre is made into ropes and stalks are used for thatching.

Sann-Hemp (Bombay-Hemp).—Sann-hemp (Bombay-Hemp) is a *kharif* crop grown in clayey loams, black and lateritic soils. It is mainly produced for green manuring. Its green tops are often used as fodder. The crop is sown thick when it is grown for green manuring. It is sown in June-July. The crop after two or three months is levelled and ploughed so as to mix it with the soil. The sann is also grown for production of fibre. The stalks are either cut or uprooted. When the leaves are stripped off, the stalks are tied in bundles and placed in water for retting. After about a week they are taken out and the bark is then peeled off and beaten on a stone or wood and washed in water.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES

Fruits.—The common fruits grown in this district are banana (*kele*); mango (*amba*); guava (*peru*); citrus (*mosambi*), oranges and lime; grapes (*drakshe*); custard apple (*sitaphal*); *papaya*; pomegranate (*dalimb*); bullocks-heart (*ramphal*) etc. The table No. 22 gives the tahsilwise area under fruits in the district for some years from 1956-57 to 1967-68

TABLE No. 22
AREA UNDER FRUITS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Banana (3)	Mango (4)	Sweet lime (5)	Orange (6)	Sour lime (7)	Guava (8)	Papaya (9)	Total fresh fruits (10)
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	231	126	40	46	1	49	54	547
	1960-61 ..	229	51	38	40	1	57	47	463
	1964-65 ..	190	20	6	8	5	66	46	363
Mehkar ..	1956-57 ..	126	32	14	52	1	33	51	320
	1960-61 ..	129	66	67	21	3	34	68	388
	1964-65 ..	98	30	6	60	6	55	53	308
Khamgaon ..	1956-57 ..	120	20	9	17	5	20	21	275
	1960-61 ..	96	64	33	22	7	28	21	279
	1964-65 ..	78	41	31	31	10	30	48	276
Malkapur ..	1956-57 ..	208	41	14	23	19	10	22	342
	1960-61 ..	268	39	14	13	15	16	20	389
	1964-65 ..	327	98	15	18	11	15	22	511

Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	41	34	11	23	7	4	9	160
	1960-61 ..	..	16	34	19	12	18	19	119
	1964-65 ..	79	14	41	..	21	30	44	229
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	726	253	88	161	33	116	157	1,644
	1960-61 ..	722	236	186	115	38	153	175	1,638
	1964-65 ..	772	203	99	117	53	196	213	1,687
	1967-68 ..	1,400	200	..	100	100	..	200	2,600

Banana: The banana is grown on a small scale in the district mainly in Malkapur tahsil. The banana thrives best in rainfall ranging between 2,286 and 2,540 mm (90 and 100 inches). It also does well with liberal irrigation. It is a purely irrigated fruit crop in this district and occupied an area of 1,400 acres in 1967-68.

The banana crop grows very well in soft spongy soils. It also requires medium light soil having good drainage. The field is required to be thoroughly ploughed, pulverised and harrowed. It is then manured. Bold seedlings (suckers) are planted in June, in rows at a distance of about 1.372 metres (four and a half feet) from one another. The rows are first marked with shallow furrows. After planting two harrowings are given to remove weeds. Irrigation beds are repaired three times during the life of the crop. The crop requires frequent irrigations, viz., twice a week in the dry season.

The *basarai* variety, also known as Bhusawal green, is mainly planted in this district. The crop is not easily affected by pests or diseases. It, however, requires very intensive efforts in respect of preparing the soil, manuring, irrigation and cutting the leaves. Top dressing of oil-cake and ammonium sulphate in the fourth and the seventh months from planting is necessary; alongwith which earthing up is also done.

Flowering starts after about 9 months and continues for 3 to 4 months. It takes 18 to 20 months after planting for the whole crop to come to maturity.

The banana plantation could be allowed to multiply in the same field. But *basarai* bananas degenerate if allowed to grow in this manner. Hence they are always grown on a fresh piece of land which has been fallow or cultivated under dry crops.

Banana is harvested when fruits get rounded and the dry petals drop from the end of fruits. An acre of banana orchard contains about 2,000 plants. Each plant yields one bunch containing six to twelve dozens of bananas.

Guava: The guava (*peru*) flourishes on a wide range of soils. It is propagated from seed as well as from grafts of the best quality plant. After thorough tillage to the field, pits are dug and filled up with farmyard manure and soil. Planting is done 7-62 mm apart, each way. The field is then laid out for irrigation. Frequent irrigation is essential in dry season. Inter crops, such as vegetables, are usually allowed for a couple of years between the rows of guava trees. Generally guava starts blossoming after about three years. Fruit-bearing trees are given heavy doses of manure.

In February-March, the soil is dug up and the roots laid bare for a fortnight. Before the trees shed leaves, the beds are manured and irrigated. The beds are frequently pulverised. Fruits are plucked when they turn yellowish. There are two seasons of this fruit, viz., one in August-September and another in November-December. The area under this crop was 196 acres or 11.60 per cent of the area under fruits in 1964-65 in the district.

Mango: Mango (*amba*) is an important fruit crop in this district with Chikhli, Mehkar and Malkapur tahsils being its biggest producers. Besides the mango groves, the trees also flourish on field boundaries. Most of the mango crop produced in the district is of non-descript varieties and cannot be compared with alphonso mangoes.

Seedlings raised from mango stones are planted in the pits filled with good soil and manure on bunds alongwith the border of the fields. Two seedlings are planted in a pit, but only one is retained at a later stage. One year old seedlings raised in *kundis* (earthen pots), are also planted. The mango trees bear fruits after about 5-6 years and continue to bear for well over fifty years.

Cloudy weather and strong winds cause florescence to shed and reduce the yield considerably. Ripe mangoes are used for preparing *ambaras* (juice) while raw mangoes (*kairi*) are used for preparing pickles, chutney, drinks etc.

Pomegranate: Pomegranate (*dalimb*) is grown in dry soil with light rainfall. It thrives well in short winters and long summers. It flourishes quite well on medium to lighter type of soils. The varieties produced are local and are available from November till the end of May.

Seedlings are raised from seeds of quality fruits and get ready for transplantation after one year. They are planted in pits filled with soil and farmyard manure. The plants usually bear fruits 3 years after transplantation. Fruit borer and insects ruin the crop. They can be controlled by spraying wettable D.D.T. The fruit is nourishing and used for table purpose.

Custard apple: Custard apple (*sitaphal*) flourishes best in dry and hot climate. It requires light soil and is generally grown on the slope of hills. The plants are raised from seeds and bear fruit in about 3 to 4 years. The plant flowers from April to May and bears fruit between August and November. It is mainly grown in forest areas in the district.

Bullocks heart: Bullocks heart (*ramphal*) requires better soil than the one where custard apple could be grown and needs watering in dry climate. It ripens generally in the latter part of the cold season, mostly between January and February.

Kagdi Limbu: Kagdi limbu does not require any special type of climate or soil. It is propagated by seeds or by budding.

Mosambi: Mosambi requires more or less dry and hot climate and loose and loamy, very well drained but not sticky soil.

Seedlings of *mosambi* are raised for about a year in nursery beds and budded in the fair weather after transplanting in rows in the nursery. After buds have successfully established, the plants are planted in their fixed places. Pits are prepared and

filled with soil mixed with farmyard manure of bonemeal. Watering is given regularly till harvesting. Winter crops like vegetables can be taken during the early years till fruiting starts.

In well managed plantations trees start bearing fruits when three years old. Plantation yields maximum after 10—20 years. The tree starts flowering in January-February and fruits are ready for harvest in August-September.

Orange: Oranges occupied an area of 100 acres in 1967-68 in the district. They are grown in medium black and loamy soil with a mixture of lime nodules.

The seedlings of oranges are primarily grown in nurseries. They are planted during the rains and are liberally manured. Planting is done in straight rows. It is generally grown as a single crop. But during the first four years after plantation, the cultivators take catch crops like cotton, jowar, banana and vegetables in the space between the rows. The cultivators favour the soil conditions created by the catch crop of banana as conducive to the growth of orange plants.

Frequency of irrigation is a very important factor in the cultivation of oranges. The plants are manured with cowdung before and at the end of rainy season.

The trees begin to bear fruits from the fifth year and are in full bearing from the seventh year. The tree bears fruits for about 30 years. There are two orange seasons in a year, one between October and December, and the second between February and April. The first is known as *ambia bahar* and the latter is known as *mrug bahar*. The oranges of the latter season are better in taste. One good tree yields from 500 to 1,000 fruits at which rate the trees in an area of one acre together yield about 67,000 to 70,000 fruits. The area under orange crop was 63 acres in 1961-62 in the district.

Vegetables.—The principal vegetables in this district are onion, brinjal, sweet potato, cabbage, tomato, lady's finger, carrot, radish, *wal* and *chuka*; and *ambadi*, *shepu*, *rajgira*, *methi*, *kardi*, *palak*, *karle*, *dudia* and *chikka bhople*, being the other vegetables. Vegetables occupied an area of 3,000 acres in the district in 1967-68.

The table No. 23 gives tahsilwise area under vegetables for some years from 1956-57 to 1967-68 in the district.

TABLE No. 23
TAHSILWISE AREA UNDER VEGETABLES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil	Year	Sweet potato	Onion	Radish	Cabbage	Brinjal	Tomato	Bhendi	Total vegetables
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Chikhli	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65	76 19 49	48 61 80	6 15 20	33 34 40	34 124 150	3 9 10	50 84 30	337 384 406
Mehkar	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65	42 32 3	101 134 131	15 16 5	65 64 35	88 117 50	4 10 11	165 125 90	683 711 460
Khamgaon	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65	19 25 15	74 194 133	9 ..	27 64 37	102 142 103	24 19 19	160 143 106	682 812 481
Malkapur	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65	22 41 28	186 202 169	24 11 10	15 22 14	178 170 107	15 12 8	185 24 92	924 543 689
Jalgaon	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65	21 9 19	47 50 46	8 8 16	4 6 32	83 66 80	3 5 8	60 47 43	299 268 294
District Total	1956-57 1960-61 1964-65 1967-68	120 126 114 100	456 641 559 1,000	67 50 51 100	144 190 158 100	485 619 490 500	49 152 56 100	620 423 361 300	2,870 2,718 2,330 3,000

[In Acres]

The vegetable production in this district is limited to meet only the local demand and there is no exportable surplus of vegetables. There are marked seasonal variations in vegetables supply which is ample during the period between October and March.

Onion: Onion (*kanda*), a tuber vegetable, is grown all over the district and occupied an area of 1,000 acres in 1967-68. It is grown in medium soils both in *kharif* and *rabi* seasons. But it is mainly taken as a garden crop.

The land is ploughed and pulverised thoroughly. Onion seeds are sown on raised seed-beds and are transplanted in flat-beds after four or five weeks. Before transplanting the soil is irrigated. This crop requires very liberal manuring. Rotten cow-dung and phosphate are preferred. Six cartloads of manure is applied per acre and watering is given every ten or twelve days. In Buldhana district both red and white varieties are grown. Its green leaves are used as vegetable.

The onion bulbs are ready for harvesting in about three months from plantation. The average yield of onions ranges from 2,600 kg. to 3,730 kg. per acre under ideal conditions.

Sweet Potato: Sweet potato (*ratale*), a root vegetable occupied an area of 100 acres in 1967-68 in the district. Cuttings or sets with three nodes are planted on both the sides of the ridges. The crop needs about six cartloads of manure per acre and frequent irrigation. It thrives well in rich black soil. It is ready for harvest in about six month's time. *Ratalis* are eaten raw, boiled or roasted. The leaves are used as a green fodder for cattle.

Brinjal: Brinjal (*vange*) is one of the most important vegetable crops and occupied an area of 500 acres in the district in 1967-68. It is grown all over the district. It is sometimes grown as a rain-fed crop though it is mainly an irrigated vegetable crop. It grows well on medium brown soil and also in rich soils, often on river banks and in gardens. In the garden it can be grown in any season.

Brinjal seeds are sown in seed-beds in the beginning of June and transplanted during July. It begins to bear fruits generally four months after plantation.

In the district brinjals are grown on a large scale mainly as irrigated crop; though at some places it is also taken in the *kharif* season. The variety of brinjals grown is small in size with pink and white stripes. It is used very often as a vegetable at home and at community feasts.

Tomato: Tomato can be grown both as a *rabi* and *kharif* crop. It is mainly grown as a winter crop in the district. It grows extremely well in medium black soil.

It requires deep ploughing and about 10 cartloads of farmyard manure per acre. Seeds are first sown in nursery-beds and then seedlings are transplanted after three or four weeks. Two

seedlings are planted together. Irrigation is given immediately after transplanting and at intervals of 8 to 10 days; when there is no rain. Earthing-up is done before flowering. The crop gets ready for harvesting in 2½ to 3 months. Green tomatoes are used as a vegetable, while the ripe ones are either eaten as a table fruit or used in preparation of salad.

Sometimes tomatoes are grown as a mixed crop along with chillis and brinjals. Ammonium sulphate and groundnut cake are highly beneficial to the crop.

Radish: Radish (*mula*) is grown in the district along with irrigated crops. It is grown as a mixed crop or as an inter-crop. Though it could be grown in any season, winter crop is the main one. The winter radish are more tasty, crisp and fully grown. Fairly rich but loose soil is required for the good growth of the crop. Radish is sown by propagating the seed either on bare soil or mixed with other crops. It requires frequent irrigation at an interval of five to six days. The roots (*mula*) get ready for harvesting after 4 to 5 weeks.

The variety grown is of a fairly large size in the district. *Mula* as well as its leaves are used as vegetable and in the preparation of salad.

Cabbage: Cabbage (*kobi*) is known as *gadda kobi* and cauliflower is known as a *phulkobi*. They are grown on a small scale as *rabi* vegetable in sandy and clay-loams. The field is left fallow in *kharif* season and is ploughed in September. Intensive manuring and irrigation are of extreme importance for cabbage cultivation. Top dressing of oil cake and ammonium sulphate is usually given one month after the plantation.

The seed is first sown in nursery-beds in August and the seedlings are transplanted in September. The crop comes to maturity after 3 to 3½ months when it is harvested. The cabbage heads are used as vegetables whereas leaves are fed to cattle.

Carrot: Carrot (*gajar*) is grown on medium black soil in both *kharif* and *rabi* seasons. It is grown on irrigated lands in *rabi* season by sowing the seeds directly on ridges or in flat-beds. The crop is ready for picking within three months of sowing. The root (*gajar*) is eaten raw or boiled and is also used as a concentrate for cattle.

Chuka: Chuka (*ambatchuka*) is the most popular amongst the leafy vegetables. Although it can be grown in gardens at any time of the year, it is taken mainly as a *kharif* crop in the district. It is ready for use in a month after sowing. The sour leaves and tender stems are used as a vegetable.

Shepu: It is grown in garden lands, usually in cold season. Its leaves are used as a vegetable.

Ambadi, *rajgira*, *methi*, *kardi*, *palak* are the other leafy vegetables grown extensively in the district. The other minor vegetables are *alu*, *kothimbir*, *pudina*, *ghol* and *tandula* among the leafy vegetables.

Bitter gourd: Bitter gourd (*karle*) is grown either as a rainy season vegetable or in garden lands at any time of the year. It requires medium type of soil. Seeds are sown in basins and fruits appear after 2 months. It is produced as a mixed vegetable in beds on bunds and hedges. It is used when raw as a vegetable. It is bitter in taste, and has medicinal values.

Bottle gourd: Bottle gourd (*dudhia, kaddu*) is commonly cultivated in garden lands and is grown as a mixed crop in flat-beds on bunds and hedges. Only the long variety is grown in the district. Seeds are dibbled in basins. The fruit is used as a vegetable.

Ridge gourd: It is very largely grown mixed with *kharif* crop on bunds and hedges. The crop requires medium type of soil. The land is first ploughed and harrowed and basins are prepared with manure mixture. Seeds are sown in these basins. Flowering starts and fruits begin to appear within a fortnight.

Red pumpkin: It is generally grown round edges of garden lands in any season. It requires medium to light soil. Fruits get ready after 3 to 4 months and are harvested when fully ripe. It is then used as a vegetable. It is grown mostly in *kharif* season. The fruit weighs about 28 to 40 kg.

Cucumber: Cucumber (*kakadi* or *valuk*) is grown in garden lands as a *kharif* or a hot weather crop. Three or four varieties are grown in the district, viz., (i) elongated and ridged; (ii) short thick but green; (iii) medium long but thick and whitish green; (iv) shortest with white colour.

Cluster beans: *Gavari* is grown both as pure and mixed crop. The seeds are dibbled on both the sides of ridges. The land is ploughed and harrowed before farmyard manure is applied. *Gavari* begins to bear pods in three months. The pod is used as vegetable while the seed is utilised as cattle feed.

Lady's finger: Lady's finger (*bhendi*) is grown on a considerable scale and occupied an area of 300 acres in 1967-68 in the district. It is produced as a mixed crop with cotton or sugarcane. Five to six waterings are given in summer at an interval of 6 to 8 days. Seeds are dibbled on both the sides of the ridges in rows. Sowing is done in July or in February. Only tender fruits are harvested after six weeks. The green pods are used as a vegetable.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS¹

A number of agricultural implements are in use in the district. Most of these are made of indigenous materials with local labour. Their shape and form were dictated by the necessities of the time when they were invented and, a little, if any change has taken place since then. Ploughs, harrows, seed drills, levellers and hoes are the important implements connected with the various phases

¹The account is based on Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana district, Vol. A, 1910, pp. 222-224.

of agricultural operations that are used in the district. Besides these several hand tools which are in use are *khurpi, phavade, kudli, tikas, zadi, kurhad, sabbal, etc.* The age old wooden plough is recently being replaced by the iron plough and the old *mot* by the oil engine in the district. A few improved implements, such as iron ploughs, blowing fans, threshing and separating appliances have also been introduced. A description of some of the major implements is given below:—

Plough.—The ploughs are of two kinds, a light plough drawn by one pair of bullocks, and a heavy plough with a shorter body which is drawn by three or more pairs. The wooden plough (*nangar*) is made of *babhul* (*acacia arabica*) wood by local carpenters. It comprises four essential parts, viz., the main body (*khod*), beam (*dandi*), plough share (*phal*), and stilt (*rumhane*). The main body is the central part to which the others are attached. It gives the necessary weight for the penetrating action of the ploughshare. It is about three feet long and consists of a head and shoe. The head is thicker while the shoe is tapering to a point, flat at the top and triangular at the bottom. The share made of iron is sharp at the end and is fixed to the shoe. It is about two feet long and projects about six inches beyond the point of the shoe. It is attached to the shoe by means of an iron-ring. The beam is generally made of *babhul* or *tiwas*, which is fixed to the body in a particular angle and is about 3.048 to 3.658 metres (10 to 12 feet) long. The stilt which is fixed with a short grip or handle (*muth*) is attached to the beam at the back end. It is used for handling the plough by the plough-man. The yoke is tied to the front end of the beam by means of a thick rope. The lighter plough stirs the soil to a depth of 6 inches, and the heavy plough to twice that depth.

A number of progressive cultivators, owning big holdings possess iron-ploughs. The iron-plough opens a rectangular clear furrow by throwing the soil over with the wooden board attached to it. It is preferred to the indigenous type because it makes the soil more loose and friable. Iron-ploughs are worked with two to five pairs of bullocks depending upon the size of the plough and the texture of the land.

Harrow.—The harrow (*wakhar* or *bakhar*) serves the purpose both of plough and harrow. It is an indigenous implement and used for crushing of clods and making the soil arable. It is like a large scraper and made of *babhul* and *tiwas*. It comprises five main components, viz., head, prongs, iron blade (*pas*), beam (*dandi*) and stilt (*rumhane*). The iron blade is attached to the two prongs fixed to the head. It is about 2' to 3½' long. The *wakhar* is guided by means of a single upright wooden stilt. The yoke is attached to the beam by means of a thick rope. It is drawn by one pair of bullocks and could harrow from one to two acres in one day, depending on the state of the soil.

There are two types of harrows prevalent in the district viz., the heavy harrow (*moghada wakhar*) and the small one. The heavy harrow is usually used when the soil has baked very hard, or when

the land is infested with a thick growth of weeds. The *moghada* is drawn by two pairs of bullocks, and turns up the earth in clods and brings weeds to the surface. It is often used for the first harrowing. The cross harrowing is then done by the light *wakhar* drawn by one pair of bullocks. It is also used for preliminary harrowing, for covering the seeds sown and for inter-culturing the broad spaced crops.

Seed Drill.—The seed drill (*tifan*) is also an indigenous implement used for sowing operations. It is made of *babhul* wood by village carpenters. The seed drill consists of four parts *viz.*, three coulter, a beam (*danda*), three bamboo tubes and a bowl (*chale*). The head is the central part to which are attached three coulters at the bottom, stilt on the upper side and beam on the front side. Pointed drills, made of iron, are attached to the coulters. The bowl (*chale*) is connected with the three coulters by three bamboo tubes. Seeds are put in the bowl from where they pass through the tubes into the furrows made by the coulters.

The following seed-drills are prevalent in Buldhana district.

(1) *Tifan*.—It is a three coultured drill used for sowing *kharij* jowar.

(2) *Argada*.—It is either three or four coultured bowl to which bamboo tubes are not attached. But bamboo pipes, each fixed with a small bowl on the top (locally known as *sarate*) are tied by ropes to each of the coulters of the seed drill. It is used for sowing of cotton and groundnut.

(3) *Dusa* or *Kathani Tifan*.—It is sometimes used for sowing *kharij* crops, especially cotton. It consists of an ordinary *wakhar*, but two tines about 21 inches apart are substituted for the blade. Through the bamboo tubes (*sarates*) drawn in the wake of these tines the seed is dropped. Two *wakhars* are usually worked behind the *dusa* to cover the seed with soil. With one man to drive the bullock and two women to drop the seeds into the *sarates*, about 4 acres of land can be sown in one day. Sowing is sometimes done with the *wakhar*, in which case only one *sarate* is used. It is generally used for sowing operations of wheat, gram, coriander and mustard.

Interculturing Implements.—The implements used for interculture are the *dawra* or larger hoe, and *tassa* or *dhusa*, the smaller hoe, which are miniatures of the *wakhar*, and are used solely for inter-culturing. *Dawra* which has constructional design like the harrow is used for inter-culturing cotton, jowar, *mug*, *udid*, groundnut, etc., while sometimes the small *wakhar* is used for inter-culturing broad spaced crops, *viz.*, chillis, brinjals, banana and jowar.

The body of the *dawra* is about 16 inches long and the blade is 10 inches long and 2 inches deep. With two *dawras* drawn by one pair of bullocks two men can inter-culture from 2½ to 3 acres of cotton daily. The blade of the *tassa* is of the depth as that of the *dawra* but is 4 inches longer. For inter-culture the cotton grower therefore uses the *dawra* while the plants are small and

when they are grown up the *tassa* is used so as to pare away the seed growing near the rows and at the same time to ridge up earth against the plant. In Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils in the district a hoe with two blades each 6 inches long is used for inter-culture. The blades are 3 inches apart so that when at work the weeds on the two sides of the row of plants are pared at the same time.

Harvesting Implements.—The principal tools used for harvesting in the district are sickle (*koyata* or *vila*), *kudali* and *zadi*. For harvesting of jowar, bajra, *tur*, *mug*, *udid*, wheat, gram, groundnut, etc., sickles of different shapes are used. For digging, trenching and ridging soil and for uprooting crops, *kudli* and *zadi* are used.

Threshing Implements.—There are very few implements used for threshing of grain. Of these *tivar*, *datale*, basket, chaff-cutter and blowing fan could be mentioned. *Datale* (a tool having five or six teeth fixed on a small head piece) is used for stirring and separating grains from the chaff or husk, at the time of threshing. A special broom is also used for separating chaff from the heap of grains.

Hand Tools.—There are a number of hand tools used in the district for various agricultural operations. The axe (*kurhad*) is used for cutting wood. The small axe called the *pharsi* is used for chopping down twigs of trees. The pick axe (*kudli*) is used for digging. The spade (*phavade*) is used for removing earth. Weeding hook (*khurpi*) is used to remove the weeds. This is especially useful when it is not possible to operate bullock drawn hoe. Its blade is very small, about 0.05 to 0.09 m. (two-three inches) in length and is also used for stirring the soil. Crowbar (*pahar* or *sabal*) is used for digging holes in the soil. Budding knife is used for preparing orange nurseries. Many farmers now use rotary dusters, hand sprayers and bucket sprayers for spraying or dusting crop with insecticides. All these hand-tools are generally manufactured locally.

Water Lifts.—Water is lifted from the well for irrigation by a leather bag called *mot*. It is the chief contrivance for lifting water from wells. *Mot* is made of tanned hide by local cobblers. The two ends of *mot* are tied by two separate ropes to the yoke. There is actually a double yoke, about four feet in length. The bullocks yoked to the *mot* are driven forward and backward over the ramp. The two ropes (called *nada* and *samdur*) pass over the two revolving wheels. Iron *mots* are also in use but are very few in number. The old *mot* is slowly being replaced by a number of water pumps worked either on oil engines or on electric motors. This has facilitated well irrigation on a large scale.

Bullock-cart.—The bullock-cart popularly known as the *bailgadi* is widely used for transport in rural and semi-urban parts of the district. At a number of places these are the only means of transport of agricultural produce and appliances. The bullock-cart is very useful in carrying large quantities of grass and

manure and transporting of field produce to the markets. The frame of the cart is like an isosceles triangle tapering towards the front side. The frame is supported on two cart wheels. A few planks are fixed on the frame with some space in between. There are about four holes on two sides of the frame for fixing vertical props. The entire frame is covered by a mat made of thick bamboo traps. The frame is made of either *shadada* or *sag* wood. The axle is fixed in a rectangular block of wood of the right size. The axle is tied with the front angle of the frame by a tight string or an iron rope. Its whole body is made of wood (generally of *babul*) except the rims, the axle and the bush.

LIVE-STOCK

Live-stock occupies an important place in the agricultural economy of the district. The agronomy of the district is still dependent upon the live-stock, which continues to be a valuable possession of the farmer. Every farmer, who is economically sound, usually keeps a pair of bullocks, a few sheep, goats, cows and poultry. Bullocks and he-buffaloes are kept as draught or as breeding animals. Draught power required for agricultural operations such as ploughing, harrowing, drawing water for irrigation, transport, etc., is derived mainly from bullocks. Cows are a source of milk which is highly in demand. Live-stock also provides much of the organic manure used on the farms. Hence a pair of bullocks for draught and a cow or buffalo for milk and manure are to be commonly found with a large number of farmers. In rural areas a farmer's status is judged by the number of cattle maintained by him. In fact no farmer can do farming economically without the aid of live-stock. Table No. 24 gives statistics of bovine population in Buldhana district in 1966 and 1972, while table No. 25 gives a tahsilwise distribution of live-stock in Buldhana district in 1966 and 1972.

TABLE No. 24

BOVINE POPULATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1966 AND 1972.

Classification of Cattle (1)	Cows		Buffaloes	
	1966 (2)	1972 (3)	1966 (4)	1972 (5)
Males (over 3 years)—				
Breeding bulls	3,271	1,394	688	456
Working bulls	1,94,391	1,93,667	1,649	1,448
Other bulls	990	3,019	151	275
Females (over 3 years)—				
In milk	52,908	56,112	18,997	19,689
Dry and not calved even once	95,214	91,178	22,517	21,756
For work	86	1,522	19,12	774
Others	1,101	1,031	22,623	436
Young stock	1,26,695	1,36,508	25,771	24,919

SOURCE: Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Buldhana District, 1966 and 1972-73.

TABLE No. 25
DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN BULDHANA DISTRICT (TAHSILWISE) IN 1966 AND 1972.

Classification of cattle (1)	Jalgaon (Jamod)		Malkapur		Khamgaon		Chikhli		Mehkar	
	1966 (2)	1972 (3)	1966 (4)	1972 (5)	1966 (6)	1972 (7)	1966 (8)	1972 (9)	1966 (10)	1972 (11)
Bovines over 3 years—										
For work—										
Oxen	18,660	18,353	35,947	32,603	31,575	27,042	51,437	56,290	56,772	59,379
He-buffaloes	58	53	127	158	188	107	541	542	735	586
For breeding—										
Bulls	515	84	208	232	401	322	621	449	1,519	307
He-buffaloes	81	40	97	102	104	86	133	127	183	101
For other purposes—										
Oxen	134	274	158	799	211	344	206	1,071	281	531
He-buffaloes	13	19	49	38	2	27	46	138	41	53
Milk cattle—										
In Milk—										
Cows	7,328	6,231	9,308	9,336	10,075	9,998	10,389	13,249	15,808	17,308
She-buffaloes	2,130	1,998	3,608	3,948	4,164	4,083	4,181	4,317	4,914	5,343

TABLE No. 25—contd.

Classification of cattle	Jalgaon (Jamod)		Malkapur		Khamgaon		Chikhli		Mehkar	
	1966	1972	1966	1972	1966	1972	1966	1972	1966	1972
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Dry and not calved even once—										
Cows ..	12,392	9,131	17,198	16,569	18,623	17,872	21,131	22,573	25,870	25,033
She-buffaloes ..	1,814	1,955	4,698	4,218	3,861	3,300	6,273	5,975	5,871	6,308
Others—										
Cows ..	168	160	6	196	12	153	41	320	874	202
She-buffaloes ..	27	44	7	117	5	36	45	159	22	80
Young Stock—										
Cows ..	16,733	16,751	25,815	23,098	24,820	26,344	26,967	31,119	32,360	38,296
Buffaloes ..	2,514	2,558	4,796	4,005	4,798	4,231	6,514	6,245	7,043	7,880
Horses and Ponies ..	765	..	232	..	259	..	526	..	1,118	..
Sheep ..	2,759	2,411	7,033	8,741	2,410	3,700	9,491	6,218	4,559	7,684
Goats ..	11,734	17,769	25,424	33,332	19,379	35,513	43,872	45,961	42,543	52,808
Others ..	376	107	857	590	1,245	677	2,830	1,859	2,327	2,234

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Bovines.—The live-stock in the district can be classified into bovine, ovine and poultry population. Horses, mules and asses also form an important class of the live-stock. Most of the animals are of non-descript type. The only pure breed that has been introduced in the district is *Khamgaon* breed. Besides this breed, *gaorani* and *ghat* breeds are considered the most suitable in plains and in the hilly-tracts, respectively.

Khamgaon Breed: The breed is found in Khamgaon, Malkapur and Jalgaon tahsils, where the soil is deep and heavy to work. The Khamgaon breed is the largest and strongest of the Berar breeds, and is, therefore, well suited for heavy work on the black cotton soil. The typical Khamgaon bullock is a big strong animal with a coat of mixed colours, the general colour is red or tanned red mixed with white, the red generally occurring in round spots which give the animal a mottled appearance. His hoofs, muzzle, horns, and the inside of his ears are of a chocolate colour. His forehead is broad and slightly convex, and the hump, well-developed. The horns are of medium length and rather thick at the base. The Khamgaon bullock is round in the barrel, and altogether a strong, massive animal. As a trotter he is perhaps inferior to the smaller Berar breeds, and his hoofs are softer and do not stand the wear and tear of the road so well. As a strong draught animal he is particularly well suited for areas where the soil is heavy to work.

Buffaloes: There are two breeds of buffaloes in the district, the *Gaorani* or *Nagpuri* breed and the *Malwa* breed. The buffaloes of *Nagpuri* breed are large animals with long horns which lie back over the neck; the *Malwa* buffaloes are distinguished from the local breed by their smaller head and shorter horns. *Gavalis* and the farmers keep buffaloes in herds. Jowar stalks, grass and cotton seed are fed to them. If properly fed a good milch buffalo of the *Nagpuri* breed gives about 7 to 8 litres of milk daily; but the average does not exceed half that amount.

Sheep and Goats: The sheep which are generally reared by the *Dhangars* in the district are non-descript animals and are usually kept for wool, skin and meat. Sheep and goats in herds of from one to two hundred are grazed on the fields of cultivators after the crop has been harvested. They are folded there at night so that the owner of the fields gets their droppings as manure for his fields in return for what they eat. The sheep rearing provides a profitable side business to the agriculturists. Its refuse serves as manure, and the milk can be used for domestic consumption. The meat of the goats, the skin and the wool of sheep, all these together supplement the agriculturist's income.

Horses, Mules and Asses: These animals are mainly used for the purpose of transport in the district. Horses are yoked to *tongas*. Ponies are maintained in the villages where bullock-carts are not easily available for transportation. Asses are mostly maintained by the Vadars to carry heavy loads like big stones, earth, etc.

Diseases of Cattle.—Epidemics among cattle are very common and as no care is taken to segregate diseased animals at the first appearance of an outbreak, infection spreads fast in a herd. The diseases most prevalent in the district are rinderpest, foot and mouth disease, malignant core-throat and pleuro-pneumonia. Other bovine ailments, such as hoven, diarrhoea and dysentery are common in the district.

Rinderpest is a disease common to all cattle, but young buffaloes especially are susceptible to it. An animal attacked by it generally dies within a week. The curative measure adopted by the owner is to feed the animal on ghee, *mug* pulse and rice water. Inoculation for rinderpest is practised. Foot and mouth disease is very common. The animal attacked by it is tied up in mud and *dika-mali* boiled in linseed or *tal* oil is rubbed on the sores of the feet. If there are ulcers on the tongue, they are treated with alum powder. Should the hoofs split, the animal becomes lame for life but the disease is not often fatal.

The district neither exports nor imports live-stock. The main source of cattle supply to the farmers is weekly cattle markets, which are held at Asalgaon and Nirod in Jalgaon tahsil, Malkapur and Nandura in Malkapur tahsil, Adgaon, Shegaon and Khamgaon in Khamgaon tahsil, Deulgaon Raja, Buldhana and Chikhli in Chikhli tahsil and at Mehkar. However some animals of pure breeds are imported from distant places in the State for use in key village centres and cattle breeding farms and improving the local progeny at farms.

Fodder Supply.—The district is self-sufficient in fodder-supply. The cultivators produce fodder in their farms. The fodder and cattle feed consist mainly of *kadba*, grass stalks from groundnut crop, *kular* prepared from the leaves and stalks of wheat, *bajri*, *tur*, *udid*, *mug*, etc. *Udid* grains, cotton seeds and groundnut cake are served as concentrated feeding to cattle.

Poultry.—Poultry is kept for meat and eggs. There is a wide scope for poultry development in the district. The total poultry population of the district was 1,02,608 in 1966 and 1,20,348 in 1972. It consists mainly of fowls and partyl of ducks. Most of the poultry birds kept in the district are of *deshi* and non-descript variety. However recently farmers were supplied a few cocks of White Leghorn variety for breeding and upgrading *deshi* poultry. There is no poultry experimental farm or poultry research station in the district. However, demonstration and propaganda work are carried on throughout the district by the District Animal Husbandry Officer and by veterinary-cum-extension officer for animal husbandry and subordinate staff at block-level. Gram-sevaks also play a useful role in carrying out the propaganda and demonstration work. There is a scheme of granting subsidies and loans from Block Development funds to interested poultry breeders for the construction of poultry houses, purchase of necessary equipments and birds, etc.

With a view to upgrading the local non-descript poultry birds, cocks of White Leghorn breed are sold on exchange basis to the poultry breeders. The implementation of the schemes of poultry development in the rural areas of the district has helped in replacing the local birds by pure breed, in imparting scientific and practical knowledge of poultry keeping to the villagers and in giving timely technical assistance of the stockmen and other officials of the Animal Husbandry department.

The following table gives the poultry figures in the district as per 1966 and 1972 live-stock census in each tahsil:—

TABLE No. 26
STATISTICS OF POULTRY IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil	1966	1972
(1)	(2)	(3)
Jalgaon (Jamod)	6,461	12,972
Malkapur	14,981	16,360
Khamgaon	12,447	20,934
Chikhli	38,591	35,224
Mehkar	30,128	36,758
District Total	1,02,508	1,20,348

The veterinary facilities and some important schemes of animal husbandry which are under implementation in the district are described in the following paragraphs:—

There are 13 full-fledged veterinary dispensaries located at the following places in the district: (1) Buldhana, (2) Chikhli, (3) Mehkar, (4) Khamgaon, (5) Shegaon, (6) Jalgaon, (7) Dasarkhed, (8) Motala, (9) Lonar, (10) Sangrampur, (11) Nandura, (12) Deulgaon Raja, and (13) Malkapur. In order to give veterinary aid to the interior villages, 36 veterinary aid centres have also been established in the remote parts of the district. Treatment of animal diseases, control of epidemics, castration of scrub bulls and control and destruction of animal parasites are the main services rendered by these dispensaries.

The scheme of key village centre has been introduced in the district. The breeding bulls are located for selective breeding at key village centres, under the key village scheme. Natural services as well as artificial insemination methods are practised at these centres.

Bulls have also been located at different places for breeding purposes under the district premium bull scheme. Under this scheme a farmer, who purchases a bull approved by the Animal Husbandry department, is paid subsidy and maintenance subsidy per month for three years. Cattle development work is also taken up through the Gorakshan Sanstha at Khamgaon.

Dairy conditions.—Investigations carried out by the Dairy Development Commissioner, Nagpur Division, for the development of dairy industry in this district in July 1969 revealed that the district has considerable scope for the development of dairy industry and that it is also suitable for permanent pastures, about 2.20 lakhs acres of land being under pastures with nutritious grasses. The investigation also revealed that with their proper development the dairy industry in the district would definitely reach a certain level of progress.

There are no distinct breeds of cattle in this district, but the local authorities have tried to introduce the breeds mixed with *deoni*, *Hariyana* and *gaorani* breeds of animals. Among the buffaloes *Nagpuri*, *Ellichpuri* and *Hydrabadi* breeds are more common in the district. Besides these, the number of non-descript type of animals are still larger in the district.

There are a few good cattle markets in the district at Asalgaon, Nirod, Malkapur, Nandura, Adgaon, Shegaon, Khamgaon, Deulgaon Raja, Buldhana, Chikhli and Mehkar, with a large turnover of animals. Besides these markets the cattle are sold in almost all weekly village markets.

There are 22 co-operative dairy societies in this district. The following table gives the working of these societies in each tahsil in 1968-69:—

TABLE No. 27

MILK-SUPPLY SOCIETIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1968-69.

Particulars	Chikhli Tahsil	Malkapur Tahsil	Khamgaon Tahsil	Jalgaon Tahsil	Mehkar Tahsil
1. Number of societies	2	1	18	..	1
2. Number of members	31	55	345	..	11
3. Share capital (Rs.)	1,350	..	29,295	..	500
4. Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	31	55	897	..	..
5. Working capital (Rs.)	1,381	55	1,35,524	..	515
6. Deposits (Rs.)	..	..	71	..	15
7. Outstanding loans (Rs.)	..	..	93,163	..	..
8. Societies in profit (No.)	..	..	5	..	..
9. Amount of profit (Rs.)	..	..	3,060	..	..
10. Societies in loss (No.)	1	1	13	..	..
11. Amount of loss (Rs.)	16	36	9,040	..	..
12. Societies having no profit, no loss (No.)	1	..	..	..	..

Of the 22 societies, 14 societies were not working properly and loans of Rs. 1,10,830.32 were outstanding against these societies. In addition there are many private milk suppliers in Buldhana district, as also a few organizations which distribute milk locally.

IRRIGATION

The irrigation facilities in the district are inadequate as could be seen from the fact that only 2.4 per cent of the net cropped area was under irrigation during 1967-68. The various medium and minor irrigation projects in the district are yet to be commissioned into service fully. The net area irrigated by different sources of irrigation amounted to 41,600 acres in 1967-68. The district stood 4th and 18th in Vidarbha and Maharashtra respectively in regard to the percentage of gross irrigated area to net sown area during 1967-68. The percentage of gross irrigated area to net irrigated area was highest in Chikhli tahsil, while in Jalgaon tahsil it was the lowest in the district. Table No. 28 gives the relevant data regarding the sources of water-supply and the net area irrigated in the district in 1964-65 and 1967-68 while table Nos. 29 and 30 show the area under food and non-food crops irrigated in each tahsil during the same period in the district.

TABLE No. 28
SOURCES OF WATER-SUPPLY AND AREA IRRIGATED THEREFROM IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	No. of Wells used for irrigation		No. of Wells used for domestic purpose only (5)	No. of Wells not in use (6)	Tanks		Number of oil engines (9)	Net area irrigated by Tanks (In acres) (10)
		Masonry (3)	Non-masonry (4)			With ayacut 100 acres or more (7)	With less than 100 acres (8)		
Chikhli ..	1956-57	2,758	1,936	707	1,335	..	..	280	..40
	1960-61	3,550	811	948	935	..	..	398	102
	1964-65	3,752	797	1,091	912	..	..	425	..
Mehkar ..	1956-57	1,936	761	1,131	1,284	..	..	169	..45
	1960-61	2,315	1,505	2,470	1,275	..	..	230	551
	1964-65	2,321	1,520	620	1,247	..	..	95	..
Khamgaon ..	1956-57	729	286	3,480	1,999	..	..	101	..
	1960-61	694	..	3,083	2,438	..	..	102	..
	1964-65	918	..	4,462	1,169	..	..	150	..
Malkapur ..	1956-57	2,745	862	3,106	924	..	..	215	..
	1960-61	2,291	1,663	3,443	2,071	..	..	303	..
	1964-65	2,574	1,600	4,915	1,936	..	..	372	..
Jalgaon ..	1956-57	465	149	5,513	875	..	..	29	..
	1960-61	520	149	5,760	1,006	..	..	81	..
	1964-65	520	149	5,760	1,006	..	..	66	..
District Total ..	1956-57	8,620	3,994	13,937	6,417	..	..	794	..85
	1960-61	9,370	4,128	15,704	7,725	..	..	1,114	653
	1964-65	10,085	4,066	16,848	6,265	..	..	1,108	..
	1967-68	11,027	7,107	24,754	7,574	8	1	2,335	..

TABLE No. 28—contd.

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Net area irrigated by (in acres)			Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown (14)	Total gross area of crops irrigated (15)	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total sown area (16)	No. of wells having independent ayacut (17)	No. of wells supplementing recognised sources of irrigation (18)
		Wells (11)	Other sources (12)	Total (13)					
Chikhli ..	1956-57	7,397	..	7,397	1.90	7,397	1.90	..	..
	1960-61	12,654	201	12,895	2.8	12,895	2.5	5,296	..
	1964-65	13,511	..	13,613	..	13,613	..	..	..
Mehkar ..	1956-57	2,330	52	2,382	1.2	2,382	1.2	..	..
	1960-61	9,684	..	9,729	2.00	9,729	2	5,057	..
	1964-65	7,294	..	7,845	..	7,845	..	..	..
Khamgaon ..	1956-57	1,342	..	1,342	0.43	1,392	0.43	..	..
	1960-61	1,531	40	1,571	0.50	1,571	0.50	3,132	..
	1964-65	1,900	..	1,900	..	1,900	..	..	..
Malkapur ..	1956-57	4,596	59	4,655	1.14	4,655	1.14	..	..
	1960-61	5,518	48	5,566	1.7	5,566	1.7	6,025	..
	1964-65	6,084	..	6,084	..	6,084	..	4	..
Jalgaon ..	1956-57	814	..	814	0.42	814	0.42	..	..
	1960-61	923	..	923	0.4	923	0.4	1,670	..
	1964-65	1,384	..	1,384	..	1,384	..	1,169	..
District Total ..	1956-57	16,479	111	16,590	5.9	16,590	5.9	21,180	..
	1960-61	30,310	289	30,684	7.40	30,684	7.10	21,180	..
	1964-65	30,173	700	30,826	2.5	30,826	2.4	1,173	..
	1967-68	40,900	..	41,600	..	41,800	..	14,634	..

TABLE No. 29
AREA IRRIGATED UNDER FOOD CROPS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Tahsil	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Maize	Gram	Sugarcane	Chillis	Turmeric	Potato	Miscella- neous food crops	Total food crops
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
(In Acres*)												
Chikhli ..	1956-57 ..	..	3,915	614	9	373	905	240	..	..	824	6,880
	1960-61 ..	..	7,376	300	112	498	1,595	454	..	..	942	11,277
	1964-65 ..	..	9,880	817	900	170	1,633	73	6	..	830	14,309
	1968-69 ..	..	2,411	1,684	80	299	559	234	4	2	..	6,580
	1971-72 ..	..	3,539	1,236	58	390	899	376	1	12	..	8,049
Mehkar ..	1956-57 ..	..	1,065	182	43	14	546	335	5	..	196	2,386
	1960-61 ..	..	6,356	67	65	381	1,317	359	2	..	960	9,507
	1964-65 ..	..	4,614	553	93	66	1,626	190	1	..	131	7,274
	1968-69 ..	..	1,298	423	61	63	825	123	..	..	6	3,264
	1971-72 ..	..	981	511	23	21	732	117	4	..	18	2,773
Khamgaon	1956-57 ..	..	95	..	7	23	46	542	2	..	559	1,274
	1960-61 ..	..	70	..	12	15	56	441	2	..	778	1,374
	1964-65 ..	..	358	..	..	121	82	323	2	..	920	1,806
	1968-69 ..	35	611	8	5	19	74	267	2	..	20	1,412
	1971-72 ..	5	733	..	8	82	90	199	..	10	40	1,611
Malkapur	1956-57 ..	..	587	..	11	45	61	3,020	4	..	798	4,526
	1960-61 ..	..	545	..	50	112	63	3,505	42	..	1,002	5,319
	1964-65 ..	..	554	..	13	..	67	2,207	..	..	301	3,142
	1968-69 ..	21	2,631	..	44	68	60	914	..	..	..	4,652
	1971-72 ..	171	1,832	120	72	183	37	737	..	..	497	4,209
Jalgaon ..	1956-57 ..	..	85	..	7	15	27	237	..	..	260	63
	1960-61 ..	..	149	..	1	5	32	179	1	..	360	727
	1964-65 ..	..	236	..	..	51	62	417	1	..	460	1,227
	1968-69 ..	3	556	..	14	350	49	390	..	6	..	1,585
	1971-72 ..	22	390	..	2	71	23	119	..	..	..	1,114
District Total	1956-57 ..	..	5,747	796	77	470	1,585	4,374	11	..	2,637	15,697
	1960-61 ..	..	14,496	367	240	1,011	3,063	4,938	47	..	4,042	28,204
	1964-65 ..	..	15,642	1,370	1,006	408	3,470	3,210	10	..	2,642	27,758
	1968-69 ..	59	7,507	2,115	204	799	1,567	1,924	6	2	26	17,493
	1971-72 ..	198	7,475	1,867	163	747	1,781	1,548	5	28	555	17,756

* Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

TABLE No. 30
AREA IRRIGATED UNDER NON-FOOD CROPS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Groundnut (4)	Mustard (5)	Castor seed (6)	Fodder crops (7)	Miscellaneous non-food crops (8)	Total non-food crops (9)
Chikhli ..	1956-57	298	5	..	7	40	132	477
	1960-61	1,425	8	..	77	4	66	1,580
	1964-65	1,276	..	..	..	9	..	1,285
	1968-69	1,655	2	..	..	..	1	1,718
Mehkar ..	1956-57	..	..	..	..	..	11	2,257
	1960-61	304	2	..	..	8	162	178
	1964-65	568	..	..	..	5	..	318
	1968-69	70	..	..	..	2	..	570
Khamgaon ..	1956-57	..	..	..	..	..	..	495
	1960-61	146	..	..	10	11	47	68
	1964-65	82	..	..	9	1	4	160
	1968-69	283	..	..	5	7	..	94
Malkapur ..	1956-57	6	..	..	..	..	..	313
	1960-61	96	..	..	..	..	21	45
	1964-65	2,818	20	..	29	3	81	119
	1968-69	465	..	..	23	1	2	142
District Total ..	1956-57	1,447	66	..	..	..	2	2,853
	1960-61	..	..	..	..	..	2	478
	1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	2	478
	1968-69	..	..	..	..	..	2	1,522

(In Acre. *)

Jalgaon ..	1956-57	..	..	..	3	10	160	173
	1960-61	80	..	..	5	42	69	196
	1964-65	41	..	..	4	2	108	155
	1968-69	75	..	..	..	..	30	110
District Total ..	1956-57	304	..	..	..	..	3	58
	1960-61	2,051	30	..	57	72	582	1,015
	1964-65	3,785	..	..	121	53	141	2,396
	1968-69	2,548	2	..	28	27	117	3,957
District Total ..	1956-57	4,213	82	..	..	..	54	2,684
	1960-61	..	..	..	..	..	41	4,377
	1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1968-69	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

*Figures for 1968-69 and 1971-72 are in hectares.

Dams, *bandharas*, tanks and wells are the important sources of irrigation in the district. There is no major irrigation work in the district. Only medium and minor irrigation works provide irrigation. Except for a very small proportion of the net irrigated area, the entire irrigation is done by wells in the district. Dams, *bandharas* and tanks are built across small rivers and streams. Brief account of each one of them is given below.

Nalganga Project.—Nalganga dam is a medium irrigation project. It is constructed across the river Nalganga near Sangled Budruk in Malkapur tahsil of Buldhana district. The construction of this project was taken in hand in 1957, and completed in 1967-68. The total estimated cost of the project was Rs. 266.79 lakhs. The project is composed of an earthen dam with a height of 29.9 metres. The length of the composite dam is 2,516 metres with a gated spillway of 167.75 metres and having a canal system of 31 kilometres with distributary branch of 47 kilometres. The main crops irrigated under this project are cotton, wheat, groundnut, vegetables, pulses, sugarcane, etc.

The project commands an area of 39,000 acres with an irrigation potential of 21,600 acres. The water rates under this dam varied according to crop as given below:—

Name of Crop						Water rates
						Rs.
(1) Rice	..	..	..	..	..	9
(2) Wheat	..	..	..	..	..	8
(3) <i>Kharif</i> season crops other than rice	..	..	..	..	..	6
(4) <i>Rabi</i> season crops other than wheat	..	..	..	..	..	8
(5) Hot weather seasonal crops and other water crops	..	..	..	..	..	16
(6) Garden crops and vegetables	..	..	..	..	..	80
(7) Any other fruit	..	..	..	..	..	
(8) Sugarcane	..	..	..	..	..	180
(9) Pan, plantain and mulberry	..	..	..	..	..	
(10) Cotton	..	..	..	..	..	22
(11) Groundnut-hot weather	..	..	..	..	..	16
(12) Groundnut- <i>kharif</i>	..	..	..	..	..	6

Dnyanganga River Project.—The Dnyanganga project is one of the medium irrigation projects. The main dam is situated near village Matargaonx, approachable by road from Undri, 12 km. west in Khamgaon tahsil. The pick-up-weir is located about 10 miles near the village Tandulwadi, approachable by Khamgaon-Pimpalgaon-Raja road, south-west of Khamgaon town. The project will serve the Khamgaon tahsil.

The construction of dam was started in 1965 and was expected to be completed in 1970-71. The project consists of an earthen dam 2,097' long and 117' high across the river Dnyanganga with an ungated spillway, and will impound gross storage of 1,274 m. cft. The pick-up-weir proposed is 10 miles. The canal system consists of the main canal 19 km. long, the branch canal 14 km. and distributaries 12 km. The estimated cost of the project is Rs. 185.21 lakhs.

This project has 13,600 acres of unculturable land under its command, out of which 10,500 acres are proposed for irrigation. The water rates under this project are the same as those of the Nalganga Project. The pattern approved for irrigation of crops under this project is as given below:—

	Acres
(1) Plantain	840
(2) Cotton	4,200
(3) Chillis and Paddy	630
(4) Groundnut, hot weather	1,050
(5) Groundnut	1,260
(6) Wheat	2,520
Total	10,500

Kothali Bandhara.—The site of the *bandhara* is near the village Kothali 13 km. to the south-east of Motala in Malkapur tahsil in the district. It was commenced during the year 1965 and completed in 1967. Its estimated cost was Rs. 1.01 lakhs. The project consists of a masonry diversion weir of a length of 142 metres with a canal system of 1.8 km. The area commanded by the work is 400 acres with an irrigation potential of 270 acres. The water rates are the same as those under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are jowar, cotton and wheat.

Mohidipur Bandhara.—This project is situated near Mohidipur 22.53 km. from Jalgaon Jamod. The work on the project was commenced during 1963 and completed in 1965. Its estimated cost was Rs. 0.66 lakh. The project consists of a masonry *bandhara* of a length of 47.24 metres with a canal system of 1.12 km. This project commands an area of 680 acres with an irrigation potential of 450 acres. The water rates are the same as those under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are wheat, cotton and jowar.

Lokhanda Bandhara.—This project is situated near Lokhanda 17.7 km. from Khamgaon. It was commenced during November 1963 and completed during June 1967. Its estimated cost was

Rs. 1.40 lakhs. The project consists of a masonry *bandhara* across Mahis river and has a length of 64.55 metres and a canal system of 6.44 km. The project commands an area of 600 acres with an irrigation potential of 450 acres. Water rates charged under this project are the same as those under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are jowar, wheat, cotton and *bajri*.

Kumbhephal Bandhara.—This report is situated near Kumbhephal village in Chikhli tahsil. It was commenced during May 1966 and was expected to be completed during 1969-70. Its estimated cost is Rs. 3.99 lakhs. The project is composed of a masonry *bandhara* across Dhamna river and is 4.11 metres high and has a length of 326.44 metres with a canal system of 11.26 km. The project commands an area of 1,636 acres with an irrigation potential of 1,150 acres. It is expected to serve the irrigation needs of Chikhli tahsil in Buldhana district and Bhokardan tahsil in Aurangabad district. Water rates applicable are the same as under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are hybrid jowar, paddy, wheat and groundnut.

Dadham Bandhara.—This project is situated near Dadham village in Khamgaon tahsil. It was commenced during December 1964-65 and completed during 1967. Its estimated cost was Rs. 1.25 lakhs. The project consists of a masonry *bandhara* of a length of 98.15 metres, and a canal system of 3.22 km. The project commands an area of 565 acres with an irrigation potential of 409 acres. Water rates charged by this project are the same as under the Nalganga project. Jowar, cotton, *tur*, groundnut, wheat and gram are the main crops irrigated under this project.

Hingna Karegaon Bandhara.—This project is situated near Hingna Karegaon village in Khamgaon tahsil. This project was commenced during February 1962 and completed during 1966. The estimated cost of this project was Rs. 0.95 lakh. The project is composed of a masonry weir of 96.01 metres with a spillway and a canal system of 4.02 metres. The project commands an area of 600 acres with an irrigation potential of 360 acres. Water rates charged by this project are the same as under the Nalganga project. Jowar, cotton, paddy, chillis and wheat are the main crops irrigated under this project.

Tanks.—**Khandwa Tank :** The tank is situated near Khandwa village in Malkapur tahsil. The construction work on the tank was commenced during 1965 and is expected to be completed in 1969-70. Its estimated cost is about Rs. 6.43 lakhs. The work comprises an earthen dam and a canal. The length of the dam is 970 metres, with a spillway of 138 metres and a canal system of 3 km. The commanded area of the tank is 658 acres with an irrigation potential of 368 acres. Water rates for irrigation are the same as those under the Nalganga project. Jowar, paddy, cotton, wheat and vegetables are the main crops for irrigation under this project.

Dhanora Tank : This tank is situated about 5 km. away from Asalgaon village in Jalgaon Jamod tahsil. It was commenced in 1965 and was expected to be completed during 1970. Its estimated cost is about Rs. 8.48 lakhs. The project consists of an earthen dam 20 metres high and a length of 427 metres with a spillway of 152.25 metres and a canal system of 2.82 km. This project commands an area of 880 acres with an irrigation potential of 380 acres. Water rates applicable for irrigation are the same as those under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are paddy, hybrid *bajri*, wheat, cotton, pulses, groundnut, chillis and vegetables.

Nimkhed Tank : This project is situated near Nimkhed, 2 km. away from Maharkhed and 22.53 km. of the Khamgaon-Chikhli road in Khamgaon tahsil. This project was commenced during October 1965 and was expected to be completed during 1970-71. It could serve the irrigation needs of Khamgaon tahsil. The estimated cost of this project is 19.08 lakhs. This project consists of an earthen dam across Mahis river. It is 21.3 metres in height and of a length 343 metres with a spillway of 118.9 metres, and the canal system of 11.26 km. The project commands an area of 1,917 acres with an irrigation potential of 1,102 acres. The water rates applicable for irrigation under this project are the same as under the Nalganga project. The main crops irrigated under this project are paddy, hybrid jowar, wheat, *bajri*, cotton, pulses, groundnut, chillis and vegetables.

Misalwadi Tank : This project is situated near Misalwadi village at 32.18 km. from Chikhli. This tank is expected to serve the irrigation needs of Chikhli tahsil. It was commenced during 1965 and was expected to be completed in 1970. Its estimated cost is about Rs. 12.58 lakhs. This project consists of an earthen dam across the local nallah. The height of the dam is 14.20 metres and has a length of 497 metres. The dam has a spillway of 84 metres and a canal system of 4.80 km. The project commands an area of 934 acres with an irrigation potential area of 676 acres. Hybrid jowar, wheat, paddy and groundnut are the main crops for irrigation under this project. The water rates for irrigation are the same as under the Nalganga project.

Telhara Tank : This project is situated near Shelgaon and Telhara villages in Chikhli tahsil. It would serve the irrigation needs of Chikhli tahsil. The project was commenced during December 1965 and was expected to be completed during 1970. The estimated cost of this project is Rs. 14.22 lakhs. This project consists of an earthen dam across the local nallah. The height of this project is 16.59 metres and has a length of 395 metres, with a spillway of 114.3 metres and a canal system of 9.33 km. The project commands an area of 1,277 acres with an irrigation potential of 860 acres. The main crops irrigated under this project are hybrid jowar, paddy, wheat, groundnut, etc. The water rates for irrigation are the same as those under the Nalganga project.

Kawhla Tank : Kawhla tank is situated 19.31 km. from Chikhli near Kawhla and Mahthemkhed in Chikhli tahsil. This tank is expected to serve the irrigation needs of Chikhli tahsil. This project was commenced during December 1965 and was expected to be completed during 1970. The estimated cost of this project is Rs. 16.77 lakhs. The project consists of an earthen dam across Mun river and is 16.80 metres high and of a length of 555 metres, with a spillway of 152.40 metres and a canal of 11.00 km. The project commands an area of 1,787 acres with an irrigation potential of 960 acres. Hybrid jowar, paddy, wheat and groundnut are the main crops irrigated under this project.

Garkhed Tank: This project is situated near Garkhed village about 15 km. from Kingaon-Raja-Sindkhed-Raja main road. This project would serve the irrigation needs of Mehkar tahsil. It was commenced during March 1969 and was expected to be completed during December 1971. Its estimated cost is about Rs. 15.40 lakhs. This project is composed of an earthen dam 471.53 metres long across the local nallah with a spillway of 70 metres and a canal system of 11.26 km. The project consists of an area of 1,140 acres with an irrigation potential of 791 acres. The main crops irrigated under this project are cotton, chillis, vegetables, wheat, hybrid jowar and paddy.

Titwi Tank : Titwi tank is situated near village Titwi 9 km. from Pimpalner village on Lonar-Loni road in Mehkar tahsil. It is expected to serve the irrigation needs of Mehkar tahsil. This project was commenced during February 1969 and was expected to be completed during July 1971. Its estimated cost is about Rs. 17.66 lakhs. The project consists of an earthen dam across the local nallah and is 19.95 metres high and of a length of 264 metres with a spillway of 101 metres and a canal system of 11.7 km. This project commands an area of 2,284 acres with an irrigation potential of 1,199 acres. Cotton, chillis, vegetables, wheat, hybrid jowar, and paddy are the main crops irrigated under this project.

Ghanwatpur Tank : This project is situated near village Ghanwatpur in Mehkar tahsil. The project was commenced during March 1967 and completed during May 1969. The estimated cost of this project was Rs. 14.62 lakhs. The project consists of an earthen dam across Jamuna river and is 11 metres high and has a length of 844 metres, with a spillway of 76.20 metres and a canal system of 6.4 km. The project commands an area of 1,056 acres with an irrigation potential of 792 acres. The main crops irrigated under this project are cotton, wheat, paddy, vegetables, jowar, etc.

Lift Irrigation.—Lift irrigation scheme at Raheri: The project is situated near Raheri Bk. in Mehkar tahsil. This scheme is expected to serve the irrigation needs of Mehkar tahsil. The project was commenced during 1963-64 and was expected to be completed during 1969-70. The estimated cost of this project was Rs. 00.80 lakh (civil portion) but its actual cost is expected to be Rs. 1.30 lakhs. The project is a lift irrigation scheme, with

electrically operated pumps with 2 units of 42 B. H. P. each. The project commands an area of 520 acres with an irrigation potential of 420 acres. The main crops irrigated under this project are sugarcane, rice, chillis, vegetables, etc. Water rates charged for irrigation would be on the basis of the actual expenditure incurred on the running and maintenance of the scheme.

Besides the above irrigation works, minor irrigation works were taken up by the Buldhana Zilla Parishad, under the minor irrigation scheme No. 6. The Table No. 31 gives information about the same.

TABLE
MINOR IRRIGATION WORKS TAKEN

Name of work (1)	Estimated cost (2)	Expenditure incurred		Probable expenditure for current year (Total) (5)	Irrigable area in acres (6)	Length of Dam in metres (7)
		Up to March 1969 (3)	During 1969-70 (up to July 1969) (4)			
Tank works	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
<i>Malkapur tahsil</i>						
1. Korhala ..	2,08,930	1,39,795	1,579	19,780	101	159
2. Lapali ..	3,12,200	79,730	45,695	89,522	131	255
3. Pophali ..	1,85,435	193	12,321	49,884	77	198
4. Tiroda ..	1,45,885	137	675	50,290	60	154
<i>Mehkar tahsil</i>						
5. Sonati ..	2,72,762	2,44,787	4,624	1,04,624	127	470
6. Hanwatkhed	4,34,150	587	..	..	170	264
7. Nasirabad	3,50,975	2,763	11,800	97,237	118	521
8. Sindi ..	3,15,180	..	..	50,000	138	283
9. Yeoti ..	3,52,731	..	..	50,000	234	199
<i>Chikhli tahsil</i>						
10. Bhamkhed	4,38,925	..	..	50,000	180	640
11. Amdapur ..	2,39,300	1,55,191	2,397	66,397	102	235
12. Telhara ..	3,73,374	2,62,371	3,886	80,000	114	280

No. 31

UP BY BULDHANA ZILLA PARISHAD.

Height of Dam in metres (8)	Gross storage in M. cft. (9)	Water available for irrigation M. cft. (10)	Catchment area in Sq. miles (11)	B. C. ratio (12)	Year when		Remarks (15)
					Work started (13)	Work completed (14)	
13.06	6.86	6.75	0.59	1.38	1966-67	1968-69	Work is completed in all respects and is ready for irrigation.
12.47	12.56	11.56	1.02	1.48	1967-68	1969-70	Work is in progress. 50 per cent work is completed.
9.61	10.65	7.41	1.00	1.27	1969-70	1972-73	Work is recently started. C. O. T. and stripping work is in progress.
11.64	5.76	5.12	0.56	1.43	1969-70	1972-73	The excavation work of the waste weir is in progress.
7.88	10.84	4.93	0.84	1.08	1966-67	1968-69	Work is completed and 40 per cent irrigation was done during 1968-69.
12.01	17.38	..	2.03	1.39	..	..	Work stopped.
9.80	16.32	11.51	1.25	1.34	1967-68	1970-71	Stripping is completed. C. O. T. excavation is in progress.
10.04	13.04	11.35	1.35	1.65	..	..	Tenders under acceptance.
13.23	22.20	19.17	3.00	2.48	..	..	Do.
9.07	22.70	14.51	2.50	1.55	..	..	Do.
10.95	11.38	7.55	0.09	1.57	1966-67	1969-70	Work is completed except canal and C. D. works.
14.54	17.37	13.62	1.85	1.77	1966-67	1969-70	Work is in progress.

TABLE

Name of work	Estimated cost	Expenditure incurred		Probable expenditure for current year (Total)	Irrigable area in acres	Length of Dam in metres
		Up to March 1969	During 1969-70 (up to July 1969)			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Chikhli tahsil—cont.</i>	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
13. Malgi ..	4,39,602	2,99,015	32,636	99,521	152	214
14. Sakhal ..	2,40,000	65,272	11,593	1,23,186	83	17
15. Andhera ..	4,76,300	1,39,338	93,806	1,99,806	182	312
16. Manubai ..	3,30,392	360	..	..	123	240
17. Raipur ..	1,82,885	..	..	..	72	247
18. Jamthi ..	3,10,790	..	1,192	99,992	116	245
19. Sakegaon ..	3,86,335	..	..	..	178	292
20. Amdapur-II	4,98,040	..	..	25,000	203	495
<i>Khamgaon tahsil</i>						
21. Warkhed ..	3,35,450	2,61,711	3,759	14,489	119	507
22. Hingna Karegaon.	4,26,834	3,14,988	2,905	1,00,355	120	219
23. Umbar ..	1,33,896	30,100	2,268	50,668	48	284
<i>Lift Irrigation Schemes in Mehkar tahsil</i>						
24. Hiwarkhed ..	91,239	354	Nil	20,000	120	River Purna.
25. Sawargaon	2,17,035	205	9,777	99,795	390	Do
26. Deokhed ..	96,209	354	3,743	98,743	270	Do.
27. Sonati bori	1,27,479	3,218	170	96,180	325	Pain-ganga.
<i>Bandharas</i>						
93 Bandharas ..	20,10,588					

No. 31—contd.

Height of Dam in metres	Gross storage in M. cft.	Water available for irrigation M. cft.	Catchment area in Sq. miles	B. C. ratio	Year when		Remarks
					Work started	Work completed	
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
14.86	18.09	15.03	1.44	1.75	1966-67	1969-70	Work nearly completed.
11.63	11.11	7.50	0.90	1.54	1967-68	1969-70	C. O. T., stripping and drains completed.
11.87	21.88	17.69	2.28	1.24	1967-68	1970-71	Work is in full swing.
13.57	13.35	12.28	1.18	1.31	..	..	Work dropped.
10.48	8.45	7.18	0.87	1.17	..	..	Do.
11.74	12.59	11.16	1.20	1.20	1968-69	1970-71	Work is in progress.
12.28	15.71	14.63	1.25	1.79	..	..	Tenders called.
11.03	20.90	16.35	2.18	1.53	..	..	Tenders called.
10.59	10.73	7.79	1.01	1.01	1966-67	1970-71	Work nearly completed.
12.30	15.28	11.87	1.35	1.31	1967-68	1970-71	Work is in full swing.
8.52	5.86	3.61	0.60	1.22	1968-69	1970-71	Work is in progress.
2 turbine pumps couple vertical and electrical motor of 10 H.P.							Work order is being issued. Intake well is completed. Work is in progress.
Do. Electrical motor of 35 H.P.							
Do.	Do.	20 H.P.					Do.
Do.	Do.	15 H.P.					Do.
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

The irrigation potential in the district is as below :—

	Acres
(1) Wells	45,000
(2) Nalganga project	21,500
(3) Dolyes	2,000
(4) <i>Kacha bandharas</i>	1,000
(5) <i>Vasant bandharas</i>	2,760
(6) State Government <i>bandharas</i>	1,610
(7) Zilla Parishad <i>bandharas</i> and other <i>bandharas</i>	2,251
Total ..	76,121

The area actually irrigated is 40,000 acres. The crop-wise percentage is given below :—

(1) Wheat	55
(2) Cotton	15
(3) [Jowar]	10
(4) Vegetables	15
(5) Fruits]	5

CROP ROTATION

The system of rotation of crops and the pattern of cropping vary from soil to soil, depending upon irrigation and other facilities available in the district. The cultivators generally grow cotton crop on heavy soils during the first year, jowar during second year and during the third year, sometimes it is left fallow in the *kharif* season and wheat or gram is grown in the *rabi* season.

The deep-rooted crops like cotton are rotated with shallow-rooted crops such as jowar, wheat and groundnut in this district. Sometimes the non-leguminous crops like cotton, jowar and wheat are rotated with the leguminous crops such as groundnut, *mug*, *chavli*, *tur*, etc. The roots of the deep-rooted crops penetrate into the soil to a depth of 9" to 18". If the cultivation of deep-rooted crops is continued year after year on the same land, the soils are required so as to achieve the twin objectives, viz., using fully available plant nutrients in the soil till a particular depth up to which the roots penetrate are depleted. The cultivator being familiar with this phenomenon rotates deep-rooted crops with shallow rooted crops so as to achieve the twin objectives, viz., using fully available plant food present in the soil without allowing the soils to deteriorate in fertility. Leguminous crops such as groundnut, sann, *tur*, *mug* etc., have nodules all over their roots. The nodules contain nitrogen fixing bacteria. They fix the nitrogen directly from the air into the soil. Thus the leguminous crops leave behind them manurial value beneficial to the subsequent crop and also improve the fertility and texture of the soil.

Generally rotation of crops commonly observed on medium types of soils comprises cotton crop during first year, jowar during second year and groundnut or *mug* during third year. Sometimes the heavy and medium types of soils as also lighter types of soils have four-fold crop rotation. Most of the cultivators in this district do not follow the method of rotation of crops but grow cotton continuously because of its high price. Where irrigation facilities are available in the district cotton is followed by groundnut in *kharif* season and by wheat in the *rabi* season. It is known as the double cropping system. Another system of crop rotation is followed on heavier types of soils. Cultivators keep the land fallow during *kharif* season, prepare it during the rainy season whenever there is a break of rains and grow wheat crop in *rabi* season. During the second year, cotton crop is grown on the same soil.

Various other crop combinations are in vogue with the cultivators. *Tur*, *mug*, *udid* and *bajra* are seldom grown as a main crop. They are usually produced as a catch crop with other main crops. *Tur* is generally produced as a border crop with cotton. After every eighth and twelfth row of cotton, *tur* is sown. Either *mug* or *udid* is sown in alternate lines with jowar. Sometimes *mug* and *udid* seed are mixed with jowar and then sown. *Mug* or *udid* crops get ready for harvest within two or three months. It is harvested earlier and jowar crop is left behind for its full growth. In this case, farmer gets *mug* or *udid* crop as a catch crop.

SEED SUPPLY

In stepping up the yield of various crops the quality of seeds counts considerably. The cultivators generally reserve a part of their produce till the next sowing season so as to utilise it as seed. Only the small and poor cultivators who cannot afford to do so depend on the outside supply for meeting their seed requirements. Besides, those cultivators who want to replace their old seed for the new promising varieties and those who want to undertake cultivation afresh, also depend upon the outside supply. The cultivator is very careful about the selection of good quality seed. If no particular care is taken in preserving the seeds, it often deteriorates in quality and brings about a reduction in the yield. Cultivators who have realised the importance of quality seed collected from the healthy and vigorous plants in their field keep it for the next sowing. The common practice is to obtain seed either from local merchants or from big cultivators. Several improved varieties suitable to the soil and climate of the district are obtained by the Department of Agriculture either by selection or by hybridisation at its research stations in the State or imported from other States. The taluka seed-farms in Buldhana district are the main sources of supplying seeds of improved variety to the registered seed growers who further multiply them. The distribution of quality seeds throughout the district is done by co-operative societies and the Zilla Parishad.

There are nine taluka seed-farms in Buldhana district. These were established during second five-year plan period. Foundation

seed is produced on these taluka seed multiplication farms. The foundation seed of the taluka seed-farms is distributed in the selected villages. The multiplied seed thus obtained is further distributed to the cultivators of 4 to 6 villages in the proximity of the villages. The following statement gives the details about nine taluka seed multiplication farms in the district :—

Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms	Tahsil	Total area (in acres)	Area under cultivation (in acres)
Malkapur	Malkapur	35.19	33.07
Nandura	Malkapur	53.12	47.15
Shegaon	Khamgaon	80.15	76.35
Pimpalgaon Raja	Khamgaon	49.25	42.20
Asalgaon	Jalgaon-Jamod	79.04	72.10
Warwat Khanderao	Jalgaon-Jamod	42.35	38.00
Shelsoor	Chikhli	35.00	30.10
Deulgaon Mahi	Chikhli	35.00	29.00
Sindkhed Raja	Mehkar	35.38	41.20
	Total	466.28	410.37

The area under improved seeds of different crops during 1967-68 and 1968-69 is given below :—

Serial No. (1)	Crop and Variety (2)	Area in acres 1967-68 (3)	Area in acres 1968-69 (4)
1	Cotton L-147	38.07	30.25
2	Cotton Ak-277	46.25	71.11
3	Cotton B-1007	29.15	15.03
4	Groundnut AK-12-24	73.08	67.03
5	Jowar NJ-156	54.07	29.31
6	Hy. jowar CSH-1	2.00	26.15
7	Hybrid jowar CSH-1 (seed production)	33.00	11.00
8	Mug (Kopargaon)	37.12	35.10
9	Hybrid Deccan maize	8.00	3.00
10	Udid No. 55	18.23	32.30
11	Wheat N-59	26.12	44.32
12	Wheat hybrid-65	6.00	6.00
13	Wheat NI-146	8.00	..
14	Wheat 747-19	10.00	19.07
15	Wheat S-227	2.00	..
16	Gram <i>chafa</i>	29.00	15.26
17	Gram N-31	8.00	..

The total crop-wise yield from these nine farms obtained during the same period is given below :—

Name of crop and variety (1)	1967-68 (In quintals) (2)	1968-69 (In quintals) (3)
Jowar NJ-156	136.34	222.80
Mug Kopargaon	71.38	41.52
Udid No. 55	24.83	13.28
Tur No. 148	4.50	47.32
Hybrid jowar CSH-I	127.02	60.57
Groundnut AK-12-24	108.77	129.48
Wheat	144.10	121.72
Gram	45.80	53.11
Hybrid Deccan maize	8.22	9.60

The following seeds were distributed to the cultivators during the year 1968-69 :—

Type of seed	Quantity (Quintals)
Hybrid jowar	3,250
Hybrid bajra	270
Hybrid maize	55
Local jowar	104
Improved wheat	212

The seed of local jowar was received from the taluka seed farms. The wheat seed was purchased from registered seed growers and hybrid seeds were supplied through the apex marketing societies. To ensure the quality of seed and the ready supply at reasonable rates, various incentives in terms of premium and subsidy or loan to the co-operative societies, the Zilla Parishad or cultivators are offered. The seed is subsequently multiplied on a larger area in the same manner.

Under the cotton extension scheme the varieties recommended and distributed by the Department of Agriculture are *buri* 147 and *virnar* 197-3. This scheme is financed partially by the Indian Central Cotton Committee and includes the *virnar* cotton seed distribution and multiplication scheme introduced in the district from 1958-59 and financed fully by the State Government.

The improved varieties of jowar, *tur*, *Kopargaon mug*, wheat, groundnut, etc., are also propagated and distributed by the Department of Agriculture. Improved vegetable seed is collected by the *bagwans* (dealers in vegetables) who sell it to the needy cultivators.

MANURES

The cultivator is aware of the benefits accruing from the application of organic manures. The amount of farmyard manure or compost to be applied depends upon the nature of the crop as well as the fertility and quality of the soil. If irrigation facilities are available as in the case of garden lands, liberal doses of manure are applied, whereas soils in which cotton, bananas, citrus fruits, chillis, etc., are produced require heavy manurial replacement to provide adequate nutrition to the plants. Hence, they require careful and liberal manuring. Generally two kinds of manures, chemical fertilizers and rural and town compost are applied by the cultivators.

Rural and Town Compost.—Compost is prepared by conserving cattle urine, dung and litter in pits of various sizes. The conversion of town and farm refuse into compost manure is becoming more common in this district. The Agriculture Department has induced municipalities and grampanchayats in the district to produce compost manure from the town refuse, cow-dung, stable litter etc., collected and disposed of by them. The Government gives a subsidy to compost preparing centres with a view to stepping up the production and distribution of compost manure.

The Agriculture Department is making every effort to popularise compost preparation in rural areas by grampanchayats and cultivators from the available rural waste and rubbish. This is done with a view to ensuring increased supply of organic manures which are in short supply in the district.

Farmyard Manures.—The use of farmyard manure on an average is 1,40,000 tons in the district. The Department of Agriculture gives expert advice regarding the method of preparation of farmyard manure which aims at avoiding loss of nitrogen and at improving its manurial value.

Green Manuring.—One of the important methods of enriching the soil is green manuring. The Department of Agriculture has introduced the scheme for distribution of sann seed for green manuring in the district. It helps to improve the fertility and the texture of the soils. When the method of green manuring is adopted the sann seed is broadcast on the onset of the monsoon. When it attains maximum vegetative growth in about two to two and a half months, it is ploughed and allowed to rot. An acre of land so manured with sann seed receives organic manure, sufficient for a period of two to three years.

Sheep Folding.—The waste of sheep and goats also serves as a valuable manure. There are shepherds in the district who wander from village to village with their flocks of sheep, each numbering over a thousand heads. The farmers enter into contracts with the shepherds for quartering their sheep on farms during the

night. Herds of from one to two hundred goats and sheep are sometimes folded on field after harvest. One thousand goats and sheep give five or six cart-loads of manure during the night. The flocks of sheep and goats are moved from place to place in the same farm during the night so as to ensure even distribution of urine and their droppings over the field.

CHEMICAL FERTILISERS

The agriculturists at many places in the district still follow their own traditional methods of cultivation. The improved methods of agriculture are still to cross the boundaries of the farms of the big agriculturists. However, the experts and the extension workers of the Department of Agriculture have succeeded in propagating the importance and the necessity of applying the fertilisers by organising village leaders' training camps and live-demonstrations. The Department of Agriculture arranges for distribution of nitrogenous fertilisers such as ammonium sulphate, ammonium phosphate, nitrate, urea and phosphate through marketing societies and sale and purchase societies. In order to enable the average farmer to purchase fertilisers, the Government has made a provision to advance *tagai* loans to the cultivators. Similarly, for popularising the use of fertiliser mixtures, subsidy is also given to the cultivators. The cultivators have realised the value of fertilisers as they have obtained higher yields through the application of chemical fertilisers. The cultivators in the district mostly prefer ammonium sulphate among nitrogenous fertilisers. Heavy doses are applied to the fruit crops and garden crops wherever irrigation facilities are available. The following statement shows the consumption of fertilisers in Buldhana district from 1963-64 to 1970-71:—

Statement showing the consumption of fertilisers in Buldhana district from 1963-64 to 1970-71.

	Year					Consumption in tons
	(1)					(2)
1963-64	..	..	..	..	..	6,800
1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	8,077
1965-66	..	..	..	..	..	12,989
1966-67	..	..	..	..	..	12,675
1967-68	..	..	..	..	..	9,283
1968-69	..	..	..	..	..	13,988
1969-70	..	..	..	..	..	10,990
1970-71	..	..	..	..	..	12,377

PESTS

A brief account of various pests of crops in the district is given in the following paragraphs. The extent of damage caused by them cannot be gauged accurately as it depends upon the severity of infestation in the year of attack. Remedial measures mentioned against different pests are such as are within the means of the average cultivator.

Cereals.—Jowar: Jowar stem borer (*Chilo Zonellus*, Swinh) causes considerable damage to jowar which is frequently found heavily infested by this pest. Creamy white eggs are laid on leaves in clusters which hatch in six days. Young caterpillars bore inside the stems and remain there for three or four weeks after which fully grown caterpillars pupate *in situ*. Their pupal period varies between seven and ten days while their life-cycle extends over five-six weeks. The pest hibernates as a larvae in stubbles. The pests causes damage to the crop for about 6 months from June to November. During this period the pest completes its life-cycle at least four times.

The caterpillars are dirty white with many spots on the body and with a brown head. The full grown caterpillar measures about $\frac{1}{3}$ " in length. The moths are straw-coloured with fore-wings pale yellowish grey having minute dots on the apical margin and white hind-wings.

The caterpillars bore inside the stems causing thereby the drying of the central shoots called 'dead hearts'. This causes reddening of stems and leaves. The extent of damage is about four to five per cent. As the pest is an internal feeder only, preventive and mechanical measures are found practicable and economic. They are as follows:—

- (i) The affected plant should be pulled out along with the caterpillars inside and destroyed promptly.
- (ii) After harvest of the crop stubbles should be collected and burnt to destroy the hibernating larvae.
- (iii) The jowar fodder should be cut into small pieces before it is served to cattle.

Wheat: Wheat stem borer is (*Sesamia Inferens* Walk) the pest which causes damage to *rabi* crop of wheat. It also affects maize in dry weather. The caterpillars bore inside the stems which causes drying of central shoots, known as 'dead hearts'. This pest is sporadic in nature and causes minor damage. Young caterpillars enter the stems and start boring. As those stem borers are internal feeders, the preventive measures discussed above in respect of jowar stem borer (*Chilo Zonellus*, Swinh) are identically applicable here also.

Insects *termes* SP. [*Microtermes obesi* (Anandi) H. Odontotermes obesus] or white ants are polymorphic. The host plant of this insect is polyphagus. The workers feed on the roots of the plants as a result of which the affected plants die off. At the advent of monsoon, a few members from the colony possess wings and leave their nests for a flight. After a short flight, the wings break off and pairing and mating takes place. The female (queen) settles in burrow. She establishes a new colony and lays eggs rapidly. The newly hatched nymphs are fed by royal parents till they develop into workers. Effective control measures include locating the termitoria, digging it out, collecting the queen and eggs and destroying them.

Pulses.—Gram: Gram pod borer known as *heliethis (armigera) obsoleta* F., damages the gram crop. Cotton, tomato, peas, tobacco, safflower, opium, etc., are also its principal host plants. The caterpillars feed on tender foliage and young pods. They make holes in the pods and eat the developing seeds. This pest causes damage to the crop for about 5 months from November to March.

Caterpillars are handpicked and destroyed in the first stage of infestation as a preventive measure. Thorough ploughing after harvesting the crop is also resorted to in order to expose pupae. Spraying the crop with two per cent D.D.T. is also one of the measures for preventing this pest.

Tur: Tur plume moth (*Exelastes atamosa* W.), affects tur and wal crops. Fully grown caterpillars bore inside the green pods and feed on developing seeds. On hatching, they scrape the surface of pods, gradually cut holes, feed on seed and become full grown in about four weeks. Preventive measures include collection of caterpillars, by shaking shoots and pods in small trays containing a mixture of kerosene and water. Similarly, leguminous crops are not taken in the same fields during successive years.

Groundnut.—Aphids are tiny, soft bodied insects. It is an important pest which reduces the vitality and yield of plants by sucking the sap. It also acts as the vector of a serious virus disease commonly known as 'rosette' of groundnut. The pest is of sporadic occurrence.

A single apterous female gives birth to about 8 to 22 young-ones called nymphs per day. It takes about four months before they reach the adult stage. Their life-cycle becomes complete in about a week's period. During its latter part, some winged members are produced in most species of aphids.

The pest can be controlled by the following measures:—

- (i) Spraying the crop with nicotine sulphate in the proportion of one ounce of nicotine into 22.73 litres of water with 0.113 kg. of soap. Nearly two to three sprayings at weekly intervals are required during late December or early January.
- (ii) Spraying the crop with pyrocolloid in the proportion of one ounce pyrocolloid in 22.73 litres of water. This also gives good results.

Cotton.—There are two types of boll-worms—(i) spotted boll-worms (*earias fabia*, S.E. *insulana* B.) and (ii) Pink boll-worms (*Platyedra gossy-piella*, Saunat). The host plants of both of these boll-worms are cotton, *bhendi*, *ambadi* and other malvaceous plants. Eggs of these boll-worms 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. Pupation takes place inside the silken cocoons outside the bolls. In this stage it remains for 8 to 14 days. The total period of a life-cycle is about 22 to 35 days.

In case of pink boll-worms the caterpillars, on hatching feed on developing flowers, seed or lint. The larval period is usually of about 3 to 4 weeks but most 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. This pest is active from July to December while the winter is passed in the larval stage.

The adults of the spotted boll-worms have pale white upper wings with a greenish band in the middle. The moth of pink boll-worms is about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch across the wings and is dark brown in colour. The segment of the antenna has 4 to 6 stiff hairs and the palps are long and curved upwards. Caterpillars when fully grown measure $\frac{1}{2}$ " long and are pink in colour with a brown head. Both the types of boll-worms have a number of black and brown spots on the body. The full-fed larva measures about $\frac{3}{4}$ " in length.

In case of spotted boll-worms, caterpillars bore into the growing shoots of the plants in the initial stage of the crop. Later on, when the flower buds appear, the larvae bore into them and then enter the boll by making holes which are plugged with excreta. The infested buds and bolls are shed but if they remain on the plant, they open prematurely and consequently lint from such bolls fetches low price in the market.

Unlike the spotted boll-worms, the caterpillars of the pink boll-worms never attack shoots but feed inside the bolls and cause them to drop down. The pest is more harmful to American cotton varieties than to Indian ones. They bore holes and plug them. Thus it becomes difficult to spot out the affected bolls until they drop down. The following are some of the measures suggested for controlling the pest:—

(i) Removal and destruction of stubbles to check carryover of the pest to the next season.

(ii) Destruction of all malvaceous plants growing in off season which serve as alternate hosts for the pest.

(iii) Fumigation of seed before sowing with carbon-di-sulphide at the rate of two ounces per 15 cubic feet or heating the seed at 145°F to destroy the hibernating pink boll-worm larvae.

(iv) Quick removal and destruction of affected parts of plants in the early stage of pest incidence.

(v) Six dustings with mixture of 10% D.D.T., two per cent lindane and 40 per cent sulphur or with one per cent endrine dust.

(vi) Six sprayings at fortnightly intervals with endrine at the rate of 6 ounces per acre, commencing from a month prior to flowering. Sulphur may be added to this mixture in equal quantity to avoid subsequent mite incidence.

Other Minor Pests.—*Red cotton bug* (*Dysdercus cingulatus* Fabr.) is another minor pest of cotton. Like cotton it also affects the *bhendi* (lady's finger) crop.

Adults and nymphs suck plant sap and greatly impair the vitality of the plant. Besides, they also feed on seeds and lower their oil content. Lint is soiled by the excreta of these insects. The infected seeds become useless for sowing. The following two are the measures of controlling this pest:—

(i) Adults and nymphs should be collected in large numbers by shaking them in a tray containing a mixture of water and a small quantity of kerosene.

(ii) In case the pest is serious, which rarely happens, the crop may be treated with five per cent Benzene Hexachloride.

Jassids (*Empoasca devastans* Dist.) cause considerable damage to cotton. Both the nymphs and adults suck the cell sap from the leaves as a result of which leaves turn yellowish at the margins. When the infestation is excessive, etiolation and drying up of leaves take place. This is followed by stunted growth of plants. Besides affecting the cotton crop it also causes damage to *bhendi* (lady's finger), brinjal and potato. The extent of jassid infestation on Asiatic varieties is less due to their relative resistance to jassid attack. Wingless nymphs of this pest are found in large numbers on the lower surface of leaves. The pest is active particularly during the monsoon season.

Spraying the crop with five per cent D.D.T. at the rate of 16.783 to 22.68 kg. per hectare is found effective. However, the use of D.D.T. alone is undesirable as many a time it leads to excessive increase in *aphid* or *mite* population. Hence, sulphur is mixed with D.D.T. but the mixture of sulphur and D.D.T. is not sprayed on Indian or Asiatic cotton as sulphur scorches these varieties which are also prone to jassid attack. A combined 0.2 per cent spray of 50 per cent water dispersible D.D.T. and sulphur is very effective against jassid attack.

Aphids (*Aphis Gossypii* Glover) is another pest of cotton. The nymphs and adults of this pest suck the cell sap from the leaves due to which leaves turn yellowish and dry. It has been found that the spray of nicotine sulphate at the rate of 0.453 kg in 363.68 litres of water mixed with 2.268 kg of soap is quite effective. A spray of parathrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1000 parts of water also gives satisfactory results.

Dahiya, the grey mildew of cotton has assumed serious proportions in recent years. In the case of severely affected plants defoliation takes place which adversely affects the yield.

Chillies: Thrips (*Sarto thrips dorsalis* H.) and mites are the pest of Chillies. These pests suck the cell sap due to which the leaves get badly curled. This symptom is locally known as *Churda-murda* disease. Thrips and mites are considered major pests since they cause damage to the extent of about 25 per cent. Spraying the crop with two per cent Benzene Hexachloride with sulphur (wetable) is found to give very effective control.

Citrus Fruits: *Citrus shoot* and *bark borer* known as *Indarbela quadrinotata walk* causes damage to guava, citrus, pomegranate, mango, etc. The bark and the stems of these host plants are bored by the freshly hatched larvae. As a result of this, the trees put on a sickly appearance and ultimately wither. Presence of this pest can be readily detected by the appearance of frass covered areas on the bark.

Injecting the borer solution containing two parts of carbon-disulphide with one part each of chloroform and creosote helps to control the larvae of the borer. However due care has to be taken to scrape off galleries and webbing and to ascertain the live burrows before injecting the solution.

Fruit-sucking moth known as *othreis* sp. is another important pest of citrus fruits. Moths generally puncture rings of all varieties of citrus. However in this district it particularly causes serious damage to grapes and sweet oranges. The moths cause direct damage to citrus fruits. Part of the fruit on which the moths feed themselves is exposed to bacterial attack which causes the fruits to rot early.

This type of pest is very difficult to control. Insecticides do not help to control the adults of moths. Therefore, bagging of fruits is at present the only reliable method of control. Moths are also attracted to fermented poison baits and to torch light. They are thus detected and killed. The damage caused by this pest can be reduced by removing the hosts of caterpillars.

CROP DISEASES

Besides the damage done by the pests, the crops in the district also suffer from various plant diseases. The following are the important diseases of crops in the district.

Cereals.—Jowar: *Grain smut:* *Sphacelotheca Sorghi* is a grain smut of jowar locally known as *kani* or *danevani*. It is a seed borne sporadic disease. The disease cannot be recognised until the earheads come out. The affected earheads do not form normal grains but form sacs in place of grains. The affected ovaries turn into conical porcelain white sori which contain black powder. This black powder consists of millions of spores of the fungus. The disease occurs from September to November and affects the *kharif* jowar. It also affects the *rabi* jowar. Its source of infection is the threshing yard. It can be controlled by treating the seed with sulphur (200–300 mesh fine) at the rate of 0.028 kg of sulphur to 6.804 kg of seed.

Loose Smut: *Sphacelotheca cruenta* is a loose smut of jowar locally known as *kajali*. It is a seed borne disease of jowar prevalent in the district. The symptoms of the disease are nearly the same as those of the grain smut of jowar with the difference that in case of loose smut, wall of sorus gets ruptured and black mass of powder is exposed, giving blackish appearance to the affected earheads. The disease affects *kharif* jowar from September to November as also *rabi* jowar. Its source of infection is the

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threshing yard where the diseased and healthy earheads get mixed up. The disease can be controlled in the same way as the grain smut of jowar.

Sphacelotheca sorghi is a sugary disease of jowar locally known as *chikta*. It is an air borne disease disseminated by aphids. The disease is detected when sugary secretions are noticed oozing out from the affected ovaries. The oozing drops on the leaves which get sticky to the touch. Hence the disease is named as *chikta*. The disease affects jowar crop at any time during the period of its growth. It also causes reduction in yield to the extent of five per cent. The disease is brought under check by controlling aphids, through the use of insecticides.

Wheat: *Puccinia graminis tritici*, locally known as *tambura*, *haldya* or *gerwa* is a rust disease of wheat. It is by far the most destructive disease of wheat and causes damage to the tune of 60 per cent to 75 per cent. It is an air borne disease. The disease appears in the form of reddish brown elongated linear eruptive spots known as pustules mostly on stems and also on leaves. When rubbed, brownish red powder smears the thumb. It contains spores called uredo spores. Later in the season, the endophytic mycelium gives second type of black coloured sori or black pustules either at the same erupted spots or side by side. The black pustules contain blackish powder consisting of spores called teleuto spores, which means last spores. As the name signifies, teleuto stage appears at maturity of the crop. The disease is also known as a black stem rust on account of the black colour of the powder. The disease is prevalent from November to February. Infection spreads through spores carried by wind and rain.

The best way to avoid the occurrence of this disease is to grow resistant varieties for irrigated crop.

Ustilago tritici locally known as *kani* or *kajali* is a loose smut of wheat. It is a seed borne disease confined to the wheat crop of the district. Loose blackish powder is formed in place of grains, which consists of the spores of the fungus. The infection being inside the seed, dressing with fungicides is ineffective and hence a special method has been evolved to sterilise the seed before sowing.

Pulses.—Tur: (*Fusarium oxysporum*) locally known as *mar* is the wild disease of *tur*. Its attack is generally of a mild nature, the extent of loss in yield being one to two per cent. The disease is soil borne. Affected plants appear sickly, their leaves drop down and they ultimately wither and die. If roots of affected plants are split open, they exhibit brown discoloration of vascular tissue. The disease is of seasonal occurrence and may break out any time during the growth of the crop. The method of controlling this disease is to grow resistant varieties of *tur*.

Groundnut : Tikka (*cercospora arachidicola*, *Cercospora personata*) is an air borne disease of groundnut. The disease usually appears on crops when they are 1½ months old. Conspicuous round purplish brown spots, which later on increase in size and become blackish, are seen on the leaves. A yellow halo is also found round the spot. These give an appearance of *tikka* on leaves. In case of *cercospora personata*, spots are round and small in size whereas in case of *cercospora arachidicola* spots are larger in size and of severe intensity.

Infected plant debris provides the source of infection. Affected leaves shed and shedding becomes the striking feature of the disease. The disease can be controlled by spraying the crop in the third week of July with 5 : 5 : 50 bordeaux mixture or any copper fungicide containing 50 percent metallic copper. If required a second spraying in the month of August and a third one in the third week of September may be given. Dusting with 200 to 300 mesh sulphur at the rate of 15 to 20 lbs. per acre also controls the disease.

Cotton : Anthracones (kawadi).—The disease affects the crop at the seedling stage and also at the boll forming stage. It is a seed borne disease of cotton caused by a fungus parasite. The infected seeds and plant debris provide the source of infection. The disease causes a boll rot resulting in the development of short immature, weak and discoloured lint. This disease can be controlled by treating the seed with organo mercurial compound containing one per cent organic mercury at the rate of 0.057 kg. for 6.804 kg. of seed.

'*Remularia aresla*' locally known as *dahiya* or *dahya* is gray mildew of cotton. When it assumes serious proportions, it causes damage to the tune of 50 per cent or more. The disease manifests itself when small greyish white spots first appear on lower leaves. Gradually, these spots grow in size and coalesce giving whitish appearance to the entire leaf. When the attack is severe, white spots appear on both the sides of leaves resulting into defoliation of the plant. The disease generally occurs in the last week of August and continues till November. The spores of the fungus are propagated by wind from diseased to healthy crop. Dusting of 200—300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of 16.783 kg. 22.68 kg. per hectare before the appearance of disease is the only effective measure for controlling the disease.

Xanthomonas malvacearum (*karpa*), the blackarm or angular leaf spot is a minor disease of cotton. The disease first appears as small water soaked area on leaves which are angular in shape. The spots later coalesce involving greater part of the leaf. The stem and the bolls also get affected. The disease extends to the edges of mid and lateral veins when it is known as blackarm. Mature bolls when attacked open prematurely and the lint from such bolls bears yellow stains. Such lint fetches low market value. The disease affects dry cotton between July and December and irrigated cotton from July to March. Primary infection

on seedlings occurs through bacteria carried in the fuzz on the seed but the secondary source of infection is through splashing rain drops carried by the wind.

Seed borne infection can be controlled by seed disinfection through fungicides but the secondary infection cannot be controlled by any direct method. Breeding for resistance is therefore, the only practicable method.

Grapes : Uncinula necator is powdery mildew of grapes. It is an air borne disease locally known as "*bhuri*". It affects grapes of all varieties. The disease appears in the form of whitish patches on both the sides of leaves. Affected blossoms fail to set in fruit. Young berries drop when affected in the early stage of their growth. They crack when affected in the advanced stage. The disease normally occurs between November and January. The spores are carried by wind from a diseased to a healthy crop which provides the source of infection. The disease can be effectively controlled by dusting sulphur (200 to 300 mesh) in the third week of November, December and January.

Plasmopara Viticola is a downy mildew of grapes. It is locally known as *kevada* and affects all varieties of grapes. Yellow oily spots appear on the upper surface of leaves, and simultaneously on the back side, there is a downy growth. Due to the early attack, the blossoms get blighted and berries drop down exhibiting mummified condition. The disease can be controlled by spraying bordeaux mixture 5 : 5 : 50 in the third week of May and October and in the first week of July and November.

TENURES

The system of land tenures in the past permitted a person to own land so long as he paid the customary revenue charges. It, however, underwent changes with the course of political events during the different reigns.

Early History*.—*Land tenure and the position of revenue officials prior to 1853* : The ordinary tenure from time immemorial had been that which permitted a man to keep possession of his fields so long as he paid to Government the customary rent. Some such general principle of reciprocal convenience must have always prevailed, so long as land was more plentiful than cultivators. Malik Ambar (1612 A.D.) is stated to have recognised the ryots private property in his land, but such rights, if ever they were conferred, cannot long have outlasted the wear and tear of the disorders which followed his death. We may suppose that where the tenants managed to keep land for any long time in one family they acquired a sort of property adverse to all except the Government; that where the land changed often by the diverse accidents of an unsettled age, in such cases occupancy never hardened into proprietary right. Good land would have been carefully preserved, bad land would be often thrown up; failure of crops or the exactions of farmers would sever many holdings;

*The historical account is based on Chapter VIII of the Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana district, 1910.

and all rights ceased with continuity of possession. When mis-Government became chronic, and the country was incessantly exposed to be wasted by famine, war or fiscal extortion the tenant's hold on any one piece of land would be more precarious and ephemeral. But perhaps it may be said that in theory the general basis and limit of property in the land was cultivating occupancy undisturbed, except by violence or injustice, so long as the traditional standing rates of assessment were paid upon the fields taken up. It is easy to see that various rights and prescriptions might, under favouring circumstances, arise out of this sort of holding. Several terms as *mirasi*, *mundkari*, etc., were formerly known to distinguish the class of occupants in Berar whose possession of their land was long established and by descent, but their precise privileges were never closely defined. The essence of these holdings seems to have been the privilege of paying a fixed sum without regard to cultivated area, and the right to trees. The property was also admitted usually to be heritable and transferable. Then certain advantageous tenures were created by expedients used to revive cultivation in deserted tracts; long leases were given at a rent mounting upwards very gradually year by year, or a whole ruined village was made over by what is called *palampat*, which fixes the rental of the entire estate without taking account of the spread of cultivation. Whatever rights in the land may have grown up previously, they all disappeared under the Marathas and Nizam's Government. Under this regime the mass of cultivators held their fields on a yearly lease which was made out for them by the Patel at the beginning of each season; the land was acknowledged to belong to the State, and as a general rule no absolute right to hold any particular field, except by yearly permission of the officials, was urged or allowed. A man could not always give up or transfer his holding without official authorization. Cultivators were ejected from their holdings and others put in their places, as it suited the caprice or interest of the farmer of the revenue. Under such a system all value was wrung out of property in land.

The Patels, Deshmukhs and Deshpandes who were employed to manage the collection of land revenue in villages and parganas never got beyond hereditary office nor transmuted themselves into proprietors of the land. The patel always remained the agent between the State and the village tenants for cultivation and collections. He was paid by rent-free land, money dues and dignities, the whole being grouped under the term *watan*. The Deshmukhs and Deshpandes had risen to great local importance under the Muhammadan dynasties. They held by virtue of office the right to take certain dues from the revenue collected in their sub-divisions, but some of the more powerful families received large grants of land in jagir and patents for the collection of additional subsidies, on condition of military or police service, and the maintenance of order. Towards the

decline of the Mughal power in Berar they sometimes obtained their sub-divisions in farm, and some of them were probably fast developing into the status of talukdars and zamindars of upper India. But the Nizam and Marathas were too powerful to let any subjects stand between them and the full demand and in 1853 it was decided that though these officials had frequently, beside their money dues, large quantities of *inam* or revenue-free land, and they themselves advanced the most extravagant pretensions, their real position was that of hereditary officers and not that of landed proprietors.

Land tenure: The ordinary tenure is the ryotwari tenure, and all land paying revenue to Government under that system is known as *khalsa* land. The State is recognized as the superior landlord, and the settlement is made directly with the cultivator himself and not through middlemen. The assessment is on the land, not on the person. Subject to certain restrictions, the occupant, who is termed *khatedar*, is absolute proprietor of his holding, may sell, let or mortgage it or any part of it, cultivate it or leave it waste, so long as he pays the assessment, which may be revised on general principles at the end of the fixed term. Being in arrears with the assessment at once renders the right of occupancy liable to forfeiture. No occupant is bound to hold his land more than one year if he does not like it; as long as he gives notice according to law, he is free to relinquish his holding. The occupant is free to make any improvement he likes but he must not apply the land to any other purpose than agriculture without the permission of the Deputy Commissioner. Government retains a right to all minerals in the soil. Only one occupant is recorded as the *khatedar*, to whom the Government looks as responsible primarily for the revenue. Apart from this he is not necessarily a person with any rights in the soil whatever. Mutation of names is not compulsory, and hence it often happens that a *khatedar* from motives perhaps of sentiment, perhaps of sloth, prefers to keep his name on the Government registers long after he has parted with the land. This description requires to be qualified in the case of land given out for cultivation since 1st January 1905. From that date all unalienated assessed land is disposed of subject to the following additional condition, *viz.*, "neither the occupant, his heirs, executors, administrators, and approved assignees shall at any time lease, mortgage, sell, or otherwise encumber the said occupancy or any portion thereof without the previous sanction in writing of the Deputy Commissioner."

Ryotwari Tenure: "The ryotwari tenure already described is the most common in the district. Out of 1,400 villages 1,327 are settled on this tenure, and are known as *khalsa* villages. The area of these villages in 1906-07 was returned as 2,245,288 acres: of this 41,918 acres were occupied by village sites, tanks, rivers and the like, 229,833 acres by forests, 86,618 acres were set apart for village purposes and for free grazing, and the balance of 1,886,919 acres was available for cultivation. Of the latter area

1,882,114 acres were under cultivation. The balance is mostly in the Chikhli taluk, and is land of inferior quality, for which there is little demand. The land revenue demand of the *khalsa* villages amounted to Rs. 18,52,667 in 1905-06, and Rs. 18,67,433 in 1906-07, the increase being due to the introduction of revised rates in 89 villages of the Mehkar taluk. In both these years the demand was collected practically in full, and there were no remissions."

Jagir tenure: Jagir now means any rent-free holding consisting of an integral village or villages. The jagir of Berar seems to have been originally always, like the earliest feuds, a mere assignment of revenue for military service, and the maintenance of order by armed control of certain districts. In later times the grant was occasionally made to civil officers for the maintenance of due state and dignity. The interest of the stipendiary did not ordinarily extend beyond his own life, and the jagir even determined at the pleasure of the sovereign, or it was transferred, on failure of service, to another person who undertook the conditions. But some of these grants when given to powerful families acquired an hereditary character. It would seem, nevertheless that until recently these estates very seldom shook off the condition under which they were created. The assignments were withdrawn when the service ceased; and they were considered a far inferior kind of property to that of hereditary office. Probably the double Government of the Marathas and the Nizam kept this tenure weak and precarious. The Nizam would have insisted on service from his *jagirdars* during his incessant wars. The Marathas treated the Mughal *jagirdars* very roughly, taking from them sixty per cent of all the revenue assigned, wherever such demand could be enforced. To plunder an enemy's jagir was much the same as to sack his military chest it disordered the army estimates. When this province was made over in 1853 to the British, some villages were under assignment to jagirdars for the maintenance of troops, and these were given up by their holders. Up to that date, however, the system *tankhwa* jagir or assignment for army payments by which whole *parganas* in Berar had been formally held had barely survived. The irregularities of the old practice were notorious. A few followers to enable the jagirdars to collect the revenue were sometimes the only armed force really maintained; no musters were held, and when troops were seriously called out the jagirdar made hasty levies or occasionally absconded altogether. There are still several personal jagirs without condition in Berar which have been confirmed to the holders as a heritable possession. But none of these were made hereditary by original grant, save only the estates given to pious or venerable persons, to *saiyids*, *fakirs*, *pirzadas*, and the like and perhaps an estate which was first assigned as an appanage to members of the reigning family. Other jagirs have been obtained by court interest, acquired by local officers during their tenure of power, or allotted to them for maintenance of due state and dignity, and such holdings were

often continued afterwards as a sort of pension which slid into inheritance. Almost every jagir title was by the Delhi Emperor or the Nizam, one or two by the Peshwa; but not one full grant derives from the Bhonsla dynasty, which never arrogated to itself that sovereign prerogative.

The number of villages held in jagir tenure in this district is 42. The following statement shows the persons holding more than one village on this tenure, with the area of the grant and its assessment :¹

Name of Jagirdar	No. of villages	Area of grant	Assessment
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Acres	Rs.
Raja Laksman Rao Nemiwant	5	7,455	12,147
Khan Bahadur Nawab Muhammad Salamulla Khan of Deulghat.	2	4,712	3,625
Ambadas Govind Nijabat Bhawanrao Vitthal Kalu	2	4,689	1,956
Raja Bahadur Raghuji Rao Bhonsla of Nagpur..	3	16,125	7,366
Saiyid Hasan, son of Saiyid Usman	3	5,304	5,425
Laksman Janrao	2	3,294	3,673
Dongar Khan, son of Sitab Khan, Abdul Razak Haji Ismanul Khan.	4	11,273	276
Gulam Dastagir, on behalf of the Muhammadan Community.	2	3,211	1,717

Alienation of jagirs by sale, mortgages, or otherwise, is prohibited. Personal jagirs are continued hereditarily subject to a legacy duty or succession-fee graduated on a scale according to the degree of relationship of the heir. Jagirs for religious or charitable object such as for the support of temples, mosques, colleges, or other public buildings or institutions, or for service therein, are continued, so long as the buildings or institutions are maintained in an efficient state, and the service continued to be performed according to the conditions of the grant.

Grants of the latter kind cover an area of 7,937 acres assessed at Rs. 5,542; the whole of which has been assigned to the grantee. The following statement shows the details of grants made for perpetuity or for one or more lives :—

—	Area	Survey assessment	Land revenue assigned	Quit-rents, if any
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Acres	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
In perpetuity	78,221	51,075	46,970	4,105
For one or more lives	758	736	736	Nil.

¹ The whole assessment is enjoyed by the jagirdars.

The relation between the *jagirdar* and his tenants is governed by Chapter VII of the Berar Land Revenue Code. Tenants are divided into two classes, ante-jagir and post-jagir tenants. The former are those who have held their land from a period prior to the alienation, and they are entitled to continue in possession subject to the payment of the survey assessment. Post-jagir tenants pay rent according to agreement with the jagirdar. The revenue courts have no cognizance over disputes between jagirdars and their tenants, these being all referred to the civil courts. The rights of tenants in jagir villages have been amply protected. When the court is called upon to determine what shall be considered a reasonable rent, the enhanced value of the property due to improvements effected by the tenants is not taken into consideration. In cases of ejectment also the court can order compensation to be paid for the unexhausted improvements made by the tenant. A notice of six months is necessary before a landlord can enhance the rent of a tenant, and an annual tenancy cannot be terminated by either party without three months' notice.

All the jagir villages were surveyed and settled at the original settlement, but only three jagirdars were willing to pay the cost of the revision settlement; and this was carried out therefore in seven villages only. For the remaining villages only fresh rent-rolls were prepared and deposited with the Deputy Commissioner, to enable the latter to recover the road and education cesses, and the quit-rent, if any. In 1906-07 the total area of the jagir villages was 86,916 acres, and of this 25,283 acres were returned as unculturable (*parampok*), 1,696 acres were included in village sites, grazing areas and the like, and 59,937 acres were available for cultivation. Of the latter 57,840 acres, assessed at Rs. 57,153 were under cultivation, and 2,097 acres, assessed at Rs. 562, remained unoccupied.

Existing tenures.—The *ryotwari* system is the most important system of tenure in the district. The other systems of tenure resembling the *malguzari* system have since been abolished by the progressive land legislation during recent years.

Under the *ryotwari* tenure the land revenue is fixed not upon an estate as a whole or on a village as a whole by an individual survey numbers or sub-divisions thereof. The rates of land revenue are fixed in accordance with the quality of the survey number, average rainfall, kind of crops grown, water resources and location.

Of the other tenures, such as, political *inams*, personal *inams*, service *inams* and *jagirs*, only the service *inams* remained in existence. These were mainly vestiges of the British regime. Being incompatible with the progressive land legislation they were abolished in the post-Independence period. Service *inams* are holdings of land granted to certain persons for performance of particular services to the Government or to the community. The holders of such *inams* are village servants useful to the community such as *jagalyas*, *nhavis*, *sutars*, *kumbhars*, *mochis*, etc.

In the old Madhya Pradesh areas settlement was done on the basis of proprietary rights. The conferment of proprietary rights on *Malguzars* interposed between Government and the actual tillers of the soil, a body of persons whose interests often came in conflict with those of the latter. Hence the need to protect the tenant class soon became apparent. In 1920, a new consolidating and amending Act was enacted known as the Central Provinces Tenancy Act, 1920. Under this Act, three classes of tenants were recognised, viz., :—(1) Absolute occupancy tenants, (2) Occupancy tenants, and (3) sub-tenants. The first two classes of tenants enjoyed fixity of tenure as well as rent. They were entitled to become *Malik-Makbuzas* on payment of a certain premium. Their rights were also transferable and heritable. The sub-tenants were, however, not given any special protection or rights. Until 1950, the tenancy laws in force in the Vidarbha region were intended only for the protection of tenants holding lands on lease in alienated areas.

There was a radical change when the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 came into force. Under this Act, the lands held by absolute occupancy tenants, occupancy tenants and anti-alienation tenants, etc., vested in Government and consequently these tenants became lessees of Government. The Act also conferred on them a right to become owners of land on payment of certain multiples of rent as premium. This provision was later on repealed by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 wherein the absolute occupancy tenants and other categories of tenants referred to above were recognised as *bhumiswamis* or *bhumidharis* of the lands held by them.

After the coming into force of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 there were only two types of tenants in Buldhana district,—(a) occupancy tenants including lessees who before coming into force of this code were occupancy tenants or *Malik-Makbuzas* and who were declared as occupancy tenants under the provision of section 169 (2) of the code, and (b) ordinary tenants under section 166 of the code. Under chapter XIV of the Code, the occupancy tenants enjoyed special protection and rights including fixity of tenure and right to purchase the land. The ordinary tenants had, however, no fixity of tenure or protection against rack renting nor had they or the protected lessees any rights of purchase. Soon after the reorganisation of states it was felt necessary to have a comprehensive legislation for securing the rights of tenants. Therefore, an ordinance viz., the Bombay Vidarbha Region Agricultural Tenants (Protection from Eviction and Amendment of Tenancy Laws) Ordinance, 1957 was promulgated in order to safeguard the tenants from eviction by their landlords.

TENANCY

Prior to the enforcement of Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958, the relations between the landlord and the tenant were governed by the

Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and the Berar Regulations of Agricultural Leases Act of 1951. Under this Act the tenants were not entitled to the right of purchasing the land held by them as lessee, nor had they the pre-emption right of purchasing the land held by them as lessee when the landlord intended to sell the land. It was, however, provided that—(i) no lease-deed would be for a period of less than five years, (ii) the protected lessee had no right to transfer his occupancy rights to any one except to the owner, and (iii) the landlord as also the tenant had a right to get the lease-money fixed by Government. These regulations were further amended. Under the amended regulations, it was provided that the lessee could be declared as a protected tenant if the owner of the leased land was not a woman or a disabled person, and also that the tenant could be declared as a protected tenant if he had furnished the required information about his rights to the land by 1st February 1954. In the amendment it was also provided that the landlord had no right to oust the tenant, unless a specific permission to the effect was obtained from Revenue Officers. The tenant was entitled to reclaim the land within a year of such ousting.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958, which is the prevailing Tenancy Act, came into force from 30th December 1958. This Act confers on all tenants the right of purchasing the land from the owner. All the privileges of a protected tenant are granted to the ordinary tenant as well. The present enactment has unified the provisions of the old enactments in force, and at the same time aims at finally defining the rights of the tenants. It provides for tenancy rights by succession and regulates the sale of agricultural land exceeding two-third of the ceiling area as determined under the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, to non-agriculturists or even to agriculturists holding land as tenants. Widows, minors, disabled persons, persons under preventive detention and public trusts have been granted protection under the new Act.

The new Act had made considerable changes in the provisions relating to rent, termination of tenancy, inheritance of tenancy rights, etc., of the prior enactment. It also contains provisions in regard to family holdings, ceiling on holdings and compulsory purchase of land by tenants subject to certain conditions and exceptions. It has provided that the landlord can take over management of the lands which are not efficiently cultivated or which are left fallow for two or more consecutive seasons. A landlord has been given the right of resumption under the following conditions:—

(1) He was to give the necessary notice of termination of tenancy on or before 15th February 1961, and to apply for possession of land on or before 31st March 1961.

(2) Landlord whose total holding did not exceed one family holding were given a special right to terminate tenancies created by them not earlier than April 1957.

(3) Small holders, viz., landlords whose holding did not exceed one-third of the family holding on 15th February 1961 and who earned their livelihood from agricultural pursuits, were given a right to take back their land from the date of enforcement of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Amendment Act of 1961. The application for possession was to be made before 1st April 1963.

The following statement gives the statistics regarding the working of the Tenancy Act as on 31st May 1969:—

(1) Number of cases filed under the Tenancy Act, 1958 ..	1,02,953
(2) Number of cases disposed of	98,954
(3) Number of cases pending	3,999
(4) Number of cases decided in favour of—	
Landlords	55,104
Tenants	43,850

RURAL WAGES

Casual Labour.—Cultivators in Buldhana district employ casual labourers only when there is pressure of farm work such as collecting stubbles, sowing, weeding, harvesting, etc. It is reported that there exist a general scarcity of agricultural labour in this district as a whole but particularly near about Malkapur and Khamgaon towns. In the district as a whole, the labourers are generally paid in cash. However in few cases, payment is made in kind also. Labourers get their wages for the week on bazar day so that they can purchase their requirements of food, clothing, etc.

The method of obtaining and employing casual labour in Buldhana district is peculiar. Those cultivators who want to engage labour on their farms have to go to the labourers house early in the morning where they get the required hands. This system of getting required labour is prevalent at more than 50 per cent of the places in the district. The following statement reveals the rates of wages paid to casual labour employed throughout the district:—

WAGES OF CASUAL LABOUR IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

	Pre-war	Post-war	1959-60	1968-69
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male (in cash)	0.31 to 0.37	0.62 to 0.75	1.25 to 2.50	1.50 to 3.00
(in kind)	0.629 kg. Jowar	3.629 kg. Jowar	3.629 kg. Jowar	4.250 kg. Jowar
Female (in cash)	0.10 to 0.12	0.37 to 0.50	0.75	1.00 to 1.50
(in kind)	2.721 kg. Jowar	2.721 kg. Jowar	1.814 kg. Jowar	2.500 kg. Jowar
Child (in cash)	0.06	0.25	0.37	0.62 to 0.75
(in kind)	1.814 kg. Jowar	0.814 kg. Jowar	0.907 kg. Jowar	1.500 kg. Jowar

It will be seen that the wage rate for a male labourer varied between Rs. 1.50 and 3 per day. The former is the lowest rate while the latter is the highest wage rate paid during busy agricultural season near Malkapur, Chikhli, Khamgaon and Shegaon towns. In Malkapur tahsil there are high rates as irrigated crops are grown. Women labourers are usually paid at half the wage rate of men labourers. Thus the women labourers receive between Re. 1 and Rs. 1.50 per day. However, it may be noted that the practice of employing child labour is not in vogue. Few cultivators particularly in some parts of Malkapur tahsil make payment to casual labourers in kind instead of in cash. In kind a man receives 4.250 kg. of grain and a woman labourer 2.500 kg. of grain. After the Second World-War money wages have not undergone any upward change though prices of food-grains have gone up. In the case of women and child labourers, the quantity of grain given as payment in kind actually decreased from 2.500 kg. to 1.814 kg. and 1.500 kg. to 1.000 kg. respectively between 1959-60 and 1968-69.

Wages paid to casual labourers employed on farms vary according to the nature of agricultural operations. Wages are determined on daily basis and are usually paid in cash. Men labourers are usually paid higher wages than woman or child labour. Similarly, labourers performing those operations which involve heavy and skilled manual work are paid higher wages. Thus the worker driving *tiffin* for sowing is paid Rs. 4 per day. Harvesting and threshing also require a certain amount of skill and these operations have to be performed within a limited time. This leads to greater demand for the available labour force. However, with a view to getting the work done quickly, labour is employed on contract basis throughout the district. For instance, women and children are generally employed for picking cotton. They are paid wages on the basis of quantity of *kapas* picked during the day. This rate varies between Rs. 2 and Rs. 2.50 per maund of 28 seers of *kapas* collected. Similarly, groundnut is also harvested on contract system. The workers are paid at the rate of Re. 0.37 to Re. 0.50 for the collection of a tinful of pods; liquid capacity of the tin being 18.18 litres (4 gallons). Jowar crop is also harvested on contract basis. Many a time operations like harvesting and threshing of jowar and tying bundles of *kadbi* are entrusted to labour. They are paid Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per acre on contract basis. If these operations are performed on daily wage rate basis, a labourer gets Rs. 1.50 for harvesting. These rates are subject to variation depending upon the time within which these operations are completed. The labourers also prefer contract system as it enables them to put in more work, earn higher average daily wages and finish the work rapidly.

Annual Servants or Saldars.—*Saldars* are annual servants employed by those cultivators who can provide continuous and regular employment throughout the year either because they have large holdings or because they undertake intensive farming. A *saldar* is available for the work for all the time and usually does

all type of farming work. The contract with a *saldar* holds good for one year. He is offered a pair of *dhoti*, a shirt, a *dupatta* and a cap on the pola day. The payment is usually made in instalments. The payment to a *saldar* varies between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600 per annum depending upon the nature of the work on the farm, the type of farming followed by the cultivator and the skill and ability of the *saldar* himself. Young boys between 12 and 16 years of age are also employed as *saldar* and are paid at half the wages paid to the adults.

Balutedars.—*Balutedars* are village artisans who are connected with the various agricultural operations. The main feature of this system is that they are given a fixed payment in kind for all the work they do during the year. The *baluta* system is gradually disappearing. Now this system prevails only on the farms of big hereditary cultivators. *Balutedars* work only on the farms of big cultivators and do not enter into fresh *baluta* contracts with anyone else. As a result, the tendency to get the services of village artisans in exchange for cash payment is gaining ground. The important village artisans include a carpenter (*sutar*), a blacksmith (*khati*), a cobbler (*chambhar*), and a barber (*nhavi*). The agricultural commodities given to the *balutedar* by way of wages generally include jowar, wheat, grain and pulses. *Baluta* (payment) in kind is paid at the time of harvest. The payment by the cultivator is linked to the pair or pairs of bullocks he owns. For instance, a carpenter repairing farm implements gets about 20 *pailies* or 36.288 kg. (82 lbs.) of jowar for every pair of bullocks owned by the cultivator.

FAMINES AND FLOODS

An up-to-date and chronological history of the damage caused by calamities like famines, floods, cyclones, locusts, plague and such other natural calamities in the district from early times to the present days is as under :—

Early Famines*.—“There is no separate famine history of the Buldhana District prior to the cession in 1853, but certain conclusions can be drawn from the reference to famine in Berar and Central India generally. Probably Buldana suffered in common with the rest of Berar from the severe famine which occurred early in the reign of Muhammad II, about 1378, and from the one which took place in the reign of Mahammad III, about 1473 and 1474. In the latter famine it is stated that most of the people who escaped death from starvation fled to Malwa and Gujarat, and did not return home for a long time. About 156 years later during the reign of the Emperor Shah Jahan of Delhi, the rains of 1630 completely failed with the result that there was a severe famine. Unfortunately the famine came on at a time of war between Delhi and Ahmadnagar. The imperial forces, numbering 50,000, encamped at Deulgaon Raja in the Chikhli taluk for days together and made the condition of the

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana District, 1910.

country still worse. Measures of relief, though adopted, were miserably inadequate. The famine of 1630 is thus described in the official chronicles of Shah Jahan's reign."

'Buyers were ready to give a life for a loaf, but seller was there none. The flesh of dogs was sold as that of goats, and the bones of the dead were ground down with the flour sold in the market, but the punishment of those who profited by such traffic produced yet direr results. Men devoured one another and came to regard the flesh of their children as sweeter than their love. The inhabitants fled afar to other tracts till the corpses of those who fell by the way checked those who came after, and in the lands of Berar, which had been famous for their fertility and prosperity, no trace of habitation remained.

The District suffered again in 1804 from famine. General Wellesley writing about 1804 says: 'Sindkhed (in the Mehkar taluk) is a nest of thieves. The situation of this country is shocking; the people are starving in hundreds, and there is no Government to afford the slightest relief'.

The District does not appear to have been very seriously affected by the famine of 1833, though this was still talked of by the Berar Kunbi forty years later.

In 1871-72 there was a failure of crops, and the price of *juari*, the staple food of the District, rose to 13 seers per rupee. Six relief works were started in the old Buldana District; the work consisted entirely of road construction and was carried out at a cost of Rs. 5,000.

The year 1877-78 was a trying one as prices rose high and the grain pits were almost exhausted by the large demand for export. A period of prosperity then ensued, and in 1893 so remote did the idea of famine seem that the Commissioner felt justified in reporting that a programme of relief works was not required for Berar. This illusion was, however, soon rudely dispelled.

The Famine of 1896-97.—"The famine of 1896-97 was caused by the abrupt cessation of the rains at the end of August. The district received 5.53 inches in June and 9.45 inches in July, and prospects were then favourable; but after a fall of 3.72 inches in August the monsoon came to a sudden close. The total rainfall of the year was only 21 inches 28 cents as against a decennial average of 35 inches 28 cents. The *kharif* crops gradually dried up and the land became too hard and dry for the germination of the *rabi* crops. The outturn of the *kharif* crop was only a third of the average, and the *rabi* crop only an eighth. In the Malkapur taluk the failure of the rains and of the crops was most complete; the stocks were low, the condition of the people bad, and prices very high. In the upland taluks of Mehkar and Chikhli the rains failed and the crops suffered badly, and there would have been more distress but for the fact that this tract contained fewer labourers, and there was a fairly good crop in the adjoining districts of the dominion of His Highness the Nizam. *Juari*, which is the staple food of the population, sold at

an average rate of 9 seers per rupee during the distress, while it was a little over 23 seers per rupee in the two previous years, which were normal. The price rose to a maximum of 6½ seers per rupee during the latter end of June and early in July 1897. The failure of the crops and the sudden rise in prices called for action on the part of the Government. In October orders were issued for the preparation of a programme of relief works, and in November the Bombay Famine Code was applied. Government relief did not begin till March, but in the interval private enterprise did much to cope with the distress caused by the high prices. In the Malkapur taluk *juari* committees were formed at two centres Malkapur and Nandura, and subscriptions received in kind, shops were opened and *juari* was sold at moderate rates. Elsewhere cheap grain-shops were opened, and the poorer classes were thus enabled to purchase grain at moderate prices when the market rate was abnormally high and no labour was obtainable. Towards the end of February test works were opened by the District Board in the form of road repairs, and as these proved the existence of distress, other works consisting of road repair and tank improvements were taken in hand by the same agency from time to time. The District Board spent a sum of Rs. 27,816 on these famine relief works, and a further sum of Rs. 3,685 on works which, though not debited to famine relief, were specially sanctioned to meet the distress. Large public works were opened from March to July. The chief work carried out was the improvement of the Nagpur dak line road at a cost of Rs. 10,974. The collection of broken metal also provided considerable work, Rs. 12,279 being spent in this way. The total cost of the works was Rs. 50,603. The maximum number on works was 6,289 in June 1897. Gratuitous relief was also given to those who for various reasons were considered to be incapable of work. Relief was not given in the villages at the homes of the people, but lists of the deserving having been drawn up and thoroughly checked, weekly or daily tickets were given which entitled the recipients to certain doles from grain-shops established at 17 centres in the district. In this way 205,170 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 20,978. In case of emergency patels were empowered to give relief in the villages. In addition dependents of workers were relieved at the works, 40,296 units in this way being relieved at a cost of Rs. 1,334. Six poor-houses were established in the district from the beginning of April, a total of 159,700 units being admitted to this form of relief at a total cost of Rs. 15,678. The total amount spent on gratuitous relief was Rs. 37,990. Throughout the district private charity was dispensed with most remarkable liberality. A grant of Rs. 5,000 was received from the Indian Famine Charitable Relief Fund and about Rs. 19,000 were collected in the district. The cheap grain-shops have already been referred to. In many of the large towns and villages, notably in the Malkapur taluk, there was a daily distribution of *ghuger*, plain boiled *juari*, and immense numbers of the poor received help in this way. Clothing was also distributed by private gentlemen. A sum of Rs. 29,798 was advanced under the

Land Improvement Loans Act, and Rs. 2,169 under the Agriculturists' Loans Act. Although special instructions were issued providing for suspension of revenue in necessary cases, very little advantage was taken of the concession. The cultivators preferred to pay, and in November 1897 a balance of Rs. 19,068 only remained for collection out of a demand of Rs. 11,58,937. To sum up, relief measures lasted till 31st October 1897 and during the period the highest number of persons to whom assistance was given in one day was 126,381 on the second Saturday of July 1897, which is equal to 26.27 per cent of the total population of the district. The total expenditure on relief was nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs."

The Famine of 1899-1900.—"The harvests of 1897-98 and 1898-99 were both above the average, and at the beginning of the rains of 1899-1900 the outlook was favourable. The monsoon began in June with a fall of 6 inches 10 cents. The *kharif* sowings were almost up to normal, 800,893 acres being sown as against an average of 820,274. After June the rainfall was quite inadequate, the fall in July being 2.62 inches, in August 1.52 inches, and in September 1.36 inches. After September no more rain fell, and the total rainfall was only 12.27 inches as against an average of 33 inches. The *kharif* crop withered away, and little or no spring crops could be sown. The loss caused to the district by this failure of rains was enormous. The normal outturn of the principal food crops, *juari* and wheat, in the preceding ten years had been 15 lakhs of maunds; the outturn of 1899-1900 is estimated to have been only 414 maunds, and the money loss represented by this difference is calculated at Rs. 333 $\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs. The failure of the crops caused the prices of food-grains to rise by leaps and bounds. Shortly before the famine, *juari* was cheaper than it had been for many years, and in June 1899 it was selling at 36 seers a rupee. By the 15th September it had risen to 16 seers, and by the end of that month to 10 seers. After that it fluctuated from 9 to 7 seers till the following October, reaching its maximum in June, July and August."

Flood of 1959.—There were heavy floods in this district during the year 1959. On the 29th and 30th August 1959, the rivers Man, Purna, and Nalganga were flooded due to excessive rains. Moreover, there were heavy rain ranging from 9 inches to 20 inches between 13th and 15th September 1959 in various parts of the district and the rivers Nalganga, Purna, Penganga, Dhamna, Khadak-Purna, Man, Unad and Dnyanganga were in floods.

In all 330 villages and 7 towns were affected by the floods, covering an area of 63 square miles and a population of one lakh. In this flood 43 human lives were lost as also 2,552 heads of cattle and the approximate loss suffered was estimated at Rs. 1,86,000. In all 9,118 houses were damaged or destroyed or collapsed. Estimated loss to houses and household properties was Rs. 26,78,887.

The total loss suffered on private and Government accounts excluding that sustained by the farmers amounted to Rs. 29,76,687.

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Crops were damaged over an area of 43,910 acres and the value of the loss was estimated at Rs. 43,46,474.

Relief Measures.—The affected people were rescued and brought to safer places wherever possible, some were temporarily housed in *sarais*, school buildings and other community places in the neighbouring towns and were also given free food for 8 to 10 days until they could be sent back to their respective villages. Temporary shelters were also erected in some villages where people could not go back to their houses. In addition arrangements were made to organise community kitchens and clothes and cash were distributed to the sufferers. An amount of Rs. 6,11,050 was distributed immediately after the flood as gratuitous relief to the flood sufferers for purchase of food, clothing and utensils, etc. In addition cash subsidy amounting to Rs. 2,80,650 was distributed to the flood sufferers for construction or repairs to their damaged houses. Moreover material such as bamboo, *ballies* and galvanised corrugated iron sheets were distributed valued at Rs. 2,84,300.

An amount of Rs. 18,83,000 was distributed to the flood affected agriculturists, under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884, as ordinary *tagai* loans. Moreover, non-agricultural loans amounting to Rs. 1,80,410 were distributed for construction of houses which were damaged by floods to the non-agriculturists who were affected during the floods of 1959-60. During the year 1959-60 the suspension of land revenue amounting to Rs. 12,88,805 and remission of Rs. 3,664 were granted. In the same year 4,824 quintals of wheat seed, 2,763 quintals of gram-seed, 105 quintals of *rabi* jowar and 5 quintals of *kardi* were distributed as *tagai* loans. The cost of the distributed seeds was about Rs. 2,25,000.

Donations amounting to Rs. 61,415 in cash and Rs. 63,770 in kind were received from public and private bodies. Grains, food and clothes amounting to Rs. 63,770 and Rs. 30,000 in cash were immediately distributed to the poor and needy flood sufferers.

During the flood of 1959 in all 72 village sites were shifted to the new *gaothan* sites. Government land in 12 villages and private land in 60 villages was made available for the purpose. The layouts were prepared and plots were allotted to the sufferers of 57 villages.

Flood of 1961.—Continuous rains were received all over Buldhana District in the first and second week of September 1961. There were floods from 7th September 1961 to 10th September 1961 and again from 14th to 17th September in the belt of Purna river which passes through this district in Khamgaon, Jalgaon and Malkapur tahsils.

In all 288 villages and 3 towns were affected by floods during the year 1961 covering an area of 23,995 acres, and a population of 5,138. In this flood two human lives and nine cattle heads were lost and the approximate value of the loss amounted to Rs. 1,360. 196 houses were partly damaged by floods and

28 houses collapsed. The estimated value of the damages to houses was Rs. 37,172. The total loss other than the loss sustained by crops amounted to Rs. 46,532. Two bridges collapsed during the floods, one on Nandura-Jalgaon road on Purna river and the other on Motala-Nandura road on Vishwaganga river.

Crops in 18,954 acres were damaged and the value of the loss to the crops was estimated at Rs. 15,24,720.

Measures Taken.—The villagers on the banks of the rivers were alerted by the Revenue officers during the floods. Necessary relief was granted to the flood sufferers and a sum of Rs. 2,190 was distributed as gratuitous relief; 450 ballies valued at Rs. 1,000 and 150 galvanised corrugated iron sheets on cash payment were distributed; Rs. 2,64,000 were distributed to the flood affected agriculturists as loan under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1883 and Land Improvement Loans Act, 1884; Rs. 41,465 were distributed to the non-agriculturists for construction of their damaged houses. Suspension of land revenue amounting to Rs. 3,46,265 and remission of Rs. 21,603 was granted by the State Government during 1961-62.

Scarcity of 1959-60.—During the year 1959-60 there were excessive and untimely rains and the river Purna, running through Malkapur, Khamgaon, and Jalgaon tahsils of Buldhana district was heavily flooded. The crops on either side of the river were washed away from Jalgaon, Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils.

281 villages as detailed below were affected by the conditions akin to scarcity due to the complete failure of *kharif* crops in following three tahsils:—

Tahsil (1)	No. of villages (2)	Population affected (3)
Khamgaon	44	16,032
Malkapur	97	35,343
Jalgaon	140	69,835
Total ..	281	1,21,210

There were no cases of human death or migration.

Relief Measures.—Scarcity relief operations, such as execution of test scarcity works in the affected areas were not taken up as there was no necessity to start any test scarcity works. However, works under seasonal un-employment scheme were in progress to remove the distress of the agricultural labourers.

During the year 1959-60 three road works were taken up under seasonal un-employment scheme and the total expenditure incurred was Rs. 83,000.

Similarly, 10 road works, 4 metal breaking camps and repairs to tanks were taken up to provide employment to labourers in 1960-61. In all 67,866 labourers were engaged on the works during the year 1960-61. The total expenditure incurred was Rs. 1,33,734.

Though Government declared scarcity in 281 villages of Jalgaon, Khamgaon and Malkapur tahsils in this district due to heavy rains and high floods to Purna river, no scarcity of grass was reported by this district either to Commissioner or Government. However, some fodder was earmarked for this district as a precautionary measure. Accordingly 14,664 pounds of grass was received in this district just before the commencement of monsoon. This quantity of grass was not in demand due to the availability of local grass at a cheaper rate than the imported one. Hence the entire quantity was sold to the Agricultural Development Officer, Buldhana, to avoid damage.

Floods from 1962 to 1968.—There were no heavy floods from 1962 to 1968 in this district and no damage on large scale was caused. There were also no cyclones in this district. However, there were hail storms in this district during 1967-68.

Hail Storm.—Hail storms of light intensity swept part of Mehkar tahsil in the last week of February, 1968 and Chikhli and Khamgaon tahsils in the first week of March 1968. Wheat and *bagayat* crops on 3,410 acres of land valued at Rs. 7,36,095 were damaged in 75 villages of these tahsils. The cultivators who suffered loss were granted *tagai* loans to the tune of Rs. 50,000.

Scarcity of 1965-66.—Only 53 millimetres of rainfall was received during June 1965 and this delayed the sowing operations and thereby sowing and germination of cotton and groundnut was affected. Regular monsoon commenced from 14th July 1965 and was fairly well spread till the end of August 1965. The monsoon, however, withdrew from the month of September during which only 28 millimetres of rain was received in the district. There was no rainfall at all during the month of October 1965.

This resulted in the failure of crops and consequent un-employment amongst the agricultural labourers. Naturally test scarcity works to provide employment to agricultural labourers were started.

Area and population effected.—The existence of scarcity conditions in 1,291 villages out of 1,362 villages was declared by the Government. Out of a total population of 10,59,689, 9,28,620 people were affected. They were mostly agriculturists and agricultural labourers. The degree of distress was very acute because there was almost no work for agricultural labourers from the month of September 1965.

Cause of Scarcity.—The cause of the scarcity was withdrawal of monsoon from the month of September, 1965, and failure of rains during October, 1965. The average outturn of this district was below 4 annas. 569 villages had *annevari* below 4 annas and in 722 villages the *annevari* was between 4 and 6 annas. There were no cases of death or migration due to conditions of scarcity. Details of relief measures taken by Government, public and private bodies were as follows—

Relief Measures.—Scarcity Works: The scarcity works taken up were as under:—

Name of work (1)	No. of labourers employed on each day (2)	Expenditure incurred (3)
		Rs.
(1) 17 road works	5,669	87,001
(2) Repairs to Shegaon tank	735	62,293
(3) Construction of tank at Vazar	285	3,571
(4) Excavation of earth and silt from square well at Mehkar.	283	4,950
(5) 3-metal breaking camps i.e., Morgaon Digras, Mohidipur and Pimpri Deshmukh.	2,115	6,78,080
Total ..	9,087	8,35,895
Normal Departmental Works		
(1) Soil conservation works	27,591	46,58,301
(2) Construction of 9 irrigation tanks	2,853	4,75,018
(3) Zilla Parishad works	14,000	29,15,467
(4) Dnyanganga River project in Khamgaon tahsil	800	4,86,458
Total ..	45,244	85,35,244
Grand Total ..	54,331	93,71,139

Distribution of Cash doles: An amount of Rs. 30,000 for distribution of gratuitous relief and for improved water-supply was received. A sum of Rs. 14,684 was distributed as gratuitous relief to the persons eligible under paragraph 155 of Bombay Scarcity Manual (Draft) and Rs. 2,635 were distributed for improvement of water-supply. On receipt of Government orders that gratuitous relief should be distributed in kind in full, gratuitous relief was given in the shape of wheat *atta*. The total quantity distributed was 35 tonnes of wheat and 40 tonnes of wheat *atta*. Government also supplied 243 tonnes and 733 kg of skim milk powder for distribution to children between the age-group 0—14 and to nursing

and expectant mothers. Similarly, 33,000 vitamin tablets received from the Indian Red Cross Society were distributed to the above category of persons. Nine cartons of macaroni were received for distribution to the labourers on the metal breaking camps and tank works. The stock of 22 tonnes of dried peas, 286 tonnes of wheat, 90 tonnes of wheat *atta* was also received for distribution in this scarcity area. 390 bags of Russian biscuits were also distributed to the children in the age-group of 0—14 years.

Consequent on the failure of crops, an amount of Rs. 55.00 lakhs was distributed by the Revenue Department by way of *taccavi* to the eligible persons. Similarly, in order to give a fillip to the *rabi* campaign, an amount of Rs. 49,43,395 was distributed by the Land Mortgage and Co-operative Central Banks for construction and repairs to wells and for lift irrigation. The Zilla Parishad, Buldhana, also supplied 323 oil engines and 14 motor pumps to help *rabi* crop campaign. As a result of the intensive drive launched an additional area of 42,000 acres was brought under the special *rabi* crop campaign and the yield derived from this area proved very encouraging.

On account of failure of crops, the question of granting relief in the matter of repayment of Government dues was also taken up and the following concessions were granted to the cultivators:—

Land Revenue		Rs.
Full suspension		14,36,705.46
$\frac{1}{2}$ suspension		4,84,757.10
Re-suspension		1,99,527.34
Taccavi		
Ordinary taccavi loans		14,26,490.00

Distribution of free food, clothing, fodder, seed and cattle etc. : In addition to above, the Forest department opened cattle camps at 8 places in the district. The Forest department further extended concession of free grazing to the agriculturists on account of failure of crops. Adequate supplies of grazing grass to the extent of 500 tonnes was ensured and an amount of Rs. 4,800 was also distributed by way of fodder *taccavi* in kind to the cultivators. Five water tankers were also supplied for carrying drinking water from water sources to the villages.

Scarcity of 1967-68.— During the year 1967-68 scarcity condition was declared in 102 villages of Malkapur tahsil and 77 villages of Khamgaon tahsil. The number of persons affected by scarcity was 41,656 and 1,12,095 in Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils, respectively.

Five Scarcity road works were taken up to provide employment to the labourers.

Distribution of gift articles.—The following gifts were received and distributed to affected persons:—

Beans ..	14 tonnes, 860 kg.
Dried peas ..	24 tonnes

1968-69 and 1969-70.—There were conditions akin to scarcity in 151 villages of Malkapur tahsil in 1968-69 and 1969-70. Government declared full suspension in land revenue in 12 villages of the tahsil. However, no special measures were taken as the scarcity was not acute. The loss to crops was estimated at about Rs. 21,843. Three villages in Chikhli tahsil were affected by floods during the same years. Floods affected 2,822 families, and the loss due to the flood included cattle, houses, shops, school buildings, etc.

1970-71.—Conditions of acute scarcity prevailed in 1970-71 due to scarcity of rains. The estimated loss due to failure of crops was 10,59,698 persons. The estimated loss due to failure of crops was to the tune of Rs. 5.87 crores. As a part of famine relief, 243 relief works were undertaken which provided employment to 27,076 persons per day. The total expenditure incurred by Government on the relief works was Rs. 18,85,187. The concession of full suspension of land revenue was granted to 1,363 villages and *tagai* loans amounting to Rs. 8,91,570 were distributed under the Agriculturists Loans Act.

1971-72.—During the year 1971-72, the condition of famine and scarcity was declared in 1,363 villages which were distributed as under: Jalgaon 214, Malkapur 278, Khamgaon 231, Chikhli 289 and Mehkar 351. The population affected was 10,59,698. The number of relief works undertaken was 973 and the expenditure incurred on the same was Rs. 2,24,72,914. The concession of full suspension in land revenue was granted to 655 villages, and *tagai* amounting to Rs. 69,90,000 was distributed under Agriculturists Loans Act.

1972-73.—During 1972-73, the condition of famine and scarcity was declared in 1,250 villages in the district which were distributed as under: Chikhli 289, Malkapur 243, Jalgaon 139, Khamgaon 228 and Mehkar 251. The famine affected 11,30,973 persons. About 941 relief works were undertaken and 1,22,999 persons were employed in them. The expenditure incurred on them was Rs. 1,93,70,276. The concession of full suspension in land revenue was granted to 975 villages.

Locusts during 1960.—The first batch of the locust swarm made its entry in Jalgaon tahsil of this district in the afternoon of 27th September 1960 and left this district in the forenoon of 29th September 1960 after affecting three tahsils, viz., Jalgaon, Khamgaon and Mehkar. The swarm had settled on the night of 27th at village Parkhed and other adjoining villages of Khamgaon tahsil. On the night of 28th September 1960 the swarm had settled at village Sultanpur and its vicinity in Mehkar tahsil. On the following morning that is on 29th September 1960 the swarm left Buldhana district making its entry in Partur tahsil of Parbhani district. The second batch of the swarm entered Buldhana

district on 3rd October 1960 and settled in villages Dahegaon, Chinchkhed and Wadji of Malkapur tahsil. After crossing a distance of about 40 miles, the swarm took shelter in 'C' class forests of Kawadgaon in Khamgaon tahsil on the night of 4th October 1960. The batch left Buldhana district in the afternoon of 5th October 1960 and headed towards Akola district. The third batch like the second one arrived from the direction of Bodwad in Jalgaon district and settled on the night of 5th October 1960 in villages Sindkhed, Lapali and Ridhora of Malkapur tahsil. In the forenoon of 6th October 1960, it proceeded towards east and settled during the night after crossing a distance of about 20 miles at Taroda in 'A' class forest in Malkapur tahsil. This batch had three more night halts in this district, one at Harni forest in Chikhli tahsil on the night of 7th October 1960 and two consecutive halts at villages Ghatbori, Iswi and Gohegaon of Mehkar tahsil on the nights of 8th and 9th October 1960, respectively. In the afternoon of 10th October 1960 the swarm entered Washim tahsil and was divided into two batches.

The fourth batch which was a part of the swarm which had entered Washim tahsil came back from Chikhli, Kolwad and Wanoja side of Washim tahsil and settled during the night of 13th October 1960 in the villages of Hirdao, Ardao and Wadao towards the west of Lonar, Deulgaon, Pangra and Ambhora of Mehkar tahsil. It left Buldhana district in the forenoon of 14th October 1960. There was no further entry of any locust swarm in this district.

Area and Population affected: Locust swarm appeared in all the five tahsils, viz., Jalgaon, Khamgaon, Malkapur, Chikhli and Mehkar of Buldhana district. They passed over 177 villages in the district and rested and settled at twelve places in the district. The area from 177 villages was partially affected. Crops over an area of 11,631 acres were damaged as shown below:—

Tahsil	Crop affected							Area affected in acres
(1)	(2)							(3)
Jalgaon	..	..	Cotton	..	..	..	..	800
			Tur	..	..	..	..	94
Khamgaon	..	..	Cotton	..	..	..	..	1,212
			Tur	..	..	..	..	185
			Chillies	..	..	..	..	5
Malkapur	..	..	Cotton	..	..	..	..	144
			Tur	..	..	..	..	40
Mehkar	..	..	Cotton	..	..	..	..	8,090
			Tur	..	..	..	..	873
			Chillies	..	..	..	..	22
			Jowar	..	..	..	..	143
Chikhli	..	..	Cotton	..	..	..	..	5
			Tur	..	..	..	..	18
Total							..	11,631

Relief Measures: The first measure taken was of wide publicity and of alerting the people in the district by issue of leaf-lets containing suitable instructions and by propaganda on the loud-speakers in the area threatened by locust invasion. The entire Government machinery dealing with publicity and propaganda was utilised for this purpose and every care was taken to see that all villages in the district know about the locust invasion and become conversant with the indigent measures like creating smoke, beating drums and burning by *mashals* to combat the locust menace.

The entire Government machinery was mobilised and jeeps and other vehicles were requisitioned for swift movement of the equipment and locust fighting squads from place to place.

The squad consisting of about 150 persons was organised including the gramsevak, trainees of the Gramsevak's Training Centre, Patwari Training Centre, officials of the Agriculture department, mechanics trained in handling the power dusters and officers of the Agricultural and Revenue departments. The squad was headed by the District Agricultural Officer and one Executive Officer of the rank of Deputy Collector.

The dusting equipments available in the district were pooled and some power equipments were obtained from the Plant Protection Officer, Amravati, and some were taken on loan from the Collector, Jalgaon. The district squad had in its possession 110 hand dusters, 10 power dusters, two of which were of a major size which could be used by mounting them on open jeeps or bullock carts. There were four flame throwers also. Adequate stocks of B.H.C. 10% were built up.

Dusting was a common measure adopted at all the places wherever the swarm had settled in the district. No batch of locust was allowed to rest without effective dusting with 10% B.H.C. Making smoke and burning of the locust by *mashals* were also commonly used in all the places visited by the locusts. There was not a single stoppage of the locusts which was not attacked by the district squad by power dusters, hand dusters and other indigenous methods. In addition to the above ground operations which consisted both of mechanical and chemical methods, an air-craft of the Central Government was also utilised for aerial spraying for killing the swarms in areas round about Motala and Dhamangaon in Malkapur tahsil and near Dongaon in Mehkar tahsil.

Full co-operation was rendered by the general public in fighting the locust menace. Measures like making smoke, using *mashals* and beating of drums were primarily undertaken by the villagers and the general public.

Field to field enquiry was made in order to assess the extent of damage caused by the locusts. *Tagai* loans were distributed to the deserving persons as an immediate relief.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION

Agronomic research and education are of prime importance in any scheme for the development of the agricultural economy. Intensive cultivation, which is an integral part of the strategy of agricultural planning, depends upon research and propaganda in respect of scientific methods of cultivation, crop rotation and protection of crops from pests and diseases. Considerable progress has been made in the field of agricultural research and education in the district and the agricultural class has benefited by the research and education facilities provided by Government.

The Government conducts a research station at Buldhana, which was established in 1928. It is known as 'Government Farm, Buldhana'. The experimental farm extends over an area of 196.30 acres. Nearly 128 acres are under cultivation every year. In 1968-69 an additional area of 10 acres was brought under cultivation. Research is conducted on this farm in evolving new varieties of cotton, chillis, groundnut and sugarcane. The total area under this farm now is 211.70 acres. Various agronomic and other experiments are also carried out on this farm.

The pattern of crops at this farm in the year 1968-69 was as under :—

Serial No. (1)	Name of crop (2)	Area in acres (3)
1	Cotton AK-277 (Nucleus and Foundation)	21.40
2	Groundnut AK-12-24	29.50
3	Jowar NJ-156	28.27
4	Hybrid jowar (seed production)	2.00
5	Other crops, green manuring and wheat	31.33
6	Paddy T. N. 1	1.50
7	Cotton research	15.63
	Total	129.63

The farm produce (major crops) of 1967-68 was as under :—

Serial No. (1)	Name of crop (2)	Area in acres (3)	Quantity in Kgs. (4)
1	Cotton seed AK-277 (self)	4.00	155
2	Do. (unself)	2.00	223
3	Do. (foundation)	14.00	645
4	Do. Buri-147 (foundation)	10.00	790
5	Jowar NJ-156	24.00	11,947
6	Groundnut AK-12-24 pods	23.00	8,455
7	Wheat N-59	13.00	3,193

The seed produced is distributed to the Taluka Seed Farms for sowing.

In addition to crops raised for multiplication of seeds nearly 10 agronomic experiments on different crops, like hybrid jowar, groundnut, jowar, etc., are carried at the Farm. Separate Arboreum Cotton Breeding Sub-Centre is also working at this Research Station which conducts different experiments on *deshi* cotton.

There is no well at this Research Station and hence water is made available from the tank of the Municipality, Buldhana. All possible efforts are being made to extend irrigation facilities to the Research Station.

It is proposed to start one power gin at this Research Station. The cotton produce of the farm and cotton from other farms will be ginned at this Research Station.

Suitability of new varieties of the crops evolved by the Department of Agriculture is experimented on this farm before they are released for distribution to the farmers.

Seed Multiplication.—With a view to providing better seeds to farmers in the district and to covering the entire area under improved varieties, the Government had established nine taluka seed multiplication farms in the district during the Second Five-Year Plan. They are located at Malkapur, Nandura, Shegaon, Pimpalgaon Raja, Asalgaon, Warwat, Khanderao, Shelsoor, Deulgaon Mahi and Sindkhed Raja. Seed multiplication work is confined mainly to crops like cotton, jowar, groundnut, wheat, maize and gram. The nucleus seed produced at these research centres is multiplied on these farms and is then released to the cultivators.

There is one Trial-cum-Demonstration Farm at Shelapur, which was established on 25th February 1965 as a result of the irrigation facilities available there under the Nalganga project. The total area under this farm is 50 acres, of which an area of 21.60 acres is under Nalganga project. The object of establishing this trial-cum-demonstration farm is to conduct and demonstrate suitable trials under irrigation and to develop a new pattern of cropping for the area under the command of the project. Demonstrations are also conducted to exhibit the irrigation methods, improved package practices of cultivation of irrigated crops and introduction of new crops. Trials are conducted to assess the water requirement of different crops to find out the second crop that could be taken after the irrigated crop and also to know the fertilizer requirements of crops.

The farm area is divided into three units. The first is an un-irrigated unit of 6.00 acres. The object of this unit is to study suitable pattern of cropping under dry conditions. The second unit is a seasonal irrigated unit of 9 acres. The object of this unit is to study the suitable two seasonal patterns of cropping i.e., *kharif* followed by *rabi* in the same year under irrigation as also the conditions under which it is required. The third one is a perennial irrigation unit of 6 acres. The object of this unit is to study the suitable seasonal pattern of cropping under perennial irrigation.

Gramsevak Training Centre.—The Basic Agriculture School, Buldhana, which was established on 1st April 1958, was later on converted into the integrated Gramsevak Training Centre on 16th June 1959.

In the beginning, direct recruitment of candidates was made for 2 years integrated course and the 1st batch of trainees was admitted in October, 1959. Since November 1962, only one year condensed course was conducted for which the Zilla Parishad, Buldhana deputed its assistant gramsevaks, gramsahayaks, patwaris, etc., up to 1964-65. Since 1965 till 1967 there were batches of two months refresher training courses for gramsevaks at this centre and 10 batches each having 40 trainees up to 6th October, 1967. From 5th January 1968, six months course for assistant gramsevaks was started and 37 assistant gramsahayaks were also imparted training in this institution up to 4th July 1968. The trainees from Akola, Buldhana and Yeotmal districts attended the courses.

The training at this centre is imparted in three aspects viz., (1) class room study, (2) practicals in camps and (3) field practicals arranged at Gramsevak Training Centre, Poultry Farm, Government Station Garden, Veterinary Hospitals, and at the following selected five villages of Sagwan, Kotwad, Hatadi Bk., Hatadi Kh. and Chikhli for intensive development.

There are 10 youth clubs attached to this centre located at Bargaon Kakade, Hatedi, Sawargaon Dukare, Kolwad and Satgaon Mahsala, where work of village uplift is carried out.

The training centre pays the trainees a stipend of Rs. 50 per month and free accommodation in the hostel.

The centre maintains a good library where text books in English and Marathi, magazines, journals and periodicals on all the technical subjects in which training is imparted are made available. Similarly, various kinds of audio-visual aids with projector and films are also provided by the centre.

Applied Nutrition Programme.—The applied Nutrition Programme Scheme was inaugurated during the year 1966-67 with the help of UNICEF. The object is to produce seeds and seedlings of main vegetables and to supply the same to school and community gardens selected in Applied Nutrition blocks in the Vidarbha region.

During the year 1966-67 an area of 3 acres and 13 *gunthas* in Station Garden, Buldhana was cultivated for the production of the main *kharif* and *rabi* vegetables viz., *bhendi*, tomato, cucumber, brinjal, *palak*, cauliflower, cabbage, etc. About 94,400 kg. of vegetable seeds were produced and were distributed to the school and community gardens in the Vidarbha region free of cost.

During the year 1967-68, seven acres of additional land was brought under cultivation for the production of seeds and seedlings of the main vegetables.

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES

INTRODUCTION

THE CENTRAL OBJECTIVE OF PUBLIC POLICY IN INDIA SINCE INDEPENDENCE has been the promotion of rapid and balanced economic development. What is applicable in a larger perspective to the country as a whole is equally true of a region or a part thereof. The two aspects of a district economy, *viz.*, industrial and agricultural, therefore, must complement each other rather than compete. This chapter deals with the industries in the district, the growth of which depends upon the agricultural conditions of the district.

Industrialisation of the district is both a consequence of higher incomes and a means to higher productivity. It is a consequence of higher incomes in the sense that higher incomes of the people lead to increase in the spending potential of the people on manufactured goods and services and relatively less on food, which leads to a larger demand for manufactured goods and this finally leads to an expansion in the industrial complex. It is a means to higher productivity in the sense that it shifts surplus population from agriculture thereby enabling agricultural efficiency to increase, which finally leads to higher productivity.

The First Five-Year Plan was agriculture oriented, and laid the foundation of a progressive economy. The Second Five-Year Plan was implemented with the intention to secure a more rapid growth of the district economy not only in production, but in creating a greater capability to produce. The Third Five-Year Plan also helped to produce the same result, intended in the previous Plan. Its objectives were a sizeable increase in the national income, rapid industrialisation, an expansion of employment opportunities and reduction of inequalities in income and wealth.

The rapid industrialisation leads to an increase in the district income as also expansion of employment opportunities. The people engaged in agricultural production suffer from disguised unemployment but this drawback could be removed with the development of small-scale and cottage industries of the district. However, the district money incomes which are generated in the process of production must flow in such a way as to maintain a balance between demand and supply of consumer goods, between savings and investment and between receipts and payments abroad.

The industrial growth of a particular region mainly depends upon three factors, viz., land, labour and capital, as also the other supplementaries such as raw-materials, skill and efficiency of labour, means of transport and communications, supply of electricity and marketing conditions. Even the non-availability of one of these factors may be responsible for slowing down or stopping of the industrial development of a district.

As the district is not self-sufficient as regards the above noted factors, it is not an industrialised one. Industries of the district account only for a small proportion of the total employment. Labour is not that much skilled so as to accentuate production. The other factors like transport, electricity, and marketing conditions are also not fully developed in the district where is also felt the dearth of organisational ability.

It may be noted that financial assistance for creation of fixed assets and working capital is one of the major instruments for promotion of industries. Financial assistance is granted by the following agencies for the purpose indicated against them:—

Serial No. (1)	Agency (2)	Purpose (3)
1	The Directorate of Industries under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1960.	Working and Fixed assets.
2	The Maharashtra State Financial Corporation	
3	The State Bank of India and Commercial Banks under the Reserve Bank of India Guarantee Scheme.	Working Capital.
4	The State Industries and Investment Corporation of Maharashtra (SICOM).	Share Capital.
5	The Maharashtra Small Scale Industries Development Corporation Ltd. (MSSIDC).	

The different agencies also help in the scheme of hire purchase of machinery in providing import licences for raw-materials, in boosting up export and in establishing organizations for marketing of products of small-scale industries of the district.¹

The Bombay-Nagpur broad-gauge line of the Central Railway traverses the district from west to east over a length of 44.56 miles. From Jalamb station on this line a branch line of the broad-gauge section runs to Khamgaon.

The district is well-connected by roads with the adjoining districts of Jalgaon, Aurangabad, Parbhani and Akola. The district headquarters is also well-connected by roads with all the tahsil headquarters. The Satpuda ranges stretch to the north in Jalgaon tahsil, and the Ajantahas towards the south in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils. Many important places in the district are situated on the plateaus. Roads are, therefore, fewer in almost all

¹Details available in chapter 13 of the same District Gazetteer.

parts of the district. The Surat-Jalgaon-Malkapur-Khamgaon-Nagpur National Highway passes through the district for a length of 66.54 miles.

However, the district cannot be regarded as an industrialised one and the proportion of labour employed in industries forms a small part of the total employment of the district. In 1901,¹ the district was almost agricultural, more than 74 per cent of the population being engaged in agricultural and allied occupations. Though cotton was considered an important product of the district there was not a single cotton mill, but a number of ginning and pressing factories preparing the raw products for export. The district contained rural industries such as manufacturing of *khans* (cloth for making *cholis* or *parkar*), *newar* (tape), *tadhao* (stout carpet), *jhul* (body cloth of bullocks), *namda* (a sort of coarse woollen stuff), agricultural implements, glass bangles, etc., but the industrial survey which was conducted in 1908, showed that, they were almost losing ground as they were not able to face the competition of machine made articles. Generally, the industries were hereditary and continued from generation to generation. This conservative instinct prevented a greater exodus to other occupations. The silk industry had disappeared from the district altogether and the only industry which flourished was that of goldsmiths. In 1897, there were 1,339 cotton looms in the district, but the number decreased in the later years. Before the advent of railway, production from the raw stage to that of the manufactured stage was carried out in the district in regard to handlooms but with the availability of railway transport, the district imported spun threads from outside. The cotton ginning and pressing factories ranked first in the district and they numbered 65 (44 ginning factories, 21 pressing factories).

As per the 1931 Census of the Central Provinces, cotton covered 44.0 per cent of the gross cultivated area of the district. The cotton loom during the first triennium after 1921, and the Swadeshi and the Boycott movement led to the establishment of a number of ginning and pressing factories.

Though the bidi factories were the most important of the unregulated establishments of the Central Provinces, this district had only 5 bidi factories as per the 1931 Census. One bidi factory employed 71 workers. These workers included 20 men, 46 women and 5 children under the age of 15. The other four factories employed less than 50 persons. The employment figures show that a large number of women and children were engaged in the factories. However, no special facilities were provided for women and children.

In 1901, the number of *Telis* accounted for 2 per cent of the total population. The number of oil presses in the district in

¹Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana District—Vol. A., 1910 pp. 247—51

1897 was 867, which decreased to 257 in 1908. Oil was manufactured from *til*, safflower, linseed, niger-seed, *mahua*, groundnut and castor seed. The oil was locally consumed and the oil-cakes were served as food for cattle. Out of the total, only one oil mill at Shegaon utilised steam as its motive power.

The building up of a co-operative sector as part of the scheme of planned economic development is one of the important aims of national policy.

As a result of the implementation of the above scheme in the district, 26 industrial co-operative societies were established at the beginning of 1959.

In 1965-66 there were 44 industrial co-operative societies other than handloom weavers' societies.

Under 'Industries' programme of Third Five-Year Plan an expenditure of Rs. 14,327 for industrial co-operatives (including co-operatives of handicraft workers) and of Rs. 76,773 for development of handloom weavers' co-operatives was incurred.

There are proposals to set up new industrial estates at Shegaon and Khamgaon initially on co-operative lines in the district.

The growth of industries in the district can be vividly seen from the opportunities, industries provide to the population of the district. The tables that follow show the number of persons engaged in different industries as per 1951 and 1961 Censuses. The tables show that an increasing number of workers has been engaged in every industry in 1961 as compared to 1951 figures, except in mining and quarrying, where the percentage decrease amounts to about 60.12.

The table No. 3 shows tahsilwise distribution of workers in nine categories of economic activities as per the 1961 Census.

The proportion of cultivators as well as agricultural labourers differs considerably from tahsil to tahsil. The proportion of cultivators varies from 35.23 per cent for Khamgaon tahsil to 49.21 per cent for Chikhli tahsil. Similarly the proportion of agricultural labourers varies from 35.91 per cent in Chikhli tahsil to 51.72 per cent in Jalgaon tahsil. Such wide variations within the district can be ascribed to the differences in fertility of soils under the resulting cropping and land holding patterns. Only 3.25 per cent of workers are in household industry in Chikhli tahsil which is incidentally the highest percentage among all tahsils. In Khamgaon tahsil 3.91 per cent of workers are engaged in manufacturing other than household industry. The highest percentage of workers (2.10 per cent) engaged in construction is found in Malkapur tahsil, which is higher than the State average of 1.24 per cent probably due to the construction works under way. Higher percentage than State average is also seen in Khamgaon tahsil in trade and commerce. On the other hand in Khamgaon tahsil the percentage of workers engaged in other services is lower than the State average (7.89 per cent.).¹

¹ District Census Handbook, Buldhana District, 1961.

TABLE No. 1

NUMBER OF PERSONS DERIVING THEIR LIVELIHOOD FROM INDUSTRIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT AS PER 1951 CENSUS

No. (1)	Industries (2)	Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)
1	Fishing	180	161	19
2	Mining and Quarrying	403	395	8
3	Stone-quarrying, clay and Sand Pits	379	371	8
4	Processing and manufacture—Food-stuffs, Textiles, Leather and Products thereof.	7,860	7,044	816
5	Food Industries otherwise unclassified	403	388	15
6	Vegetable oils and Dairy Products	861	787	74
7	Tobacco	127	117	10
8	Cotton Textiles	2,904	2,506	398
9	Wearing apparel (except foot-wear) and made-up textile goods.	1,534	1,425	109
10	Textile Industries otherwise unclassified	174	146	28
11	Leather, leather products and foot-wear	1,284	1,200	84
12	Processing and Manufacture—Metals, Chemicals and products thereof.	1,054	996	58
13	Transport Equipment	158	156	2
14	Electrical Machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies.	2	2	..
15	Basic Industrial Chemicals, Fertilisers and Power Alcohol.	33	22	11
16	Bricks, tiles and other structural clay Products	184	174	10
17	Non-metallic mineral Products	1,348	1,239	109
18	Wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures.	3,320	3,185	135
19	Furniture and Fixtures	1	1	..
20	Printing and Allied Industries	116	110	6

TABLE No. 2

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1961.

Classification of Industry (1)	Total Workers				Worker in household Industry		Worker in non-household Industry	
	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)		Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)
1. <i>Mining and Quarrying</i>	160	129	31		..	9	129	22
1-1 Quarrying of stone (including slate), clay, sand, gravel, limestone								
2. <i>Food-stuffs</i>	23,422	18,934	4,488		10,411	3,418	8,523	1,070
2-1 Production of rice, atta, flour, etc., by milling, de-husking and processing of crops and foodgrains.	805	786	19		136	1	650	18
2-2 Slaughtering, preservation of meat and fish and canning of fish	375	363	12		36	..	327	12
2-3 Production of edible fats and oils (other than hydrogenated oil)	595	497	98		127	62	370	36
2-4 Production of other food products such as sweet-meat and condiments, muri, chira, murkhi, kholi, cocoa, chocolate, toffee, lozenge.	662	467	195		352	160	115	35
3. <i>Tobacco Products</i>	171	163	8		15	7	148	1
3-1 Manufacture of bidi	162	155	7		7	6	148	1
4. <i>Textile—Cotton</i>	3,484	1,910	1,574		501	893	1,409	681
4-1 Cotton ginning, cleaning, pressing and baling	2,049	1,358	691		1	20	1,357	671

4-2 Cotton spinning (other than in mills)	415	53	362	51	357	2	5
4-3 Cotton weaving in handlooms	866	367	499	355	497	12	2
5. <i>Textile—Jute</i>	423	280	143	234	136	46	7
5-1 Manufacture of other products like rope, cordage from jute and similar fibre such as hemp, mesta.	406	273	133	227	126	46	7
6. <i>Textile—Wool</i>	74	53	21	43	21	10	..
7. <i>Textile—Miscellaneous</i>	3,667	3,286	381	1,577	278	1,709	103
7-1 Making of textile garments including raincoats and headgear ..	3,428	3,108	320	1,522	230	1,586	90
8. <i>Manufacture of wood and wooden products</i>	4,956	4,098	858	2,987	852	1,111	6
8-1 Manufacture of wooden furniture and fixtures	2,022	1,997	25	1,321	24	676	1
8-2 Manufacture of structural wooden goods (including treated timber) such as beams, posts, doors, windows.	1,173	1,172	1	985	1	187	..
8-3 Manufacture of materials from cork, bamboo, cane, leaves and other allied products	1,475	656	819	638	814	18	5
9. <i>Printing and Publishing</i>	204	203	1	1	..	202	1
10. <i>Leather and Leather Products</i>	2,158	2,077	81	1,702	73	375	8
10-1 Manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear	1,855	1,783	72	1,541	68	242	4
10-2 Repair of shoes and other leather footwear	209	205	4	79	2	126	2
11. <i>Chemicals and Chemical Products</i>	149	126	23	32	12	94	11
12. <i>Non-metallic Mineral Products other than Petroleum and Coal</i> ..	2,400	1,594	806	1,068	681	526	125
12-1 Manufacture of structural clay products such as bricks, tiles ..	310	232	78	109	48	123	30

TABLE No. 2—contd.

Classification of Industry (1)	Total Workers			Worker in household Industry		Worker in non-household Industry	
	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)
12-2 Manufacture of structural stone goods, stone dressing and stone crushing.	653	571	82	215	23	356	59
12-3 Manufacture of earthenware and earthen pottery	1,310	726	584	704	579	22	5
13. <i>Basic Metals and their Products except Machinery and transport equipment.</i>	1,783	1,560	223	1,026	199	534	24
13-1 Enamelling, galvanising, plating (including electroplating), polishing and welding of metal products	326	312	14	112	6	200	8
13-2 Manufacture of sundry hardware such as G-I pipe, wire net, bolt, screw, bucket, cutlery.	1,329	1,124	205	857	189	267	16
14. <i>Machinery (All kinds other than Transport and Electrical Equipment).</i>	101	101	..	6	..	95	..
15. <i>Transport Equipment</i>	325	325	..	42	..	283	..
16. <i>Miscellaneous Manufacturing Industries</i>	834	823	11	474	10	349	1
16-1 Manufacture of jewellery, silverware and wares using gold and other precious metals.	695	686	9	455	9	231	..

INDUSTRIES

TABLE No. 3

TAHSILWISE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1961

State/District/Tahsil (1)	Cultivator (2)	Agricul- tural Labourer (3)	Mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, etc. (4)	House- hold Industry (5)	Manu- facturing other than House- hold Industry (6)	Construc- tion (7)	Trade and Commerce (8)	Transport, Storage and Communi- cations (9)	Other Services (10)	Total (11)
Maharashtra	46.11	23.80	2.16	4.39	6.88	1.24	4.52	2.36	8.54	100.00
Buldhana District	42.52	42.02	0.87	2.84	1.77	0.89	2.87	0.73	5.49	100.00
1. Jalgaon Tahsil	36.79	51.72	1.55	2.47	0.79	0.47	1.90	0.19	4.12	100.00
2. Malkapur Tahsil	38.74	43.41	1.06	2.88	1.82	2.10	3.17	0.84	5.98	100.00
3. Khargone Tahsil	35.23	42.37	1.10	2.48	3.91	0.77	4.55	1.70	7.89	100.00
4. Chikhli Tahsil	49.21	35.91	0.54	3.25	1.33	0.62	2.81	0.62	5.71	100.00
5. Mehkar Tahsil	47.04	42.64	0.57	2.81	0.96	0.37	1.81	0.22	3.58	100.00

INTRODUCTION

Besides giving the general review of the industrial development in the district with particular regard to government policy towards it, the chapter also describes particular industries. The chapter is divided into three sections viz., (i) Large and small-scale industries—mechanised industries, (ii) Cottage and village industries, (iii) Labour organizations and labour welfare activities.

The following statement* shows the decrease in the district employment in factories :—

Industry (1)	Year (2)	No. of man days worked during the year (3)	Average daily number of workers employed		
			Men (4)	Women (5)	Total (6)
1. Cotton ginning and Baling ..	1963	6,02,072	2,593	1,613	4,206
	1964	4,55,405	2,168	1,464	3,832
2. Manufacture of Edible Oils (other than Hydrogenated oils.)	1963	62,122	267	71	338
	1964	4,913	11	6	17
3. Tobacco Manufacture ..	1963	31,928	104	..	104
	1964	32,025	105	..	105
4. Basic chemicals including Fertilizers.	1963	3,384	4	14	18
	1964	..	..	..	..
5. Basic Metal Industries ..	1963	9,553	41	..	41
	1964	24,360	84	..	84
6. Machinery (other than electrical)	1963	10,605	25	10	35
	1964	9,019	18	11	29
7. Other Industries not classified ..	1963	26,788	88	..	88
	1964	17,499	57	..	57
Total ..	1963	7,46,452	3,122	1,708	4,830
	1964	5,43,221	2,443	1,481	3,924

*Source—Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay,

LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES

There are 42 large-scale registered factories in the district, using power and employing 50 or more workers. Of the total number of large-scale factories 36 are cotton ginning and pressing factories.

In 1963, the district stood 5th in the division and 14th in the State in so far as the number of workers per lakh of population employed in registered factories was concerned. The following statement* presents the tahsilwise figures of the number of workers in registered factories per lakh of population in 1961 and 1966:—

Tahsil (1)	Number of workers employed in registered factories per lakh of population for the year		
	1961 (2)	1966 Data (3) Ranking (4)	
Jalgaon-Jamod	362	205	4
Malkapur	418	440	2
Khamgaon	1,316	767	1
Chikhli	208	84	5
Mehkar	84	435	3
District Total	487	391	..

*Source.—Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

The number of workers employed in registered factories per lakh of population for the year 1961 was 487 for the district as a whole. The number decreased in 1966, to 391. Khamgaon tahsil had the largest employment with 767 factory workers per lakh of population. On the other hand Chikhli had the lowest figure of employment with 84 persons per lakh of population in that year.

There are no authorised estimates available relating to industrial production in the district. However, the data collected in Annual Survey of Industries is 1966 reported 11 registered factories in 1966. The value added on manufacture by these factories amounted to Rs. 195 lakhs. The total employment in the 11 factories was 634 and the total productive capital was to the tune of Rs. 45,30,000 while the gross output of these factories amounted to Rs. 3,24,35,000.

Electricity Generation.—The consumption of electricity is cited as an index of economic development. The process of industrialisation of a district accumulates the speed, only with the help of power development and the extension of electricity to more rural and urban areas of the district. Electricity generation reduces the

period of production and wastage of energy of labourers. Now-a-days electricity is considered as an indispensable condition of living, as also an absolutely necessary factor for the growth of industries, especially in big cities. In fact, industrial planning and electricity planning must go hand in hand. The productive capacity of a hydro-electric system is governed by the available generating capacity of the plant and the quantity of effective water storage. It is argued that introduction of electrical plant in an area which is industrially backward, would lead to a gradual increase in the demand for electricity. This argument assumes that there is a certain amount of potential demand for electricity in the region and that this demand will become effective once the supply is available. But mere demand for electricity produced is not sufficient unless and until there is demand for the products which are to be produced with the use of electricity.

Centralization of industries leads to many social and economic problems. So, the electrification in small towns and rural areas is extremely important for decentralization of industries and for the progressive use of underground water resources for agriculture.

Khamgaon, a town with the highest population was the first to be electrified in March 1954 in the district. By the end of the First Five-Year Plan, five towns and one village were using electricity and the per capita consumption of electricity had risen from 14 to 25 units. By the end of 1957-58, all the towns and six villages were electrified. Besides, power was also utilised by small industrial units, cinema houses as also by allied commercial activities. Electricity was also made available for lift irrigation.

Electricity is generated with the use of diesel at Buldhana, Deulgaon Raja and Mehkar towns. Deulgaon Raja and Mehkar power houses were fitted with 3 generators, two of them of 75 KW and one of them of 28 KW capacity. These two power houses supplied power to these two towns only, while the power house at Buldhana which had three generators, 2 of them with 100 KW and with 70 KW capacity respectively supplied power to Buldhana and Chikhli towns and Kelwad (a village). Other towns, viz., Khamgaon, Shegaon, Malkapur, Nandura and Jalgaon were only receiving stations where supply from Khaparkheda Power Project was received. These towns also supplied some of the power to the nearest villages. But power generated by diesel was costly and the charges were higher as against the charge per unit for the power from Khaparkheda. After the reorganization of States in 1956, the Maharashtra State Electricity Board took over the supply of electricity in the district and 20 places from Khamgaon, Malkapur, and Jalgaon tahsils were covered under the Khaparkheda Electric Supply Scheme up to 1961. The Board also started diesel generating stations at Deulgaon Raja and Mehkar in 1957. From April 1961, the power supply to all the centres in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils is from Paras Thermal Station near Akola. Now there is an independent electricity

generation centre in the district. The number of villages electrified, has been gradually on the increase as a result of the implementation of the rural electrification programme. The following table shows the progress of the scheme of rural electrification:—

TABLE No. 4

NUMBER OF TOWNS AND VILLAGES ELECTRIFIED AND POPULATION COVERED IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Agency	Year ending	Villages		Towns		Total	
		Number	Population	Number	Population	Number	Population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Maharashtra State Electricity Board.	31-3-61	27	59,196	9	175,438	36	234,634
	31-3-66	133	239,686	9	175,438	142	415,124
Private Companies	31-3-61	..	..	..	..	..	..
	31-3-66	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	31-3-61	27	59,196	9	175,438	36	234,634
	31-3-66	133	239,686	9	175,438	142	415,124

Source.—Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

The table shows that the number of towns and villages electrified stood at 142, covering about 39 per cent of the population and about 10.11 per cent of the total number of towns and villages of the district.

Electricity consumption per million Kilowatts worked out to 77.90 and 148.34 during the years 1964-65 and 1965-66 respectively. About 52 per cent of electricity was consumed for industrial purposes during 1965-66, as against 37 per cent during 1964-65. Electricity consumed for domestic purposes was about 22 per cent during 1965-66, as against 12 per cent during 1964-65.

Table No. 5 shows the generation and consumption of electricity in Buldhana district.

TABLE No. 5
GENERATION AND CONSUMPTION OF ELECTRICITY IN BULDHANA DISTRICT (IN '000 K. W.)

Type of Generation	Year	Electricity Generation			Electricity Sold For					
		Installed Capacity	Generated	Purchased	Domestic consumption	Commercial light and small power	Industrial power	Public lighting	Other purposes	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Thermal	1964-65*	Nil	Nil	Nil	1,684	1,217	5,328	694	1,872	10,795
	1965-66	Nil	Nil	Nil	1,935	1,320	7,388	773	3,418	14,834
Hydro	1964-65	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	1965-66	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
Other	1964-65	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
	1965-66	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
Total	1964-65	Nil	Nil	Nil	1,684	1,217	5,328	694	1,872	10,795
	1965-66	Nil	Nil	Nil	1,935	1,320	7,388	773	3,418	14,834

Source.—Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.
•Revised.

The district ranked 7th in Nagpur Division and 18th in Maharashtra on the basis of the number of establishments (manufacturing and repairs) using electricity in 1961. The maximum number of villages electrified as on 31-3-65 was in Jalgaon tahsil followed by Malkapur, Khamgaon, Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils.

The percentage increase in 1965-66 over that of 1964-65 was 14.9 as regards domestic consumption, 8.5 as regards commercial light and small power, 38.7 in the case of industrial power, 11.4 in public lighting and 82.6 as regards other purposes. The total consumption during 1965-66 increased by 37.4 per cent.

Textiles.—Cotton: The area under cotton in this district in 1907-08 was 661,637 acres. In 1872 cotton occupied 22 per cent of the total cropped area in the district, whereas it moved to 43 per cent in 1907-1908. The gradual increase in the material prosperity of the people is evident in the cotton-growing districts and was due to two factors, one natural and the other economic viz., seasons of light rainfall favourable to cotton coupled with rise in prices. Naturally, production of cotton became more profitable than the production of any other food or non-food crop grown in the district.

The area under cotton showed an increase in 1964-65 over that in 1960-61, and the increase was to the tune of 10.47 per cent. The outturn of cotton however decreased during 1964-65 as compared to that of 1960-61, the decrease being to the tune of 7 per cent.

Thus the substantial availability of raw-cotton in the district, led to the establishment of a number of textile units in the district. Most of the units had, however, been established well before two decades. These large-scale units are mostly confined to cotton ginning and pressing and a few of them combine ginning and pressing with oil milling.

In what follows is an account of the cotton ginning and pressing factories in the district. The old Gazetteer of Buldhana has the following to say about the ginning and pressing units in the district.

"Prior to the introduction of steam power, cotton was invariably separated from its seed by means of a hand gin. These hand gins numbered 13,839 in 1897, but the growth of ginning factories has since reduced the number considerably, there being only 1,605 in 1908. Cultivators still however prefer for sowing purposes the seed that has been separated by the hand gin. The first cotton press was set up at Shegaon in 1868 by the Mofussil Company with a capital of Rs. 10 lakhs and the same company opened another press at Khamgaon in 1872. The Cotton Press Company in 1871, and the New French Company in 1873, opened presses at Khamgaon and Ralli Brothers did the same at Shegaon in 1873. The number of factories then remained

unchanged till the end of 1886. In the next four years the number gradually increased to 12, and by 1900, it had reached 24. A great development took place in the next seven years, not less than 41 factories being erected. The following table shows the factories according to talukas as they stand at present:—

Taluka (1)	Number of	
	Ginning Factories (2)	Pressing Factories (3)
Chikhli	3	..
Mehkar	3	..
Malkapur	11	6
Khamgaon	20	13
Jalgaon	7	2
Total	44	21

Of these 65 factories, 60 fall within the scope of Factory Act. Their collective capital is not known accurately, but it is estimated to be almost a crore of rupees. During the three years 1905—07, each factory worked on an average 80 days in the year, and the average number of operatives employed was 3,229, consisting of 1,797 males and 1,432 females. The wages of unskilled labour vary from 4 annas to 8 annas for a man and from 2½ annas to 4 annas for a woman. The rate for ginning cotton is Rs. 4-10 per *bojha* of 10 maunds or 280 lbs. in the lower taluks and Rs. 3-8 in the upper taluks. For pressing a bale of cotton of 15 maunds or 420 lbs., the charge is Rs. 4. The ratio of ginned to seed cotton is 33 per cent for superior cotton, and 35 for inferior varieties.”¹

In 1961, there were 68 cotton ginning, cleaning, pressing and baling establishments in the district. The number of cotton ginning and baling factories decreased to 49 in 1964 as compared to 51 in 1963. However, the number of working factories submitting returns was 42 and 37 in the respective years. Similarly the average daily number of workers employed was 4,206 (2,593 men and 1,613 women) in 1963 and 3,632 (2,168 men and 1,494 women) in 1964.²

The labour force of a cotton-ginning and pressing industry is generally composed of skilled and unskilled labour as also others on administrative side. The skilled labour includes fitters, boilers, attendants, ginmen and roll-cutters. The unskilled labour includes coolies, etc., whereas the administrative staff consists of managers, clerks, supervisors, etc. The wages paid to skilled workers are generally high as compared to those paid to unskilled workers.

The industry is seasonal. The working season starts from November and ends in April. The actual working days generally vary from 60 to 120 though in some cases, the working days are

¹ Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana District, Vol. A., 1910.

² Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

even less than 60. The labour force is composed of both men and women.

The tools and equipment used in these units consist of roller gins, pressure presses, steam or oil engines, drilling machine, etc.

For want of adequate supply of electricity, oil, diesel, and coal are used as fuel in most of the units, only few units using power.

The cotton ginning and pressing factories are mainly located at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Chikhli, Nandura, Shegaon, Mehkar, and Deulgaon Raja.

The State Government has taken an active part in improving the productive capacity of the industry. The State Government in collaboration with many research organisations has established research institutions in Vidarbha region for the all-round development and proper utilization of the products of this industry. One such centre established at Buldhana has undertaken research pertaining to the genetic improvement of cotton and agronomic requirement for optimum yield.

The Master Plan implemented in 1960 with a view to bringing about rapid industrialization of the State recommended Khamgaon as a suitable site for the concentration of ginning and pressing units.

Silk : The working of the textile industries of the district is not merely restricted to cotton ginning and pressing, but they also undertake manufacturing of silk cloth and woollen blankets.

The 1961 Census mentions one large-scale silk mill at Pimprala manufacturing silk cloth and employing 186 workers and also one small-scale unit producing silk cloth, established at the same place. The small-scale unit employs about 17 workers. The other small units engaged in the manufacture of woollen blankets are located at Khamgaon, the tahsil headquarters and Sarangpur, Sultanpur and Sindkhed Raja in Mehkar tahsil.

Oil-seed Crushing.—The second important crop of the district is groundnut which is used in the mills producing edible oils. In 1958, there were 10 factories manufacturing edible oils (other than hydrogenated oils). However of these 10 units only 7 were working units. At present there are four independent oil-mills working as large scale units at Khamgaon. The total number of establishments undertaking production of edible fats and oils (other than hydrogenated oils) is 214 in the district. The number of workers employed in all these establishments is 654 consisting of both men and women workers.

The oil-mills generally work almost all the year round.

The Master Plan prepared by Industries Department in 1960 had indicated prospects for the establishment of cotton seed oil, solvent extraction, refining, fat splitting and distillation of fatty acids industries in the district.

Oil is manufactured from sesamum, safflower, cotton-seed, niger-seed, linseed and castor seed which are grown in the district.

In the large industrial units, all the processes from crushing of oil to making of oil-cakes from the remnant of seeds are carried out with the help of machinery. The equipment of an oil mill consists of decorticators, expellers, hullers, steam engines, etc. The oil-ghanis are mostly used in the villages for oil-seed crushing.

The old Gazetteer of Buldhana district has the following to say about the oil mill at Shegaon:—

"The oil-mill at Shegaon was established in 1891-92 by the Mofussil Company Limited. In 1907-08, it worked for 231 days and the raw material consumed was 23,510 cwts. of linseed, value Rs. 189,500, and 5,408 cwts. of *til* seed, value Rs. 51,000. The outturn in oil and cake was 7,647 cwts. of linseed oil, 2,307 cwts. of *til* and niger-seed oil, 16,007 cwts. of linseed cake and 3,446 cwts. of mixed *til* and niger-seed oil-cake. The oil is locally sold, but the oil-cake except a certain amount of broken cake, was all exported to England. The mill is a paying concern. The average number of daily workers operating in the mill is 19"¹

There are now, 4 large-scale oil mills at Khamgaon, established under Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 and engaged in oil extraction from cotton-seed. There are 4 small-scale oil mills in the district, registered under the Factories Act, 1948, and established at Malkapur and Khamgaon. One oil mill combines processing of two products i.e., extracting of oil and milling of *dal*.

Solvent extraction of oilcakes to recover the residual oil and obtain practically oil free cake is an important feature of the oil industry. One oil mill has the capacity of producing daily 300 tons of oil from cotton-seeds. One of the mills was established in 1954, and one in 1958.

The Master plan for the industrialization of the State prepared in 1960 has recommended Khamgaon as one of the particularly suitable places for the establishment of an oil extraction unit in view of the availability of oil cakes and cotton seed and other necessary facilities. It recommends further that "it would be possible to consider location of cotton seed extraction/expression/units at places like Khamgaon and Shegaon of Buldhana district".

The only hydrogenation plant in the district located at Shegaon has been closed now.

Clay and Clay Products.—Manufacture of Bricks and Tiles: This is an old industry and run on a small scale. Manufacture of bricks and tiles as stated by the old Gazetteer was undertaken all over the district in 1909. However the industry was mainly confined to *Kumbhars* alone as they could make better quality bricks and tiles. Of the clay products, Nandura was famous for

¹ Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana District, Vol. A, 1910, pp. 251-252.

its red and black vessels. In 1951 there were 16 establishments in Malkapur tahsil undertaking manufacture of clay products such as bricks, tiles, etc. The total number of workers employed in these 16 establishments was 134, consisting of both males and females. In addition there were 10 establishments in Khamgaon tahsil and 12 in Buldhana tahsil. The total number of small-scale establishments undertaking manufacture of pottery and makers of earthenware was 62 in the district in the same year. Some of the establishments make statues of Gods and Goddesses and some also make earthen toys and artwares.

As per 1961 Census, there were 408 small-scale establishments undertaking manufacture of earthenware employing about 645 workers. In addition there were 15 small-scale industries engaged in the manufacture of earthen images and earthen busts and statues, employing 25 workers.

The equipment of the establishments consists of the traditional potter's wheel, moulds, pick axes, *ghamelas*, and kiln to bake the pots. The raw materials are composed of horse-dung, clay and coal ash.

Lack of sufficient finance and age-old techniques are the main handicaps in the growth of this industry. The industry however shows no signs of decay as the similar machine-made articles cannot easily replace the products of a skilled artisan.

Manufacture of Glass Products.—In 1909, manufacture of glass bangles was confined to two places viz., Dhar and Warna in the Chikhli tahsil of the district, and it was confined to a few families of the *Kachera* caste. The industry however could not flourish due to the competition from the machine industry whose product was freely imported. Bangles which once fetched Rs. 2 per 1,000 were sold for 12 annas. The glass used in the manufacture was imported from Khandesh. The bangles were sold by weight generally to dealers who were Muhammedan Manihars.

As per 1951 Census there were 17 establishments in Malkapur tahsil manufacturing bangles, beads and necklaces out of glass, and 3 at other places in the district.

Manufacture of Tobacco.—The bidi factories were the most important constituents of the unregulated establishments in old time and Buldhana district had 5 bidi factories in the year 1921.

In 1961, there were 46 bidi factories, employing 93 workers. The bidi factories are mostly located in Malkapur and Khamgaon tahsils. In addition, there is one establishment manufacturing cigarettes and cigarette tobacco. The above factories undertake the manufacture of *jerda* and other varieties of chewing tobacco in addition to the manufacture of bidis.

Mining and Quarrying.—Some part of the district is covered with Deccan trap containing material generally used in building industry. Buldhana district is not known to have any mineral products of outstanding importance except some saline deposits in

the lake of Lonar. It appears from the old District Gazetteer, that these saline deposits were worked for some time past, but since they were found to be unprofitable their further exploitation was stopped, as could be seen from the account reproduced from the old Gazetteer of Buldhana district.

'At present day there is only a very small local demand for the Lonar Lake products, as the industries which in former times utilized the salts have largely been swept away by foreign competition. Bangles and other glass articles are not now prepared upon anything at all approaching the scale of an industry, and although soap is made in the neighbourhood some of it is of very poor quality. Lime can easily be obtained locally but the manufacture of caustic alkali has apparently never been undertaken. Some of the salts were formerly employed for the fixation of colour in silk dyeing, but this industry is also now practically dead; in fact, the former large export trade from the lake into the Berars, Hyderabad and Nagpur districts has practically died away'.

'In 1872 the lake was taken under the direct management of Government and was worked with gradually decreasing profits till 1897, when it was again let out on contract for a period of five years for a sum of Rs. 3,505. In 1903, the present contractor paid Rs. 1,000 for the five years' contract, and he states that till now the products have been practically unsalable, although samples have been sent to various centres of commerce in India and to England, Japan and America. The lead from the lake to the nearest railway station (Khamgaon) appears to be an insurmountable drawback to the profitable working of the lake unless an examination of the lake itself by an expert should disclose more valuable products than are at present known of.'

It was thought that the natural occurrence of bicarbonate and carbonate of soda in large quantities with common salt will be of interest over a wider field. But it will have more prospects particularly to those engaged in industries in which alkalis play an important part.

The other minerals found in the trap in the southern part of the district viz., agates, cornelians, and calcite have some possible value. The first two are useful for ornamental purposes and the last one for optical purposes.

Though there is no major mineral production in this district, some minor minerals such as building stones, boulders, murrum, brick earth, sand, road metal, *hakka*, etc., are found in abundance.

As per 1951 Census, 403 persons including 8 women were employed in mining and quarrying industries. The number showed a decrease in 1961 and stood at 151 persons, including 22 women. Most of the activity pertaining to this industry was confined to the rural areas of the district.

Other Large-scale and Small-scale Industries.— There is one large scale bone crushing mill at Malkapur, known as Madhya Pradesh Bone Fertilizer Factory. At Khamgaon, there is one letter-press and lithographic, printing and book-binding industry, employing about 75 workers.

Besides, the aforementioned small-scale industries there are other small-scale industries in the district, registered under the Factories Act, 1948. They are a silk mill, a foundry, an engineering work and four printing presses.

Of the four printing presses 3 are located at Khamgaon and one at Malkapur. Out of the three at Khamgaon, one undertakes every type of printing work while the rest undertake the work of printing of books, notebooks, and account-books. All the four printing presses together employ about 111 workers. One small-scale engineering workshop at Khamgaon employs about 35 workers. It undertakes rolling of scrap and other rolling works as well as manufacture of round bars, steel hoops, etc. There is only one small scale foundry registered under the Factories Act, employing about 26 workers and undertaking the work of iron and steel casting.

All the small-scale registered factories employ nearly 1,000 workers in the district. "The number of registered factories (small-scale) has decreased from 86 in 1956 to 55 in 1961. This reduction in both the number of factories and employees is mainly due to closure of some of the seasonal units pertaining to ginning and pressing and oil-milling.

According to the Census of Manufacturing Industries in 1959, the manufacturing industries in the district had a combined fixed capital of Rs. 38.2 lakhs and working capital of Rs. 14.6 lakhs. The total value of annual production was Rs. 124.6 lakhs and the value added by manufacturing was Rs. 34.9 lakhs. These figures relate only to the industries covered by the Census of Manufacturing Industries Act.

The value added by manufacture in the district in 1959 was, however, only 0.17 per cent of the total for Maharashtra."*

In 1969 there were 112 units registered as small-scale industries in Buldhana district. The following statement indicates the number of units registered as Small-Scale Industries in Buldhana district from 1961 to 1969 :—

Year				Nos.	
1961	..	..	..	5	
1962	..	..	..	4	
1963	..	..	..	23	
1964	..	..	..	21	
1965	..	..	..	14	
1966	..	..	..	22	
1967	..	..	..	8	
1968	..	..	..	10	5+5 (Provisional).
1969	..	..	..	5	1+4 (Provisional).
Total				112	up to 30-6-1969.

* District Census Hand-book, Buldhana, 1951.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

Introduction.—Village industry or cottage industry is an indispensable part of the village economy. There are many traditional crafts conducted on household or cottage industries scale. A cottage industry has been defined as 'one which is carried on wholly or primarily with the help of members of the family, either as a whole or a part time occupation.' No definition can avoid overlapping and afford a clear line of demarcation between cottage and small-scale industries. With the growing industrialization, there will be a growing need for finding avenues of employment for those who are displaced by the use of machinery. These could be provided by the cottage industries which also perform the additional function of supplying a supplementary source of livelihood to the rural population of the district. The main industries that form this group are handloom-weaving, handicrafts, carpentry, blacksmithy, dyeing and printing, leather working, making of bricks, tiles and other clay products, etc.

The schemes included in the State Plan for the development of cottage and village industries broadly pertain to the adoption of improved techniques by them and to their stabilisation and expansion. They also aim at the removal of the major handicaps in their development such as non-availability of necessary finance. Generally, craftsmen suffer from the problem of insufficient finance for purchase of tools, implements and raw materials. This difficulty is solved by establishing agencies to provide financial assistance to them in the form of long-term and short-term loans and subsidies to craftsmen.

Though craftsmen are skilled in their professions, they do not have the knowledge regarding advanced techniques which could be profitably used in these industries. With this view under the State Plan for the development and expansion of cottage industries in Vidarbha region, the nyaya panchayat circles have been taken as units for setting up training facilities and for organization of production-cum-marketing centres. The gram panchayats with a nyaya panchayat circle encourage the village artisans to take the advantages of training facilities and join in the scheme of production-cum-marketing centres. In addition, gram panchayat also encourages artisans by standing guarantee for the various grants, loans, and subsidies, which may be given to these centres.

During the Second Five-Year Plan, under this scheme, an organization for each trade or groups of trades was set up at suitable places where there are village panchayats. The principal trades that come under these schemes are (1) weaving and fibre work, (2) carpentry, (3) blacksmithy, (4) pottery, (5) cane and bamboo, (6) tannery and leather goods, (7) oil-ghanis, (8) tailoring, (9) lime-kiln and charcoal-kiln, and (10) industries allied to agriculture.

Demonstration parties, each consisting of six instructors, impart location training to the craftsmen in the use of improved processes and labour saving schemes. Two demonstration

parties consisting of 12 instructors and 12 social workers have been working in the N. E. S. and C. D. Blocks of Buldhana district.

Under the scheme of pioneer units of production in village industries, a bee-keeping centre was set up in the district during the Second Five-Year Plan.

Cotton Weaving (Handloom).—The cotton weaving is an age old industry and is one of the important cottage industries of the district. As the Tariff Board has observed, "It provides an occupation to the agriculturist in the season when the agricultural work is slack and enables him to use his time, which would otherwise be wasted, in producing goods of a certain even though limited value."

The old Gazetteer of Buldhana district published in 1910 has the following to say about it:

"The following castes are engaged in the cotton weaving industry: Salis, Koshtis, Hatgars, Khattris, and Mahars who are all Hindus, and Momins who are Muhammadans. In 1897 there were 1,339 cotton looms in the District, but the number has decreased in recent years. Forty years ago all the processes from the raw product to the finished article were performed in the district, but since the advent of the railway, thread has ceased to be spun locally and only the imported article is used. But not only is the thread brought from outside, machine finished product has largely ousted the local hand-made article. Coarse cotton cloth for the poorer classes is woven by Mahars throughout the district. The piece of cloth for which there is the greatest demand is known as *khadi* and measures 24 cubits by 1½ cubits, costing from Rs. 2-8-0. The Mahars also manufacture the *pasodi*, loin cloth, covering sheets, *dhoti* and *dupatta*, for prices varying from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2-8-0. Cloth of finer quality is made by the Koshtis, Hatgars, and Salis. Deulgaon Raja contains a colony of about 200 to 300 families of Koshtis, who have obtained some fame for their *saris*, *pagris* (turbans), and *khans* (cloth for making *cholis* or *parkar*). These are made of cotton with silk borders, and have a large sale at the annual fair. A *sari* woven by Deulgaon Raja weaver was exhibited at the Nagpur Exhibition in 1908, its price being Rs. 24-8-0. Dongaon in the Mehkar taluk, and Nandura also have some reputation for their *saris*. The Momins or Muhammadan weavers make principally *pagris* or turbans. *Newar* (tape) and *tadhao* (stout carpet) are manufactured at Jalgaon and *jhul* (body cloth of bullocks) and *jajam* (floor cloth) at Nandura".

In 1931, weaving continued to be the main cottage industry. The census report of the Central Provinces and Berar describes the industry as under:

"The Textile section of the Department of Industries which started work in 1916 went on introducing improved *sleys* amongst the handloom weavers. By the end of the decade the improved *sley* and a few other accessory appliances became fairly popular

at all the important weaving centres. About 30,000 of these sleys were introduced by the end of the decade. These sleys increased the output of the handlooms by at least 75 per cent. The result was over production which created fresh problems for the industry. For want of proper marketing facilities the increased products are not easily sold nor have the weavers been able to make any other use of the increased leisure which the new sleys bring to them. The classes using hand-woven fabrics are taking more and more to mill-made fabrics. The weavers cannot produce goods of more modern pattern to keep pace with changing fashions. Only those weavers who turn out finer and more artistic fabrics which cannot be manufactured in factories could hold their own in the industry. The competition of factory-made piece goods continued to hit the rest hard during the decade. The condition of the vast mass of handloom weavers engaged in the manufacture of ordinary sarees and dhotis is thus deteriorating still further. It is only in tracts where conservative fashions in the sarees still survive, that the handloom weaver is not yet too badly off."

The All India Handloom Board has worked out the programme of development of handloom industry and the schemes in the State Plan generally follow the pattern. The programme envisaged formation of weavers' co-operatives. It also considered providing of financial assistance to the co-operatives for the development of the industry to facilitate use of improved tools and appliances and opening of sales depots. Under the scheme, by 1957-58, 157 working looms were set-up within the co-operative fold.

There are six weavers' co-operatives in the district. The important centres of handloom industry are Nandura and Deulgaon Raja. Government also provides financial assistance to these co-operatives and also advances loans to them.

As per 1961 Census by the end of May 1961, there were 1,441 cotton and 4 non-cotton registered handlooms in the district. In 1964-65, the number of handlooms operating in the district was 175. In 1965-66, it stood at 177. The handlooms were also worked in Malkapur and Chikhli tahsils. The production of handlooms amounted to 1,03,309,000 metres in 1964-65, where as in 1965-66 it stood at, 107,585,000 metres.

As regards rural industrialisation, the Third Five-Year Plan envisaged a programme of financial assistance to artisans and craftsmen in forming their co-operatives. Under the plan a sum of Rs. 92 thousand was advanced to the co-operatives of handloom weavers and Rs. 3 thousand to six other co-operatives.

The statistics relating to handlooms and powerlooms for the years 1964-65 and 1965-66 are given below :

*Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

TABLE No. 6
STATISTICS RELATING TO HANDLOOMS AND POWERLOOMS FOR THE YEARS 1964-65, 1965-66.

Serial No.	Tahsil	Year	Centres	Number of Looms		Production in '000 metres		Average daily employment	
				Hand operated (5)	Power operated (6)	Handloom (7)	Powerloom (8)	Handloom (9)	Powerloom (10)
1	Jalgaon	1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
		1965-66	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
2	Malkapur	1964-65	2	32	15	239	170,210	4	38
		1965-66	2	30	15	..	150,401	..	38
3	Kharggaon	1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
		1965-66	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4	Chikhli	1964-65	3	143	32	103,070	294,642	145	49
		1965-66	3	147	32	107,585	416,406	144	50
5	Mehkar	1964-65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
		1965-66	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	District Total	1964-65	5	175	47	103,309	464,852	149	87
		1965-66	5	177	47	107,585	570,807	144	88

*Source.—Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

Fishing Industry.—Fishing industry has a limited scope in the district as fishery activities in the district are limited to the inland water only, viz., rivers, tanks, and ponds. In addition the Nalaganga reservoir constructed recently provides an additional area of 2,714 acres to serve as a separate watersheet for the development of fishing industry. However the total water spread area is comparatively inadequate for the development of fishing industry in the district.

According to 1961 Census, 209 persons were engaged in fishing as principal workers, 193 of whom were males and 16 were females. Fishermen in the district belong to the communities known as Dheemar, Bhoi, and Kahar. As fishing industry has a limited scope, some fishermen take to jobs in petty industries and few others as agricultural labourers. Fishing is generally made by gill nets and cast nets. The nets are mostly made of cotton twine, but now a days, nylon is also effectively used. Financial assistance in the form of subsidy is provided for purchase of nylon and cotton twine, under the fishery requisites scheme.

There are three co-operative societies of fishermen in the district, dealing in the stocking of carp fry and manufacture of fishing nets and their sale. These co-operative societies are given financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidy. They are also provided assistance for securing tanks and ponds for purpose of pisciculture.

Carpentry.—Carpenters are engaged in wood works and repairing furniture, making agricultural implements, etc. They also make doors, door frames, etc., required for buildings.

The number of persons engaged in this occupation shows an increase in 1961 over that engaged in 1951. The figures for the respective years are 4,356 persons including 4,098 males, 258 females, and 3,320 persons including 3,185 males and 135 females.

There are six carpenters' co-operatives in the district. The establishment of these co-operatives has resulted in bettering the prospects of this industry in the district. The wages paid to the carpenters have also shown a rise as a result of the establishment of the co-operatives.

A carpenter's tool-box consists of saw, *tasani* (adze), chisel, *goib* or *ardhagol*, *girmit* (country hand drill), *randha* (plane), hammer, scribe, knife, etc. To acquaint the carpenters with modern techniques of production training centres imparting training to carpenters have been established in Nandura and Mehkar blocks.

Pottery Making.—In 1961, the number of persons engaged as potters was 1,412.

These potters are mostly the part and parcel of the village economy and many of them still work on the traditional *baluta* system under which they get a fixed quantity of foodgrains at the harvest time for supply of earthenwares to the village people.

Nandura is famous for its red and black vessels.

The 1961 Census reported only one unit engaged in the manufacture of chinaware and crockery. The Government have established one training centre in Jalgaon block where training regarding pottery is imparted to the artisans.

Horse dung, clay, coal and ash are the raw-materials from which earthenwares are prepared. Traditional potter's wheel, moulds, *ghamelas*, pick axes and kiln to bake the pots constitute the equipment of a potter. The village potter makes *gadgis*, *madkis*, *ranjan*, *thalis*, etc., which are the traditional items of village pottery.

At present there are three potters' co-operatives in the district.

Leather Industry.—As per 1951 Census 1,284 persons including 1,200 males and 84 females were engaged in leather, leather products and footwear. The 1961 Census showed a marked increase in the number of persons engaged in leather and leather products, the number being 2,158 persons including 2,077 males and 81 females. Out of these 1,855 (1,783 males, 72 females) were engaged in the manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear; while 209 persons including 205 males and 4 females were engaged in the repairing of shoes and other leather footwear.

The old Buldhana Gazetteer published in 1910, has the following to say about this cottage industry. "There are two kinds of Chambhars, Maratha Chambhars, who make shoes, buckets, *mots* etc., but do not tan and Dohor Chambhars who are tanners and do other rough work but do not make boots or shoes. At Mehkar a colony of up-country Chambhars has been settled for about 20 years and they manufacture a special kind of white shoe known as *selimshahi*, the price of which varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 2."

The artisans engaged in this industry undertake the work of currying, tanning, finishing of hides and skins, preparation of finished leather, manufacture of leather products such as suit-cases, key cases, whip and other articles, etc., in addition to repairing and manufacturing of shoes and other leather footwear.

Training Centres for leather workers have been established in Shegaon, Jalgaon, Mehkar, Sangrampur and Motala blocks of the district.

The process of manufacture is age old and hereditary training still prevails. In rural areas, artisans make use of family labour, but in urban areas, as the establishments are big, the independent character of artisans has disappeared and they work under employers.

The tools commonly used for leather working are the sewing machine, *rappis*, leather cutters, hammers, wooden blocks, etc. The raw materials generally required by the artisans for leather work are dyed leather, rubber soles, polish, etc. Tanned leather is provided by the tanning industries. At present there are 14 leatherers' co-operative societies in the district.

Blacksmithy.—The age old character of this industry is revealed from the following extract from old Buldhana Gazetteer published in 1910:

“Ironsmiths belong to the following castes: Jingars, Lohars, Jirayats, Panchals and Ghisadis. Their work is of a rough and primitive nature and is practically confined to the making and repairing of agricultural implements. Only imported iron is used. There is a cutlery business at Buldhana owned by the firm of Nilkanth Brothers, but it is on a small scale, the four brothers employing none but their own labour. They obtained a silver medal and certificate at the Akola exhibition in 1868, and a gold medal and certificate at the Poona exhibition in 1888. They make locks, keys, scales, compasses, nut crackers, pen-knives, scissors and for special orders spear-heads and daggers. Their annual sales are said to average from Rs. 700 to Rs. 800. Some cutlery is also made at Deulghat but not of such good quality. Chikhli is famous for its small razors, which have a large local sale at 6 annas each.”

As per 1951 Census, 50 persons were employed in 21 establishments, undertaking blacksmithy manufacturing horse-shoes, other works in iron and in making of implements. These 21 establishments were located in the rural areas of Malkapur tahsil. The five similar establishments were located in the rural areas of the Mehkar tahsil. As per 1961 Census, there were 1,335 persons including 1,131 males, 204 females who are engaged as ‘Blacksmiths, Hammersmiths and Forgemens.’

The blacksmiths make various agricultural implements like spades, axes and hoes as also domestic articles.

The tool-box of a blacksmith, generally consists of anvil, hammer, chisel, cutters, nails, screws etc.

The articles are made from iron-sheets which are brought from outside. There is one co-operative society of blacksmiths in the district, established with the object of improving the conditions of the artisans engaged in the industry. Government extends financial assistance in the form of loan to blacksmiths to enable them to purchase tools and equipment required by them.

Bamboo and Cane Work.—Bamboo and cane work industry is a novel industry and requires definite skill on the part of the artisan. Baskets are made of bamboo stripes. The industry in the district traditionally belongs to Burud and Mang communities.

As per 1951 Census there were 40 basket-making establishments in the rural areas of Malkapur tahsil, 3 in the rural areas of Chikhli tahsil, 4 in the rural areas of Mehkar tahsil and 33 in the non-city urban area of the district. The total number of persons engaged in all aforementioned basket making establishments was 154 in the same year. The 1961 Census reports the number of persons employed as ‘Basketry Weavers and Related Workers’ as 1,461 including 645 males and 816 females.

In addition to basket making, the artisans make *supas* (winnowing fans), *topalis*, *karandis*, etc.

First the bamboo stripes are taken out with *koyata* and are kept in water to smoothen. This makes the weaving of baskets easy. The products are mostly sold locally.

There are two co-operatives of bamboo and cane workers in the district. The earnings of the artisans are very meagre. There are two training centres imparting training regarding cane and bamboo work, one each in Shegaon and Jalgaon block.

Dyeing.—The industry is a hereditary occupation carried on by Rangaris, Ataris, and to a lesser extent by Kolis. Dyeing is carried at Nandura, Deulgaon Raja, Pimpalgaon Raja, Paturda, Wankhed and Wadgaon. At one time, the dyes were prepared locally, but the introduction of alkaline dyes has done away with this profitable part of the industry.

Sometimes, dyers dye cloth brought to them by others while sometimes they themselves purchase cloth, dye it and put it for sale. The occupation today has, however, lost its former importance and the earnings of the artisan have also decreased.

There is one co-operative society of dyers and printers in the district.

Development of village industries like khadi, palm, gur, leather tanning, hand-pounding of rice, handmade paper, bee keeping are also undertaken in the district as the result of implementation of State Plan for development of cottage industries. The schemes for these industries are finalised in accordance with the amount of financial assistance sanctioned by the Commission for the purpose.

Miscellaneous Cottage Industries.—In addition to the industries described above there are some miscellaneous industries which are noted below:—

Tooth powder, stamping ink, menthol, furniture polish and candles are manufactured at Mehkar. Lanterns and cash boxes are made at Khamgaon. Fireworks and blasting powder are made at Malkapur. Gur is manufactured at Sengaon Jahagir in Chikhli tahsil by a multi-purpose co-operative society. Woollen blankets are manufactured at Khamgaon in Khamgaon tahsil and Sarangpur, Sultanpur and Sindkhed Raja in Mehkar tahsil.

In addition to the industrial co-operative societies in the district for different industries, there are two co-operative societies of *adiwasis* and forest labourers established in the district with the help of social workers. One of the objectives behind the establishment of these co-operatives is to provide *adiwasis* with wages according to their ability and to enable them to gain the profits of their own business. These societies also aim at training the *adiwasis* to work with a sense of co-operation and harmony combining physical as well as intellectual powers.

LABOUR ORGANISATION

The growth of labour organisations is one of the factors contributing to increased industrial efficiency. The workers in the district in early days had no unions for securing a common end by concerted action. One essential condition for the growth of trade unionism is the existence of a class of wage earners divorced from the ownership of the means of production. Most of the factory workers are agricultural labourers and hence they do not have the same attachment to the industries where they work as would otherwise be the case. The Buldhana district being industrially backward, the growth of trade union movement is very slow and is one of recent origin. The lack of education on the part of the workers is the most serious obstacle in the way of their organising themselves into an effective labour force. On account of the inability of the worker to take a long-term view of his interests, trade unions in the district have been able to achieve very little in the shape of improving the conditions of the workers and their standard of living.

There are 16 workers' unions in Buldhana district registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926. The names of these unions are shown in the statement given below:—

NAMES OF TRADE-UNIONS AND THE DATES OF THEIR REGISTRATION.

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Union (2)	Date of Registration and No. (3)
1	Buldhana District Co-operative Bank Employees' Union, Chikhli.	18-4-1964, NGP-6
2	Flour Mills Kamgar Union, Chikhli	24-8-1964, NGP-10
3	Khamgaon Gin Press and Oil Mills Shramik Sangh, Khamgaon.	24-11-1964, NGP-47
4	Mehkar Municipal Octroi Employees' Union, Mehkar ..	21-1-1965, NGP-76
5	Chikhli Nagarpalika Karmachari Sangh, Chikhli	19-10-1965, NGP-76
6	Nandura Gumasta Mandal, Nandura	22-12-1965, NGP-100
7	Gin Press Kamgar Union, Mehkar	16-12-1966, NGP-147
8	Bharatiya Gumasta Kamgar Sangh, Malkapur	16-12-1966, NGP-148
9	Grampanchayat Kamgar Union, Dongargaon	3-2-1967, NGP-152
10	Nagarpalika Kamgar Union, Deulgaon-Raja	3-2-1967, NGP-153
11	Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank Karmachari Union, Khamgaon	16-9-1967, NGP-176
12	Buldhana Zilla Parishad Vaidya Mandal, Khamgaon ..	26-9-1967, NGP-180

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Union (2)	Date of Registration and No. (3)
13	Gin Press and Oil Mill Mazdoor Sangh, Shegaon ..	9-2-1968, NGP-219
14	Bharatiya Gumasta Mandal, Chikhli	8-4-1968, NGP-224
15	Nandura Nagarparishad Karmachari Sangh, Nandura ..	16-8-1968, NGP-238
16	Buldhana Zilla P. W. D. Kamgar Sangh, Buldhana ..	30-11-1968, NGP-256

The Buldhana District Co-operative Bank Employees' Union is a recognised Union under the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, for local area of Chikhli. It is active among the employees of the District Central Co-operative Bank, Buldhana. The Gin Press and Oil Mill Mazdoor Sangh is working for the unity of workers in ginning and pressing and oil mills at Shegaon. The Nagar Palika Kamgar Union is active in Deulgaon Raja. The break-up of the 16 unions categorywise is as under :—

Type (1)	Number (2)
(1) Banks	3
(2) Ginning and Pressing	3
(3) Gumasta Mandals	2
(4) Municipal Labourers	1
(5) Flour Mills	1
(6) Municipal Octroi	1
(7) Nagar Parishad	1
(8) Gram Panchayat	1
(9) Zilla Parishad	1
(10) Public Works Department	1
Total	16

Wages and Earnings.— Labour efficiency of an industry depends upon many factors such as the skill of the worker, wage rates, hours of work and facilities and amenities made available to workers. Higher wages lead to increased efficiency and to higher production in the industry. Taking these factors into consideration Government of Maharashtra have fixed the minimum rates of wages for the following industries in the Buldhana District:—

- (1) Employment in any oil mill ;
- (2) Employment in any tobacco factory (including bidi makings ;
- (3) Employment in any rice mill, flour mill or dal mill ;
- (4) Employment in any cotton ginning and cotton pressing factory ;

(5) Employment in any industry in which any process of printing by letter press, lithography, photogravure to such process or book binding is carried on and employment in any printing press ;

(6) Employment in rubber manufactory industry ;

(7) Employment in glass industry ;

(8) Employment in tanneries and leather manufactory ;

(9) Employment in potteries ;

(10) Employment in stone breaking or stone crushing ;

(11) Employment in road construction or in building operations ;

(12) Employment in any local authority ;

(13) Employment in any shop and commercial establishment not being an employment in any bank ; (towns having population of 10,000 and more according to 1961 Census)

(14) Employment in cinema exhibition industry.

The accidents occurring in different factories of the district result in loss of property to the factories. In 1957, 4 serious and 29 minor accidents occurred in the various factories in the Buldhana district. Similarly, 3 fire explosions in 1957, and one in 1958 resulted in a loss of property of the value of Rs. 2,35,000 and Rs. 18,000 respectively. The loss was the heaviest in Khamgaon tahsil which is comparatively more industrialised. Industries in Malkapur tahsil also suffered a loss to the tune of Rs. 17,850 in 1957 due to 3 fire explosions in the factories.

Labour Welfare Activities.—The development programmes included in the Five-Year Plan envisage considerable industrial development and provide for schemes for labour welfare and training of labour in technical trades to improve their efficiency and to meet the requirements of the expanding industry. The programme of labour welfare in the Vidarbha area envisages establishment of multi-purpose institutions in the industrial towns of the district.

An Employment Exchange is functioning at Buldhana as a recruiting agency for Government and non-Government offices and public and private undertakings.

Buldhana district has a sizeable number of seasonal factories viz., ginning and pressing factories. During off season the workers engaged in ginning and pressing factories, who are mostly agriculturists and villagers go back to their villages. Thus labour in the district is more mobile due to the seasonal nature of employment. There is, therefore, little scope for labour welfare activities. However, the existing labour welfare activities are undertaken by two Kamgar Kalyan Kendras, one at Khamgaon and one run by the Labour Welfare Board at Buldhana.

One recreation centre-cum-library for working class population is run by the Municipal Council, Shegaon.

CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

INTRODUCTION

THE PRESENT CHAPTER IS DIVIDED INTO TWO PARTS — (1) Banking and finance, and (2) Trade and Commerce. The first part, viz., Banking and finance describes the modern joint-stock banks in the district along with a number of other institutions, such as, money-lenders, co-operative societies and Life Insurance that play a prominent role in catering to the credit requirements of the district economy. Of these, the money-lender had till recently been the most important institution. He still continues to be an important source of credit supply to the people in the district whether as an indigenous banker in the town or as a shop-keeper supplying credit to the village folk or even as a petty pawn-broker. But the excessive rates of interest charged by him and the malpractices he adopted to exact money from the poor proved detrimental to the economic well-being of the people in the past. It was with a view to putting a stop to this evil that the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act of 1934 was passed and applied to the whole of the district. This subsequently removed the malpractices of money-lenders and sought to extend protection to the debtors. Another significant trend that helped to restrain the money-lenders' influence was the growth of the modern banking in the district following World War I. Especially after the establishment of the State Bank of India the banking business received further stimulus.

Development in the field of banking was accompanied by a still greater development in the field of co-operation. A large net-work of co-operative societies covering, as it does, not only the agricultural primaries of the early years but also the modern industrial and service co-operatives of to-day is an important feature which is described in the pages to follow.

Besides purveying credit to the economy, these institutions also collect the savings of the people and invest them in the interest-yielding securities. The insurance and the joint-stock companies need in this context a specific mention. The post-war period found a remarkable progress in case of both these institutions.

The take over of insurance business by the State and the legislation enacted by it to reduce the profit-margin of the companies thus explains the role played by the State in this regard to secure economy, efficiency and equality of its services. The State also floats loans and raises the funds required for financing its plans and other Governmental outlays. It further extends

financial and other aid to industry and agriculture by advancing to them loans and subsidies. This active participation of the State in the economic activities is very well marked especially in the small-savings movement. An account of these manifold activities on the part of the State has also been discussed elaborately in this part of the chapter.

The financial set-up in the district has significant bearings on the pattern of its trade and commercial activities. The growth of banking and other financial institutions and increasing facilities made available to the public help the movement of goods and increase the volume of trade. Price policies adopted from time to time by the State also affect the market trend and determine ultimately the composition of trade. In the second part of this chapter are, therefore, discussed the factors that have contributed to the development of trade and commerce in the district against its historical background. It also gives detailed information about regulated markets, export trade, State trading and retail trade.

SECTION I

BANKING AND FINANCE MONEY-LENDERS

Money-lenders.—The institution of money-lenders has come into existence ever since money was accepted as a medium of exchange. The early history of bankers and money-lenders is given in the following paragraphs from the old Gazetteer of Buldhana district.

“The District being purely agricultural cannot boast of any large and influential banking houses. The money-lenders, whose annual profits from their business exceeded Rs. 1,000, numbered 641 at the close of 1907-08. Of these, 449 possessed incomes varying from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 2,000, 161 incomes varying from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 5,000, 25 incomes varying from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 and 6 incomes varying from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 20,000. Vishnusa Balkrishnasa Saoji (Lad Bania) of Malkapur heads the list, but Khamgaon, the leading cotton mart of the District, contains the largest number of capitalists, the principal being Shriram Ramgopal, Ganeshdas Bhatia, Kasturchand Bhikamchand, Lakshmandas Mihidas, and Jasraj Shriram. The banking firm of Buti from Nagpur has branches at Khamgaon and all over Berar and do a large business on loans advancing sums on personal security at 2 per cent and payable by monthly instalments. Almost every village has its money-lender, who does business on a small-scale. The principal money-lending castes are Marwaris, Kunbis, Lad Banias, Lingayat Banias, Brahmans, and Muham-madans. The Marwaris predominate, forming 62 per cent of the total number.”

“The information given in this section with regard to rates of interest must be qualified by the admission that it is not hard and fast; a man's character and standing usually affect the interest more than what he has to offer as security; some men can borrow at even lower rates than those quoted below, and some

despite good proffered security can get no loans at all. Unsecured loans can be obtained by *Sahukars* and rich men from 5 to 9 per cent. It is not common to make such loans to others, but in the few cases in which they are made to well-known regular payees the rates are from 12 to 18 per cent. Loans on personal security are given at rates varying from 12 to 24 per cent, but here also the personal element largely affects the transaction, and the would-be borrower must be known and bear a good character. The rate of interest on loans secured by pledge of moveables varies between $7\frac{1}{2}$ and 9 per cent. if the articles pledged are gold and jewellery, and from 12 to 18 per cent, if they are household utensils, carts, cattle, and the like.”

“An ordinary cultivator can usually obtain a loan to the extent of about 50 per cent of the value of the property mortgaged at rates of interest varying from 12 to 24 per cent. The rate varies according to the capacity of the borrower to repay the loan. A common practice among the tenants or agricultural labourers is to raise loans in small sums usually not exceeding Rs. 100 in amount on bonds with a stipulation for repayment within one year with *sawai* or 25 per cent. added to the principal. The *Kunbi* rarely pays up in time and consequently finds himself called upon to pay a penal rate of interest which runs as high as 36 or $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum. Loans for seed-grain are generally taken in kind. The cultivator borrows the seed.”

It was with a view to putting a stop to the malpractices of the money-lenders and reducing their influence on rural economy that legal enactment was felt imperative. An Act known as the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934 was, therefore, passed by the State Government and made applicable to entire Vidarbha region. The Act was in operation till 1956.

Money-lenders Act of 1946: The Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946 was made applicable to the Buldhana district after the reorganisation of the States when the district formed a part of the State of Bombay. Some of the important provisions of this Act are given below:—

Firstly, the State Government is authorised to appoint Registrar-General, Registrar and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders for the purpose of this Act and to define areas of their duties. Secondly, every Registrar is to maintain in his jurisdiction a register of money-lenders. Thirdly, money-lenders should not carry on business of money-lending except in the area under licence and except in accordance with terms of licence. Fourthly, the Registrar or Assistant Registrar or any other officer, by this Act, may require any money-lender to produce any record or document in his possession which is relevant for his purposes. Fifthly, every money-lender shall keep and maintain a cash-book and a ledger in a prescribed form and manner. Sixthly, every money-lender shall deliver a clear statement to the debtor about the language, amount, security, etc., of his transactions. Seventhly, the State Government is authorised to fix maximum rates of interest for any local area or class of business of money-lending

in respect of secured and unsecured loans. Eighthly, molestation of a debtor by the creditor in recovery of loans is treated as offence and is to be penalised. And lastly, no debtor who cultivates land personally and whose debts do not exceed Rs. 15,000 shall be arrested or imprisoned in execution for a decree for money passed in favour of money-lenders whether before or after the date on which this Act comes into force.

The Act was subsequently amended. The important amendments related to the introduction of 4-A and 5-A forms and the pass-book system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a cognisable offence. In the following year special measures were adopted for protecting backward class people. The Registrars and the Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking the accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with backward class people.

The regulations enacted by Government were not entirely partial to the debtors. In order to ensure a steady supply of credit from the money lenders, the structure of interest rates was revised as from 5th July 1952. Accordingly the maximum rates of interest were raised from 6 to 9 per cent per annum on secured loans and from 9 to 12 per cent per annum on unsecured loans. The money-lenders were also allowed to charge a minimum interest of one rupee per debtor per year, if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of the loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee.

The following statement gives information about money-lenders.

The statement below shows that their number has steadily declined. There is also a substantial fall in the business undertaken by the money-lenders. The factors which have contributed to this state of affairs are the extension of co-operative credit and tagai loans.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LICENSED MONEY-LENDERS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT FROM 1959-60 TO 1967-68.

Tahsil	No. of licensed money-lenders								
	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Chikhli ..	54	74	65	64	66	55	53	57	47
Mehkar ..	28	42	40	37	30	27	26	23	22
Malkapur ..	68	82	72	65	57	47	53	52	37
Khamgaon ..	100	136	110	103	91	77	81	83	62
Jalgaon ..	16	23	19	16	12	7	6	6	6

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The following statement shows the advances made by licensed money-lenders in Buldhana district during the years 1959-60 to 1967-68 to traders and non-traders:—

Year	Total advances by money-lenders to traders and non-traders	
	Traders	Non-traders
(1)	(2)	(3)
1959-60	19,63,457	30,76,218
1960-61	22,42,555	24,33,596
1961-62	27,67,713	26,98,420
1962-63	29,25,220	26,35,429
1963-64	18,10,573	20,63,771
1964-65	16,18,054	28,66,321
1965-66	15,37,428	11,48,154
1966-67	2,33,396	30,44,769
1967-68	2,28,521	27,07,480

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

Co-operative Movement.—The co-operative movement was started in India as a result of the economic distress caused to peasants during the latter part of the 19th century. The idea of forming co-operative society to solve the problem of rural indebtedness was first suggested by Fredrick Nicholson in his Report of 1895—97. The Famine Commission of 1901 also stressed the necessity of starting credit societies in India on a co-operative basis. A real beginning of the Co-operative movement was, however, made when the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 was passed. The object of this Act was to encourage thrift, self-help and co-operation amongst agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means. Societies formed under the Act were given legal status and were authorised to raise funds and carry on business in a corporate capacity. They were classified as rural and urban; rural societies were bound to accept the principle of unlimited liability while urban bodies were given a free choice of limited or unlimited liability. This Act, however, was deficient in many respects. The Act of 1912 was, therefore, passed to eliminate the defects in the earlier Act. It regularised certain practices of doubtful legal validity and made provision for further expansion under proper safeguards. The distinction between rural and urban societies was abolished and a more scientific classification based on the nature of the availability of members whether limited or unlimited, was adopted. Co-operative societies other than credit societies were allowed to be formed. Registration of unions and federal bodies like central banks was expressly legalised and a

number of minor improvements were introduced. The simplicity and the elasticity of the old Act were at the same time preserved and a wide rule-making power was left to the provinces to enable them to develop on their own lines.

The War and the post-War period witnessed a considerable progress in the number of societies, their resources and their coverage. In particular, there was a vigorous growth of consumers co-operatives when the Government decided to appoint co-operative societies as agents for distribution of food-grains and other necessities.

The co-operatives played a vital role after Independence. The rise in prices improved the paying capacity of agriculturists. This had a favourable effect on the position of co-operative societies.

During the second five-year plan period (1956 to 1961) the development of the co-operative movement was given special emphasis with the guiding principles incorporated in the Rural Credit Survey Report. The principles were:—

- (1) State partnership at all levels,
- (2) Linking of credit with marketing,
- (3) Education and propaganda in the theory and practice of co-operation.

In the following pages is given the structure and progress of the various co-operative societies in the district. The co-operative movement in the district covers—(1) agricultural co-operative credit societies, (2) multipurpose societies, (3) primary land mortgage banks, (4) non-agricultural credit societies, and (5) the district central co-operative bank.

Agricultural Credit Societies: The number and membership of agricultural credit societies increased at a rapid pace during the second plan period. The position of agricultural credit societies in 1957-58, 1960-61 and 1965-66 was as under:—

Particulars (1)	1957-58 (2)	1960-61 (3)	1965-66 (4)
(1) Number of agricultural credit societies ..	517	566	580
(2) Number of members	32,927	56,686	90,643
(3) Share capital (Rs. in lakhs)	9.35	28.49	76,72,596
(4) Reserve and other funds (Rs. in lakhs) ..	8.02	10.44	24,64,131
(5) Working capital (Rs. in lakhs)	78.26	178.83	5,46,82,821
(6) Number of members to whom loans were advanced ..	..	38,183	..
(7) Amount advanced (Rs. in lakhs)	56.49	124.37	3,55,26,328
(8) Amount recovered (Rs. in lakhs)	38.68	103.80	4,28,75,688
(9) Loans outstanding (Rs. in lakhs)	67.28	140.80	..
(10) Overdues (Rs. in lakhs)	18.94	30.90	..

The average membership per primary society in the district is 100 against the average of 96 for the State of Maharashtra.

Total owned funds, share capital *plus* reserve funds) of the primary agricultural credit societies in the district amounted, in 1960-61, to Rs. 38.93 lakhs and formed 21.77 per cent of their working capital as against 26 per cent for Maharashtra.

The loan operations of all the primary agricultural credit societies in the district amounted to Rs. 124.37 lakhs in 1960-61. The average amount of loan per borrowing member worked out to Rs. 326 in the district as against Rs. 329 for Maharashtra. These societies paid advances to the members in 1965-66 to the tune of Rs. 3,55,26,328.

During the period from 1958 to 1961, the number of agricultural credit societies increased by nearly 10 per cent and their membership by 72 per cent. There was an addition of Rs. 42,93,863 in 1965-66 as against 1961 in the share capital and the working capital increased from Rs. 78 lakhs in 1957-58 to Rs. 2,17,21,131 lakhs in 1960-61 and Rs. 5,46,82,821 in 1965-66. There was also an increase of Rs. 2,58,85,729 in the amount advanced by the societies in 1965-66 over the amount advanced in 1960-61. Although the pace of recoveries improved slightly, the proportion of overdues to the outstanding loans in 1965-66 (25 per cent) was significantly high. This points out the need of improving the recoveries. A major shift in the consideration for advancing loans was made recently. Now the credit worthiness of the agriculturist members and the crops grown by them are given weight instead of the value of land possessed by them.

Besides the financial activities, good progress was also made by agricultural credit societies in the sphere of services to agriculturists such as distribution of agricultural requisites (like seeds, manure, etc.), marketing of agricultural produce, etc.

Central Co-operative Bank: "There were 4 separate Central Co-operative Banks operating in the district. These four Banks at—(1) Buldhana, (2) Khamgaon, (3) Malkapur and (4) Mehkar were amalgamated into one Bank called the Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd. with headquarters at Buldhana, on 26th January 1962. The Amalgamated Bank has been working as a federal financing agency catering for the credit requirements of all the primary credit societies in the district. Since 1962, the Zilla Parishad also transacts its financial business through this Bank." *

Some of the main objectives of this bank may be stated below. They are,—(1) to supply credit facilities to the co-operative institutions, (2) to increase the banking habits of the rural and urban people, (3) to work as a federal bank for the large amount required by co-operative institutions, and (4) to spread the co-operative movement in backward area.

*Source—District Census Hand-book, Buldhana, 1961.

There are 27 branches of this bank in the district. Branches are opened to facilitate the money transactions of the agriculturists. All the villages in the district come within a radius of 10 to 15 miles from the offices of these branches. These banks also accept electric bills and Insurance premiums.

Progress made by this bank since 26th January 1962 is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 1
WORKING OF THE BULDHANA DISTRICT CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE
BANK, BULDHANA.

Serial No. (1)	Particulars (2)	30-6-1962 (3)	30-6-1966 (4)	30-6-1968 (5)	30-6-1969 (6)
1	Number of branches	21	27	27	31
2	Number of employees	191	279	287	290
3	Share capital (Rs. in lakhs)	27.33	56.42	109.86	148.39
4	Reserve and other funds (Rs. in lakhs)	10.59	16.92	24.31	32.28
5	Total funds (Rs. in lakhs)	75.28	144.79	190.23	239.16
6	Remaining debt taken from other banks (Rs. in lakhs)	121.04	301.23	277.71	164.37
7	Working capital (Rs. in lakhs)	234.74	524.25	603.11	620.87
8	Profit earned (Rs. in lakhs)	0.88	2.28	4.40	..
9	Dues of Co-operative Societies (Rs. in lakhs)	172.23	455.40	525.21	473.57
10	Total debt received (Rs. in lakhs)	144.03	280.14	301.05	253.67

This bank is in the forefront in regard to the spread of co-operative movement in the district, and it takes a prominent part in implementing new schemes according to the policy of State Government. The bank has given loans to dairy societies and press co-operatives, while a sugar factory is being established with the help of this bank at Sindkhedraja.

Purchase and Sales Societies: There are 13 primary purchase and sale societies in the district. All these units are managed at the district level by a single office. The particulars in brief of all these Societies are given in the following statement:—

Particulars (1)	1966-67 (2)	1967-68 (3)
(1) No. of purchase and sales societies	1	1
(2) Purchase and sales samitis	13	13
(3) Total number of members—		
(i) Institutions	556	694
(ii) Individuals	6,499	6,093
(4) Share capital—		
(i) Institutions	11,12,306	1,83,665
(ii) Individuals	3,87,031	2,11,110
(iii) Government	13,25,000	12,76,362
(5) Reserve and other funds	11,71,077	11,96,977
(6) Working capital	53,35,255	51,93,406

One of the notable features of these societies is that they have taken up the important work of distributing seeds, manures, etc., to the agriculturists.

The value of purchase and sales by these societies amounted to Rs. 96.82 lakhs and Rs. 94.19 lakhs, respectively, in the year 1968. The working of the societies received impetus only at the close of the decade and they have now undertaken activities, such as, sale of agricultural produce of the members on commission basis, advance of loan on pledge of produce, etc. With the introduction of the scheme of linking credit with marketing, the societies get marketing finance from the central financing agencies. With a view to giving fair returns to their agriculturist members of the societies have undertaken pooling of cotton produce of their members. Their handling of this new function is marked with remarkable success.

Industrial Societies: There are seven weavers societies and 44 other industrial societies in the district. Of the seven weavers societies, six are hand-loom weavers' societies and one wool weavers' society. Their combined membership was 47 in the year 1965-66. The share capital amounted to Rs. 57 thousand and working capital amounted to Rs. 542 thousand in the year 1965-66. The combined reserve fund of these societies amounted to Rs. 40,000, Rs. 53,000 and Rs. 57,000 in the years 1961-62, 1964-65 and 1965-66, respectively. The value of the goods produced by the societies during the year 1965-66 amounted to Rs. 5 lakhs.

The other types of industrial societies include five oil ghanis, two cane and bamboo workers, 15 leather working, six carpentry and smithy, one metal working, four pottery and brick-making, seven miscellaneous, etc. Their combined membership is 705, share capital Rs. 50 thousand and working capital Rs. 1.27 lakhs. The value of production of these societies was Rs. 1.10 lakhs and sales value Rs. 91 thousand in the year 1965-66.

District Co-operative Board: Education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the spread of co-operative movement are carried out by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of Maharashtra State Co-operative Union, Ltd., Bombay. The membership of the Board is of two classes, viz., ordinary consisting of all co-operative societies in the district and associate, consisting of individuals. A nominee of the financing agency (The Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Buldhana), the District Deputy Registrar and Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are *ex-officio* members of the Board. It has a membership of 47. There are three instructors in this district, who are appointed by the Maharashtra State Co-operative Board, for training and propaganda. Out of these three instructors, one works as the Secretary of the Board. This Board conducts a course for the Secretaries and a course for the members of the Managing Committee. During the year 1967-68, 688 persons were trained by this institution.

District Co-operative Marketing Society: The District Co-operative Marketing Society works as a federation of 13 Black Sale and Purchase Societies. The marketing societies arrange for the supply of agricultural implements, fertilizers, etc., and also for the sell of agricultural produce of their members. The Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society, Nagpur is an apex non-credit society having jurisdiction over the whole of Vidarbha region. It pools the produce from the cotton growing region through sale and purchase societies affiliated to it and also undertakes marketing of agricultural produce.

Service Co-operatives: The number of members of service co-operatives in this district stood at 582 (including 509 Gram Sewa, 41 Multipurpose Societies and 32 Primary Credit Societies) as on 30-6-1968. The Government granted financial assistance during 1967-68 for the following purposes:—

Particulars (1)	Loan (2)	Subsidy (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
For construction of Godown ..	7,500	2,500
Management subsidy	..	1,608
For other purposes	..	1,648
Share Capital	3,18,500	..

Almost all of these societies are engaged in the distribution of food-grains, fertilizers and improved seeds, etc.

Fisheries Societies: There are five fisheries societies in this district. The Government has contributed Rs. 7,000 towards the share capital of these societies. They sold fishes valued of Rs. 1,422 during the year 1967-68.

Processing Societies: There are five Cotton Ginning and Pressing Societies and two Co-operative Oil Mills in the district. The Government has contributed towards their share capital a sum of Rs. 2,36,300 and Rs. 20,300, respectively. During the year 1967-68, a total quantity of 50,127 quintals of cotton was processed by the Ginning and Pressing Societies.

Housing Societies: There are 56 Housing Societies in the district which are grouped as under:—

Backward Class Housing Societies	4
Other Backward Class Housing Societies	4
General Housing Societies	20
Flood Affected Housing Societies for Backward Classes ..	19
Flood Affected Housing Societies for Other Backward Classes ..	9
Total ..	56

Consumers Stores: In the district, there were 31 consumers stores by the end of June 1968. The Government has contributed a sum of Rs. 1,09,000 towards the share capital of these consumers stores. Their activities are mostly confined to running fair price shops.

Co-operative Farming Societies: There are 33 co-operative farming societies including 5 joint farming societies in the district. There are two posts of Extension Officers (Agriculture) for giving technical guidance to these societies. The Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank extends financial assistance to these societies. These societies command, in aggregate, an area of 3,897 hectares. The Government has contributed Rs. 47,500 towards their share capital.

Lift Irrigation Co-operative Societies: There are four lift irrigation societies in this district. Out of these four societies, the construction work of the Raheri Lift Irrigation Society and Mhaiswadi Lift Irrigation Society is likely to be completed and construction of the remaining two societies is in progress. The total area covered by these societies amounts to 1,490 hectares.

Raheri Lift Irrigation Co-operative Society: The Society has been granted a Government loan amounting to Rs. 77,000 and a subsidy of Rs. 38,500 so far. The amount sanctioned covers the cost of the scheme. The civil, mechanical and electrical work has been completed except for the pipe line which is also expected to be completed shortly.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Scheme, Kund Bk.: The society has completed the civil work of the scheme and has utilised a sum of Rs. 1,17,188 for the same. The entire cost of the Scheme amounting to Rs. 1,17,200 has been sanctioned by way of Government loan. The work of erection of machinery is in progress.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Mhaiswadi: The entire cost of the work of the society has been sanctioned amounting to Rs. 1,52,605 by way of Government loan. The society is expected to commence its work very soon.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Chincholi: The society was registered on 15-6-1967. A loan of Rs. 2,65,300 has been sanctioned to it by the Buldhana District Co-operative Primary Land Development Bank. Out of the sanctioned loan, a sum of Rs. 98,258 has already been utilised by the society on the commencement of the civil work under the scheme.

Labour Contract Societies: The scheme was started in the year 1961 and one labour contract co-operative society was registered in the district. There are now four labour contract co-operative societies in this district out of which one is defunct. The remaining three societies are functioning. The information in respect of membership, share capital and reserve fund of the above societies

during the year 1967-68 is given below:—

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Society (2)	Member-ship (3)	Share Capital in Rs. (4)	Reserve Fund in Rs. (5)
1	General Bandhkam Kamgar Sahkari Society Ltd., Khamgaon.	54	2,572	764
2	Shri Dayananda Labour Contract Sahkari Sanstha Ltd., Lonar.	19	2,730	21
3	Shegaon Majoor Kamgar Sahkari Sanstha Ltd., Shegaon.	30	6,000	20

The above labour contract societies received Government assistance as given below:—

Sr. No. (1)	Name of the Society (2)	Year (3)	Financial assistance already sanctioned			
			Purchase of tools and equipment		Management Subsidy (6)	Share capital contribution (7)
			Loan (4)	Subsidy (5)		
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	General Bandhkam Kamgar Sahkari Sanstha Ltd., Khamgaon.	1965-66	1,000	1,000	2,000	..
2	Shegaon Majoor Kamgar Sahkari Sanstha Ltd., Shegaon.	1967-68	500	500	1,200 1st year 1967-68.	3,000
3	Dayanand Labour Contract Co-operative Society Ltd. Lonar.	1965-66	1,000	1,000	1,200 1st year 1965-66. 1,200 2nd year 1966-67.	2,000

The labour contract co-operative societies however do not get regular contracts and hence they cannot provide regular work to their members. They also do not receive any financial help from the central financing agency which creates difficulties for them in balancing their budget.

STATE-AID TO AGRICULTURE

State-Aid to Agriculture.—The system of granting tagai loans to needy agriculturists is not new. Even before the British rule, it was being operated, although on a small scale, to help agriculturists tide over years of famine or drought. Later the system was applied almost invariably even during normal years. Under the British Administration, a number of Acts were passed between 1871 and 1879. Substantial financial assistance, however, was granted only after the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884 came into force. Details about advances made under the Act of 1883 in this district are given in the following paragraph which is reproduced from Old Buldhana District Gazetteer.

Government Loans: "From 1871 to 1887 a sum of about Rs. 9,000 was advanced to cultivators under the Land Improvement Act of 1871 which was in force in Berar till the close of 1885. The money was mostly devoted to the construction of wells. The smallness of the amount advanced was ascribed to the strictness of the rules for recovery and to the delay in disposing of applications for loans. On the 1st January 1886, the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) was made applicable to Berar. Under this Act during the six years ending 1892-93 the sum of Rs. 43,475 was advanced to the cultivators of the old Buldhana District. Of this amount 53 per cent was devoted to the excavation, construction or repairs of wells; 34 per cent to the reclamation of land from floods or other damage by water; and 13 per cent to the construction of field embankments. Taking the District in its reconstituted form, the total sum distributed under the Act for the fifteen years from 1893 to 1908, was Rs. 2,27,283 of which Rs. 85,877 were spent on the construction of wells, Rs. 34,561 on the reclamation of land from floods, Rs. 76,259 on the improvement of fields and wells, Rs. 13,883 on the removal of stones from fields, and Rs. 16,673 on the raising of field embankments. The largest amount distributed in any one year was Rs. 55,860 in 1907-08. This may be an indication that the loans are becoming more popular. Remissions and suspensions have been of very trifling amount. The principal scope for land improvements lies in the building of stone walls to prevent erosion, in the construction of fences for field protection and in the sinking of wells for the irrigation of garden crops and sugarcane. The Berar cultivator has every incentive to sink wells, as it was ruled by the Resident at the last settlement that all increase of assets due to the construction of wells during the currency of the original settlement should be excluded from consideration, and a similar rule will presumably hold for the future. The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) was made applicable to Berar in September 1891, but it did not come into operation till 1893. Between 1893 and 1908 a sum of Rs. 1,09,481 was advanced, the highest amount being Rs. 50,167 in 1900-1901, which may be ascribed to the famine. Here again remissions and suspensions have been insignificant in amount. The great defect of these loans is that the relief does not reach the cultivators who are most in need of it. In ordinary years it reaches only the more substantial and solvent cultivators who are least in need of it. The cultivator who is struggling in deep waters cannot hope to profit by a takavi advance. He is in debt because he is poor, and his poverty prevents him obtaining the means of escape from debt. Something might be done to remedy this defect by developing the system of advancing loans on the joint personal security of a number of tenants. This has been tried in the Central Provinces with a certain amount of success. It is supposed to contain within it the germs of the co-operative spirit, capable some day of being expanded into a system of co-operative agricultural banking. Every effort is now made to popularise the loans by quickening the machinery of distribution,

as for instance by giving out the money on tour after enquiry on the spot. But it is now beginning to be recognised that for a variety of reasons it is impossible for Government to compete with the money-lender, and that the main use of these loans is to finance the cultivator at a time of serious failure of crops or serious mortality of cattle."

Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883: Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for the works of improvement on land, such as, construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation of land from rivers or other waters and protection of it from floods or erosion. The Collectors, Prant Officers and Tahsildars are authorised under this Act to grant loans to a certain extent, and charge an interest at the rate of 8.50 per cent, i.e., 16 pies (i.e., 8 paise) per rupee per annum. The Government, however, may charge in particular case, a reduced rate or may not charge any interest at all. The loan is given when the grantor is satisfied as to the security with a margin of safety. When the value of the applicant's interest in the land to be improved clearly covers the amount of the loan with interest and the cost (if any) likely to be incurred in making the same, collateral security is not required at all. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loan if amount advanced is large. Personal security may be accepted, even that of one person, provided that his solvency is certain.

Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884: Under this Act loans may be granted to holders of arable lands from—(a) purchase of seed, fodder, cattle, agricultural stock, agricultural implements, hire of agricultural implements or cattle, etc., (b) rebuilding houses destroyed by fire, flood or any other calamity, (c) maintenance of cultivators while engaged in sowing or tilling their lands prior to the next crop, (d) any other purpose not specified in the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883, connected with agricultural objects. Collectors, Prant Officers and Tahsildars are authorised to grant loans up to specified limits. Loans above Rs. 2,500 have to be referred to Government for approval. Interest of 8½ per cent is charged on all loans, but the Government on the recommendation of the Collector may in particular cases authorise a reduced rate or charge no interest at all. Terms as regards security are the same as under the Land Improvement Act of 1883.*

Tagai loans for purchase of seed, fertilizers and weeding operations and for Grow More Food Campaign under the Agriculturists' Loans Act are advanced against collateral security, jointly or severally, whereas individual loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act are granted on hypothecation of immovables of the borrowers. While granting loans, the repaying capacity of the borrower is taken into consideration. Generally 75 per cent of the loans are advanced against security of loans and 25 per

cent are advanced against collateral security. The ratio of the value of security to the total amounts of loans advanced is 2:1.

The following tables (Nos. 2 to 7) give the details of the *tagai* loans granted to the agriculturists in Buldhana district. They indicate, in the first instance, the total number of applications received and sanctioned as well as the amounts of loans asked for, sanctioned and actually disbursed during the period. Secondly, they indicate the purposes for which these loans were granted. Thirdly, they indicate the time-lag between the date of application, the date of sanction and the date of disbursement of these loans. Lastly, these tables indicate the reasons as to why in a number of cases the applications for loans were turned down by the Government.

TABLE No. 2

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT
FROM 1961 TO 1968.

Particulars	Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans	Subsidies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5-A)	(5-B)
(1) Applications pending at the beginning of the year.	1960-61	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..	..
(2) Amount involved (Rs.)	1960-61	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..	..
(3) Number of applications received during the year.	1960-61	4,803	10,277	5,759	..
	1961-62	5,475	5,732	2,452	..
	1962-63	6,412	8,037	5,939	..
	1963-64	5,770	7,326	6,232	..
	1964-65	7,997	9,020	6,112	..
	1965-66	17,273	19,073	7,065	..
	1966-67	9,849	11,468	7,386	..
(4) Total amount applied for by these applicants (Rs.)	1960-61	14,50,868	30,25,192	11,91,823	..
	1961-62	14,42,927	19,94,220	1,95,229	..
	1962-63	15,10,076	30,19,630	9,12,332	..
	1963-64	17,47,290	32,41,070	7,87,901	..
	1964-65	20,32,425	32,56,690	6,86,024	..
	1965-66	50,01,260	56,66,162	7,51,216	..
	1966-67	23,61,400	24,06,950	5,13,633	..
	1967-68	9,34,390	9,35,450	20,09,007	..

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldana District, vol. A, 1910, pp. 226-28

TABLE No. 2—contd.

Particulars (1)	Year (2)	Loans under Land Improve- ment Loans Act, 1883 (3)	Loans under Agricultu- rists Loans Act, 1884 (4)	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans (5-A)	Sub- sidies (5-B)
(5) No. of applications sanctioned.	1960-61	2,807	7,560	5,504	..
	1961-62	4,069	3,838	2,121	..
	1962-63	4,612	6,584	7,471	..
	1963-64	2,714	4,446	6,151	..
	1964-65	5,761	5,482	5,804	..
	1965-66	9,395	12,188	6,777	..
	1966-67	7,268	8,188	7,186	..
	1967-68	5,552	1,454	10,629	..
(6) Total amount asked for in 5 above (Rs.)	1960-61	7,98,320	19,50,511	10,85,332	..
	1961-62	9,89,991	16,93,102	2,68,360	..
	1962-63	11,10,715	25,14,792	10,95,394	..
	1963-64	7,01,630	13,68,055	7,12,901	..
	1964-65	19,37,841	20,02,695	6,36,013	..
	1965-66	39,60,700	38,76,285	5,26,216	..
	1966-67	18,85,540	24,82,812	4,58,632	..
	1967-68	3,38,695	3,63,000	19,59,007	..
(7) Total amount actually sanctioned (Rs.)	1960-61	7,44,160	17,97,938	10,16,805	..
	1961-62	9,31,275	13,93,365	2,60,486	..
	1962-63	9,21,565	19,29,330	4,46,334	..
	1963-64	8,22,651	7,76,266	4,82,733	..
	1964-65	24,58,175	8,24,970	4,17,783	..
	1965-66	41,90,900	13,09,100	4,37,277	..
	1966-67	25,93,450	8,74,150	4,43,028	..
	1967-68	4,66,240	1,57,140	19,11,953	..
(8) Total amount actually disbursed during the year (Rs.)	1960-61	7,44,160	17,97,938	10,16,805	..
	1961-62	9,31,275	13,93,365	2,60,486	..
	1962-63	9,21,565	19,29,330	4,46,334	..
	1963-64	8,22,651	5,76,266	4,82,733	..
	1964-65	24,58,175	8,24,970	4,17,783	..
	1965-66	41,90,900	13,09,100	4,37,277	..
	1966-67	25,93,450	8,74,150	4,43,028	..
	1967-68	4,66,240	1,57,140	19,11,953	..
(9) Total loans repaid during the year (Rs.)	1960-61	5,73,642	12,87,353	5,01,924	..
	1961-62	1,58,650	3,57,603	2,09,073	..
	1962-63	7,45,552	8,93,527	2,69,320	..
	1963-64	15,51,557	6,67,721	6,01,138	..
	1964-65	6,01,135	3,27,915	3,03,830	..
	1965-66	9,79,544	98,003	1,53,782	..
	1966-67	15,22,657	4,93,129	4,47,231	..
	1967-68	24,41,676	14,50,119	9,67,028	..
(10) Total loans outstanding (Rs.).	1960-61	12,76,707	22,15,102	28,48,072	..
	1961-62	20,49,333	32,50,863	28,99,486	..
	1962-63	32,14,034	31,52,319	30,75,766	..
	1963-64	37,19,908	18,26,084	29,57,361	..
	1964-65	56,98,854	22,01,233	30,71,315	..
	1965-66	97,66,332	33,55,908	33,54,809	..
	1966-67	1,10,85,923	34,88,130	33,50,605	..
	1967-68	95,42,785	17,62,851	42,95,530	..

TABLE No. 3

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PURPOSE.

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned (1)	Year (2)	Loans under Land Improve- ment Loans Act, 1883 (3)	Loans under Agricultu- rists Loans Act, 1884 (4)	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans (5-A)	Cash sub- sidies (5-B)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
(1) For current farm expen- diture—	1960-61	..	..	8,16,895	..
(a) Seeds	1961-62	..	3,00,000	1,60,486	..
	1962-63	..	7,34,878	1,81,292	..
	1963-64	..	1,66,545	1,17,881	..
	1964-65	..	3,02,800	1,27,212	..
	1965-66	..	3,19,500	1,69,151	..
	1966-67	..	3,27,515	2,43,028	..
	1967-68	..	..	8,33,002	..
(b) Fodder	1960-61	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	1,89,831	..
	1964-65	..	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	23,099	..
	1966-67	..	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	2,89,353	..
(c) Manures	1960-61	..	..	2,00,000	..
	1961-62	..	..	1,00,000	..
	1962-63	..	..	1,00,000	..
	1963-64	..	..	90,573	..
	1964-65	..	..	2,05,725	..
	1965-66	..	..	1,78,018	..
	1966-67	..	..	2,00,000	..
	1967-68	..	..	5,87,445	..
(d) Implements	1960-61	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	84,448	..
	1962-63	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	84,846	..
	1965-66	..	..	67,009	..
	1966-67	..	2,00,000	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	28,153	..
(2) Purchase of draught ani- mals.	1960-61	..	9,97,938	..	..
	1961-62	..	4,00,000	..	..
	1962-63	..	8,04,525	..	..
	1963-64	..	2,89,192	..	..
	1964-65	..	4,00,057	..	..
	1965-66	..	5,40,600	..	..
	1966-67	..	2,31,115	..	..
	1967-68	..	68,340	..	..
(3) Well digging and other irrigation projects.	1960-61	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 3—contd.

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned	Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans	Cash sub-sidies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5-A)	(5-B)
(4) Land Improvement ..	1960-61 ..	Rs. 7,44,160	Rs. ..	Rs. ..	Rs. ..
	1961-62 ..	9,31,275	..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	9,21,565	..	..	..
	1963-64 ..	8,22,651	..	..	..
	1964-65 ..	24,58,175	..	..	..
	1965-66 ..	41,90,900	..	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	..	..	..
	1967-68 ..	4,66,240	..	..	..
(5) Consumption	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
(6) Other purposes—					
(a) Tractors					
	1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	..	..	..	..
	1963-64 ..	..	..	..	..
	1964-65 ..	..	..	..	..
	1965-66 ..	..	..	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	..	..	..
	1967-68 ..	..	..	..	..
(b) Oil Engines and pumping Sets.					
	1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	..	..	..	..
	1963-64 ..	..	..	..	..
	1964-65 ..	..	..	..	..
	1965-66 ..	..	..	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	..	..	..
	1967-68 ..	..	..	..	..
(c) Weedings Tagai ..					
	1960-61 ..	..	8,00,000	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	3,93,365	..	..
	1962-63 ..	..	3,89,927	..	..
	1963-64 ..	..	1,20,530	..	..
	1964-65 ..	..	1,22,313	..	..
	1965-66 ..	..	4,49,000	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	1,15,520	..	..
	1967-68 ..	..	88,800	..	..

TABLE No. 4

GOVERNMENT FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT FROM 1960-61 TO 1967-68

Time lag between date of application and date of sanction	Year	No. of applications	Amount applied for	Amount sanctioned
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
			Rs.	Rs.
(1) On the same day ..	1960-61	3,000	12,00,000	4,90,000
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
(2) Less than one month	1960-61	4,300	14,13,000	6,75,500
	1961-62	650	2,25,000	79,540
	1962-63	366	1,09,800	59,313
	1963-64	825	4,08,200	1,83,725
	1964-65	274	80,510	50,122
	1965-66	3,904	10,98,322	4,80,000
	1966-67	2,571	5,15,180	3,46,130
	1967-68	1,000	1,74,600	70,500
(3) 1-2 Months	1960-61	1,900	3,22,580	2,75,252
	1961-62	1,546	5,63,320	3,08,511
	1962-63	2,649	10,97,006	4,56,947
	1963-64	1,858	6,64,650	4,19,280
	1964-65	3,181	15,40,216	7,93,830
	1965-66	6,706	14,14,420	15,77,660
	1966-67	7,183	16,11,950	13,77,810
	1967-68	2,739	6,36,110	2,84,521
(4) 2-3 Months	1960-61	6,015	5,78,600	4,88,913
	1961-62	4,096	11,98,367	9,14,218
	1962-63	8,846	31,51,076	20,01,108
	1963-64	3,559	13,90,340	5,42,073
	1964-65	4,127	13,58,959	6,05,558
	1965-66	22,632	75,33,529	31,65,339
	1966-67	9,844	21,00,256	18,96,191
	1967-68	6,870	5,62,920	4,99,417
(5) 3-4 Months	1960-61	3,988	15,71,245	11,21,962
	1961-62	2,241	14,11,927	10,02,595
	1962-63	1,619	8,34,844	5,30,380
	1963-64	8,064	31,98,354	5,67,844
	1964-65	7,760	27,18,744	13,65,809
	1965-66	213	70,540	35,000
	1966-67	4,905	9,08,281	1,44,181
	1967-68	5,039	14,03,563	5,79,241
(6) 4-5 Months	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	3,322	1,80,700	1,08,790
	1962-63	3,981	74,656	74,656
	1963-64	4,622	1,14,718	84,448
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	5,010	11,23,811	5,01,260
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Time lag between date of application and date of sanction (1)	Year (2)	No. of applications (3)	Amount applied for (4)	Amount sanctioned (5)
			Rs.	Rs.
(7) 5-6 Months	1960-61	1,636	5,82,458	5,07,276
	1961-62	1,804	1,13,062	1,71,472
	1962-63	2,927	1,74,825	1,74,825
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	3,731	93,668	8,02,568
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	4,200	1,46,316	1,46,316
(8) 6-7 Months	1967-68	2,189	5,14,209	5,14,209
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	4,056	83,042	83,042
	1965-66	4,946	1,78,016	1,78,016
(9) 7-8 Months	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
(10) Over 8 Months	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	4,300	5,87,445	5,87,445
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
(11) Not ascertainable	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
(12) Total	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	20,839	56,67,883	35,58,903
	1961-62	13,659	36,32,376	25,85,126
	1962-63	20,388	54,42,207	32,97,229
	1963-64	19,328	57,76,262	18,81,650
	1964-65	23,129	59,75,139	37,00,928
	1965-66	43,411	1,14,18,638	59,37,277
	1966-67	28,703	52,81,983	39,10,628
	1967-68	22,137	38,78,847	25,35,333

TABLE No. 5

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT
FROM 1960-61 TO 1967-68.

Time lag between date of sanction and date of disbursement (1)	Year (2)	No. of applications (3)	Amount sanctioned (4)	Amount disbursed (5)
			Rs.	Rs.
(1) On the same day	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	1,387	10,02,595	10,02,595
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	274	50,120	50,120
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
(2) Less than one Month	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	12,322	27,76,933	27,76,933
	1961-62	7,597	10,28,504	10,28,504
	1962-63	6,592	11,15,172	11,15,172
	1963-64	1,010	2,04,182	2,04,182
	1964-65	6,206	12,94,884	12,94,884
	1965-66	18,022	37,54,758	37,54,758
(3) 1-2 Months	1966-67	17,977	36,90,631	36,90,631
	1967-68	6,778	5,83,793	5,83,793
	1960-61	1,450	1,47,579	1,47,579
	1961-62	621	3,82,555	3,82,555
	1962-63	5,891	19,15,409	19,15,409
	1963-64	1,570	3,84,553	3,84,553
	1964-65	5,823	20,92,274	20,92,274
(4) 2-3 Months	1965-66	4,279	17,33,750	17,33,750
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	4,368	8,49,886	8,49,886
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	75	26,950	26,950
	1963-64	3,190	8,51,123	8,51,123
(5) 3-4 Months	1964-65	410	89,790	89,790
	1965-66	749	1,85,650	1,85,650
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	735	1,27,115	1,27,115
	1961-62	138	81,635	81,635
	1962-63	4,075	74,556	74,656
(6) 4-5 Months	1963-64	7,135	3,23,911	3,23,911
	1964-65	4,056	83,042	83,042
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	4,200	1,46,316	1,46,316
	1967-68	6,489	11,01,654	11,01,654
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	44	1,65,042	1,65,042
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	278	90,818	90,818
	1965-66	5,310	2,63,119	2,63,119
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..

TABLE No. 5—contd.

Time lag between date of sanction and date of disbursement (1)	Year (2)	No. of applications (3)	Amount sanctioned (4)	Amount disbursed (5)
			Rs.	Rs.
(7) 5-6 Months	1960-61	1,364	5,07,276	5,07,276
	1961-62	285	89,837	89,837
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	406	1,17,881	1,17,881
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	466	73,681	73,681
(8) 6-7 Months	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
(9) 7-8 Months	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
(10) Over 8 Months	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
	1963-64	..	..	..
(11) Not ascertainable	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	..	..	..
	1961-62	..	..	..
	1962-63	..	..	..
Total	1963-64	..	..	..
	1964-65	..	..	..
	1965-66	..	..	..
	1966-67	..	..	..
	1967-68	..	..	..
	1960-61	15,871	35,58,903	35,58,903
	1961-62	10,028	25,85,126	25,85,126
	1962-63	16,667	32,97,229	32,97,229
	1963-64	13,311	18,81,650	18,81,650
	1964-65	17,047	37,00,928	37,00,928
	1965-66	28,360	59,37,277	59,37,277
	1966-67	22,643	39,10,628	39,10,628
	1967-68	17,635	25,35,333	25,35,333

TABLE No. 6

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT
FROM 1960-61 TO 1967-68.

Duration of Loans (1)	Year (2)	No. of applications (3)	Amount (4)
			Rs.
1. Less than 3 Months	1960-61	..	..
	1961-62	..	..
	1962-63	..	..
	1963-64	..	..
	1964-65	..	..
	1965-66	..	..
	1966-67	..	..
2. 3 to 6 Months	1967-68	..	..
	1960-61	..	..
	1961-62	..	..
	1962-63	..	..
	1963-64	..	..
	1964-65	..	..
	1965-66	..	..
3. 6 to 9 Months	1966-67	..	..
	1967-68	..	..
	1960-61	..	..
	1961-62	..	..
	1962-63	..	..
	1963-64	..	..
	1964-65	..	..
4. 9 to 12 Months	1965-66	364	85,101
	1966-67	..	..
	1967-68	..	..
	1960-61	4,474	1,14,951
	1961-62	2,908	4,22,084
	1962-63	2,359	3,53,815
	1963-64	3,788	10,97,490
5. 1 to 2 Years	1964-65	3,364	5,99,523
	1965-66	2,052	6,88,319
	1966-67	4,659	7,34,958
	1967-68	9,004	10,60,341
	1960-61	4,019	5,48,844
	1961-62	2,886	3,34,861
	1962-63	2,342	4,54,536
6. 2 to 3 Years	1963-64	1,392	2,77,631
	1964-65	2,208	11,26,020
	1965-66	3,051	12,63,500
	1966-67	7,297	6,87,978
	1967-68	895	2,07,859
	1960-61	3,401	5,63,066
	1961-62	1,848	5,90,839
	1962-63	1,469	5,38,801
	1963-64	4,986	2,36,311
	1964-65	2,553	4,03,694
	1965-66	3,223	10,84,240
	1966-67	4,402	16,28,976
	1967-68	1,104	1,26,415

TABLE No. 6—*contd.*

Duration of Loans	Year	No. of applications	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
			Rs.
7. 3 to 4 Years	1960-61 ..	2,037	9,94,848
	1961-62 ..	969	1,68,347
	1962-63 ..	6,300	5,60,758
	1963-64 ..	125	26,405
	1964-65 ..	106	16,120
	1965-66 ..	6,946	3,78,018
	1966-67 ..	4,155	4,54,316
	1967-68 ..	4,300	5,87,445
8. 4 to 5 Years	1960-61 ..	1,760	7,14,394
	1961-62 ..	1,417	10,68,995
	1962-63 ..	456	1,93,710
	1963-64 ..	3,015	2,39,463
	1964-65 ..	8,922	15,55,571
	1965-66 ..	12,724	24,38,099
	1966-67 ..	2,130	4,04,400
	1967-68 ..	..	..
9. 5 Years and above.. ..	1960-61 ..	180	22,800
	1961-62 ..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	2,437	11,95,609
	1963-64 ..	5	3,350
	1964-65 ..	..	..
	1965-66 ..	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	..
	1967-68 ..	1,694	4,33,273
10. Those who have not stated the duration.	1960-61 ..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	..	..
	1963-64 ..	..	..
	1964-65 ..	..	..
	1965-66 ..	..	..
	1966-67 ..	..	..
	1967-68 ..	638	1,20,000
11. Total	1960-61 ..	15,871	35,58,903
	1961-62 ..	10,028	25,85,126
	1962-63 ..	16,667	32,97,229
	1963-64 ..	13,311	18,81,650
	1964-65 ..	17,047	37,00,928
	1965-66 ..	28,360	59,37,217
	1966-67 ..	22,643	39,10,628
	1967-68 ..	17,635	25,35,333

TABLE No. 7

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT
FROM 1960-61 TO 1967-68.

Reasons for rejection	Year	Number of applications	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
			Rs.
(1) Lack of Security or inadequate Security.	1960-61 ..	1,037	3,21,055
	1961-62 ..	2,936	7,65,303
	1962-63 ..	1,726	9,88,263
	1963-64 ..	3,577	15,11,105
	1964-65 ..	2,319	10,85,270
	1965-66 ..	3,949	17,97,463
	1966-67 ..	1,341	1,45,262
	1967-68 ..	1,136	1,99,383
(2) Purpose of loans not approved	1960-61 ..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..
	1962-63 ..	703	2,18,537
	1963-64 ..	373	5,61,871
	1964-65 ..	328	2,47,145
	1965-66 ..	1,466	5,87,450
	1966-67 ..	473	97,413
	1967-68 ..	187	91,250
(3) Old dues to Government ..	1960-61 ..	3,941	17,87,925
	1961-62 ..	675	2,69,150
	1962-63 ..	1,188	8,98,488
	1963-64 ..	1,578	13,39,929
	1964-65 ..	3,281	8,58,446
	1965-66 ..	8,967	29,85,590
	1966-67 ..	1,486	1,51,190
	1967-68 ..	3,110	10,49,431
(4) Miscellaneous	1960-61 ..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	20	12,795
	1962-63 ..	104	39,690
	1963-64 ..	489	4,81,706
	1964-65 ..	154	83,350
	1965-66 ..	434	44,710
	1966-67 ..	2,760	9,77,490
	1967-68 ..	69	3,450
(5) Total	1960-61 ..	4,968	21,08,980
	1961-62 ..	3,631	10,47,270
	1962-63 ..	3,821	21,44,978
	1963-64 ..	6,017	38,94,711
	1964-65 ..	6,082	22,74,211
	1965-66 ..	14,816	54,15,213
	1966-67 ..	6,060	13,71,355
	1967-68 ..	4,502	13,43,514

SMALL SAVINGS

Small Savings.—Small savings is one of the measures for raising money by borrowing internally to finance the development plans of the country. These investments help the nation in the defence and development of the country. Thus small savings scheme is a scheme of national benefit as well as personal benefit to the investor in all respects. In a nut-shell it may be said that "small savings is the safety valve and sheet anchor of the State's sources of

supply for its plans to keep going; for its people to keep progressing to prosperity; for the nation to ensure its defence and fulfil its destiny”.

The small savings movement was started in India in 1945 with the intention of mopping up purchasing power to fight the inflationary forces in post war years. The Planning Commission later adopted it as an important means to finance its expenditure on capital schemes included in the five year plans.

The following categories of investments have been classified as small savings investments :—

(1) 12-year national plan savings certificates, issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of 12-years and 7-years national savings certificates as well as 10-year national plan certificates issued before June 1957.

(2) Post office savings banks.

(3) 10-year treasury savings deposit certificates issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of treasury deposit certificates issued before that date.

(4) 15-year annuity certificates.

(5) Cumulative time deposit scheme.

12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates: The Government discontinued the 7-year and 12-year national savings certificates and 10-year national plan certificates and issued the 12-year national plan savings certificates with effect from June 1957. These certificates are available at all postal savings banks in the denominations of from Rs. 5 to Rs. 5,000. They yield an income-tax free simple interest of 5.41 per cent and compound interest of 4.25 per cent at maturity, i.e., at the end of twelve years. Before and after the period of non-encashability, any certificate can be transferred as security to (1) Government Gazetted Officer; (2) Reserve Bank or Scheduled Bank, or Co-operative Society or Co-operative Bank; (3) Corporation or a Government company; (4) Local Authority.

Post Office Savings Bank: The post office savings banks constitute an important source for the collection of small savings, especially from people of small means. The agency of post office savings banks is well suited to the rural areas where there are meagre banking facilities. Moreover, as an agency of the Government, they enjoy complete confidence of the people. Keeping savings banks accounts constitutes one of the functions of the post offices and can, therefore, be carried on economically.

The post office savings scheme is one in which even the poorest can participate. A person can open his account with Rs. 2 at any post office which does savings bank work. An account may be opened by an individual himself or by two persons jointly. Interest allowed for this deposit on individual and joint account is 2½ per cent on the sum exceeding this amount. The maximum amount that can be deposited is Rs. 15,000 in case of an individual and Rs. 30,000 in case of joint account. Non-profit making

institutions and co-operative societies derive the same facilities which are enjoyed by individuals from post office savings banks. There are no limits to the amount of investments by such institutions in the public account at post offices. It is desirable in national interest that all non-profit making institutions keep their surplus funds in the post office savings banks. The commanding officer of a Unit, District Superintendent of Police, Chairman or President of District Board or Municipality may open a single account, called the “conjoint account” on behalf of employees under them. In all these cases withdrawals are permissible twice a week.

10 Year Savings Scheme: Of the important small savings schemes the 10-year savings deposit scheme is one. It was started in 1957. Originally the deposits were to be multiples of Rs. 100 only with a ceiling on the maximum amount that may be invested, the ceiling varying according to the nature of the holders. From January 1958, deposits have been accepted in multiples of Rs. 50 only. These were available at the Reserve Bank of India, branches of the State Bank of India doing treasury work and all treasuries and sub-treasuries. The deposits are repayable at par value on the expiry of ten calendar years from the date of deposit and till June 1967; the rate of interest allowed on them was 3½ per cent per annum. The same was raised to 4% from the said date. Interest is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. No interest is allowed for any period of less than a year. At the option of the depositors, the deposits are refundable at any time after the expiry of one year after deducting a discount at a graded rate, the latter decreasing as the maturity approaches. The interest earned is not liable to income-tax. The certificates can be pledged with the scheduled banks to secure advances against them thus enabling the small savers to tide over temporary difficulty without encashing them prematurely.

15-Year Annuity Certificates: These certificates have been issued since 2nd January 1958, and are sold in multiples of Rs. 1,330 up to Rs. 26,600 and yield the amount together with compound interest of approximately 4.25 per cent every year by way of monthly payments, spread over 15 Years. If the investor dies during the period, the amount may be paid to his legal heir. Jointly one could invest up to Rs. 53,200. These certificates are also available at such places where treasury savings deposit certificates are sold.

Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme: The scheme is very simple, flexible and suits everyone's needs. Under this scheme people can deposit every month Rs. 5; 10; 20; 100; 200 or 300 at a post office for a period of 5; 10 or 15 years. At the end of the period it brings a handsome lumpsum to the investor. The return is free of income tax. The interest at maturity works out to about 3.3 per cent per annum compound on a five year account, 3.8 per cent per annum compound on a ten year account and 4.3 per cent per annum compound on a 15-year account.

The account can be opened at any post office transacting savings banks business and operated by an adult or two adults jointly. An account can be opened also by a minor in his own name or by a guardian on behalf of the minor, in which case the guardian can operate the account. Cumulative time deposit can be transferred from one post office to another at any time.

In the following table is given the collections and withdrawals in respect of the various categories of certificates in the district for the period from 1964-65 to 1965-66 :—

TABLE No. 8

COLLECTIONS AND WITHDRAWALS OF SMALL SAVINGS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT DURING 1964-65 AND 1965-66.

Serial No.	Description	Target (in lakhs)		Gross Collection		Withdrawals		Net Collection	
		1964-65	1965-66	1964-65	1965-66	1964-65	1965-66	1964-65	1965-66
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1	National defence certificates			11,06,641	9,63,995	14,04,361	20,63,870	(—) 2,97,720	(—) 10,99,875
2	10-year defence certificates			46,500	2,49,730	Nil	Nil	(+) 46,500	(+) 2,49,730
3	15-year annuity certificates			Nil	31,525	Nil	Nil	Nil	(+) 31,525
4	Post office savings bank			1,11,52,671	93,87,823	95,87,693	1,24,82,357	(+) 15,64,978	(—) 30,94,534
5	Cumulative time deposits			2,77,905	32,645	72,546	1,54,740	(+) 2,05,357	(+) 1,66,905
	Total	Rs. 5 lakhs	Rs. 5 lakhs	1,25,83,717	1,09,54,718	1,10,64,602	1,47,00,967	(+) 15,19,115	(—) 37,46,249

• SOURCE.—Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Buldhana District, 1965-66.

•• The target for collection of Small Savings in the district during 1972-73 was Rs. 81 lakhs. The gross collection amounted to Rs. 28 Crores while the withdrawals amounted to Rs. 22 Crores, the net collection amounting to Rs. 6 Crores.

Insurance.—With the nationalisation of life insurance business the Life Insurance Corporation became the sole organisation doing life insurance business in India. The Corporation was constituted under the Life Insurance Corporation Act of 1956 and was established on 1st September 1956. From this date all Indian insurers and provident fund societies as also foreign insurers ceased to carry on life insurance business anywhere in India. However, general insurance which included fire, marine, accident and other insurance business is kept open to private enterprise. * Most of the former insurance companies and societies which used to transact all insurance business including life, have now switched over to general insurance.

Under the new organisational and administrative set up of the Corporation, Buldhana district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of Nagpur Division of the western zone together with Akola, Amravati, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Wardha and Yeotmal districts.

The number of insurance policies issued and amount insured and number of agents in Buldhana District during the years from 1962-63 to 1968-69 are given in the following statement :—

Year (1)	No. of Agents (2)	No. of Insurance Policies (3)	Amount Insured (4)
1962-63	252	2,894	Rs, 1,07,16,000
1963-64	294	2,819	1,01,67,000
1964-65	365	3,195	1,19,36,000
1965-66	393	2,972	1,11,21,000
1966-67	315	2,471	1,15,02,000
1967-68	245	2,382	1,11,04,250
1968-69	226	2,469	1,36,90,000

JOINT STOCK BANKS

Joint Stock Banks.—Buldhana district remained backward economically till the dawn of Independence in 1947. The growth of banking was slow and limited and there were banks at a few centres only. The money-lender was the principal supplier of credit to the people who were mostly agriculturists. Their business declined considerably following the implementation of the Central Provinces and Berar Moneylenders Act, 1934 and the readiness shown by the State in providing credit to the public through its agencies.

Modern banking may be said to have begun in the district with the establishment of a branch of the Central Bank of India on 20th October 1945 at Khamgaon.

On 1st July 1955, the State Bank of India was constituted by a special Act and all the undertakings of the Imperial Bank of India were taken over by it. This policy was adopted only with a view to extending banking facilities on a large scale to the people in the rural and urban areas. The State Bank, also acts as an agent to the Reserve Bank of India and conducts Government transactions. In addition, it provides remittance facilities to

* General insurance was also subsequently nationalised.

scheduled banks, co-operative banks and co-operative societies. The role of the State Bank of India in respect of providing agricultural and rural credit facilities in the district at present consists of, (a) financing agriculturists by way of advances to them against pledge of gold ornaments, (b) making advances against warehouse receipts, and (c) making advances to co-operative and marketing societies by way of repledging their stocks with the Bank. At present there are eight branches of the bank in the district.

There is a branch of the State Bank of Hyderabad at Deulgaon-Raja, established on 29th July 1963. It mainly transacts Government business, such as accepting and holding of monies belonging to the Government and making payments on its behalf and other routine business, such as, exchange, remittance, etc. The bank also works as an agent of the Government.

This bank is a wholly owned subsidiary of the State Bank of India. The rates of interest on deposits are largely standardised and depending on the period, vary from three to six per cent. The rate of interest on advances varies from six and a half per cent to nine per cent depending on security and duration. In the absence of industrial development on a large scale, the banking business has not prospered much in the district. It is mostly restricted to the agricultural sector, though the bank extends financial assistance to small scale and cottage industries at concessional rates of interest. The advances are generally for medium term, and are repayable within a period of seven years against suitable and adequate security including that of immovable property.

The following statement shows the number of banking offices in the district as on 31st March 1966:—

No. of towns and villages having banking offices (1)	Scheduled Banks (2)	Co-operative Banks (3)	Total (4)
26	11	27	38

The table given below furnishes the names of the banks* and their dates of opening in Buldhana district:—

Place (1)	Name of Bank (2)	Date of opening (3)
(1) Buldhana	State Bank of India	30-7-1957
(2) Chikhli	State Bank of India	23-11-1953
(3) Deulgaon Raja	State Bank of Hyderabad	29-7-1963
(4) Jalgaon Jamod	State Bank of India	17-8-1967
(5) Khamgaon	Central Bank of India	25-10-1945
	State Bank of India	1-7-1955
	Punjab National Bank	18-6-1956
	Bank of Maharashtra	10-5-1959
(6) Malkapur	State Bank of India	15-11-1956
(7) Mehkar	State Bank of India	30-1-1959
(8) Nandura	State Bank of India	1-7-1955
(9) Shegaon	State Bank of India	22-12-1960

*The co-operative banks in the district are referred in the section on Co-operative movement.

The other banks, besides, the State Bank of India and the State Bank of Hyderabad, receive deposits and advance loans on securities. They also extend other banking facilities, such as, overdraft, deposit, etc., to meet the requirements of trade, commerce and industry. The rates of interest charged by them on advances differ according to the purpose for which the advances are made. Generally loans without security are not favoured, and if made, are for small sums and for short durations only. The interest rates in such cases range from 8 per cent to 9 per cent per annum. Advances to industries are given priority over those to merchants dealing in seasonal crops like cotton, foodgrains, etc.

STATE AID TO INDUSTRIES

State aid to Industries.—Since Independence, Government have actively participated in the industrial development programmes of the regions or parts thereof. The Second Five Year Plan assigned an important place to the development and growth of small-scale industries. It emphasised that the sector represented by these industries should be viewed more as a progressive rather than a static part of the economy. In conformity with this policy, the Government have been adopting different plans and measures to develop small-scale industries. One such measure is to render financial assistance to them. A number of schemes have been chalked out 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, equipment and machinery, is to be provided by Government. The central financing agencies are generally requested to provide working capital for these societies either on the strength of their own funds or on the strength of marginal guarantee varying between 20 and 40 per cent given by the Joint Registrar of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries. The Maharashtra State Co-operative Bank, too, offers on a small scale, such assistance to these industries.

Financial assistance to industries is given under the State-aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935. Loans accordingly, are granted for the following purposes:—

- (1) Construction of buildings, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks, and other works necessary for industrial operations and for purchase of land;
- (2) Purchase and erection of machinery, plant and appliances;
- (3) Purchase of raw materials;
- (4) Working capital; and
- (5) Fishing

The Government have been a pioneer in the development of cottage and small scale industries. From 1948, the Government implemented a progressive industrial policy. Since then the Government have been taking keen interest in the development of these industries as one of the effective solutions to the problem of unemployment. It was also decided by the Government to deve-

lop these industries on a co-operative basis and to reserve a separate field for cottage and small-scale industries. The amendment to the State-aid to Industries Rules, 1935, was effected in 1955 with a view to bringing about more liberal measures in its industrial policy to give a fillip to the development of cottage and small-scale industries. The Central Government have placed a sum of Rs. 10 lakhs at the disposal of the State Government for the purpose.

The important changes introduced by recent amendment are as under:—

(1) loans to small-scale industries will be granted by the Department of Industries up to Rs. 75,000 in each case and in exceptional cases up to Rs. 1,00,000;

(2) The former rate of $5\frac{1}{2}$ 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 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent shall be levied on all amounts including the principal and interest of the period for which arrears are unpaid;

(3) Loans are advanced to the extent of 75 per cent of the security offered instead of 50 per cent as provided in the earlier rules. Loans are given also against personal security of persons other than borrowers;

(4) The period of repayment of the loans on account of machinery and equipment is up to ten years; such period in respect of that part of the loan which is meant for working capital would not ordinarily exceed five to seven years.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES

Joint Stock Companies.—In the absence of any systematic records it is difficult to trace the gradual evolution of the joint-stock companies in Buldhana district. As elsewhere, they appear to have developed out of the partnership or proprietary type of concerns. The latter, as a matter of fact, required a large capital which was not easy for a single individual or even for a partnership firm to obtain. The large amount of capital and credit was not obtainable unless complete and owned security could be provided to the creditor. The joint-stock companies as they exist to-day, therefore, came up as a more suitable form of business organisation through which instability in the business could be reduced to a great extent.

Public Companies: These companies engage themselves in various kinds of productive activities with a view to obtaining profits. As a rule, they require large capital due to the large extent of their operations. Its use is for acquisition and maintenance of plant, equipment, buildings and other fixed assets, for holding current assets in the form of inventories of finished and partly finished products as well as raw materials and stores required for production. Capital

is also required to be used as current assets and accounts receivable, etc. Capital is raised by floating shares and by issuing debentures. The shares are transferable or negotiable by law.

There is only one public limited company in the Buldhana district, viz., Janata Trading Company which was established in the year 1954.

Private Companies: The Indian Companies Act of 1956 described the private company "as one which restricts the right to transfer its share, if any, limits the number of its members to fifty and prohibits any invitation to the public to subscribe for any share in, or debentures of, the company." The Act further lays down that "no company, association or partnership consisting of more than 20 persons shall be formed for the purpose of carrying on any other business that has for its object the acquisition of gain by the company, association or partnership, or by the individual members, thereof, unless it is registered as a company". Registration, thus, was made compulsory for these companies.

By 1969 there were 5 private companies in Buldhana district. Their work was considerably facilitated when the principle of limited liability was extended to them. These companies raise capital by way of floating non-transferable shares and debentures. They however, pay a rate of interest higher than the one paid by public limited companies with a view to attracting capital.

In the following table is given the name of the company, object, date of registration, authorised, subscribed, issued and paid up capital, and the class of companies to which it belongs.

TABLE No. 9

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Name of the company	Object	Public or Private	Date of registration	No. of Shareholders	Capital			
						Authorised (7)	Subscribed (8)	Issued (9)	Paid up (10)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1	Janata Trading Company	N. A.	Public	7-5-1954	N.A.	Rs. N.A.	Rs. N.A.	Rs. N.A.	Rs. N.A.
2	New Prakash Transport company	Road Transport	Private	23-1-1946	7	2,00,000	56,000	56,000	56,000
3	Shree Ram Cotton-seed Industries Private Limited.	Industrial utilisation of cotton-seed.	Private	21-10-1966	5	10,00,000	2,00,000	2,00,000	2,00,000
4	Suwana Transport Company	Road Transport	Private	21-11-1945	15	1,00,000	73,600	73,600	73,600
5	Deccan Motor Service Chikhli-Deulgaon-Raja Company.	Road Transport	Private	12-3-1946	9	1,00,000	60,000	60,000	60,000
6	Sawana Envelopes	Manufacturing of envelopes, file cards, boards, etc.	Private	27-11-1951	25	4,00,000	4,00,000	1,50,000	90,000

N. A. = Not available.

SECTION II

TRADE AND COMMERCE

EMPLOYMENT IN TRADE

Employment in Trade.—Trade and Commerce are important from the point of view of the economy of the district as they afford employment to a large number of people. As per the 1961 Census, 15,620 persons are engaged in trade and commerce in the district, of whom 6,210 are in rural areas and 9,410 in urban areas. The number of persons engaged in trade and commerce forms 2.87 per cent of the total working population. Of the total number of workers in trade and commerce, 6.24 per cent are engaged in wholesale trade, 89.85 per cent in retail trade and 3.91 per cent in other categories of trade. About 91 per cent of the persons in wholesale trade are in urban areas. Trade in cereals and pulses engaged the maximum number of wholesalers, viz., 334. The following statement gives the break-up of workers in trade and commerce in the district* :—

Employment in Trade and Commerce, 1961.

Category (1)	Total Workers (2)	Workers in urban areas (3)
Working Proprietors, Wholesale Trade	291	263
Working Proprietors, Retail Trade	8,514	3,300
Commercial Travellers and Manufacturers Agents	182	158
Salesmen and Shop Assistants, Wholesale and Retail Trade	3,299	2,815
Hawkers, Pedlars and Street Vendors	1,787	1,669
Salesmen, Shop Assistants and Related Workers	149	127

* Occupational Classification, Table B-V, 1961 Census, Vol. X, Part II-B (ii), p. 287.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Buldhana District Gazetteer published in 1910 gives a vivid description of cotton trade, imports and exports. Though the structure and direction of trade has changed immensely during the subsequent period, the description is very interesting from the point of view of the study of the conditions of commerce in retrospect in the district. The same is reproduced below:

"Cotton trade in former years: The great staple produce which Berar exports, by which cultivation flourishes, traders grow rich, and the taxes are paid, is cotton. In the season of 1825-26 Messrs. Vikaji and Pestanji, merchants of Bombay and Hyderabad, made what they declare to be the first exportation of cotton from Berar straight to Bombay. It consisted of 500 bullock-loads, being 120,000 lbs. weight, valued at Rs. 25,000. Twenty years later, General Balfour, C. B., writing about 1847, thus describes the then existing communications:—

Formerly the greater part of the cotton of Berar was taken 500 miles on bullocks to Mirzapur, on the Ganges, and thence conveyed on boats 450 miles to Calcutta. Now the greater part goes to Bombay, still wholly on pack-oxen, the distance varying

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from 126 to 450 miles, according as the cotton is purchased at one mart or another'.

In its early days the character of Indian cotton in the Liverpool market stood very low and the name 'Surats,' the description under which the cotton of the province was included, was a byword and a general term of contempt. A Lancashire brewer is said to have brought an action for libel against a Liverpool man for calling his beer 'Surats'. Writing in 1870 Sir. A. Lyall gives an interesting sketch of the development of the cotton trade down to that time. 'The bad name borne by Indian cotton deserves apparently to be debited to the manner in which the trade was until recently conducted, and to two great obstacles which for years successfully barred the road to any change or improvement in the up-country business. The first and greatest of these obstacles was the position of the cultivator, on whom we are dependent for supplies. The other was caused by the inaccessibility of the inland tracts in which the cotton markets are situated.

Even until within the last few years the cultivator of this part of India was a somewhat miserable and depressed creature. He was deeply in debt, and the only means he had of procuring an advance to pay his land rent-falling due when the autumn crop was quite young, and he had no produce to meet the demand—was by giving a *lawani*, that is, making a contract with the village banker to supply a quantity of cotton by a fixed date. Under these circumstances the cotton, whether good, bad or indifferent, would bring him in no more than the price already fixed in the bargain to which necessity had compelled him to agree; and at the end of the year, when the crop was ripe, and when in order to secure really good cotton it was indispensable that the fields should be picked without delay, it was to the interest of the ryot first to secure his grain crop, on which he and his family were dependent for their food. In the meantime the cotton would suffer, the ripe wool falling to the ground, and the whole crop standing exposed to the heavy dew of the cold weather. This system threw both the cultivator and the cotton crop of a district into the power of a certain number of money-lenders, who had every object in keeping the trade in their own hands. The other great obstacle to improvement was the inaccessibility of our principal cotton markets. Both these obstacles were almost simultaneously removed. The position of the cultivator underwent a great and decided change. His tenure of land and his rent were fixed and assessed; the instalments of the land-tax were deferred until harvest-time, when they could be paid by the rate of produce. Above all, the American War, by raising the price of cotton, and pouring into the ryot's hands what appeared to him untold wealth, enabled all who were not utterly reckless and extravagant to free themselves from the meshes of the money-lenders. The price of cotton rose from Rs. 23 per *bojha* to Rs. 175, and although there may have been disappointing fluctuations it still stands at what, even making allowance for the

increased expense of cultivation, is a very remunerative rate. The difficulty caused by the inaccessibility of the markets was removed by the penetration of the railway into Berar. In May 1863 the line to Malkapur was opened and in October 1864 that to Shegaon. A number of merchants were thus enabled to come in person to the district to purchase cotton, and they now meet the ryot face to face in a well-organized market, where business is transacted without the intervention of any middleman, whence has resulted the great benefit that the ryot has now a strong and direct interest in the quality of the cotton which he brings in. He knows the European merchant pays according to quality, so if he picks his crop early and keeps it free from dust he will realize all the more for it. In 1865-66 the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line was for the time an obstruction to commerce. The company's rolling-stock was quite inadequate, but the enormous advantages of carriage by rail over carriage by ruts, if the cotton could once get on board the goods waggons, attracted all cotton to the new channel. The whole of the crop was sent forward in loosely packed *dokras*, or rough sacks; their bulk was so enormous that the railway company were utterly unable to carry it off as it was consigned to them, and thousands of bags accumulated at each of the stations, where at one time the silt-up, or block, amounted to 115,000 *dokras*. The consequence was natural, but deplorable—the cotton was worthless in the station-yard and priceless in Bombay; delay and dirt diminished its value daily; the station master was master also of the situation, for the few available empty waggons were at his disposal; and the exigencies of this crisis utterly demoralized all parties. So recently in 1867 the Bombay merchants told Mr. Rivett-Carnac that it would be about as safe to make a contract for future delivery with King Theodore (who was then prominently before the public) as to buy cotton up-country, which might be detained for months at the railway station. However, the Government at last interposed seriously; much pressure was brought to bear on the chief railway authorities; the District officers worked strenuously; the cotton-yards were regulated; the despatches were arranged by a mechanism which barred partiality, and the choked-up channel of goods traffic was at last cleared. Nevertheless the stream of cotton export by railway did not acquire its present full, even, and rapid flow until all the barriers and obstacles raised or left standing by official imperfection were finally levelled by the sustained assaults and exertions of a special Cotton Commissioner. But it was the introduction of pressing that promoted as much as, or more than, any other reform the safe and expeditious consignment of our inland cotton to the seaport. In 1866 there was not a single cotton-press at work in Berar. By 1870, 19 full presses, and 74 half presses had been set up. The construction in 1870 of the branch line from Khamgaon to Jalamb on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway gave a still further stimulus to the cotton trade of Buldhana, and the cotton trade of 1870 has scarcely any features in common with the system of export business as it was managed even in 1864.

Exports: The commerce of the District has hitherto been largely carried along the main roads to stations on the Nagpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, but the southern portion of the District is now very accessible from Jalna on the Hyderabad and Godavari Valley Railway. As yet however very little produce, if any, goes from Berar to the latter railway. On the other hand a great deal of produce comes from the Jalna side to Khamgaon, the obstacle to the development of traffic being the export dues in the Hyderabad State. There are eight railway stations in Buldhana, of which Malkapur, Nandura, Jalamb, Khamgaon and Shegaon are important, and the statistics for these stations may be taken to represent the volume of the export trade of the District by rail. Statistics have been compiled for the six years from 1902 to 1907. Cotton holds the pride of place as the principal article of export. The total value of the exports in 1907 was 2 crores 5 lakhs, to which cotton contributed 1 crore 72 lakhs or 84 per cent. Important cotton markets are established at Malkapur, Jalgaon, Shegaon and Khamgaon. Cotton begins to appear in the market in November. Long strings of carts pour into the town, and are marshalled in lines by the cotton market *daroga*. A duty of one anna per cartload is levied from the owner. Soon after daybreak the market is alive with traders, clerks, brokers and others, and business begins. During the night telegrams ordering the purchase of certain quantities and quoting the last advice from Bombay may have been received. Purchasers after examining samples of the cotton, make their offers, and the price at which the first transaction is made is generally the rate of the day. Later in the day the seller takes his cotton to the weighing yards, and when the cotton has been weighed, receives a memorandum showing the gross weight of the cotton, the rate per *bojha* at which the cotton has been purchased and the amount payable; this cheque when presented at the shop of the purchaser is paid by the cashier. Cotton seed occupies the next position in the list. The value of its export in 1907 was over 5½ lakhs or 2.6 per cent of the whole, and for the six years the average value was 7½ lakhs. The export of *juari* was valued at 5 lakhs in 1907 but it had in 1906 reached the high figure of nearly 7½ lakhs. Its value in the previous year was only 4½ lakhs; and in 1903 and 1904 it was not much more than a quarter of a lakh, though in 1902 it was nearly 5 lakhs. The value naturally varies with the outturn of the crop each year. There has been a large development in the export trade in raw hides and skins in recent years, their value having risen from Rs. 58,000 in 1902 to 4½ lakhs of rupees in 1907. The price obtained for this article has risen considerably, much more so than the quantity exported. Cotton manufactures remain steady, their value averaging about 2 lakhs. Exports of linseed were valued at 2 lakhs in 1902 and nearly 4 lakhs in 1905, but fell to under a lakh in 1906 and to 1.29 lakhs in 1907.

TABLE No. 10
QUANTITY AND VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM 1902 TO 1907, BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Serial No. (1)	Articles (2)	1902		1903		1904		1905		1906		1907	
		Quantity (3)	Value (4)	Quantity (5)	Value (6)	Quantity (7)	Value (8)	Quantity (9)	Value (10)	Quantity (11)	Value (12)	Quantity (13)	Value (14)
		Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.
1	Cotton raw	929	1,44.06	1,066	1,85.56	879	1,91.28	1,194	2,07.50	924	1,74.95	943	1,72.46
2	Cotton Manufactures ..	4	1.94	4	2.14	5	2.20	4	1.97	4	2.01	3	1.80
3	Oilcake	21	57	16	32	19	34	21	42	18	39	28	70
4	Juari	219	4.93	19	32	14	26	247	4.63	326	7.43	199	5.16
5	Hides and skins raw ..	4	58	6	1.18	6	1.43	8	2.18	14	3.99	16	4.53
6	Linseed	34	2.00	59	2.56	60	2.06	95	3.90	19	92	24	1.29
7	Til-seed	14	81	12	45	10	34	15	76	9	53	5	35
8	Cotton-seed	257	7.71	533	6.66	593	7.42	851	10.64	529	6.61	401	5.01
9	Chillies	1	9	2	14	5	37	7	77	6	71	2	21
10	Bones	2	8	4	13	3	9	3	9	4	13	5	22
11	All other articles	630	2,086	172	1,175	118	10.44	229	14.76	217	13.19	195	13.15
	Total	2,115	1,83.63	1,893	2,11.21	1,712	2,16.23	2,674	2,47.62	2,072	2,10.86	1,821	2,04.88

Imports: The principal imports are European and Indian cloth and piecegoods, sugar, metals, provisions, rice, grain and pulse, wheat, kerosene oil, wood, gunny bags, salt and tobacco. The value of the cotton goods imported has varied in the five years from 20 to 27 lakhs and constitutes 20 per cent of the total value of all the imports. About one-seventh of the value of the raw cotton exported is thus returned to the district in the shape of manufactured goods. The imports of sugar increased from 147,000 maunds valued at Rs. 9½ lakhs in 1902 to 209,000 maunds at 16½ lakhs in 1907. Nearly two-thirds of the imports consists of *gur* or unrefined sugar. The consumption per head of population in 1906 was 23 lbs. The imports of salt increased from 87,000 maunds, value Rs. 3.26 lakhs in 1902 to 106,000 maunds, value Rs. 2½ lakhs in 1907, the consumption per head of population in the latter year being about 14 lbs. The average quantity of wheat imported each year during the six years ending 1907 was 167,000 maunds of the average value of Rs. 5 lakhs. The other important grains imported are rice, gram and pulse. The average quantity of these articles imported during the same period was rice, 108,000 maunds valued at Rs. 4 lakhs and gram and pulse 143,000 maunds valued at Rs. 3.86 lakhs. Juari is the only food-grain exported in any quantity, and if we deduct the value of the food-grain exported from that of those imported, we find an average annual debit against the district of Rs. 9 lakhs. The imports of coal and coke have increased from 39,000 maunds valued at Rs. 10,000 in 1902 to 155,000 maunds valued at Rs. 39,000 in 1907. The increase is due to the extension of cotton ginning and pressing factories in the district in late years. Wood is generally imported from the Central Provinces and Bombay. There has been a gradual increase in the quantity imported from 118,000 maunds valued at Rs. 2.43 lakhs in 1902 to 155,000 maunds valued at Rs. 3.18 lakhs in 1906. In 1907 similar figures are 113,000 maunds of the value of Rs. 3.66 lakhs. The consumption of kerosene oil is increasing and the value of the import in 1907 was Rs. 3.40 lakhs. Metals, both manufactured and unwrought, were imported in 1907 to the value of over Rs. 7 lakhs. Liquor and tobacco are the principal articles of luxury imported; the average annual imports of the former for the six years 1902-07 being valued at Rs. 21.18 lakhs and of the latter Rs. 94,000. If the consumption of these articles is confined to the male population, the annual expenditure per head is Rs. 7-2-10. The value of provisions imported in 1907 was Rs. 5.18 lakhs, and of gunny bags nearly Rs. 2½ lakhs. The average value of the fruits and vegetables imported is Rs. 33,000.

TABLE No. 11
QUANTITY AND VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM 1902 TO 1907, BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Articles (2)	(In '000')											
		1902		1903		1904		1905		1906		1907	
		Quantity (3)	Value (4)	Quantity (5)	Value (6)	Quantity (7)	Value (8)	Quantity (9)	Value (10)	Quantity (11)	Value (12)	Quantity (13)	Value (14)
		Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Rs.
1	Coal and coke	39	10	97	24	95	24	213	53	221	55	155	39
2	Cotton manufactures	34	21.24	40	25.26	40	24.68	44	27.20	42	25.82	31	19.68
3	Grain and pulse	176	4.13	134	2.97	130	2.93	125	3.12	126	4.25	176	6.06
4	Wheat ..	298	8.48	234	6.16	142	4.01	22	66	107	3.69	196	7.37
5	Rice ..	94	3.19	107	3.61	127	4.60	114	4.22	105	4.46	101	4.63
6	Gunny bags	29	2.38	27	2.35	21	2.01	34	3.56	25	2.95	20	2.40
7	Metals	47	4.75	80	8.65	65	8.51	74	8.24	71	9.12	62	7.13
8	Kerosene oil	54	2.46	57	2.65	59	2.72	58	2.63	69	3.18	70	3.40
9	Provisions	35	3.87	42	4.82	63	7.74	46	5.77	43	5.77	40	5.18
10	Salt ..	87	3.26	104	3.49	114	3.70	95	2.67	95	2.50	106	2.53
11	Sugar ..	147	9.58	175	11.91	183	15.23	202	17.83	207	16.10	209	16.51
12	Tobacco	1	.39	2	.69	2	.75	6	1.31	5	1.18	4	1.33
13	Wood	118	2.43	127	2.60	138	2.81	144	2.97	155	3.18	113	2.30
14	All other articles	208	28.94	243	32.87	220	31.42	216	43.38	298	54.92	259	49.55
	Total	1,367	95.20	1,469	1,08.27	1,399	1,11.35	1,393	1,24.09	1,569	1,37.67	1,542	1,28.46

Excess of exports over imports: The average exports for the six years work out to 2,047,000 maunds valued at Rs. 212.35 lakhs. The average imports for the six years were 1,457,000 maunds valued at Rs. 117.58 lakhs. The exports were Rs. 34.10 and the imports Rs. 19 per head of population. The excess of exports over imports rose from 88.43 lakhs in 1902 to 123.53 lakhs in 1905. The total revenue of the District is roughly Rs. 20 lakhs. The excess of exports was therefore nearly five times the total revenue of the District.

Classes engaged in trade: Amongst the foreign firms that conduct the trade in cotton, oil-seeds and grains may be mentioned Messrs. Ralli Brothers and Volkart Brothers who have agencies at several important stations in the District, such as, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Nandura, Jalgaon, Malkapur, Buldana and Chikhli. The Mofussil Co. have agencies only at Shegaon and Khamgaon. Bruel and Co. and Gadam & Co. carry on trade at Khamgaon. Besides the European firms, a large number of native merchants trade in grain and cotton in the District, among the principal of which are the firms of Mulji Jetha and Dhanji Kanji, of Bombay. In the busy season, particularly in remote stations, some of the European and native firms borrow money from the local banker at a fixed rate of commission varying from annas six to rupee one per cent. At the close of each day's transaction a cheque in favour of the local banker is made out for the total sum advanced. Prompt payment is thus secured to the seller and the trouble and expense of getting cash remittances from Bombay is saved the purchaser. Baniyas and Marwaris generally deal in grain and cloth. Cutchis import grain, sugar, salt, dried fruit, groceries and spices. The entry of Cutchis into the grain-dealing business has introduced a healthy competition with Marwaris, who before had too much of a monopoly. Bohras deal in stationery, hardware, glassware, and chinaware. Kasais carry on trade in hides and horns."*

Since the compilation of the former Gazetteer there have been manifold changes in the general economic structure of the district. The structure and direction of trade have also undergone multifarious changes. The new organisational and institutional framework has brought about a new pattern of trade. The regulation of agricultural marketing and effective control of the market committees on the marketing operations in all the markets in the district have brought about revolutionary changes in the direction and method of marketing. The market committees are instituted as corporate bodies with useful functions to perform.

The system of transport and communications has also immensely improved. This has widened the horizons of trade and commerce to distant markets in the country.

All these and many other factors have been described in the rest of this chapter.

* *Buldana District Gazetteer*, Vol. A, 1910, pp. 265—74 and 276-77.

TRADE ROUTES

Trade Routes.—Old Trade Routes: The district was almost totally devoid of any means of communication except the rough country track prior to the cession of Vidarbha in 1853. The opening of the Nagpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in 1863-64 was the first important change. This railway line was of immense benefit to trade and commerce in the district as it established a trade link with Bombay, Nasik, Jalgaon, Akola, Amravati, Nagpur and a number of other market places. In addition, a branch line from Jalamb on the main line to Khamgaon, 8 miles in length was opened in 1870. In connection with the construction of the Khamgaon branch the remarks of the Settlement Officer in 1865 are interesting. 'Most of the cotton is still carried across the line of rail south to Khamgaon, the great cotton emporium of West Berar, which contains the dwellings of the principal native merchants of the country. These wealthy natives, rather than inconvenience themselves by shifting their quarters, have made a proposal to bring a branch rail down to Khamgaon, which scheme has, I believe, been sanctioned by Government.'

The old District Gazetteer of Buldhana (1910) gives an account of the railway line and its importance from the point of view of trade which is reproduced below:—

"The Nagpur Branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs a distance of about 47 miles through the District from west to east, and is connected with Khamgaon by a branch from Jalamb 8 miles in length. The railway stations in the District are Khamkhed, Malkapur, Biswa, Nandura, Jalamb, Khamgaon, Shegaon and Nagjhari. Of these the leading stations for exports and imports are Khamgaon, Shegaon and Malkapur. The first two stations despatch to Bombay mainly cotton and grain produced in the Khamgaon and Mehkar talukas and the greater portion of that produced in the Chikhli taluk; Malkapur sends away grain, linseed, cotton, *gur* and other articles which it receives from the Malkapur taluk and from the north-west portion of the Chikhli taluk. Nandura is the principal outlet of the Jalgaon taluk although it also exports certain produce from the Malkapur taluk. The average quantity of the articles exported from Malkapur during the six years 1902—1907 was 503,000 maunds or 25 per cent of the average exports of the District and this proportion has been nearly maintained throughout except in 1904 when the exports fell off by 16 per cent. The imports of this station amounted to an average of 423,000 maunds during the same period, or 29 per cent of the total import trade. The three stations of Malkapur, Shegaon and Khamgaon do not differ much in the extent of their import trade, but Khamgaon is easily ahead in its export trade which amounts annually on an average to 765,000 maunds or 37 per cent of the total export trade of the District. This average contrasts ridiculously with the average exports of 1879—84. The proportion in which the latter stands with the former is 7.5 to 1. A similar fall is also marked in the

import trade the imports of 1879—84 being as high as five times the average imports of 1902—07. The results cannot be considered unsatisfactory in the face of the present improved communications. Formerly Khamgaon was the chief centre either for export or import trade; but circumstances have since changed, and the District produce finds its way to the nearest railway station available and thus the trade which was centred in one place has been divided. The average annual exports of Shegaon are less than Khamgaon by 6 per cent. The average annual imports of Nandura are nearly double the average annual exports and this fact may be attributed to the large weekly market held at that place. Jalamb has no trade of its own, but only passes goods in transit intended for or received from Khamgaon."*

The want of easy and perennial communications did much to offset the other physical advantages of the district. During the rainy season the fertile oil used to turn into a black bog impassable for goods vehicles.

After 1870, some progress was made towards improvement of roads. A few roads were metalled with hard indurated basalt obtained from the local trap. At the beginning of this century the principal road routes in the district were: (1) Malkapur-Mehkar road, (2) Chikhli-Jalna road, (3) Khamgaon-Chikhli road, (4) Lavhala-Amdapur-Khamgaon road, (5) Nandura-Jalgaon road, and (6) Khamgaon-Patur road. The old Nagpur road though of inferior surface was of much use in the fair season.

Present Trade Routes.—The Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta railway line, referred to earlier, is the most important trade route in the district. The line which touches important commercial centres, such as, Malkapur, Shegaon and Jalamb affords quick commercial transport to Bombay, Nagpur and a number of markets in Western Maharashtra as well as Eastern India. The majority of the villages and towns in the three tahsils in the district through which this route passes are within an easy reach from the railway line. The Khamgaon-Jalamb route linking Khamgaon with the Bombay-Nagpur line is very much useful for a huge bulk of commercial traffic.

Of late road transport has become extremely popular because of the quickness and convenience that it affords. Though the freight charges by road are slightly higher than the railway rates the traders prefer to carry their goods by road. Hence road routes have assumed considerable importance.

Of the road routes the Bombay-Nagpur national highway which passes from west to east in this district facilitates transport to big commercial centres, such as, Bombay, Nasik, Dhulia, Jalgaon, Akola, Amravati and Nagpur. It is by far the most important artery of trade second in importance only to the Bombay-Nagpur railway route. The Malkapur-Buldhana-Jalna road serves the needs of goods transport from the rich fertile tracts in this district to Jalna in Marathwada. It serves an important link

* Buldhana District Gazetteer, Vol. A, 1910, pp. 274—76.

between Jalna on the Manmad-Kacheguda railway line and Malkapur on the Bombay-Nagpur rail route. The Akola-Aurangabad road which passes through Khamgaon and Chikhli is a vital trade link between the fertile tracts in Berar and Marathwada. It also serves traffic to Poona and Ahmadnagar.

Besides the main routes, there are three other roads which connect big wholesale trade centres and which help goods transport from villages to the main centres and railway stations. They are: (1) Khamgaon-Shegaon-Akot road, (2) Chikhli-Mehkar road, and (3) Mehkar-Akola road.

It may, however, be noted that the road system in the district has certain drawbacks in the sense that the roads are not laid out vertically and horizontally across the district. Besides, the areas lying between Khamgaon, Lonar and Mehkar do not get the advantages of through and direct road routes.

IMPORTS

Imports.—The chief articles imported into Buldhana district at present are: cloth articles, readymade clothes, sugar, *gul*, spices, wheat, gram, provision articles, stationery and cutlery, medicines, hardware, utensils, electrical appliances and goods, machinery, footwear, watches and a number of other consumer articles. The imports comprise mainly manufactured goods, while the district is fairly self-sufficient in respect of agricultural produce except wheat and rice.

Cotton cloth, sarces and *dhotis* are imported from Bombay, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, and also procured from the distributors of the textile mills at Madras, Kanpur and Nadiad; nylon, terylene, rayon and silk fabrics are imported from Bombay, Surat, Calcutta and Bangalore, while *zari* sarces from Bombay and Banaras, *Chanderi* sarces from Bangalore, Surat and Bombay, voiles and printed cloth from Bombay and Nagpur, hosiery and readymade garments are brought from Bombay, Nagpur, Ludhiana, Delhi, Jullunder and Dhariwal.

Stationery articles, such as, fountainpens, pen-holders, inks, pins, nibs, paper, notebooks, pencils, etc., are brought from Bombay, Akola, Nagpur and Jalgaon. Cosmetics and cutlery goods are imported from Bombay and Nagpur as well as from the agents of manufacturers. Building material and hardware come from Jalgaon, Akola, Amravati and Nagpur.

Radio sets and other electrical appliances find their way into the district from Bombay, Nagpur and the sole distributors at Akola and Amravati. Machinery and mechanical appliances are imported from Bombay, Nagpur, Calcutta, Kirloskarwadi and Poona. Timber is imported from Chanda.

Sugar and *gul* are brought from Kolhapur, Sangli, Nasik and Ahmadnagar; while most of the articles of grocery are brought from Akola, Amravati, Nagpur and Jalgaon. Utensils are imported from Bombay, Nasik, Poona and Nagpur.

Drugs and medicines are imported from Bombay, Calcutta, Baroda, Bulsar, Panvel, Ahmadnagar and Jalgaon. Though some

of the dealers bring their stock directly from the manufacturers, many of them book the indents with the travelling agents of the manufacturers.

A bulk of the imports from distant places like Bombay, Calcutta, Poona, Baroda, Kolhapur, Ahmedabad, Kanpur, Jullunder, Madras and Bangalore are transported through railways, while the cargo from Akola, Amravati and Nagpur comes through trucks. Malkapur, Nandura, Jalamb and Shegaon are the railway stations where the consignments of imported articles arrive. These consignments are transported further to the other towns in trucks.

EXPORT TRADE

Export Trade.—Buldhana district being a fertile agricultural tract, there is a considerable amount of surplus agricultural produce left after satisfying the local needs. The exportable surplus is significantly large in respect of cotton, jowar, *udid*, *mug*, *tur*, chilli and cotton seed. An account of the export trade in the principal commodities is given below:—

Cotton: Cotton is by far the most important commercial crop in Buldhana district. This commodity accounts for the largest proportion of export trade from this district ever since the distant past*. The varieties of cotton produced and exported from this district are 1,007, L/147 and AK 277 which are branded as long staple varieties. The 1007 and the L/147 varieties which have a fibre length of about 31¹/₃₂ yield a yarn of silky texture.

Khamgaon is the biggest cotton market in this district, and is said to be one of the most important cotton markets in Maharashtra. Khamgaon is followed by Malkapur as an important exporting centre of cotton, which in turn is followed by Shegaon, Nandura, Chikhli, Deulgaon, Mehkar and Jalgaon as centres of cotton trade. The transactions in raw cotton are regulated under the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1963. The sale and purchase of cotton are controlled by the market committees¹. A sizeable amount of cotton is brought to Khamgaon and Malkapur not only from the respective market areas but also from parts of Akola, Yeotmal, Jalgaon and Aurangabad districts. Besides the market arrivals, a large volume of raw cotton is purchased by the traders from villages which are outside the jurisdiction of the regulated markets as well.

It is noteworthy that the entire cotton produced in the district is exported after ginning and pressing. The cost of ginning and pressing amounts to about Rs. 19 and Rs. 16, respectively, per bale.

The exports of finished cotton from the Khamgaon centre amounted to 1,15,380 quintals valued at Rs. 4,61,42,000 in 1966-67². The destinations of cotton from the markets in the

* Refer to the account of cotton exports quoted, from the old *Buldhana Gazetteer* in the preceding pages in this chapter.

¹ Refer to the section on Regulated Markets which gives the mode of regulation and the volume of cotton trade in each market.

² For the volume of trade in raw cotton in the various markets, refer to the account of Regulated Markets given in this chapter.

district are Bombay, Surat, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Akola, Pulgaon, Kanpur, Delhi, Pondichary, Coimbtore, Calcutta, Madras and Madurai. A bulk of the cargo is transported by railway from Malkapur, Shegaon, Khamgaon, Jalamb and Nandura railway stations. The transshipment by road is, however, large from Mehkar, Chikhli and Deulgaon which are not served by railway.

The transactions are mainly on a cash basis, though forward transactions are by no means small. The prices of raw cotton fluctuate as per the price fluctuations at Bombay. The local traders take a note of the prices at Bombay either on the telephone or radio sets. Government regulations regarding inter-district and inter-regional movement of cotton affect the demand as well as prices of cotton.

Food-grains: There is an exportable surplus of food-grains which forms a substantial proportion of the commercial transactions in this district. After meeting the local needs of consumption, a considerable quantity of jowar, *udid*, *mug*, *tur dal* and bajri is exported from the district. However, since the introduction of the system of monopoly procurement by Government the free trade in jowar¹ is prohibited with the result that the export of this commodity is banned under the rules. The principal food-grain markets are: Khamgaon, Shegaon, Malkapur, Chikhli, Deulgaon, Nandura, Mehkar and Jalgaon, all of which are regulated under the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1963, and are supervised by separate market committees². The traders purchase the commodities from the agriculturists at the market-yard and export them to distant markets.

It is estimated that about 70 per cent of *udid*, 75 per cent of *mug* and 60 per cent of the *tur dal* traded in the Nandura market is exported. The Shegaon market authorities estimated that 60 per cent of the food-grains produced are locally consumed while 40 per cent are exported. As per the report from the Khamgaon market committee 90 per cent of *udid*, 75 per cent of *mug* and 20 per cent of *tur* which arrive in this market are exported. The approximate quantity and value of the commodities exported from Khamgaon in 1966-67 are given below:—

Commodity (1)	Quantity in quintals (2)	Value in Rs. (3)
Udid	10,670	16,53,850
Mug	5,180	7,25,200
Tur	990	99,000

¹ Refer to the section on State Trading and Fair Price Shops given in this chapter.

² For details refer to the section on Regulated Markets.

The market authorities reported that *udid* is exported to Bombay, Virudhunagar, Madurai, Madras, Vellore, Tutikorin, Madhi, Delhi, Bulsar, Agra, Calcutta, Surat and Jalna; *mug* is exported to Bombay, Delhi, Agra, Ahmedabad, Bulsar, Madhi, Nagpur, Jalna and Calcutta; *tur* is sent to Virudhunagar, Lucknow, Amravati, Agra, Delhi and Madras. Bajri is exported to a small extent to Akola and Yeotmal districts.

A major part of the cargo from Malkapur, Shegaon, Khamgaon, Nandura and Jalamb is transported through the railway, while that from the interior markets goes mainly by road. The period of brisk trade ranges between November and February.

Other Exports: The other commodities exported from the district are chilli, cotton seed, ground-nut oil and banana. Malkapur is the principal centre of exports of chilli and banana which are sent to Nagpur, Akola and Amravati. Cotton seed is exported from most of the centres of the cotton ginning and pressing industry, the major among them being Khamgaon, Malkapur, Shegaon and Nandura. With the expansion of the *Vanaspati* oil industry, the demand for cotton-seed oil has increased considerably. Ground-nut oil is sent to Nagpur, Amravati, and Akola. Ground-nut is crushed in the local oil mills, and the oil is dispatched outside in big drums.

REGULATED MARKETS

Regulated Markets.—Agricultural marketing in the past was fraught with numerous malpractices and irregularities. The methods of trade were detrimental to the interests of the poor and ignorant agriculturist who was always at the mercy of the traders and usurers. The traders used to exploit him by offering lower prices as well as by imposing adverse market conditions. The presence of the middleman which was warranted by the ignorance of the agriculturists added to the difficulties of the latter. This state of affairs received the attention of the British Government¹ which enacted the Hyderabad Residency Cotton and Grain Markets Law of 1897. This enactment led to the establishment of many markets², viz., Khamgaon (1898), Shegaon (1898), Malkapur (1899), Jalgaon (1903), Nandura (1916), Mehkar (1928) and Deulgaon-Raja (1931). Under this Law, the market was constituted of representatives of traders alone. However, this enactment was not of much consequences as most of the agricultural produce was sold outside the market, and there was no regulation as such. The Royal Commission on Agriculture (1927) studied the entire problem and recommended to the Government of India the necessity of regulating the mode of agricultural marketing. Subsequently also, various Government Commissions stressed the need to protect the interest of the agriculturists and evolve a pattern of regulation of marketing.

Accordingly the Government of the Central Provinces superceded the Hyderabad Residency Cotton and Grain Markets Law of

¹ The Berar districts were ceded by the Nizam of Hyderabad to the British Government by the treaty of 1853. For details see Chapter 2.

² Year of establishment of the market is given in bracket.

1897, and enacted the C. P. and Berar Cotton Market Act of 1932 which was subsequently amended in 1937. This Act sought to regulate the trade in cotton alone and prescribed that the market committee should comprise representatives of agriculturists, traders and local bodies. Fifty per cent of the members were required to be representatives of agriculturists. All the cotton markets established under the Law of 1897 were deemed to be regulated under the new enactment of 1932. For the marketing of food-grains and other agricultural produce, separate Act, viz., the C. P. and Berar Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1935, was brought into force. This Act was made applicable to the grain market at Shegaon which was established in 1923 under the old Act. The grain markets were virtually unregulated till the era of national planning. The sequence of their regulation was as under:

Chikhali—1952; Deulgaon Raja—1954; Mehkar—1956; Khamgaon—1959; Nandura—1959, and Malkapur—1917.

The two enactments¹, viz., C. P. and Berar Cotton Markets Act of 1932, and the C. P. and Berar Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1935, alongwith their amendments were in force till the application of the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1963. The new Act consolidated the provisions in the various market Acts existent in the three regions of Maharashtra. All the cotton markets as well as grain markets established under the earlier Acts have been brought under the purview of the unified Act. Thus the provisions of the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1963 have been made applicable to all the markets in the district from 1967.

There are nine regulated markets in the district of which the market at Lonar has been established recently. All the markets are governed by market committees. The market committee is a corporate body consisting of members elected by the agriculturists and traders as well as Government nominees. The agriculturists have a larger numerical representation than the traders and the nominees. The working and administration of the market committees is supervised by the Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad who in his turn is accountable to the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies. The market committee grants licences to traders, weighmen, *hamals*, general commission agents and brokers. Only the licensees are allowed to participate in marketing operations. The committee possesses the necessary supervisory staff to guide and supervise the sale and purchase transactions. The supervisory staff are expected to maintain strict adherence to the market rules and to safeguard the genuine interest of the agriculturist.

Though all the market committees in the district have market yards, most of the yards are inadequate. This handicap prevents the weighing of cotton at the market yard. The market commit-

¹After formation of Madhya Pradesh of which Berar was a part the words "C. P. and Berar" in the nomenclature of the Act were substituted by "Madhya Pradesh".

tees at Khamgaon, Chikhali and Deulgaon Raja have taken action to acquire adjoining land for the extension of the present yards.

The agriculturist brings his produce to the market yard. The produce is arranged and displayed in open heaps or bags. The traders and general commission agents inspect the produce and quote the purchase price. The highest bidder in the open auction purchases the same. For each transaction a sale agreement (*sauda chitthi*) is executed which is done in the presence of the official of the market committee. The sale agreement is prepared generally by the general commission agent who gets a rate of commission for his job from the agriculturist. Weighment of the commodities is made on the market yard by licensed weighmen. The authorised charges for weighment and *hamali* are paid by the farmers. The seller delivers his commodities to the purchaser on the market yard itself. The delivery of cotton is, however, given at the premises of the ginning factories, where the weighment is also done. Payments to the agriculturist are done generally on the same day.

A remarkable feature of the entire mode of sales operation is that all transactions are done under the supervision of the market authorities. The interests of the agriculturist are protected and malpractices avoided. Disputes are solved by arbitration by the market committee. As all the market functionaries are licensed by the market committee, they are bound by rules and regulations of the latter.

The regulation of marketing is advantageous to the agriculturist due to a number of reasons. He is guided by the market authorities about the market situation. He is well informed about the prices in the market, as also those prevailing in other important markets. Agricultural produce fetches better prices to the agriculturists because of the open competition between purchasers, and he is also protected against the malpractices and exploitation by traders. The traders are prohibited from deducting money from the sales proceeds to be paid to the agriculturist, except for the authorised market charges. Weighment is done under the supervision of market weighmen and hence the extent of any deception is reduced to a great extent. The sales proceeds are paid to the agriculturist immediately after the transactions are finalised.

The progress of the co-operative marketing movement has also contributed to the good of the agriculturist. The marketing co-operatives function as general commission agents and purchasers in the markets. This is highly beneficial to the agriculturist.

The sale of agricultural produce within the official market area, which is declared for the purpose, is required by the rules to be done at the premises of the yard only. The market authorities encourage the agriculturist to bring the produce of standard quality to the market yard which assures a higher price for better quality.

Another important feature of the working of the market committees is the facility of dissemination of prices and market news.

The prices of all agricultural commodities with their arrivals are published on the market board and are announced through a loud-speaker. During the peak season the market news are published in newspapers. Besides, the prices and arrivals of some selected commodities are submitted to the office of the Divisional Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies for broadcasting from the Nagpur Station of All India Radio of which the distantly situated markets take advantage.

With the implementation of the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act since 1967 the regulated markets in Buldhana district have progressed well. The new Act has guaranteed an assured income to the market committees by prescribing a higher rate of market cess. Because of the increased income, the market committees are in a position to provide better amenities at the market yards. The market practices and the role of market functionaries have also been more precisely defined.

There are eight regulated markets in the district which, though established under the enactments of 1897, 1932 and 1935, are deemed to be regulated and governed under the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1962 at present. A market committee has been established recently at Lonar. The market committee has not started its working so far.

The account of the business transactions and the mode of operations of the various existing markets in their structural and historical aspects is given below:

Khamgaon: Khamgaon is one of the most important trade centres in Vidarbha. It is an entrepot centre of trade since the remote past and is said to be one of the oldest and biggest cotton markets in India. The cotton market at Khamgaon was established as early as 1865, and was subsequently brought under the purview of the Hyderabad Residency Cotton and Grain Markets Law in 1898. The market was subsequently regulated under the Acts of 1932, 1935 and 1963 as stated earlier. It should, however, be noted that agricultural produce other than cotton, *viz.*, foodgrains, was brought under actual regulation of the market committee from 1959*. At present marketing of the following commodities is regulated: cotton, groundnut, jowar, *tur*, *udid*, *mug*, *wheat*, gram, bajra, *masur*, *chawali*, *watana*, *math*, linseed, sesamum, safflower, castor seed and *gul*.

Though the official market area covers only the Khamgaon Development Block, cotton and other agricultural produce comes to this market from a major portion of the Buldhana district as well as from parts of Akola, Yeotmal and Aurangabad districts. There are two separate market yards each for cotton and foodgrains measuring 12 acres and 3 acres respectively. As per the estimates of the market authorities, the proportions of agricultural

Prior to 1959 foodgrains trade was under the jurisdiction of municipal management.

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produce retained in the villages and brought to the market are as under:—

Commodity	Village retention (percentage)	Quantity brought to the market (percentage)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Cotton	Nil	100
Groundnut	5	95
Jowar	80	20
Udid	15	85
Mug	20	80
Tur	60	40
Wheat	40	60

Cotton is by far the most important commodity traded in this market, and is followed by jowar, ground-nut, *udid*, *mug*, *tur*, wheat, bajri and gram, in the descending order. The turnover of trade in various regulated commodities in this market is given in the following table:

TABLE No. 12
TURNOVER OF TRADE AT KHAMGAON MARKET IN 1966-67 AND 1967-68.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1966-67		1967-68		
		Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs.	Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs. (nearest hundred)	Quantity graded Quantity in Quintals (7) Value in Rs. (8)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Cotton	2,57,695	4,60,87,577	4,36,367	7,69,81,600	..
2	Paddy	..	..	..	..	..
3	Rice	..	..	..	..	..
4	Bajri	1,357	1,05,445	2,164	1,84,000	..
5	Wheat	15,112	15,82,919	9,030	11,93,800	..
6	Tur	4,949	5,11,862	5,302	6,19,600	..
7	Udid	11,864	15,92,256	14,756	20,74,900	10,931
8	Mug	7,044	7,93,121	10,357	12,88,000	9,023
9	Groundnut	9,473	28,06,331	10,593	11,66,900	..
10	Oil-seeds	..	..	876	1,00,500	77,66,810
11	Pulses	1,454	1,69,406	741	1,16,300	12,82,862
12	Gur	..	..	2,808	5,26,900	..
13	Jowar	..	..	..	..	..
14	Gram	1,434	2,11,492	..	..	..

Khamgaon is a huge market with a large platoon of market functionaries consisting of 63 general commission agents, 78 'A' class traders, 3 'B' class traders, 78 weighmen, 5 brokers, 6 processors, 116 assistants to buyers and *adatyas*, 176 hamals, 3 clearing agents, 1 warehouseman and 45 others in 1967-68. The Market Committee has authorised the traders to deduct market charges, such as, *adat* commission, weighing charges, *hamali*, etc.; which together amount to Rs. 1.05 in case of raw cotton, Rs. 1.28 in case of foodgrains, Rs. 1.50 for oil-seeds and Rs. 1.40 for groundnut. These charges are on the basis of Rs. 100 of sales proceeds. The income of the Market Committee from market fee, licence fee and miscellaneous sources amounted to Rs. 6,24,396, while the expenditure to Rs. 5,22,484 in 1967-68.

Khamgaon is an assembling as well as distributing centre of trade in cotton, groundnut, and almost all foodgrains. Raw cotton is assembled in the market from within the market area as well as from other parts of the district and also from Akola and Yeotmal districts. After ginning and pressing the bales of cotton are exported to Bombay, Nagpur, Pulgaon, Hinganghat, Ahmedabad, Delhi, Surat, Calcutta, Kanpur, Madras, Madura and Coimbatore. Groundnut oil is exported to a limited extent to Nagpur and Bombay. Wheat is imported from Akola, Jalna, Jalgaon (Khandesh) and Chikhli taluka. By and large wheat is consumed locally and does not figure in the export list. *Udid* is exported from this market to Virudhunagar, Madras, Bombay, Delhi, Agra, Bulsar, Surat and Calcutta; while *mug* is sent to Bombay, Agra, Delhi, Bulsar, Ahmedabad, Modinagar, etc. *Tur dal* is exported to Lucknow, Madras and Virudhunagar.

The Khamgaon market is provided with warehousing facilities on scientific lines by the Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation. The warehousing charges per quintal per month are about 20 to 24 paise for foodgrains, 45 paise for groundnut, and 65 paise for cotton.

Khamgaon being a railway station, Khamgaon market does not face any transport difficulty. It is advantageously situated on the Bombay-Nagpur national highway and is directly connected by state highways to Aurangabad, Jalna, Yeotmal, Poona, etc. The freight rate per quintal for 100 kilometres of distance is 80 paise by railway and Rs. 3 by road.

Institutional finance is made available to the traders in this market by the Bank of Maharashtra, the Central Bank of India, the Punjab National Bank and the State Bank of India. Besides, the State Warehousing Corporation also arranges for the advances to traders as well as to the agriculturists on the security of the goods stored with it.

Khamgaon is a first-grade market where the fluctuations in prices depend mainly on the prices at Bombay and Nagpur. The prices of important commodities traded in this market are given below.

* Refer "Trade Routes" in this Chapter.

TABLE No. 13

FLUCTUATIONS IN PRICES OF REGULATED COMMODITIES AT
KHAMGAON MARKET.

(Prices in rupees per Quintal)

Serial No.	Commodity	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Cotton ..	130.00	133.00	135.00	146.00	188.00
2	Groundnut ..	75.50	98.50	100.00	146.00	156.00
3	Jowar ..	32.70	60.00	64.00	..	..
4	Bajri ..	32.70	70.00	82.00	103.00	77.00
5	Wheat ..	55.20	100.00	125.00	118.00	114.00
6	Gram ..	45.00	80.00	120.00	129.00	168.00
7	Tur ..	49.00	91.00	85.00	79.00	99.00
8	Udid ..	71.25	72.00	80.00	88.00	153.00
9	Mug ..	50.60	80.00	90.00	94.00	140.00
10	Pulses ..	64.50	106.00	108.00	109.00	160.00

Shegaon: The Shegaon Cotton Market is reported to have come into existence in 1865 which was subsequently brought under the purview of the Hyderabad Residency Cotton and Grain Markets Law in 1898. The grain market was established under the above Law in 1923. All the subsequent enactments were made applicable to this market. Shegaon is also a prominent market of great commercial importance. It is situated on the Bombay-Nagpur-Howrah railway line and is served by the national highway from Bombay to Nagpur as well as by some state highways.

The market attracts goods from hundreds of villages though the official market area extends over the Shegaon development block. Almost all the agricultural commodities grown in the area are regulated. The market authorities have estimated the percentage of marketable surplus as given below:—

Commodity*	Village retention	Quantity brought to market
(1)	(2)	(3)
Cotton	..	100
Jowar	70	30
Groundnut	5	95
Wheat	40	60
Bajra	10	90
Gram	40	60
Tur	60	40
Udid	20	80
Mug	20	80
Linseed	5	95

* These commodities are given in the order of their commercial importance in this market.

Cotton is the most important commodity from the point of view of trade. Since the monopoly procurement of jowar by Government, jowar is not traded in the market. Prior to this system about 60,000 bags of jowar used to arrive in this market. The following table gives the statistics of arrivals and value of commodities traded in this market in 1966-67 and 1967-68.

TABLE No. 14
TURNOVER OF TRADE AT SHEGAON MARKET.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1966-67		1967-68		Quantity graded in 1967-68	
		Arrival in Quintals (3)	Value in Rs. (4)	Arrival in Quintals (5)	Value in Rs. (6)	Quantity in Quintals (7)	Value in Rs. (8)
(1)	(2)						
1	Cotton	70,665	1,21,19,370	79,905	1,33,28,410	..	..
2	Jowar	31,615	16,33,952	1,912	1,03,772	..	90,916
3	Wheat	2,984	3,36,541	1,221	1,79,951	685	..
4	Bajri	907	64,949	488	40,721	..	..
5	Gram	2,177	3,15,322	1,251	1,53,401	..	..
6	Gram Dal	22	3,877	..	..	..	..
7	Tur	715	72,157	1,857	1,54,348	1,521	1,42,953
8	Tur Dal	53	6,709	23	4,309	..	..
9	Mug	5,261	6,57,026	2,651	4,08,489	..	..
10	Udid	3,745	4,94,805	1,397	2,05,870	677	1,01,506
11	Lakh	627	57,305	341	33,973	..	..
12	Math	10	904	..	..	..	..
13	Watana	290	32,016	72	7,950	..	..
14	Groundnut	385	36,714	682	66,520	..	..
15	Linseed	1,539	2,89,827	1,322	1,51,913	..	..
16	Sesamum	431	92,483	37	6,139	..	..

The functionaries in this market comprised 24 commission agents, 46 traders, 52 assistants, 23 weighmen, 2 processors, 72 *hamals*, 4 clearing agents and 1 warehouseman (in 1966-67). The total merchandising charges payable by the agriculturist on the sales-proceeds (per Rs. 100) in this market are as given below:—

Commodity	Market charges	Octroi	Total charges
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Cotton (unginned)	1.25	0.05	1.30
Foodgrains	1.28	0.17	1.45
Groundnut	1.40	0.15	1.55

The total income of the market committee from market-fee, licence-fee and miscellaneous sources was Rs. 51,472, while the total expenditure was to the tune of Rs. 46,329 in 1967-68.

The raw cotton is ginned and processed in the local factories and is exported to distant markets, *viz.*, Bombay, Ahmedabad, Madras, Madura, Coimbatore, Nadiad, etc. About 60 per cent of the other produce is exported out of the district. The exports are transported by railway as well as by road, the freight charges being 80 paise and Rs. 3, respectively, per 100 kilometres.

The goods are stored in godowns owned by the merchants themselves, which number about 100 in Shegaon. The Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation has established a warehouse at Shegaon recently. The commercial banks, *viz.*, the State Bank of India, the Punjab National Bank and the Bank of Maharashtra advance finance to cotton buyers. The grain merchants however find it extremely difficult to secure institutional credit. It is noteworthy that the system of scientific grading in respect of jowar, wheat and *tur* is made applicable to this market. The commodities are graded before the auction takes place, and samples of standard grades are maintained.

Malkapur: Malkapur is a very important centre of trade situated on the Bombay-Howrah trunk railway line. The railway transport facility is supplemented by good road transport facilities, as this town is served by the Bombay-Nagpur national highway and the roads leading to Buldhana, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Jalna, etc. The cotton market at Malkapur was established in 1899, and was brought within the purview of the subsequent enactments. At present the commodities mentioned below are regulated: cotton, jowar, wheat, rice, *mug*, *udid*, *chauali*, gram, *tur*, *maka*, *math*, *hulga*, groundnut, sesamum, castor-seed, safflower, *mohari*, *jawas*, *tolambi*, chilli, *gul*, banana, mosambi and orange.

The market committee possesses a permanent market yard providing the usual facilities. The market area covers the area within the jurisdiction of the Panchayat Samiti.

The income and expenditure of the market committee was to the tune of Rs. 1,55,610 and Rs. 1,32,606, respectively, in 1967-68.

Cotton is the principal item of wholesale trade at Malkapur. The cotton crop occupies an area of about 1,40,826 acres of land, which is followed by jowar with 1,19,518 acres of land. The following table gives the volume of trade transacted at Malkapur market during 1965-66 and 1967-68:—

TABLE No. 15

TURNOVER OF TRADE AT MALKAPUR MARKET IN 1965-66 AND 1967-68.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1965-66		1967-68	
		Arrival		Quantity graded	
		Quantity in Quintals	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Wheat ..	6,473	8,98,768.72	9,041	11,94,498.65
2	Maize ..	1,389	1,10,192.74	1,021	69,977.61
3	Bajri ..	235	23,493.75	1,344	14,084.55
4	Gram ..	715	98,306.33	2,899	3,19,887.01
5	Tur ..	925	74,720.27	6,986	15,21,428.48
6	Tur dal ..	1,156	1,86,831.28	1,214	1,98,812.94
7	Mug ..	4,505	3,89,673.35	3,572	8,82,102.27
8	Mug dal ..	..	..	23,509	27,91,549.07
9	Math ..	13	896.15	91	8,863.81
10	Chawali ..	118	18,057.00	338	72,213.88
11	Hulga ..	68	10,316.30	151	24,138.57
12	Chana(hybrid) ..	..	..	20	1,960.20
13	Groundnut ..	7,386	9,10,913.24	12,740	21,37,654.93
14	Castor seed ..	292	41,266.09	819	73,900.22
15	Alshi ..	24	3,100.66	451	45,342.31
16	Sesamum ..	..	..	52	8,781.89
17	Kardi ..	..	..	2	149.40
18	Mustard ..	..	..	1	191.00
19	Tolambi ..	317	54,080.15	101	7,152.41
20	Nimboli ..	11,527	2,81,322.22	2,756	31,793.44
21	Chilli ..	10,778	21,35,312.15	8,103	9,17,870.61
22	Gul ..	9,934	6,23,921.36	10,646	19,88,775.15
23	Cotton ..	1,48,103	2,07,15,886.92	2,23,893	4,57,72,895.26
24	Onion ..	..	..	13	323.75
25	Banana ..	..	..	10,474	4,83,616.65
26	Jowar ..	110	16,462.40	..	..
27	Udid ..	14,280	11,30,831.86	..	..

The entire cotton transacted in the market is ginned and pressed in the ginning and pressing factories in the town. The seven factories in 1965-66 ginned and pressed 31,243 bales of cotton. The cotton bales are exported usually to Bombay, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, Nadiad, Surat, Kanpur, Madras, Pondichery and Shalimar.

Besides cotton, groundnut oil is exported from this market to Bombay, Nagpur, Bhusawal and Jamner; *udid* is exported to

Madras; *tur dal* is sent to Bombay, Nagpur and Khandwa; and chilli to Delhi, Agra, Lucknow, Kanpur, Hoshiarpur, Bhatapara and Calcutta.

Institutional finance is available to the traders to a small extent from the branch of the State Bank of India, while the Malkapur Urban Co-operative Bank and the branch of the District Central Co-operative Bank at Malkapur do not extend easy credit facilities to the traders. The Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation has established a warehouse at Malkapur recently.

Nandura: Nandura is a second class market situated on the Bombay-Howrah railway route. Besides railway facilities, it is served by good roads including the Bombay-Nagpur national highway.

Nandura cotton market is one of the oldest in Berar. It was established in 1916 under the Law of 1897. The trade in food-grains and other agricultural produce was brought under regulation in 1959. The market area extends over 97 villages in the Nandura Block. The market committee possesses a small market yard which is equipped with platforms, tin-sheds, radio-set and some other amenities. Besides cotton, almost all cereals and pulses, *gul*, oil-seeds and chilli are brought under regulation at this market. Cotton and jowar are however the most important commodities from the point of view of trade. Jowar trade has dwindled with the introduction of monopoly procurement of jowar since 1964. The following table gives the statistics of the volume of trade transacted in this market during 1966-67 and 1967-68.

TABLE No. 16

TURNOVER OF TRADE AT NANDURA MARKET IN 1966-67 AND 1967-68.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1966-67		1967-68	
		Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs.	Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Jowar ..	23,386.00	12,56,767.77	2,896.00	..
2	Udid ..	2,189.00	25,27,482.00	530.00	..
3	Mug ..	2,136.50	2,79,713.00	315.00	..
4	Tur ..	759.50	79,406.00	184.00	..
5	Tur dal ..	33.00	4,379.00	37.00	..
6	Bajri ..	322.50	25,797.00	172.00	..
7	Gram ..	451.50	62,427.50	137.00	..
8	Wheat ..	305.00	33,835.00	10.00	..
9	Linseed ..	55.50	10,995.00	..	..
10	Sesamum ..	77.00	17,552.50	..	..
11	Maize ..	5.00	317.25	..	..
12	Chawali ..	18.00	2,324.00	12.00	N.A.
13	Mustard ..	10.50	1,478.50	..	..
14	Castor seed ..	121.50	15,511.00	..	..
15	Groundnut ..	736.50	83,175.00	..	..
16	Cotton ..	24,625.00	41,24,875.00	7,647.00	18,92,124.00
17	Oil seeds ..	..	..	1,442.00	N.A.
18	Math ..	..	..	4.00	N.A.
19	Gram dal ..	..	..	3.00	N.A.

Cotton is ginned and processed in the local ginning and pressing factories (three in number) before it is exported. The entire cotton from this market is exported, the percentage of exports to total transactions being 50 for jowar, 70 for *udid*, 76 for *mug* and 60 for *tur*.

There are about 14 big wholesale purchasers in this market which include proprietors of ginning factories and oil mills as well as exporters. There are 24 general commission agents, 46 petty traders, and two dalals.

During 1967-68, the income of the market committee amounted to Rs. 10,748 while the expenditure totalled at Rs. 10,484.

The market is served by two co-operative marketing societies which sell and purchase on behalf of the agriculturists. The method of grading and standardisation is not made applicable to this market. The State Bank of India provides marketing finance to the traders, while the District Central Co-operative Bank and the Urban Co-operative Bank do not readily provide easy credit facilities. A warehouse has been established recently in this market by the State Warehousing Corporation.

Chikhli: Chikhli is a second class regulated market situated on the junction of the Malkapur-Chikhli-Deulgaon road and the Khamgaon-Aurangabad road. Though it is not directly served by the railways it is favourably situated as regards road communications. The Chikhali cotton market was established in 1917 while the trade in other agricultural produce was brought under regulation in 1952. At present almost all agricultural produce, including cotton, groundnut, sesamum, linseed, cereals and pulses, is brought under regulation. The official market area extends over 220 villages in Chikhli tahsil. The market committee has maintained a market yard which provides facilities, such as sheds, platforms, rest-house for farmers, a radio set, etc. The market functionaries licensed by the market committee include 38 traders, 238 retail traders, 19 general commission agents, 32 weighmen, 5 carting agents and a number of assistants. The income and expenditure of the market committee amounted to Rs. 12,199 and Rs. 71,685, respectively, in 1967-68.

The table No. 17 gives the statistics of turnover of trade in this market during 1966-67 and 1967-68.

TABLE No. 17

TURNOVER OF TRADE AT CHIKHALI MARKET IN 1966-67 AND 1967-68.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1966-67			
		Arrival		Quantity graded	
		Quantity in Quintals	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Jowar ..	32,232.25	15,82,364.25	..	..
2	Bajri ..	266.75	18,795.25	..	..
3	Wheat ..	10,536.75	11,23,609.50	8,560.00	9,03,072.00
4	Tag bee ..	1,817.25	47,870.25	..	..
5	Udid ..	6,979.25	42,61,771.50	6,244.00	8,87,609.00
6	Mug ..	6,529.25	8,51,366.75	5,365.00	7,14,719.00
7	Gram ..	856.25	1,22,735.25	..	..
8	Chawali ..	214.75	29,689.50	..	..
9	Tur ..	2,012.75	1,98,738.75	1,254.00	1,23,531.00
10	Hulga ..	912.75	26,129.50	..	..
11	Tur dal ..	537.00	2,10,978.25	..	..
12	Udid dal ..	38.00	6,291.50	..	..
13	Gram dal ..	35.00	6,538.25	..	..
14	Math ..	8.00	876.00	..	..
15	Maize ..	696.75	59,668.50	..	..
16	Groundnut ..	747.00	89,616.10	..	..
17	Til ..	335.50	74,045.50	..	..
18	Kardi ..	12,586.25	14,04,163.75	13,902.00	15,89,602.00
19	Linseed ..	144.00	24,811.00	..	..
20	Karala ..	37.25	5,643.25	..	..
21	Groundnut seed.	20.00	5,084.00	..	..
22	Cotton L 147	53,196.38	96,69,003.09	..	..
23	Cotton AK 277	1,792.32	2,90,187.41	..	..
24	Sunseed ..	..	..	..	..
25	Castor seed	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 17—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1967-68			
		Arrival		Quantity graded	
		Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1	Jowar ..	7,025.48	3,81,686.75	..	..
2	Bajri ..	409.95	35,374.09	..	..
3	Wheat ..	3,953.09	5,34,343.86	4,233.00	5,50,452.00
4	Tag bee ..	..	..	..	..
5	Udid ..	8,678.00	26,98,643.50	10,620.00	13,12,281.00
6	Mug ..	3,825.56	4,54,648.66	3,665.00	4,40,548.00
7	Gram ..	401.67	43,479.58	..	..
8	Chawali ..	121.71	13,575.55	..	..
9	Tur ..	3,165.06	2,67,726.58	2,198.00	2,48,337.00
10	Hulga ..	908.92	53,768.21	..	..
11	Tur dal ..	136.62	31,834.71	..	..
12	Udid dal ..	14.60	1,772.45	..	..
13	Gram dal ..	6.31	937.66	..	..
14	Math ..	27.65	3,187.11	..	..
15	Maize ..	90.33	6,021.29	..	..
16	Groundnut ..	380.86	36,994.69	..	..
17	Til ..	57.07	10,014.92	..	..
18	Kardi ..	4,369.57	2,87,011.79	5,610.00	3,60,647.00
19	Linseed ..	12.77	1,314.81	..	..
20	Karala ..	0.83	103.56	..	..
21	Groundnut seed.	19.06	2,556.05	..	..
22	Cotton L 147	55,511.56	1,02,59,433.83	..	..
23	Cotton AK 277.	3,646.04	5,98,622.48	..	..
24	Sunseed ..	750.44	29,227.50	..	..
25	Castor seed	20.44	1,966.06	..	..

Cotton is by far the most important item of export trade from this market. Cotton bales are exported to Bombay, Ahmedabad, Surat and Madras, while other agricultural produce is exported to Bombay, Jalna, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Akola, Barshi, etc.

Chikhali market is served by eight co-operative marketing societies which purchase and sell agricultural produce. The system of grading and standardisation is prevalent in this market. It is however not provided with scientific warehousing facilities. The cotton pool system which is beneficial to the agriculturist for the preservation of pure seed is made applicable to this market. The State Bank of India meets the credit needs of the traders in this market.

Mehkar: Mehkar cotton market was established in 1928, while trade in other agricultural produce came under regulation in 1956. The market was brought under the purview of the subsequent enactments in the course of time. All the major agricultural commodities are regulated in this market, of which jowar, cotton, *udid*, *mug* and wheat are more important than others. The market area extends over 228 villages in the Mehkar tahsil. There is a permanent market yard, measuring about five acres, which provides a godown besides some other facilities. The market functionaries include 28 general commission agents for cotton and 26 for foodgrains, 13 traders of cotton and 19 traders of foodgrains, as well as a number of weighmen and assistants. The total income and expenditure of the market committee was reported to be Rs. 59,143 and Rs. 45,244, respectively, in 1967-68.

The following table gives the volume of trade in this market during 1967-68.

TABLE No. 18
TURNOVER OF TRADE AT MEHKAR MARKET

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	1966-67		1967-68	
		Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs.	Arrival in Quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Cotton ..	60,325	1,04,07,894	..	..
2	Wheat ..	1,176	1,23,490	..	..
3	Udid ..	8,998	5,15,200	..	..
4	Mug ..	8,778	11,35,010	..	..
5	Jowar ..	..	..	..	..
6	Grains ..	..	..	22,660.65	*
7	Cotton ..	..	..	89,325.59	*

* The total value of arrival of foodgrains as well as cotton, was Rs. 1,52,62,643.

Mehkar market is served by a co-operative marketing society as well as a co-operative ginning and pressing factory. Banking finance is made available to some of the traders by the State Bank of India. A bulk of the produce in this market is purchased by a few local traders as well as by the purchasing agents of big merchants from Khamgaon and Akola.

Deulgaon Raja: Deulgaon Raja situated in the southern region of the district is an old market with considerable local importance. The cotton market at this town was brought under regulation in 1931 while grain trade was regulated in 1954. The Deulgaon market commands an area in the Deulgaon Raja development block as well as the Sindkhed Raja Block. All agricultural commodities produced in the area are brought under regulation. Cotton is however the principal commodity of trade which is followed by jowar and other foodgrains. Jowar trade in this market as in other markets has gone out of the purview of the market committee since the monopoly procurement by Government.

The following table gives the volume of trade in this market in 1967-68.

TABLE No. 19
TURNOVER OF TRADE AT DEULGAON RAJA MARKET IN 1967-68.

Serial No.	Name of Commodity	Arrival		Quantity graded	
		Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Bajri ..	481	38,888	..	..
2	Wheat ..	2,762	3,48,012	2,762	3,48,012
3	Tur ..	2,785	2,95,210	2,013	2,65,580
4	Gul ..	17,702	34,70,477	..	..
5	Oil-seeds ..	11,815	1,61,500	..	..
6	Cotton ..	52,230	92,61,793	..	..

The income of the market committee from market fee, licence fee and other sources amounted to Rs. 66,396 while the expenditure was Rs. 75,323 in 1967-68.

This market is served by a co-operative marketing society, while the banking facilities to traders are available from the State Bank of Hyderabad.

Jalgaon Jamod: Jalgaon is a smaller market situated at a distance of about 16 miles from Nandura on the Bombay-Howrah trunk railway line. The cotton market at Jalgaon was organised as early as 1903, while trade in foodgrains was brought under regulation much later. As may be expected Jalgaon market is not so famous for cotton trade. It is essentially a market for foodgrains. The market area extends over a radius of ten miles around the town. The market committee owns a market yard. There are six

marketing co-operative societies which undertake sale operations on behalf of the agriculturists. The branch of the State Bank of India caters to credit needs of the trading community.

During 1967-68 the income and expenditure of the market committee amounted to Rs. 30,816 and Rs. 26,359, respectively.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

Co-operative Marketing.—The spread of the co-operative movement has a considerable impact upon the economic status of the agriculturists. The introduction of co-operative marketing which formed an integral part of the strategy of co-operative development effort brought about favourable conditions for the agricultural sellers. Before the introduction of co-operative marketing, the cotton growers used to sell their produce through brokers either at the village level or at tahsil places. Most of the trading concerns supplying cotton to the textile mills at Bombay, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, etc., preferred to purchase the raw cotton through their *adatyas* in the district. The *adatyas* advanced small amounts to the agriculturist prior to the harvest time and the farmers were made to sell their produce to the *adatyas* at a very low price determined by the merchants arbitrarily. A high rate of interest was charged on the advances. The farmers were not organised and had little control on the disposal of their produce. This state of affairs was sought to be remedied by eminent social workers also known as co-operators.

During the post-planning period the co-operative marketing movement gathered momentum under the leadership of a few eminent co-operators. At present the movement has the benefit of a good cadre of co-operators. A number of co-operative organisations have been established at the regulated markets. These organisations sell agricultural produce on behalf of the agriculturists at the market yards. They are licensed by the respective market authorities for doing *adat* business. They are instrumental in securing reasonable prices to the agriculturist. In addition some of the multipurpose societies distribute improved seeds, fertilizers, insecticides, agricultural implements, cement and iron goods.

The list of the co-operative organisations and their branches holding licences to do *adat* business in the various regulated markets is given below :—

Market	Name of co-operative organisation.
Khamgaon ...	1. Buldhana District Co-operative Sale and Purchase Society.
	2. Khamgaon Taluka Co-operative Sale and Purchase Association.
	3. Shri Gajanan Consumers Co-operative Society
	4. Khamgaon Central Co-operative Consumers Stores.

Market	Name of co-operative organisation.
	5. Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society, Lakhanwada.
	6. Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society.
Malkapur ...	1. Malkapur Tahsil Growers Co-operative Society.
	2. Dharangaon Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society.
	3. Motal Vikas Khand Kharedi-Vikri Sangh
Shegaon ...	1. Shegaon Block Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.
	2. Balapur Block Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.
	3. Buldhana District Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.
Nandura ...	1. Malkapur Tahsil Growers Co-operative Society.
	2. Purchase and Sale Samiti
Chikhli ...	1. Chikhli Taluka Sahakari Kharedi-Vikri Samiti.
	2. Co-operative Ginning and Pressing Factory
	3. Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society, Kelwad
	4. Vividha Karyakari Sahakari Society, Amdapur.
	5. Co-operative Ginning Factory, Kelwad
	6. Co-operative Ginning Factory, Amdapur
	7. Vividha Karyakari Society, Dhotra
	8. Gramseva Sahakari Society, Eklara
Mehkar ...	1. Mehkar Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.
	2. Co-operative Ginning and Pressing Factory
Deulgaon ...	Deulgaon-Raja Sale and Purchase Society
Jalgaon ...	1. Purchase and Sale Krishi Udyog Sahakari Prakriya Society.
	2. Sale and Purchase Co-operative Society, Sangrampur.
	3. Sale and Purchase Co-operative Society, Asalgaon.
	4. Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Jalgaon
	5. Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Pimpalgaon.
	6. Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Kherda

The following table gives the turnover of trade handled by co-operative marketing societies in the respective regulated markets in 1967-68:—

TABLE No. 20
TURNOVER OF TRADE BY CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING SOCIETIES,
IN 1967-68.

Market	Commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Khamgaon ..	Cotton	3,790.00	6,82,852.00
	Paddy	..	..
	Rice	..	..
	Bajri	23.00	2,443.00
	Wheat	35.00	6,561.00
	Tur	34.00	3,570.00
	Udid	23.00	3,173.00
	Groundnut	323.00	45,599.00
	Oil-seeds	6.00	690.00
	Other Pulses	19.00	3,360.00
	Gul	5.00	823.00
	Mug	15.00	1,780.00
2. Shegaon ..	Cotton	2,446.00	3,99,563.00
	Jowar	..	..
	Wheat	17.00	2,186.00
	Bajri	80.00	6,638.00
	Gram	35.00	3,766.00
	Tur	86.00	8,221.00
	Tur dal	..	..
	Mug	17.00	2,012.00
	Udid	8.00	965.00
	Lakh	..	..
	Watana	..	..
	Groundnut	..	..
	Linseed	13.00	1,624.00
	Sesamum	1.00	176.00
3. Jalgaon ..	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Market	Commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4. Malkapur ..	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
5. Nandura ..	Bajri	..	..
	Wheat	..	..
	Tur	..	..
	Oil-seed	..	..
	Jowar	..	..
	Cotton	4,885.00	8,10,646.00
	Udid	..	..
	Mug	..	..
	Chawali	..	..
6. Chikhli ..	Wheat	87,825.00	41,952.53
	Bajri	4.26	22,929.00
	Jowar	7,025.48	3,81,686.75
	Sunseed	8.23	298.76
	Maize	61.38	3,615.72
	Tur	44.63	3,412.49
	Gram	16.40	2,192.03
	Udid	136.12	17,258.46
	Mug	67.40	7,611.82
	Hulga	13.75	986.67
	Chawali	4.84	450.22
	Math	..	..
	Tur dal	94.89	3,150.78
	Gram dal	..	..
	Udid dal	..	..
	Groundnut	18.65	2,229.13
	Kardi	330.57	18,936.04
	Til	1.18	223.31
	Linseed	1.02	199.02
	Castor seed	0.69	38.15
	Groundnut seed	..	..

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Market	Commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Cotton L 147	1,267.60	2,29,214.50
	Cotton AK 277	..	..
7. Deulgaon Raja ..	Bajri	49.00	3,940.00
	Wheat	57.00	7,163.00
	Tur	163.00	17,281.00
	Gul	613.00	1,76,669.00
	Oilseed	286.00	3,912.00
	Cotton	2,021.00	3,58,377.00
8. Mehkar ..	Foodgrains	1,527.38	2,89,759.00
	Cotton	..	..

The Malkapur Tahsil Growers Agricultural Co-operative Society is a big organisation doing *adat* business, jowar procurement and distribution of agricultural appliances. It procured 7,352 quintals of jowar on behalf of Government in 1967-68, and distributed goods worth Rs. 7,46,423 during the same year. The Purchase and Sale Society at Nandura, established in 1964, is another organisation doing similar useful work. The Mehkar Tahsil Co-operative Purchase and Sale Samiti, established in 1919, is an important organisation doing *adat* business, jowar procurement and sale of agricultural appliances. It is also doing a very useful work under the cotton pool system under which it handled 1,577 quintals of cotton in 1966-67. It procured 15,630 quintals of jowar, valued at Rs. 8,36,324 during the same year.

STATE TRADING

State Trading and Fair Price Shops.—The history of State trading dates back to 1942 when the British Government had imposed statutory rationing all over the country. The system of rationing was the direct consequence of the World War II which brought about conditions of acute scarcity and black marketing of all consumers goods. Under the policy of rationing the Government procured the rationed commodities from the producers on the basis of compulsory levy, and the distribution was done through approved shops. The sale, purchase and transport of the rationed commodities by private parties was strictly prohibited. The extent of controls was gradually relaxed after the dawn of Independence, and the controls were withdrawn in 1954.

With the rise in the prices of foodgrains and sugar, a multitude of imbalances were witnessed in the market. The 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. The general price situation took an adverse turn since the Pakistani aggression in September 1965.

The worsening food situation compelled the Government to introduce informal rationing and monopoly procurement of rice and jowar through Government agencies. Under the procurement system, the Government started purchasing these foodgrains from the producers at scheduled prices.

The system of monopoly procurement of jowar was implemented in the district in 1964-65 under the Maharashtra Jowar (Restriction on Purchase, Sale and Control on Movement) Order of 1964. During 1965-66 the Government issued a consolidated statutory order for procurement of jowar, rice and paddy, viz., Maharashtra Scheduled Foodgrains (Stock Declaration and Procurement, Disposal, Acquisition, Transport and Price Control) Order of 1965. Similar control orders were issued by Government for the subsequent years. The procurement policy during the subsequent years remained almost the same as that for 1965-66 with changes to the effect that the levy tables were made applicable for assessing the amount of levy.

Government has prohibited sale and purchase of jowar, rice and paddy in this district. The transport and movement of these cereals is prohibited. The agriculturists are, however, allowed to sell small quantities of these foodgrains to *bona fide* consumers.

The details of quantity and value of jowar procured in the district from 1965-66 to 1968-69 are given below :—

Year (1)	Quantity in tonnes (2)	Value in Rs. (3)
1965-66	3,207	19,24,200
1966-67	9,250	62,28,014
1967-68	11,070	68,84,501
1968-69	27,119	1,62,70,500

There are 21 purchasing centres opened for the purchase of jowar and paddy under the monopoly procurement system. Besides, there are 19 godown centres for disbursement of these foodgrains to the fair price shops, and 8 godowns for disbursement in the inaccessible areas in the monsoon period.

The foodgrains procured by the Government are distributed through fair price shops. Besides the scheduled grains, wheat and sugar also are distributed through these shops. The fair price shops are managed by co-operative societies, village panchayats, local bodies as well as by authorised private shop-keepers. Co-operative societies and village panchayats are given preference over private shop-keepers for running fair price shops. They are controlled and inspected by the District Supply Officer or the Tahsildar. The consumers are required to obtain household ration cards.

There are 816 fair price shops in the district which are managed as under :—

1. Co-operative Societies	200
2. Village Panchayats	70
3. Other recognised bodies	103
4. Freedom fighters	1
5. Prohibition affected persons	3
6. Ex-servicemen	3
7. Gold control affected persons	1
8. Scheduled Caste persons	8
9. Private Traders	356
10. Others	71
Total	816

The quantity and value of the goods disbursed through the fair price shops in the district are given below :—

Year (1)	Commodity (2)	Quantity in tonnes (3)	Value in Rs. (4)
1965-66	Wheat	15,556	79,36,304
	Jowar	3,125	19,21,123
	Rice	3,726	27,03,596
	Milo	925	3,70,250
	Maize	1,997	10,78,596
	Bajri	169	1,09,707
	Gram	703	4,04,034
	Gram Dal	346	2,42,296
1966-67	Wheat	15,132	77,54,827
	Milo	30,637	1,12,21,621
	Maize	1,313	7,46,794
	Bajri	205	1,35,814
	Rice	756	6,21,649
	Jowar	9,145	54,87,000
1967-68	Wheat	250	60,387
	Milo	5,559	20,82,132
	Maize	38	22,385
	Bajri	51	54,844
	Rice	1,920	18,81,261
	Jowar	12,402	72,69,299
	Gram	160	1,54,090
1968-69	Wheat	14,870	1,33,83,000
	Rice	1,771	19,48,100
	Milo	11,125	6,11,87,500
	Jowar	6,110	36,66,000

RETAIL TRADE

Retail Trade.—Retail shops provide a link between the wholesaler and the consumer. During the last three decades the number of retail shops has multiplied considerably. Prior to the thirties the smaller villages had a few grocery shops, with the result that the villagers were required to procure their day-to-day necessities from the nearby towns or weekly markets. The village economy was mainly self-sufficient in structure, the barter transactions being very much in vogue. A considerable proportion of the sale and purchase operations were outside the monetised sector. Even in towns, where barter transactions were existent, the number and variety of retail shops was very much limited. The colourful variety of shops which are seen in towns to-day like Khamgaon, Buldhana, Malkapur, Shegaon and Chikhali are of recent origin. With changes in the pattern of living and increasing wants of the common man, a number of articles which were quite rare in the past have become necessities. Individual and group tastes have assumed a variegated character with the result that a wide variety of articles are in demand in towns and bigger villages.

The retail shopkeepers usually procure their goods from wholesalers at Khamgaon, Shegaon, Malkapur, Buldhana, Deulgaon and Chikhali. Many of them are found to book their indents with manufacturers and distributors at Akola, Amravati, Nagpur, Bombay and Jalgaon. Retail sales are made usually on a cash basis though credit accounts of a few acquainted customers are not uncommon. The system of credit accounts is prevalent to a larger extent in villages, where the peasants do not have a regular flow of income.

A brief description of some categories of retail shops is given below. The account is based on a small sample survey of retail shops at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Buldhana, Chikhali, Nandura and Shegaon.

Grocery: Among retail shops, grocery is the most important group of shops, both as regards number and turnover. The grocers sell a wide variety of articles, such as cereals, pulses, oils, spices, *gul*, dry fruits, ghee, catechu, betel nuts, soaps, coconuts, cosmetics and a number of articles of daily use.

A sample survey of grocery shops conducted at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Shegaon, Nandura, Chikhali and Mehkar reveals that an average grocer earns a net profit of about 6 to 8 per cent of the total turnover. The value of stock-in-trade of an individual shop may vary from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 1,00,000, while the annual turnover may range from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 20,00,000. The grocers in the district obtain their stock of goods from local wholesalers as well as from Akola, Nagpur, Jalgaon and Bombay. The freight charges from Bombay are Rs. 10, from Akola Rs. 2 and from Nagpur Rs. 5 per quintal of goods. The grocers at Shegaon, Buldhana and Khamgaon have formed associations to redress their grievances.

Cloth Shops: Though there are a good number of cloth shops in every town in the district, the wholesale as well as retail trade in cloth is carried on a larger scale at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Buldhana, Chikhali, Nandura and Deulgaon Raja. Khamgaon has the biggest number of shops, *viz.*, 200.

The survey at the above-mentioned markets reveals that the cloth merchants obtain their stock from Akola, Bombay, Nagpur, Sholapur, Madras, Bangalore, Amravati, Malegaon and Ichalkaranji. The wholesalers bring cloth from the manufacturers or from distributors at Akola or Nagpur. The turnover of trade of the bigger merchants amounts to Rs. 4 to Rs. 7.25 lakhs per annum. The net profit of a dealer ranges between 7 to 10 per cent of the total turnover. The merchants at Khamgaon and Chikhali have formed an association.

The merchants obtain cloth on cash basis though transactions on credit are by no means small. The trade is brisk from October to May and is at its height during the marriage season.

Medical Stores: The increase in the number of medical stores during the last about 25 years is the direct consequence of the increase in medical consciousness of the people as well as the number of medical practitioners. The survey of medical stores at Khamgaon, Buldhana, Chikhali, Shegaon, Malkapur and Nandura reveals that the chemists and druggists in this district obtain the goods from the manufacturers at Bombay, Baroda, Bular, Calcutta, Panvel, Ahmadnagar as well as from the distributors at Akola, Amravati, Nagpur and Jalgaon. Many of them book their orders with the travelling representatives of manufacturers, such as, Glaxo, Pfizer, Squibb, Lederle, Ciba, Parke Davis, Alembic and many others.

The percentage of profits of the merchants ranges from 10 to 20. The annual turnover of an average shop amounts to Rs. 1 lakh to Rs. 2 lakhs. The chemists and druggists at Khamgaon, Shegaon, Buldhana, Malkapur and Chikhali have organised associations.

Hardware: The hardware merchants sell a number of articles including nails, wire, *patti*, hinges, screws, bolts, chains, beams, pipes, rope, buckets, *ghamelas* as well as paints and varnishes. The hardware shops at Khamgaon, Malkapur and Buldhana are of a considerable size. The stock of goods is obtained from Bombay, Poona, Jullunder, Delhi, Akola, Calcutta, Kanpur and Cochin. A hardware-merchant requires a considerable amount of investment. The margin of profit amounts to 8 to 10 per cent. The freight charges per quintal of goods by railway are Rs. 9 from Bombay, Rs. 12 from Calcutta and Rs. 13 from Delhi.

The merchants at Khamgaon have formed an association.

Stationery and Cutlery: Many of the stationery and cutlery shops have grown during the last about 35 years. With the increase in the number of school and college students, and with the variegation in fashions, the sale of stationery and cutlery articles has multiplied considerably. The number of these shops is highest

in Khamgaon which is followed by Buldhana, Malkapur, Chikhali, Deulgaon Raja and Nandura.

The articles are imported from Bombay, Nagpur, Akola, Amravati, etc. The big shopkeepers obtain the goods from manufacturers while the small ones purchase from the wholesalers at Khamgaon or Akola. The rate of profit in this trade varies between 10 and 12 per cent. The freight charges by railway from Bombay are Rs. 9 to Rs. 10 per quintal.

Utensils: Though there are utensil shops in every town, big shops are to be found at Khamgaon, Buldhana and Malkapur. The utensils of various kinds are imported from Bombay, Poona, Nasik and Punjab. The turnover of an individual shop varies from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 1,25,000 per annum, while the average rate of profit amounts to 10 per cent of the total turnover.

WEEKLY MARKETS

Weekly Markets.—Weekly markets were very important from the point of view of trade in the past. In the absence of retail shops in smaller villages, the villagers used to make the necessary purchases from the nearby weekly market. However, with the growth of retail shops even in smaller villages, the importance of weekly markets has decreased. In the present day conditions of the rural society, villagers visit the weekly markets not for the sake of purchases alone, but to engage in some work as also to maintain social contacts.

Itinerary traders, local shopkeepers and pedlars set up temporary booths at the bazar places, while agriculturists and craftsmen also bring their produce for sale. The Directory of villages and towns given in this volume shows the nearest weekly market to each village.

The old Buldhana District Gazetteer reported 97 weekly markets in the district in 1910. The 1961 census recorded 104 markets, of which 13 were famous for cattle trade as well.

FAIRS

Fairs.—Fairs are complementary to weekly markets as centres of trade. As in the case of weekly markets, the importance of fairs as centres of trade has declined. However, a large number of villagers are still found to attend the annual fairs. A majority of the fairs are held in the post-monsoon period, and especially after the harvest season. Fairs are mainly festive occasions for recreation and amusement. A number of *tamashas*, filmshows and variety entertainment programmes add to the gaiety of the occasion. The typically rural folk dances accompanied by lilting music and sonorous songs in the *tamasha* enchant the simple sojourners from the rural country side.

PEDLARS AND HAWKERS

Pedlars and Hawkers.—The 1961 census enumerated 1,789 pedlars and hawkers in Buldhana district, of whom 1,669 were in urban areas. The hawkers are itinerary traders in towns, while the pedlars are their counterparts in villages. It is noteworthy

that though the trading activity of the pedlars is confined to villages, the census enumerated a majority of them in urban areas. This is mainly because of the fact that most of them reside in towns.

The trading activity of these street-vendors is neither regulated nor recorded, and hence the statistics about their trade are not available. They sell a wide variety of consumers goods including fresh fruits, dry fruits, foodgrains, parched grains, spices, vegetables, bread, biscuits, ice creams, cloth, ready-made garments, stationery and cutlery items, toys, etc. Many of them belong to professional classes, such as oil-men, gardeners, *darzis* and tin-smiths. They obtain their stock-in-trade from bigger towns like Khamgaon, Shegaon, Buldhana, Malkapur, Chikhali and Deulgaon. Generally they sell with a narrow profit margin and earn about Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 a day. Some of them sell their goods in exchange for foodgrains. These barter transactions are found on a larger scale in villages.

The pedlars visit the various villages on certain days of the week. They also visit weekly markets and fairs in the nearby villages.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights and Measures.—In the past there was a multiplicity of weights and measures. The unit value of the weights and measures differed from place to place and also from commodity to commodity at the same place. The English units were also used in certain transactions. The convertibility of the local units to the English units was a great problem. The ignorance of the peasants and workers added to the ambiguity of the conversion factors. The following quotation from the old Buldhana District Gazetteer will throw some light on the state of affairs existing then.

“The standard by which all weights and measures are regulated is the Government rupee weighing 180 grains Troy. The rupee is taken to represent generally the weight of one tola. The weight ‘seer’, which is in common use all over the District, is made up of 80 tolas. Grain is sold by measure, the standard weights being a seer, a *paili*, a maund and *khandi*. The contents of the measure seer vary in weight in some taluks. While generally throughout the District they are equivalent to 80 tolas, in Chikhli taluk they are equal to 120 tolas and in Jalgaon taluk they may be 60, 70, 75, 80 or 100 tolas. The next higher measure *paili* may contain from 2 to 12 seers of grain. Its contents vary from taluk to taluk and according to the grain measured; for instance in Chikhli taluk $5\frac{1}{4}$ seers of *juari* or wheat make a *paili*, but if the grain is rice, 6 seers go to a *paili*. Even within the same taluk the capacity of a *paili* varies much. In Jalgaon it may contain 2, 3, $4\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 seers and in Fatehkheda and Lonar of Mehkar taluk it may contain as much as 28 seers. The capacity of a maund varies from 12 to 16 *pailis*, but the *khandi* is everywhere made up of 20 maunds. The divisions of the measure seer are *chawatke*=5 tolas, *nawatke*=10 tolas, *paoser*=20 tolas and *achchher*=40 tolas. Half the *paili* is called *adheli*. In some

villages of Malkapur a measure of 4 seers or 320 tolas is called a *chautha*. Four *chauthas* make a *dola* and 12 *dolas* a *map*. When grain is sold by weight 3 maunds are called one *palla*.

Cotton Weights.—"The scale of weights employed for weighing the uncleaned cotton differs from that used in weighing the cleaned cotton. The scale for the latter is as follows:—

78 tolas = 1 seer.

14 seers = 1 maund.

10 maunds = 1 *bojha*.

The most common scale for weighing the uncleaned cotton is as follows:—

80 tolas = 1 seer.

14 seers = 1 maund.

20 maunds = 1 *khandi*.

In certain localities of the District, however, this scale is not closely followed. The seer is equal to 90 tolas in a few villages in the Chikhli taluk, and to 78 in a few isolated places in the Malkapur taluk. Similarly, the weight of a maund is liable to change. In Pimpalgaon Kale and Madkhed in the Jalgaon taluk the maund is said to consist of 18 and 22 seers, respectively. It is made up of 16, 20, 22 or 40 seers in some villages in the Chikhli and Malkapur taluks. The local weights used in the majority of villages in the Malkapur and Mehkar taluks, for weighing the uncleaned cotton are as given below:—

2 seers of 80 tolas each make one *paseri*.

2 *paseris* make one *dhada*.

4 *dhadas* make one maund.

20 maunds make one *khandi*.

Of these the *paseri* varies in about five ways, representing the weight of $1\frac{1}{2}$, 2, $2\frac{1}{4}$, 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ seers in the Mehkar taluk.*

Not much was done subsequently during the British rule to improve the matters. Some of the English units of weights and measures were enforced. However, the local transactions continued to be in terms of the old units. This state of affairs needed to be changed with statutory measures after Independence. Accordingly, the Government of India enacted the Standard of Weights and Measures Act in 1956. The State Government also passed a complementary legislation *viz.*, the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act of 1958 for the enforcement of the standard weights and measures based on the metric system.

In pursuance of this legislation the new units have been enforced in the district. All transactions in the organised sector of trade and most of the petty sale transactions at the peasant's house are done in terms of the metric units. The transition to the new system was slightly irksome to the villager, but the inevitable has taken place.

* Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, Vol. A, pp. 254—56.

CHAPTER 7—COMMUNICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

THE BOMBAY-NAGPUR-HOWRAH TRUNK RAILWAY ROUTE of the Central Railway passes through the district from west to east for a distance of about 44.50 miles. A branch line emanates from this line at Jalamb upto Khamgaon. These routes have facilitated commercial traffic from the markets in this district to practically the major part of the State as also to many parts of India. Buldhana district can, therefore, be said to be well-served by railway communication. Though the railway lines do not touch the commercial centres in Central and Southern parts of the district, they benefit the important markets at Malkapur, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Jalamb and Nandura. All the railway stations are connected by good roads with the commercial centres in the district. The total route mileage in the district, *viz.*, about 52.50 (84 km), however, does not compare favourably with many districts in the State. The railway length averages 1.40 miles per 100 sq. miles of area in the district, the corresponding average being 2.66 miles for Maharashtra.

The want of easy and perennial road communication in the past hindered the economic development of the district though it possessed many physical advantages. Maintenance of roads was particularly costly in the fertile black cotton soil areas, while the topography of the Satpuda and Ajanta ranges was a formidable hindrance to road development in those areas. These factors, coupled with some others, contrived against adequate road development in the past. The Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta national highway was by far the only important road in those days.

After Independence, however, road development received the active attention of the Government. The Road Development Plan, popularly known as the Nagpur Plan, accentuated the rate of growth of roads in the district. This is evidenced by the facts mentioned below and elsewhere in this chapter:—

During the period 1951—61, the length of national highways remained practically the same. The length of the state highways, however, increased by 131.29 miles. The length of major district roads increased by 72.65 miles and that of village roads by 29 miles. The length of the other district roads, however, decreased by 19.32 miles, which may be attributed to their upgradation to standard of major district roads or other better categories. The total increase in all types of roads (excluding municipal roads) was thus, 213.66 miles.

Under the Nagpur Plan, the district road mileage was envisaged at 1,656. It was short of this target by 1,076.81 miles as on 31st March 1961. On 31st March 1962, improvement of the Chikhli-Jalna road was in progress while Lonar-Mantha Road was under construction.

By the end of the Second Five-Year Plan period, the total road length was 914 km. which amounted to 9.6 km. of road per 100 sq. km of area. The road works undertaken during the Third Plan were on the lines suggested under the Nagpur Plan. By the end of the Third Plan the total road length of 1,148 km was constructed and the ratio worked to 10.7 km of roads to 100 sq. km of area. The total cost of road works completed during the Plan period amounted to Rs. 44.94 lakhs.

Table No. 1 below gives the statistics of various categories of roads in the district in 1961 and 1972 as also the target of road development from 1961 to 1981. Table No. 2 gives the surface classification of roads in March 1972.

TABLE No. 1

LENGTH OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF ROADS EXISTING IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT.

(Figures in Kilometres)

Category of road (1)	March 1961 (2)	March 1972 (3)	Proposed length between 1961—1981 (4)
National Highways	85.78	78.03*	214.53
State Highways	141.48	475.12	368.04
Major District Roads	329.31	404.00	825.12
Other District Roads	51.03	282.43	1,136.93
Village Roads	478.75	328.64	1,556.25
Total	1,086.35	2,083.64	4,100.87

* Reduction in length because the alignment of the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta road was changed from Malkapur to Nandura so as to reduce the distance.

TABLE No. 2

SURFACE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF ROADS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT
AS ON 31ST MARCH 1972.

Surface classification (1)	Length in km. (2)
Cement concrete	471.18
Black-topped	844.37
Water bound macadam	78.18
Granular material	639.91
Lower types	
Total	2,083.64

Source : Bureau of Economics and Statistics.

RAILWAYS

Buldhana district is served by the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta broad gauge line of the Central Railway since 1867. From Jalamb station on this line a branch line (broad gauge) runs to Khamgaon. The total length of the railway route in the district is about 52.50 miles (84.20 km).

Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta Route.—As a result of regrouping of the Indian Railways, the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta route which was formerly under the Great Indian Peninsula Railway was grouped in 1952 under the Central Railway. The portion of the route falling within Buldhana district *viz.*, about 44.50 miles (71.20 km) was opened for traffic in 1867. The double line was constructed between 1918 and 1922. This line is laid with 90 lbs. F.F. rails on C. I. plate sleepers. The line is ballasted with broken stone, sand, gravel, laterite and *kankar*.

This route traverses the Nasik and Jalgaon districts before it enters the Buldhana district. A description of a few stations is given below. The last station on this route in Jalgaon district is Bodwad. The topography through which this line passes is plain.

The stations on this route (with their distance from Bombay) are Khamkhed 486 km; Malkapur 495 km; Biswa Bridge 509 km; Khumgaon Burti 517 km; Nandura 523 km; Jalamb 535 km; Shegaon 547 km; and Shrikshetra Nagjhari 555 km.

Nandura: Nandura is an important station on the Central Railway. It has one second class and two upper class waiting rooms. There are two platforms for 'up' and 'down' trains. All the two platforms are paved, electrified and covered. Fans and clocks have been provided on the platforms. There are separate booking offices for upper and lower class passengers at the station. Amenities like cloak-rooms, cold water, book-stall and tea-stall have been provided.

Jalamb: Jalamb is an important station and also a junction on the route. There are two platforms for 'up' and 'down' trains. A branch line going to Khamgaon emanates from this station. The station is equipped with tea-stall, a book-stall and waiting rooms. The station is provided with cool water and cloak-room facilities. There are vegetarian and non-vegetarian refreshment rooms. The platforms are paved, covered and electrified. Fans and clocks have been provided on the platforms.

Jalamb-Khamgaon Route.—This is a broad gauge route which starts from Jalamb junction. It is 13 km. (8 miles) in length, and is a single line track. There is no station in between Jalamb and Khamgaon.

ROADS

Buldhana district was not served with good roads at the beginning of this century. The following is the description of road routes existing at the time of the compilation of the old Gazetteer of Buldhana district in 1910:—

"The next step was to provide the railway with a system of feeder roads running north and south of it, but it was some time before much was done in this direction. The original settlement reports are full of complaints as to the primitive nature of the roads, and in 1870 when the old Berar Gazetteer was written, the only metalled road in the District was one 12 miles long from Khamgaon to Nandura railway station. There were five other roads, partly running in the District, marked out and levelled, but neither bridged nor metalled. These were Shegaon to Khamgaon (11 miles), Shegaon to Balapur (12 miles), Khamgaon to Balapur (18 miles), Shegaon to Bawanbir (18 miles), and Nandura to Jalgaon (18 miles). In 1870 Sir A. Lyall wrote of the Berar roads as follows:—

'The want of easy and perennial communication does much to counterbalance the other physical advantages of Berar. In the last few years the English have made two or three metalled lines, but the rest of the province is traversed only by cart-tracks. In the valley of Berar these run mostly over the black soil, and most of them may be said to exist only for eight months in the year. During those five months they are very passable by country carts; where the track runs wide and level it could not easily be improved but it is apt to be cut across by abrupt water-courses, and narrowed into a hollow ditch by the encroachments of the fieldowners on each side. In the rains very many tracks disappear altogether—the peasants plough them clean up; but *en revanche* the first cart that reopens communication after the wet season may select its own line across the field. During the four rainy months all travel or traffic by wheels is stopped—the fertile soil has turned into a black bog.'

'Above the Ghats the ground is harder, but often covered with loose round stones; and it is hard to decide whether sticking in the mud or stumbling over the stones is the more disheartening to adventurers in Berar between June and October.'

'The remedy for this state of things is not easy. Metalling is terribly expensive; the material (broken basalt) is bad and does not bind; constant repairs are essential, for a neglected metalled road is far worse in the open season than one quite unmetalled and after all your costly macadamized road is only worth its price from June to October. But this is the dull season, when there is no crop to cart to market, and when all the people are ploughing and sowing'.

'Then as to unmetalled roads. It might be thought obviously advantageous to demarcate at least the main routes and to garnish with sign-posts and mile-stones. But if we marked out one strip of black soil as the road the public must stick to their bargain, and could not change when the road had got cut to wrinkles; whereas now the custom of the country allows great latitude to travellers in the matter of short cuts and detours. Therefore we want either first class roads or none, and, as Mr. Rivett-Carnac observes, the first class metalled road is little less costly than a

railway. Possibly it may be true that here, as in Russia, iron is destined to do the work of stone for the great permanent roads."

Development of Roads.—"Since this was written much progress has been made in spite of their cost it has been found possible to equip the District with a good system of roads connecting talukas and all important centres of trade. Both the first and second class roads are provided with bridges or causeways throughout except at the crossings of the Purna and the Kate Purna. To bridge these two rivers would be too costly an undertaking and not warranted by the traffic. First class roads are all metalled with hard indurated basalt, which is obtained from the local trap. Sir Alfred Lyall's description of this basalt does not agree with the opinions held to-day. Though difficult to consolidate at the outset, it is very good for hard traffic and does not wear into ruts so easily as other material. It has five or six years' life, while quartz lasts only for three years. Second class roads are all *muramed*; *muram* is disintegrated trap, and a better quality is found in Berar than elsewhere. The old roads are as a rule 12 feet wide, but the recent tendency has been to construct them only 9 feet in width, this being the standard width for the Central Provinces. The broader roads are more suitable for Berar where the traffic is heavy."

"The main roads of the District under the Public Works Department are as follows:—

Malkapur-Mehkar Road: From Malkapur to Motla (mile 15) this road passes through a rich plain of black cotton soil, from Motla to Rajura (mile 22) the country is undulating and the road, has several tedious and steep nullah approaches; from mile 23 begins the Buldhana *ghat*. The alignment of the *ghat* has been taken along spurs overlooking beautiful valleys and has been carefully made, the ruling gradient being 1 in 25. The *ghat* ends at mile 26, where the plateau of Buldhana is reached, the total rise from Malkapur to Buldhana being 1,200 feet. From Buldhana the road runs in easy gradients, the country gradually falling in three terraces towards Chikhli (mile 42); there is no *ghat* except at miles 32, 35 and 39 where slight falls for short distances are perceptible. The total length of the road is 70 miles 3 furlongs. With the exception of miles 39 to 42 and 46 to 56, the whole length has been raised to class I. It is proposed now to metal miles 39 to 42, and if this is done, there will be first class communication between Buldhana and Khamgaon *via* Chikhli. The annual cost of maintenance of this road is Rs. 2,000. It is provided with dak and inspection bungalows as follows: Motla (mile 15) a dak bungalow, Buldhana (mile 28) a combined dak and inspection bungalow and a circuit house; Chikhli (mile 42), Lawalla (mile 56), and Mehkar (mile 71) inspection bungalows. A mail tonga service plies between Malkapur and Buldhana.

Chikhli-Jalna Road: Beginning from Chikhli miles 43, 44 and 45 of this road are common with those of the Malkapur-Mehkar road. At the 46th mile the two roads separate and the

Chikhli-Jalna road is metalled up to mile 67. From mile 67 to 81 the surface is *muram* only. Miles 82 to 91 are within the Nizam's Dominions. By this road the Chikhli taluk is brought into connection both with the railway at Malkapur and the railway at Jalna. The annual cost of maintenance of the road is Rs. 9,600. It is provided with inspection bungalows at Mera (mile 52), Deulgaon Pathan (mile 65), and Deulgaon Raja (mile 78).

Khamgaon to Chikhli via Amrapur: This first class road brings Chikhli into connection with the leading cotton mart Khamgaon. It is 38 miles in length and has a very heavy traffic. Its annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 10,350. It is provided with inspection bungalows at Khamgaon (mile 1), Maharkhed (mile 15), and Amrapur (mile 25).

Lawala to Amrapur: By this first class road all the traffic from Mehkar finds its way to Khamgaon. It is 11½ miles in length and its annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 2,225.

Nandura to Jalgaon: Along this second class road the produce of the Jalgaon taluk is carried to the railway. It is 16½ miles in length, and its annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 4,354. At Jalgaon there is a combined dak and inspection bungalow.

Khamgaon-Patur Road: Only 11 miles of this road is in the District. The first mile is metalled and the rest *muramed*. This road joins *via* Balapur the Akola-Basim road, and the portion in this District serves as an important feeder to Khamgaon. The annual cost of maintenance of this portion is Rs. 2,325.

The old Nagpur dak line of a total length of 49¾ miles in the District is also maintained by the Public Works Department as a third class road, and it still serves as an important line of communication for the villages adjacent to it. There is a bungalow at Rahiri.

In addition the District Board, who employ their own engineer, maintain the following roads:—

Motala to Nandura: This road, 21 miles in length, connects the large market of Nandura with Buldhana and joins the Malkapur-Buldhana road at Motla.

Nandura to Khamgaon, 10½ miles.

Khamgaon to Shegaon, 10½ miles.

Both these roads bring the villages through which they run into connection with the Khamgaon cotton mart.

Buldhana to Deulghat, 5 miles (of which 1 mile is in Municipal limits).

The circular road 1½ mile long within the limits of Buldhana.

"The first three roads have only recently been handed over by the Public Works Department, who managed them for the District Board.

A-1198—33—B.

Statistics of Roads.—"The length and cost of the maintenance of the roads maintained by the Public Works Department is as follows:—

1st class — 120⅛ miles at Rs. 34,500

2nd class — 65⅛ miles at Rs. 15,844

3rd class — 49¾ miles at Rs. 2,487

a year, or a total of 235 miles at a cost of Rs. 52,831 per annum. The length of the roads maintained by the District Board is 50 miles, of which 16½ are first class and 33½ second class, and the annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 8,325.

Proposed Roads.—"The roads most urgently needed are those from Buldhana to Dhar (17 miles), and from Buldhana to Khamgaon (29½ miles), of which the estimated cost is Rs. 61,625. The former will provide an outlet for the rich Dhar pargana, and the latter, whose estimate is Rs. 1,61,391, will be a chord road to Khamgaon, for want of which at present the traffic to Khamgaon has to go *via* Chikhli and Amrapur, a length of 52 miles. In addition to these two roads a scheme for nine other roads aggregating about 122½ miles and costing Rs. 3,85,945 has been prepared. These are given below in the order of urgency, and the work will be gradually carried out from Provincial and District Funds.

Name of road (1)	Length Miles (2)	Estimated cost of construction (3)
		Rs.
Buldhana-Dhar (<i>via</i> Gummi and Masrul)	17	61,625
Buldhana-Khamgaon	29½	1,61,391
Warwand-Amrapur	15	21,450
Mehkar-Amrapur (<i>via</i> Gaundhala, Naigaon, Janephal and Isoli).	22	83,996
Mehkar-Lonar	14	37,996
Lawalla-Fatehkheda	5	43,260
Raja Kingaon-Fatehkheda (<i>via</i> Malkapur Pangra, Sendurjana, Balsamudra and Goregaon).	20	63,000
Dusalbid-Kingaon-Jatto	4½	7,497
Raja Deulgaon-Sindkhed	7	27,146
Tunki-Shegaon (<i>via</i> Bawanbir, Banod, Yeulkhed) ..	15	52,500
Malkapur-Dhamangaon (<i>via</i> Malkhed, Selgaon, Makori, Pophali and Ridhora).	20	49,000

"The total mileage to be taken up under this scheme is 169 miles, and the cost of construction is Rs. 6,08,961.

Methods of Carriage.—“Prior to the opening of the railway the greater part of the traffic of the district was carried by means of pack bullocks. In 1867 the Settlement Officer wrote of the Chikhli taluk that very few villages possessed carts worthy of the name. ‘The clumsy constructions called *gadas* are made of large blocks of wood bound together with iron and leather, mounted on solid wheels and are so heavy that even when empty they require four bullocks to draw them; almost the only use they are put to is to carry grain and *karbi* from the fields to the villages. The country tracks are so bad, especially on the low hills, which in most instances separate the villages from each other, generally passing over sheet rock covered with huge stones, and intersected by rough watercourses, that any ordinary cart would run the risk of being jolted to pieces before it had proceeded many miles; and it is often necessary in sending carts to a village not far distant to make a circuit of several miles.’ In the other Taluk Reports also there are references to the clumsiness of the Berar country carts. The great development in the road communication after 1870 was accompanied by an improvement in the carts and also by a great increase in their number. Between 1879 and 1891 the carts in the Malkapur taluk increased from 7,635 to 9,376; between 1870 and 1891 in the Khamgaon taluk from 3,487 to 4,802; between 1868 and 1891 in the Jalgaon taluk from 2,723 to 4,287; between 1867 and 1894 in the Chikhli taluk from 1,831 to 6,366; between 1867 and 1896 in the Mehkar taluk from 1,773 to 5,581. In 1907-08 the number of carts for the various taluks was returned as follows: Malkapur, 12,751; Khamgaon 6,008; Jalgaon 6,226; Chikhli 8,158; Mehkar 7,367. The carts are not classified in any way so that it is impossible to say which particular class of cart showed the greatest increase. Carts now ply over the whole District, bullocks, donkeys, ponies and buffaloes being only used as pack animals by itinerant pedlars and the like. The oldest kind of cart in use is that known as *ladha*. It is made in the usual manner with two long poles meeting in front and joined by a cross beam behind, the floor being made of bamboos or strips of wood nailed on to the side-pieces. It has no regular sides but curved uprights to which a load can be secured. The axle is of iron, and is secured outside the wheel by an iron nail. The wheel is made up of six pieces of wood composing its periphery, 12 spokes and a heavy nave, usually of *babul* wood with an iron tyre. These carts are used for carrying grain from the fields before threshing, and are convenient because the load can bulge out largely on either side.

“The *daman* is another cart similar to the *ladha* but of somewhat more advanced pattern, it being an importation from Khandesh which lies close to the west of the District. Like the *ladha* it consists of the usual wheels and an iron axle. Over the axle is a piece of wood called *mendki* and to this two long poles (*dandia*) are attached which meet in the front where the yoke is tied. Upon this *mendki* and the *dandia* rests an oblong frame of wood called *palna*, the floor of which being made up of either bamboos or planks of wood nailed to the side pieces. The *palna*

has a railing of wood called *katada* on both sides about one-and-a-half feet high. The back part is closed by a removeable framework to fit the sides. It has a covering of bamboo matting over which a gunny cloth is sometimes spread. It can be used both for travelling and for carrying loads. Both the *ladha* and *daman* can carry a load of 15 maunds across the fields or on village tracks, and they cost from Rs. 40 to Rs. 60, about three-fourths of this price being paid for the wheels and axle. The *damni* is another cart much resembling the *daman*, also an introduction from Khandesh, but it is lighter and is only used for travelling purposes. Its *palna* which rests on the *mendki* and the front shafts to which the yoke is tied is a square frame, the floor usually being composed of planks. It has the usual side railings or *kathadas*, the back part is closed in common with the side railings by a plank called *patli*; there is also a *patli* in the front but it is smaller than that at the back. It has a covering of matting with a thick cloth over it and a flap either of gunny or cloth both in the front and back to prevent the Sun's rays or rain falling in. The *damni* is meant for a driver and three passengers, but four or five persons frequently crowd into it. It is usually made of teak and costs from Rs. 35 to 70. The best trotting bullocks will go 6 miles an hour in a *damni*. The *ladha* cart is made locally while *daman* and *damni* are imported from Khandesh. The latter carts which are used in the District are bought at Nandura market after Diwali and at Pimpalgaon Devi during the fair. Very few carts of this pattern are made locally as those from Khandesh are considered to be superior. There is another cart called *vaddar gadi* which is of very inferior construction and of which the wheels are mere solid discs of wood very narrow at the tyre. It has a wooden axle and over it is a central shaft forming the yoke beam to which two flat logs of wood are attached on either side. It has no regular sides but a few uprights to secure the load. This cart is only used for carrying stones and boulders along rough stony paths, and from its clumsy construction, the smallness of its wheels and the narrowness of the tyre it is very injurious to the roads.”¹

National Highways.—There is only one national highway passing through this district, viz., the Bombay-Dhulia-Nagpur-Calcutta road. A brief description of the highway is given in what follows:

Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta Road: This national highway traverses Nagpur, Wardha, Amravati and Akola Districts and enters the Buldhana district at mile 186/7 from Nagpur. It traverses the northern portion of the district and then enters Jalgaon district at mile number 257/7. In its course in the district, first it runs from east to west, then towards north-west up to Malkapur after which it runs towards the north. It covers a distance of about 82 km (51 miles) in Buldhana district, and passes through Khamgaon and Malkapur tahsils. It

¹ Central Provinces District Gazetteers; Buldana District, Vol. A, 1910 pp. 278—87.

touches the following important places at mile number indicated against them: Khamgaon 201 (C.H.¹ & R.H.²), Nandura 211 (R.H.) and Malkapur 229 (R.H.)

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of Junction (1)	Name and class of road (2)
(1) Khamgaon ..	Chikhli-Khamgaon-Deori-Phata S. H. ³
(2) Nandura ..	(1) Nandura-Motala M. D. R. ⁴ (2) Nandura-Jalgaon M. D. R.
(3) Malkapur ..	Malkapur-Jalna S. H.

This highway crosses the Bombay-Nagpur railway route at mile 228/1 at Malkapur and runs parallel to it for some distance.

There are three major bridges on this road, one on Dnyanganga river near Nandura (mile 210/3), another between Nandura and Malkapur on Vishwaganga river (mile 220/4) and the third beyond Malkapur. This road is fully black-topped and motorable throughout the year.

State Highways.—There are seven state highways in Buldhana district, viz., (i) Malkapur-Jalna-Osmanabad-Sholapur Road, (ii) Ajantha-Buldhana road, (iii) Chikhli-Khamgaon-Deori Phata road, (iv) Chikhli-Mehkar-Malegaon road, (v) Mehkar-Lonar Mantha road, (vi) Deulgaon Raja-Pusad-Mandvi road, (vii) Edlabad-Akot-Walgaon road.

Malkapur-Jalna-Osmanabad-Sholapur Road⁵. This state highway starts from Malkapur and runs along the western border of the district from north to south and enters the Aurangabad district. It covers a distance of 78 miles in this district and traverses Malkapur, Chikhali and Mehkar tahsils.

It touches the following towns and villages in its stretch: viz., Motala—24 km (15 miles), Buldhana (R. H.) 45 km (28 miles), Hatmi 61 km (38 miles), Chikhali 68 km (42 miles), Deulgaon Mahi (R. H.) 106 km (66 miles) and Deulgaon Raja 123 km (77 miles).

The road crosses a number of streams and rivers and at each crossing there is a bridge. They are located at the following places: at Mile No. 6/1 on a nalla near Datala; Mile No. 15 on the Nalganga river near Motala; at Mile No. 32/4 on Penganga river; at Mile No. 66/1 on Khadak Purna river and at Mile No. 77/5 on Aman river.

¹ Circuit House.

² Rest House.

³ State Highway.

⁴ Major District Road.

⁵ This is proposed to be upgraded as a National Highway during the Fifth Five-Year Plan.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of Junction (1)	Name and class of road (2)
(1) Motala ..	Nandura-Motala M. D. R.* (old N. H.)†
(2) Buldhana ..	Buldhana-Ajanta S. H.†
(3) Chikhali ..	Chikhali-Khamgaon S. H.
(4) Deulgaon Raja ..	Deulgaon Raja-Washim-Pusad-Mandvi S. H.

Ajantha-Buldhana Road: This state highway starts from Buldhana and runs perpendicular to Malkapur-Jalna road on the western border of the district from east to west and enters Jalgaon district. It traverses a distance of 15 miles (24 km) in this district out of its total length of 28 miles. It passes through Chikhali tahsil.

The Buldhana-Ajantha road touches the following villages in its stretch, viz., Palaskhed 40 km (25 miles); Padali 37 km (23 miles) and Buldhana 52 km.

The road crosses a number of small streams the important ones being at the following location:—

- (1) Penganga river near Palaskhed at 41 km, and
- (2) Penganga river near at Deulghat at 43 km.

No important road either takes off from it or is crossed by it.

Chikhali-Khamgaon-Deori Road: This state highway starts from Chikhali and runs almost north-eastwards. It passes through Chikhali and Khamgaon tahsils and then enters Akola district between Shegaon and Andura. The total length of the road is 76 miles and one furlong, of which 51 miles 3 furlongs are covered in this district. The road touches the following towns and villages in its stretch:—

Amdapur 13/0 miles, Undri 19 miles, Khamgaon 37/7 miles, Shegaon 48/3 miles in Buldhana district; and Andura 89 miles in Akola district. It crosses the Mand river at mile No. 12/0 near Amdapur and the Penganga at mile No. 5 at Deothana, where there are bridges. The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

- (1) Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta national highway at Khamgaon.
- (2) Railway line at Shegaon.

Chikhali-Mehkar-Malegaon Road: This state highway starts from Chikhali and runs from west to east with an inclination to south in the midway and enters Akola district at mile 40/5. It covers a distance of 57 miles and 5 furlongs of which 40 miles and 5 furlongs are in Buldhana district. It runs in common for a distance of 4.83 km with the Malkapur-Jalna-Sholapur road from Chikhali to Bhankhed. It traverses Chikhali and Mehkar tahsils.

* Major District Road.

† National Highway.

‡ State Highway.

It touches the following towns and villages in its stretch ; Lavala (R.H.) 12 miles, Mehkar (R.H.) 28 miles 5 furlongs and Don- gaon (R.H.) 40 miles. The road leaves the district border at mile 40/5.

The road crosses a number of streams most of which are bridged. The important among the streams are, (i) Karadi nalla (22 mile) near Deulgaon, (ii) Penganga river (27/4 mile) near Mehkar and (iii) Mala river in mile 39/10.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of Junction (1)	Name and class of road (2)
Mehkar	Mehkar-Lonar-Mantha S. H.
Lavhala	Mehkar-Janephal M. D. R. Amdapur-Lavhala M. D. R.

Mehkar-Lonar-Mantha Road: This state highway starts from Mehkar and running from north to south, enters Aurangabad district. It covers a total length of 21 miles out of which a length of 17 miles and 6 furlongs is covered in Buldhana district. It traverses the Mehkar tahsil. This road touches the town of Lonar (R.H.) (12 miles) and leaves the district border at mile 17/6. There is no major river crossing on this road.

The Deulgaon Raja-Lonar-Washim-Pusad-Mandvi road (S. H.) meets it at Sultanpur and runs in common with it from Sultanpur to Lonar.

Deulgaon Raja-Washim-Pusad-Mandvi Road: This state high- way starts from Deulgaon Raja and runs along the southern border of the district from west to east and enters Akola district. It covers a distance of 102 miles 4 furlongs out of which 44 miles 4 furlongs are in Buldhana district. It traverses the Chikhali and Mehkar tahsils.

This road touches the following towns and villages in its stretch, the mileage being indicated from Deulgaon Raja. Sind- khed (R.H.) mile 8/2, sultanpur mile 30/2 and Lonar (R.H.) mile 36/7.

The road crosses a number of streams and rivers out of which the following two are the important ones.

- (1) Penganga River at Kingaon (mile 16/7); and
- (2) Khadak-Purna river near Raheer (mile 18/2).

The bridges on the above rivers are under construction. The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of Junction (1)	Name and class of road (2)
Deulgaon Raja ..	(1) Malkapur-Jalna S. H.
Sultanpur and Lonar ..	(2) Deulgaon Raja-Jafarabad M. D. R. Mehkar-Mantha M. D. R.

Edlabad-Akot-Walgaon Road: This road starts from the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta highway at Edlabad in Jalgaon district, enters Buldhana near Karanwadi at M. No. 30/0. It runs south-eastwards up to Khandvi, after which it runs north- eastwards up to Jamod and thence towards the east up to district border where it leaves for Akola. It traverses only Jalgaon tahsil for a total length of 58.55 km of which the con- struction of a length of 37.92 km from Karanwadi to Jamod is completed and the remaining one from Jamod to district border is under construction (1973). It crosses the Asalgaon nallah at M. No. 41/0 near Asalgaon and the Wadi nallah at M. No. 44/0 near Jalgaon where there are bridges. It also crosses the Wan river on the district border near Warkhed.

The road touches Khandvi (M. No. 36/0), Asalgaon (M. No. 41/4), Jalgaon (M. No. 45/0) and Jamod (M. No. 52/4).

The length of 148 km from Khandvi to Jalgaon has a black- topped surface, that of 22.12 km from Karanwadi to Khandvi and from Jalgaon to Jamod has a water bound macadam surface. The rest of its portion is gravelled and is motorable in the fair weather season only.

Major District Roads.— Major District Roads in the district are: (1) Nandura-Motala road, (2) Waghzali-Dhamangaon road, (3) Malkapur-Bodwad road, (4) Malkapur-Pimpalgaon Devi road, (5) Lavala-Sakharkherda road, (6) Sakharkherda-Mandwa road, (7) Mehkar-Janefal road, (8) Sindkhed Raja-Jalna road, (9) Mehkar- Sonati road, (10) Nandura-Jalgaon road, (11) Shegaon-Wasali road, (12) Buldhana-Dhad road, (13) Dhad-Jamb road, (14) Dhad- Dhamangaon road, (15) Buldhana-Warwand road, (16) Khamgaon- Ambetakli road, (17) Jalamb-Matargaon-Bhenwad-Niwana road, (18) Ambetakli-Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Janephal road, (19) Datala- Dabhadi-Panhera-Padali road, (20) Deulgaon-Sakharkhed-Ghatbori- Isvi-Dongaon road, (21) Dongaon-Pangarkhed-Rajgad-Chikhalwad- Babulgaon road, (22) Pimpalgaon Devi-Betawad road, (23) She- gaon-Balapur road, (24) Chikhali-Jafarabad road, and (25) Amda- pur-Lavala road. The account of these roads is given below:—

Nandura-Motala Road: Formerly this was a section of the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta highway. However with the construc- tion of the Link between Nandura and Malkapur on the national highway it was classified as a M.D.R. It connects Motala on the Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road with the above national highway. It thus forms a triangle with these two roads. It runs south-westwards up to Motala and covers a distance of 20 miles and 4 furlongs. It passes through Malkapur tahsil only. This road touches the following towns and villages in its stretch, viz., Mahalungi 6 miles, Shemba 15 miles, and Motala 20/4 miles.

This road crosses a number of streams and rivers which are bridged. The location of important rivers is as under:—

- (1) Vishvaganga river in mile 15/8 (submersible bridge)
- (2) Khaira nalla bridge in mile 12/5 (submersible)
- (3) Mahalungi nalla in mile 7/6.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of Junction (1)	Name and class of road (2)
Nandura	Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta N. H.
Motala	Malkapur-Jalna S. H.
Nandura	Jalgaon-Nandura M. D. R.

Waghzali-Dhamangaon Road: The road takes off from mile No. 18/6 of Malkapur-Jalna-Sholapur state highway and runs towards the west for a length of 12 miles and 1 furlong (19.52 km). There is one important bridge on the river Nalganga near Rohinkhed village in mile No. 5/6 from the junction. This road serves as a link between Buldhana and Jalgaon districts, as the border of Jalgaon district is only 5 km away from the termination point of this road. This length of 5 km is also under construction.

Malkapur-Bodwad Road: The road takes off at mile $\frac{1}{6}$ of the Malkapur-Jalna-Sholapur state highway and runs westwards. A bridge has been constructed over the Nalganga river at mile 0/3 of this road. The road is fully bridged except the bridge mentioned above.

The total length of this road is 6 miles (9.66 km) which is fully metalled.

Malkapur-Pimpalgaon Devi Road: This road takes off from mile No. 2/4 of Malkapur-Bodwad road and runs towards south for a length of 12 miles 3 furlongs (19.90 km). The road is fully metalled and ends at village Pimpalgaon Devi which is at a distance of 2 miles 4 furlongs from the Jalgaon district border. The road is newly opened for traffic and the construction of the parts of road from Pimpalgaon Devi to Bodwad is under progress.

Lavhala-Sakharkherda Road: With a length of five miles and three furlongs, this fully bridged and metalled road starts from mile No. 56/8 of Chikhali-Mehkar state highway. There is only one major bridge in mile No. 46. This road joins the Sakhar-kherda-Mandva road.

Sakharkherda-Mandwa Road: This road covers a distance of 13 miles and a furlong, and is metalled throughout its length. In the rainy season however traffic is interrupted due to the lack of bridges. It was constructed as a part of the scarcity relief measures and was included in the Second Five-Year Plan afterwards.

Mehkar-Janephal Road: This road having a length of 10 miles and 6 furlongs is partly bridged and fully metalled. It starts from mile No. 71/3 of the Chikhali-Mehkar state highway. It was constructed as a part of the relief measures, and was included in the Second Five-Year Plan, and was extended to connect with Amdapur-Janephal road.

Sindkhed Raja-Jalna Road: Having a length of 5 miles (8 km) upto the district border, the road was an old dak line from Jalna to Nagpur. A part of the road is fully bridged at present. The road will serve as the shortest route from Jalna to Nagpur via Sindkhed Raja, Sultanpur and Mehkar, after completion of the proposed links.

Mehkar-Sonati Road: The length of this road is 6 miles and 1 furlong (9.86 km). The work on this road was included in the Second Five-Year Plan and completed as a village road. Now it is upgraded as a major district road. There is a proposal to connect it to Risod in Akola district.

Nandura-Jalgaon Road: It forms a link road from Jalgaon, a tahsil place, to the Bombay-Nagpur national highway at Nandura and runs towards north. It is fully bridged and black-topped. There is a railway crossing near Nandura in mile No. 1/2 of the road. There is a submersible major bridge on Purna river in mile No. 8/5 (12 km). This road meets the Jalgaon-Warwat-Bakal road.

Shegaon-Wasali: It takes off from Shegaon in mile 1 furlongs 6 towards Wasali and runs northwards to enter Madhya Pradesh. It is fully bridged. There is a submersible bridge in mile No. 6/4 on a small river, and one major bridge on the Purna river in mile No. 10/3 of this road. The total length of this road is 7 miles (43.45 km) of which a length of 19 km is black-topped the rest being metalled.

Buldhana-Dhad Road: This road takes off from mile 1 of Buldhana-Ajantha state highway and has a length of 16 miles. This is a metalled road and partly black-topped. This road meets the Dhad-Jamb road which is a major district road and also the Bhokardan-Sillod road.

Dhad-Jamb Road: The road starts from Dhad and has a length of 8 miles (13 km) upto the district border. It is a fully metalled road. There is only one major bridge in miles 4 furlongs 5 on Dhamana river near Mhasala. This road meets the Jamb-Bhokardan road.

Dhad-Dhamangaon Road: This road starts from Dhad and ends at Dhamangaon and has a length of 4 miles 4 furlongs (7 km) up to the district border. It traverses only Chikhali tahsil and is fully metalled.

Buldhana-Warwand Road: This road takes off from the Malkapur-Jalna-Sholapur state highway in mile 29/4 and proceeds towards Warwand. It has a length of 6 miles (9.65 km). It crosses the Warwand-Khamgaon road which is under construction and the Warwand-Undri road which is of other district road standard. The road is fully metalled.

Khamgaon-Ambetakali Road: This road starts from Khamgaon, runs in common for a length of 6.4 km with the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta national highway upto Tembhurni, and runs in

south-east direction upto Ambetakali. It traverses Khamgaon tahsil for a total length of 20.92 km, which is water bound macadam.

Jalamb-Matargaon-Bhenwad-Niwana Road: This road starts from Jalamb railway station and runs towards the north upto Niwana on the Jalgaon-Warwat road. It traverses Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils for a total length of 19.91 km and has a water bound macadam surface.

Ambetakali-Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Janefal Road: This road starts from Ambetakali in Khamgaon tahsil, runs towards the south upto Deulgaon-Sakharsha and thence towards the south-east upto Janefal where it meets the Amdapur-Janefal road and the Mehkar-Janefal road. It traverses Khamgaon and Mehkar tahsils for a total length of 26.35 km and has a water bound macadam surface.

Datala-Dabhadi-Panhera-Padali Road: There are two sections of this road, viz., from Datala to Dabhadi and from Panhera to Padali. The total length of these two sections is 25.10 km and they have a water bound macadam surface. The missing link between the two sections is under construction.

Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Ghatbori-Isvi-Dongaon Road: This road starts from Deulgaon-Sakharsha and runs towards the south upto Ghatbori, after which it runs towards the south-east upto Kanak Bk. and thence towards the south-west upto Dongaon where it meets the Chikhali-Mehkar-Malegaon road. This road runs parallel to the district border. The total length of this road is 30.60 km, of which a length of 18.51 km is of a major district road standard and has a water bound macadam surface. It touches Ghatbori, Isvi, Januna, Kanak Bk., Pangarkhed, Gondgaon and Dongaon.

Dongaon-Pangarkhed-Babulgaon up to District Border Road: This road starts from Dongaon, runs in common with the Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Ghatbori-Isvi-Dongaon road upto Pangarkhed and runs towards the north upto district border. It traverses only Mehkar tahsil for a length of 4.43 km, which has a water bound macadam surface.

Pimpalgaon Devi up to District Border Road: This road starts from Pimpalgaon Devi in Malkapur tahsil and runs towards the west upto district border for a length of 3.82 km of which only the length of 2 km is completed and has a water bound macadam surface.

Shegaon-Balapur Road: This road starts from Shegaon in Khamgaon tahsil and runs towards the south-east upto Balapur in Akola district. Its length in the district is 10.08 km and has a gravelled surface. It touches Takli, Warkhed and Jaola.

Chikhali-Jafferabad Road: This road takes off from Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road near Chikhali and runs towards the north-west till it leaves for Aurangabad district. It traverses Chikhali tahsil for a length of 8.70 km, which has a water bound macadam surface.

Amdapur-Lavhala Road: This road starts from the Chikhali-Khamgaon-Deori road at Amdapur and runs towards the west upto Lavhala, where it meets the Chikhali-Mehkar-Malegaon road. It crosses the Penganga river near Nalgaon Bk., where there is a bridge across the river. It touches Mangrul Navghare, Nalgaon, Dongargaon, Loni and Lavhala. The road traverses Chikhali and Mehkar tahsils for a total length of 18.10 km. It has a water bound macadam surface which is motorable throughout the year.

Other District Roads.—There are sixteen other district roads in the district (as on 31st March 1973). They are: (1) Amdapur-Janefal road, (2) Sakarkherda-Mera-Antri road, (3) Jalgaon-Warwat Bakal road, (4) Malegaon-Warwat Bakal road, (5) Khamgaon-Pimpalgaon Raja road, (6) Bavanbir-Sonala road, (7) Borgaon-Kakade-Eklara road, (8) Dudha-Hatni road, (9) Buldhana-Undri road, (10) Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Ghatbori-Isvi-Dongargaon road (section first), (11) Buldhana Circular road, (12) Umali-Jaola Bazar road, (13) Buldhana-Sagwan road, (14) Malgi-Isrul road (section first), (15) Jalgaon-Daryapur-Burhanpur road, (16) Khamgaon-Warwand road (section 1st to VIIth).

The account of these roads is given below:—

Amdapur-Janefal Road: Having a length of 11 miles 2 furlongs, it is fully metalled and passes through Khamgaon, a big cotton market in the district. This road runs from south to east in the district. The road is motorable throughout the year. It crosses a number of streams and rivers in its stretch. The road touches the following villages during its course in the district, viz., Pimpalkhed, Aboli, Dhanora, Hiwra, and Mudpal.

Sakarkherda-Mera-Antri Road: This road with a length of 7 miles 4 furlongs is partly bridged and fully metalled. It is connected with Chikhali-Deulgaon Raja road. In its first stretch this road runs east to west up to Mera Bk., and afterwards it runs west-northwards. This road crosses many small streams and rivers during its course.

Jalgaon-Warwat Bakal Road: Jalgaon-Warwat Bakal road forms a link road from Jalgaon to Warwat Bakal and has a length of 12 miles 4 furlongs. It touches the Shegaon-Wasali M.D.R. in 16 miles 2 furlongs. It runs towards west and is unbridged. It is however fully metalled. This road crosses many small streams in its stretch.

Malegaon-Warwat Bakal Road: It forms a link road between Warwat Bakal and Malegaon. It is unbridged but fully metalled and covers a distance of 3 miles and 4 furlongs.

Khamgaon-Pimpalgaon Raja Road: The length of this road is 7 miles and 4 furlongs. It runs east-westwards in the district. It is unbridged but fully metalled.

¹ Major District Road.

Bavanbir-Sonala Road: The length of this road is 3 miles and 5 furlongs. It starts from Bavanbir and runs towards the north-east direction to meet the state highway at Sonala. It is unbridged but fully metalled throughout its length.

Borgaon-Kakade-Eklara Road: This road starts from Borgaon to Eklara having a length of 6 miles and 1 furlong. It crosses many small streams during its short course, but is metalled throughout its length.

Dudha-Hatni Road: This road starts from Dudha on Buldhana-Dhad major district road in mile No. 11 and meets the Buldhana-Chikhali state highway in mile No. 10 at village Hatni. It covers a distance of 14 miles and 2 furlongs. This road is completely metalled and motorable during all seasons.

Buldhana-Undri Road: This road starts from Buldhana on the Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road and runs towards the east upto Undri on the Chikhali-Khamgaon-Deori road. A length of 9.6 km from Buldhana to Warwand is of a major district road standard and the rest from Warwand to Undri (24.74 km) is of an other district road standard. It has a water bound macadam surface.

Deulgaon-Sakharsha-Ghatbori-Iswi-Dongaon Road: It starts from Deulgaon Sakharsha and runs towards the south upto Dongaon. The total length of this road is 30.60 km of which a length of 18.21 km is of a major district road standard and the remaining length of 12.47 km is of an other district road standard, and has a water bound macadam surface.

Buldhana Circular Road: This road is a connecting link between Ajantha-Buldhana road and the Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road. It runs in circular direction by south of the town. Its length is 2.41 km and is water bound macadam.

Umali-Jawala Bazar Road: This road starts from Umali on Datala-Umali road and runs towards the south-east upto Jawala Bazar for a total length of 9 km which has a water bound macadam surface. This road is in Malkapur tahsil.

Buldhana-Sagwan Road: It emanates from the Buldhana-Dhad road and runs towards the south upto Sagwan for a length of 1.61 km. It has a water bound macadam surface.

Malgi-Isrul Road: It starts from the Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road at Malgi and runs towards the south parallel to the district border upto Isrul. It touches Pimpalwadi, Selgaon and Mangrul. It traverses only Chikhali tahsil for a total length of 10.00 km and has a water bound macadam surface.

Jalgaon-Daryapur-Burhanpur Road: It starts from Jalgaon on the Edlabad-Akot-Walgaon road and runs towards the north for a total length of 8.00 km after which it leaves for Daryapur in Nimar district of Madhya Pradesh. It touches Arsulpur, Rajura Bk., Garpeth and Umapur. The entire length of this road has a gravelled surface and is motorable in the fair weather season only

Khamgaon-Warwand Road: This road starts from Khamgaon and runs towards the south-west upto Warwand in Chikhali tahsil. It traverses Khamgaon and Chikhali tahsils for a total length of 15.50 km and touches Garamgaon, Rohana, Deothana, Barola, Deohari and Warwand in its stretch. The entire length of this road has a water bound macadam surface.

BRIDGES

In the absence of the old record pertaining to construction of bridges it is not possible to mention the year of construction of all the bridges in the district. However, an attempt has been made to furnish the locational and constructional details of the major bridges in Buldhana district. All the highways and most of the major district roads have bridges and causeways across rivers and nallas. There were in all 576 bridges and causeways in the district in 1968. The details of a few major bridges are given in the table Nos. 3 and 4.

TABLE No. 3
MAJOR BRIDGES ON THE BOMBAY-CALCUTTA ROAD AS ON 31ST DECEMBER 1968.

Type of Bridge (1)	Location (2)	Spans (3)	Height (4)	Rise of arch (5)	Year of construction (6)	Cost of construction in Rs. (7)
1. R. C. C. slab bridge	201/1	15'-0"	6'-0"	..	N.A.	N.A.
2. Stone arch culvert high level bridge	205/8	15'-0"	5'-3"	3'-9"	N.A.	N.A.
3. Stone arch high level bridge	207/6	30'-0"	6'-6"	5'-6"	N.A.	N.A.
4. R. C. C. submersible bridge	210/2	20'-0"	14'-0"	..	N.A.	N.A.
5. R. C. C. slab bridge	213/8	10'-0"	10'-0"	..	N.A.	N.A.
6. R. C. C. girder slab bridge	215/3	40'-0"	30'-00"	..	1967	N.A.
7. R. C. C. slab bridge	215/8	10'-0"	8'-6"	..	1964	54,000
8. R. C. C. slab high level bridge	216/4	40'-0"	15'-0"	..	1965	1,74,340
9. R. C. C. slab bridge	218/6	10'-0"	9'-9"	..	1965	N.A.
10. R. C. C. slab bridge	219/4	10'-0"	8'-0"	..	1964	N.A.
11. R. C. C. high level bridge (girdered)	220/4	45'-0"	30'-0"	..	1964	5,35,000
12. R. C. C. slab bridge	221/4	10'-0"	11'-0"	..	1965	75,720
13. R. C. C. slab bridge	221/5	16'-0"	7'-0"	..	1965	25,570
14. R. C. C. slab bridge	222/6	10'-0"	8'-0"	..	1964	N.A.
15. R. C. C. slab bridge	224/3	..	..	..	1964	50,273
16. R. C. C. slab bridge	225/4	10'-0"	..	..	1964	31,214
17. R. C. C. high level bridge	226/5	14'-0"	15'-0"	..	1965	N.A.
18. R. C. C. slab bridge	227/1	10'-0"	8'-0"	..	1964	49,700

TABLE No. 4
MAJOR BRIDGES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1973.

Sr. No. (1)	Name of the road (2)	M. No. (3)	River or Nalla (4)	Nearest village (5)	Type of construction (6)	Length (7)	Average height (8)	Breadth (9)	Year of construction (10)	Year of opening (11)	Cost of construction (12)
1	Malkapur-Jalna-Tuljapur-Sholapur road— (1) R. C. C. bridge ..	6/1	Nalla ..	Datala ..	R. C. C.	110'-0"	..	Between 3-6 to 7-6 m. 15'-0"	1965-67	1966-67	Rs. Not known.
	(2) R. C. C. girder bridge ..	14/8	Nalganga river ..	Motala ..	R. C. C.	100'-0"	26'-0"	15'-0"	Not known.	Not known	Not known
	(3) Submersible bridge ..	32/6	Nala ..	..	Stone masonry.	110'-0"	..	15'-0"	do.	1966-67	Not known
	(4) Submersible arch bridge	66/1	Khadak Purna river	Takakhed..	do.	340'-0"	6'-0"	20'-9"	1926	1926	do.
	(5) R. C. C. slab bridge ..	77/5	Aman river ..	Deulgaon-Raja.	R. C. C.	200'-0"	5'-0"	20'-9"	1939	1939	do.
2	Chikhali-Mehkar-Malegaon road— (1) Submersible arch bridge	26/6	Penganga river ..	Mehkar ..	Stone masonry.	150'-0"	10'-0"	16'-0"	1926	1926	do.
3	Deulgaon Raja-Washim-Pusad-Mandvi road— (1) High level bridge ..	18/2	Khadak Purna river.	Raheri ..	Prestressed R. C. C.	620'-0"	62'-0"	8'-0"	1971-72	1971-72	17,78,676
	(2) Submersible bridge ..	20/2	Patalganga river ..	Kingaon Raja.	R. C. C.	160'-0"	9'-0"	22'-0"	1969-70	1969-70	1,82,752

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Sr. No. (1)	Name of the road (2)	M. No. (3)	River or Nalla (4)	Nearest village (5)	Type of construction (6)	Length (7)	Average height (8)	Breadth (9)	Year of construction (10)	Year of opening (11)	Cost of construction (12)
4	Chikhali-Khangaon-Deori road— (1) Submersible arch bridge (2) R. C. C. slab bridge (3) Stone masonry arch bridge (4) R. C. C. arch bridge	24/3 31/5 0/5 20/2	Man river Panganga river Nalla Nalla	Amdapur Devthana Khangaon Undri	Stone masonry R. C. C. Stone masonry R. C. C.	125'-0" 125'-0" 100'-0" 100'-0"	2'-0" 6'-6" 12'-0" 7'-0"	21'-0" 20'-0" 21'-0" 17'-8"	1929 1941 Not known Do.	1929 1941 Not known Do.	Rs. Not known. Do. Do.
5	Edlabad-Akot-Walgaon road— (1) Submersible bridge (2) Submersible bridge	12/8 15/1	Asalgaon nalla Wadi nalla	Asalgaon Wadi	Stone masonry Do.	100'-0" 100'-0"	2.45 m. 3.05 m.	5.80 m. 5.15 m.	Do. Do.	Do. Do.	Do. Do.
6	Nandura-Motala road— (1) R. C. C. slab bridge (2) R. C. C. slab bridge	12/5 15/8	Khaira nalla Vishwaganga river	Khaira ..	R. C. C. R. C. C.	120'-0" 200'-0"	6'-0" 7'-6"	20'-0" 19'-6"	1933 1933	1933 1933	Do. 30,000
7	Shegaon-Wasali road	10/3	Purna river	Khiroda	..	360'-0"	16'-3"	21'-0"	1931	..	Not known.
8	Nandura-Jalgaon road	8/5	Purna river	Manegaon	..	420'-0"	10'-0"	..	..	..	..
9	Dhad-Jamb-Bhokardhan road	3/4	Dhamanariver	Mhasala	..	97 m.	3.94 m.	..	1973	1973	4,84,435
10	Peth-Utrada road	0/3	Panganga river	Peth	..	36 m.	3.74 m.	..	1973	1973	1,89,876
11	Amdapur-Lavala road	23/8	Amdapur nalla	Amdapur	..	110'-0"	2'-6"	..	..	..	..
12	Lavhala-Sakharkherda road	4/6	Bhogawati river	Sakharkherda	..	129'-6"	7'-0"	..	..	..	..

RURAL TRANSPORT

The facilities of transport in the rural areas were inadequate in the past. The village roads were sometimes unusable in the rainy season even for cart traffic. However, during the last two decades considerable progress has been achieved and several schemes of road development are now under way. The construction of link roads is actively engaging the attention of the Government. Under the road development programme of the Five-Year Plans, a number of approach roads are constructed and a greater number of them are proposed.

After the merger of Vidarbha region in Maharashtra State there was rapid progress in the construction of roads. A number of new roads were constructed, existing roads were repaired and numerous arterial connections and alignments were effected. All the highways and main roads are motorable. But most of the village approach roads still continue to remain as gravel and earthen tracks, and their condition remains unsatisfactory. The feeder roads become unfit for easy transit during the rainy season.

At present the rural areas of Buldhana district are provided with fairly good transport facilities. The State Transport authorities are operating buses on almost all the main roads and major district roads. Towns and big villages are directly served by State Transport buses, whereas a number of small villages situated by the side of major roads are also covered.

However, a large number of villages remain untouched by passenger services due to inadequacy of operating vehicles. People have to resort to bullock carts, bicycles and ponies which still occupy a place in the scheme of rural transport. Pedestrian journey for some miles is also not unusual.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT

State Transport.—Among the public transport organisations the State Transport could be mentioned as one. The State Transport undertaking has been catering to the needs of passenger transport on an increasing scale. The undertaking is owned and managed by the Government of Maharashtra as a public utility concern run on commercial lines. The parent body, the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, is a statutory public corporation.

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 of which 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 Corporation Act LXIV of 1950.

Thus the nationalisation of passenger transport services in Buldhana district dates back to August 1947 when the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar took over the management of transport from the Central Provinces Transport Services,

Nagpur, in 1955. After the reorganisation of States in 1956, it was brought under the over-all control of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation. The undertaking, along with the Marathwada State Transport Services was merged with the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation from July 1, 1961.

Bus Routes : Nationalisation of the services on more and more routes is progressing gradually, the objective being to bring all the routes under the operation of the State Transport. The operations in Buldhana district were first started from Khamgaon depot on 11 routes with a total of 530.5 kilometres, with 10 vehicles. The process of expansion was very rapid and by the end of December 1968 there were two depots in the district, viz., at Khamgaon with 45 vehicles and at Buldhana with 46 vehicles. In all 69 routes were in operation from these two depots with a total of 3,476.7 route kilometres. Besides, a number of buses with their destinations in and out of the district pass through the district. On an average 12,176 and 5,595 passengers were carried per day from each of these depots. Details of the routes emanating from each of these two depots as on 31st December 1968 are given in the following statement:—

Route (1)	Route distance in km (2)
KHAMGAON DEPOT	
Akot-Hiwarkhed	20.3
Akot-Mundgaon	12.0
Chikhali-Dhad (via Dudha)	10.2
Chikhali-Lavala	22.5
Chikhali-Deulgaon Raja	55.1
Jalgaon-Jamod	10.0
Jalgaon-Telhara	34.3
Jalgaon-Wadoda	19.9
Jalgaon-Sonala	32.7
Jalgaon-Paturda	29.9
Jalgaon-Pimpalgaon Kale	13.3
Khamgaon-Nandura	18.9
Jalamb-Matergaon	4.0
Khamgaon-Tunki	57.6
Khamgaon-Chikhali	61.6
Khamgaon-Sonala	55.9
Khamgaon-Buldhana (via Undri)	71.1
Khamgaon-Jalgaon	45.3
Khamgaon-Buldhana (via Chikhali)	85.5
Khamgaon-Shegaon	17.3
Khamgaon-Pimpalgaon Raja	14.5
Khamgaon-Amravati	166.3
Khamgaon-Akola	51.8
Khamgaon-Malkapur (via Motala)	76.9
Khamgaon-Kurha	57.0
Khamgaon-Wadoda	47.3
Khamgaon-Paturda	39.2
Khamgaon-Shahapur	33.0
Khamgaon-Shirga	31.0
Khamgaon-Matergaon	20.0
Khamgaon-Malegaon (Bazar)	64.4
Malkapur-Pimpalgaon Devi	28.8
Malkapur-Navel	10.1

Route (1)	Route distance in km. (2)
KHAMGAON DEPOT—contd.	
Malkapur-Nandura	29.0
Shegaon-Paturda	21.9
Shegaon-Nimba	21.4
Telhara-Belkhed	5.6
Telhara-Panchagawan	14.4
Khamgaon-Tandulwadi	16.0
Malkapur-Dhamangaon Badhe	48.6
BULDHANA DEPOT	
Buldhana-Dongaon	86.9
Buldhana-Chikhali (via Peth)	40.4
Buldhana-Jalna	106.2
Buldhana-Mehkar (via Undri)	79.3
Buldhana-Malkapur	44.2
Buldhana-Mehkar (via Chikhali)	70.2
Buldhana-Dhad	27.2
Buldhana-Khamgaon (via Motala)	73.6
Buldhana-Jalgaon (Jamod)	81.0
Buldhana-Dahid	16.0
Buldhana-Akola (via Motala)	125.4
Buldhana-Ajantha	64.6
Buldhana-Gerumatargaon	52.1
Buldhana-Dhamangaon (via Dhad)	33.7
Buldhana-Jalgaon (Kh.) (via Ajantha)	106.8
Buldhana-Undri	37.1
Buldhana-Kinoda	18.0
Buldhana-Jamner	114.2
Buldhana-Aurangabad (via Bhokardan)	152.9
Buldhana-Dhad (via Padlimadh)	44.4
Buldhana-Sailani	25.8
Mehkar-Rajgarh	34.3
Mehkar-Sonati	11.3
Buldhana-Burhanpur	114.2
Buldhana-Washim	139.4
Buldhana-Malkapur Pangra	69.8
Buldhana-Sakharkhed	57.3
Buldhana-Shegaon (via Motala, Khamgaon)	90.9
Deulgaon Raja-Jalna	55.1

Amenities to Passengers : The Corporation has constructed bus stations at Buldhana, Chikhali, Nandura and Malkapur. They are equipped with potable water and sanitary arrangements, parcel rooms, canteens, waiting hall, etc. A temporary bus station has been constructed at Khamgaon. The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. A labour welfare centre is functioning at the Divisional Headquarters where indoor games and recreational facilities are provided. In addition medical dispensaries are provided at Buldhana and Khamgaon, and rest rooms at Buldhana, Khamgaon and Chikhali depots.

Depots: The Akola division, of which Buldhana district forms a part, has 219 buses plying on 175 routes with a total route length of 9,905 kilometres. The buses put on road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 49, exclusive of the seats for the

driver and the conductor. The average daily kilometres operated by these buses during December 1968 was 41,889 carrying on an average 43,703 passengers per day.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the Divisional Workshop which is situated at Akola. Further, after the operation of every 24,000 kilometres the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, there are two depots in the district situated at Buldhana (46) and Khamgaon (45) for daily maintenance of the vehicles. [The number of vehicles attached to each depot is given in brackets]. Regular daily and weekly servicing and 8,000 kilometres docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

Private Passenger Transport.—Though a majority of the passenger transport services have been nationalised and brought under the operational control of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, a few routes are still allowed to be served by the private owners of transport vehicles. Some of the routes are left exclusively for the private owners whereas on a few routes they share the passenger traffic with the State Transport buses.

The names of some of the private owners of passenger buses and the routes on which the buses run is given below:—

Name of private stage carriage operator	Name of the route
(1)	(2)
(1) Suwarna Transport Company, Private Limited, Buldhana.	(1) Buldhana-Kherda. (2) Kherda-Mehkar. (3) Mehkar-Dusarbid. (4) Mehkar-Lonar. (5) Mehkar-Kherda. (6) Buldhana-Wagnul. (7) Dhamangaon-Malkapur. (8) Malkapur-Nalgangapur. (9) Lavala-Kherda. (10) Buldhana-Malkapur. (11) Buldhana-Dhad. (12) Buldhana-Mehkar.
(2) New Prakash Transport Company, Private Limited, Nandura.	(1) Jalgaon-Khamgaon. (2) Nandura-Jalgaon. (3) Malkapur-Nalgangapur. (4) Jalgaon-Tunki. (5) Nandura-Malkapur. (6) Dhamangaon-Shegaon. (7) Jalgaon-Shegaon. (8) Jalgaon-Buldhana. (9) Paturda-Jalgaon. (10) Paturda-Nandura. (11) Sonala-Nandura.

Name of private stage carriage operator	Name of the route
(1)	(2)
(3) Aruna ex-Servicemen Transport Company, Khamgaon.	(1) Khamgaon-Tunki. (2) Akot-Khamgaon. (3) Khamgaon-Mehkar. (4) Shahapur-Khamgaon. (5) Khamgaon-Sonala.
(4) Gajanan Motor Service, Khamgaon ..	(1) Khamgaon-Lonar. (2) Khamgaon-Mehkar. (3) Mehkar-Lonar. (4) Khamgaon-Tunki. (5) Akot-Daryapur. (6) Khamgaon-Sakharkherda. (7) Mehkar-Dusarbid. (8) Khamgaon-Deulgaon Sakharsha. (9) Sakharkherda-Mehkar. (10) Amdapur-Mehkar.
(5) Motor Kamgar Transport Co-operative Society Ltd., Deulgaon Raja.	(1) Deulgaon Raja-Singaon. (2) Deulgaon Raja-Sindkhed. (3) Sindkhed-Rahori. (4) Sakharkherda-Kingaon.
(6) Navajiwan Transport Company, Shegaon	(1) Shegaon-Tunki. (2) Shegaon-Chikhali.
(7) Jaishankar Motor Service, Ghatbori ..	Ghatbori-Mehkar.
(8) Deccan Motor Service Company Private Limited, Chikhali.	(1) Chikhali-Malkapur. (2) Chikhali-Mehkar. (3) Chikhali-Antri. (4) Chikhali-Khamgaon.

GOODS TRANSPORT

Transport of goods and merchandise is not undertaken by the State Transport Corporation. Besides railways, goods transport is in the hands of private owners of motor trucks. The total number of goods vehicles, both public and private carriers, registered and licensed in the district was 142 in 1969 of which 128 were public carriers and 14 were private carriers. Freight rates are not determined by any official body, but are allowed to be governed by the principles of demand and supply.

Motor trucks in this district carry goods and merchandise to and from distant places, such as, Bombay, Pune, Nagpur, Chandrapur, Yeotmal, Akola, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, etc.

Due to the shortage of railway wagons and the delay involved in railway transport, businessmen and traders find it convenient to transport their goods by motor trucks.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

The Government has provided considerable travel and tourist facilities in Buldhana district. There are 28 rest houses maintained by the Government of Maharashtra. Primarily these rest houses are meant for Government Officers on duty. But they are also made available to the travelling public. A nominal rent is charged to Government servants on duty. The rental charge is

higher for the general public. Most of these rest houses are provided with furniture, crockery, utensils and electric fans. A list of the rest houses in the district is given below:—

Serial No. (1)	Tahsil (2)	Name of the Bungalow (3)	No. of suites (4)
1	Jalgaon	Inspection Bungalow, Jalgaon	3
2	Do.	Rest House, Bawanbir	3
3	Do.	Rest House, Khiroda	2
4	Do.	Forest Rest House, Ambabarwa	2
5	Do.	Forest Rest House, Wasali	2
6	Malkapur	Inspection Bungalow, Nalgangapur	2
7	Do.	Rest House, Malkapur.	4
8	Do.	Rest House, Nandura	2
9	Khamgaon	Circuit House, Khamgaon	1
10	Do.	Inspection Bungalow, Khamgaon	4
11	Do.	Inspection Bungalow, Khamgaon	4
12	Do.	Rest House, Shegaon	2
13	Do.	Rest House, Sagoda	2
14	Do.	Rest House, Botha	2
15	Chikhali	Circuit House, Buldhana	3
16	Do.	Inspection Bungalow, Buldhana	4
17	Do.	Rest House, Chikhali	2
18	Do.	Rest House, Deulgaon Mahi	2
19	Do.	Rest House, Deulgaon Raja	2
20	Do.	Rest House, Amdapur	2
21	Do.	Rest House, Dhad	2
22	Do.	Forest Rest House, Warwand	2
23	Mehkar	Inspection Bungalow, Sindkhed Raja	2
24	Do.	Rest House, Lonar	2
25	Do.	Rest House, Mehkar	2
26	Do.	Rest House, Dongaon	2
27	Do.	Rest House, Lavala	2
28	Do.	Rest House, Raheer Bk.	1

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS

Buldhana district is included in the West Berar Division having headquarters at Akola. The Head Post Office is situated at Buldhana and sub-offices at tahsil headquarters and other towns in the district. The bigger villages have branch post offices. During the year 1961-62, there were 10 sub-post offices and 197 branch post offices in the district. Together their number increased by about 92 per cent over that of 1951-52.

There were thirteen telegraph offices in the district in 1960-61.

The following eight places have telephone connections: (1) Buldhana, (2) Chikhali, (3) Malkapur, (4) Nandura, (5) Jalgaon, (6) Mehkar, (7) Lonar, and (8) Phonophore system to Sindkhed Raja.

The following table gives the postal, telegraphic and telephones statistics in the district during 1961-62, 1965-66, 1970-71 and 1971-72.

TABLE No. 5
POSTAL, TELEGRAPHIC AND TELEPHONES STATISTICS IN BULDHANA
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 together)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1961-62	267	13	572	48	538	2,237
1965-66	286	13	750	55	712	8,157
1970-71	287	14	764	56	925	16,122
1971-72	298	14	775	58	965	18,629

Source : Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS

Radio is one of the most potent mass media of the modern age. With a radio set in the vicinity the farmer in the most interior place or an *adivasi* in the most inaccessible forest village does not feel that he is isolated from the rest of the world.

To popularise the radio and to educate the rural populace, the Government of Maharashtra have introduced in the State many schemes. A few of the schemes under the Directorate of Rural Broadcasting are as under:—

- (1) Scheme of community receiving sets on a contributory basis.
- (2) Scheme of supply of free sets to *Adivasi* villages.
- (3) Koyana warning scheme.

(4) Scheme of Radio Rural Forum.

(5) Pilot scheme for manufacture of community radio sets at Bombay.

(6) Scheme of group listening.

As can be seen from the above list, schemes (2) and (3) are operating in areas suitable for the purpose. Scheme (5) is in operation in Bombay. The details of the other schemes are given below:—

The Government of Maharashtra introduced some years back, the scheme of community listening on a cost-sharing basis. The community receiving sets are manufactured as per the specifications prescribed by the Government of India. The contributory scheme is implemented as follows:—

Initial contribution from the Gram Panchayat towards installation charges:—

	Rs.
Transistor sets	175
Mains operated sets	150
Yearly contribution towards maintenance charges	90

Thus initially, a Gram Panchayat has to pay Rs. 265 or Rs. 240 according to its demand for transistor or mains operated set.

A daily programme is broadcast by the Nagpur station of the All India Radio for the villagers, so also there are special programmes for *Nabhovani Shetkari Mandal* which have a marked accent on latest techniques of crop cultivation, poultry farming, cattle breeding, fruit growing, etc., in addition to entertainment and news. All these and other programmes are available for tuning on the community radio receiver.

In Buldhana district, radio sets installed under the contributory scheme numbered 685 as on 31st March 1969. There are three Rural Broadcasting Officers to look after the radio needs of the district at present.

They are as under:—

Unit (1)	Jurisdiction (2)	No. of Radio Sets (3)
Buldhana ..	Chikhali	175
Khamgaon ..	Khamgaon	286
	Jalgaon	
	Malkapur	
Mehkar ..	Mehkar	224
	Total ..	685

The contributory radio scheme has covered about 50 per cent of the villages in the district so far.

Under the scheme of Rural Radio Forums a Regional Organiser, attached to the Divisional Office, organises forums in the villages having community sets. These forums consist of about 20 members drawn from different strata in the village. This forum listens to the special programmes on Tuesdays, Fridays and carries on a discussion on the topic. There are 111 Rural Radio Forums under this scheme as given below:—

Serial No. (1)	Tabsil (2)	No. of Rural Forums (3)
1	Buldhana (Chikhali)	41
2	Khamgaon	15
3	Jalgaon	19
4	Malkapur	23
5	Mehkar	13
	Total ..	111

This scheme has been found to be very encouraging to many farmers as their difficulties regarding techniques and methods in farming and associated matters are quickly and authoritatively answered over the radio.

Under the Fourth Five-Year Plan, another new scheme called Group Listening has been introduced by the Government of Maharashtra in the State. This scheme enables organisations like *Vanita Mandal*, *Sanskara Kendras*, etc., to get a community set for their organisation. These sets are specially designed to serve a group of about 15 to 20 persons. This scheme also is on a cost sharing basis offering additional listening facilities to ladies and others.

CHAPTER 8—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

INTRODUCTION

THE FOREGOING CHAPTERS HAVE DEALT WITH THE IMPORTANT SECTORS of the district economy such as Agriculture, Industry, Trade, Transport, etc. But a large number of economic pursuits which contribute materially to the economy of the district still remain uncovered. These remaining economic pursuits which are discussed in this chapter are broadly grouped under the caption 'Miscellaneous Occupations'. They are so called not because their contribution to the district economy is negligible but because of their miscellaneous nature. These occupations provide employment to a considerable section of the population.

These occupations cover hotels and restaurants, boarding and lodging houses, sweet-meat shops, tailoring shops, goldsmiths, hair-cutting saloons, laundries, bakeries, pan-bidi shops, flour mills, manufacturing of aerated waters, medical and health services, education and research services, domestic services etc. Most of the occupations listed above are concerned with the production of consumers' goods.

With a view to representing a broad picture of the economic conditions prevailing in these pursuits, a sample survey of some selected occupations was conducted at the following places, *viz.*, Buldhana, Malkapur, Shegaon, Nandura and Jalamb in 1972. However, occupations of least importance, *i.e.*, those which do not make a substantial contribution but only support a few persons are not described in detail.

The data about these occupations was collected in regard to their salient features such as accessories, tools and equipment, capital investment, production, marketing, finance, income and turnover, etc. The data collected pertained to units of all sizes, *viz.*, big, medium and small. The size of establishment was decided on the basis of factual observations.

LODGING AND BOARDING

In recent times, the business of lodging and boarding houses has considerably expanded. It is the result of many factors, such as migration of people on account of transfers in services, business and office transactions, increase in the study tours undertaken by various educational institutions due to which people have to move from place to place. All these make it compulsory for the persons involved to take advantage of boarding and lodging facilities which are available, at these places.

There are boarding houses, without any lodging facilities in the district. However, at a very few places in the district, both boarding and lodging facilities are available. Also wherever lodging facilities exist, the state of maintenance in those lodgings is not very satisfactory.

The accessories used by a boarding house depend upon whether it is a vegetarian or a non-vegetarian one. They usually consist of food-grains, condiments and spices, edible oil, ghee, vegetables, etc. In a vegetarian house the accessories of a non-vegetarian establishment in addition to above, include fish, mutton, etc. The quantity of the consumption of these accessories depends upon the turnover of the establishment. The sample survey revealed that in case of a big establishment the value of these commodities consumed was Rs. 1,000 per month, while in the case of medium establishments, it varied between Rs. 700 and Rs. 250 per month.

Chairs, small low stools or *pats*, dishes, bowls were used for dining purpose whereas various types of small and big utensils were used for cooking. The stock of tools and equipment depended upon the size of the business. If an establishment had lodging facilities, the equipment, in addition to above consisted of few cots, few mattresses, pillows and bed-sheets. A big lodging and boarding in Buldhana district had tools and equipment of the value of Rs. 2,500 and it accommodated 14 beds. The value ranged from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 2,500 in the case of medium sized lodging and boarding houses.

The capital invested in the business of lodging and boarding establishment is of two types *viz.*, fixed and working. The fixed capital of an establishment was determined by the nature of furniture and utensils used in the course of business. The working capital represented purchases of raw materials and periodical replacement of utensils, dishes, etc. The capital was often secured by advances from customers on coupon or membership system. A big lodging and boarding house in Buldhana district was found to have fixed capital of Rs. 5,000 and a working capital of Rs. 1,500. The amount of fixed capital invested in a medium sized lodging and boarding varied from Rs. 2,500 to Rs. 4,000.

The survey of four big establishments in the district revealed that a big sized unit employed about seven servants and a medium sized unit employed 3 or 4 servants. The amount spent on their wages varied according to their services. A cook was paid higher than an employee only serving food. Meals were prepared and served twice a day. The customers were charged either on rice-plate system or on full-meal system. The rice-plate charges varied from Re. 0.80 to Re. 1 and that of a full-meal varied from 1 Re. 30 paise to 1 Re. 50 paise on the basis of the size of business, and the quality of the meal. In a lodging house a lodger was provided with a cot, mattress, a pillow and a bed-sheet. The lodging charges varied from Re. 1 to Rs. 2 per day.

The expenditure was incurred on items like raw materials wages paid to labourers, rent, etc. The net earnings of a big sized lodging and boarding unit varied from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500 per month while that of a medium-sized unit varied from Rs. 150 to Rs. 200 per month.

TAILORING

Jane Austin in her novel 'Pride and Prejudice', very eloquently describes the First Impressions, by the proverbial term 'clothe makes a man'. This tendency seems to be gaining wide-spread credence in this district as elsewhere.

The tailor is an indispensable unit of the society as he fulfils the primary needs of the community. A few tailors depend for their livelihood on many subsidiary occupations, but most of them depend solely on this principal profession. Though tailoring shops are wide-spread in cities and towns, every village does not have a tailoring shop. A group of two or three villages have a common tailor.

According to 1951 Census, 1,486 persons (1,395 men, 91 women) were engaged in this occupation, but the category included tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners.

Most of the tailors in small villages are unskilled and stitch only underwears or other clothes of ordinary type, but the tailors in big villages undertake stitching of shirts, pants, etc., in addition to other typical dresses. The tailors in big towns generally are adept in the art of tailoring and have thorough knowledge regarding the ever-changing fashions. As such they could easily adapt their work to the needs of time.

In the past, the profession was hereditary and the personnel belonged to the 'Shimpi' community of Hindus. But now with the passage of time, the occupation in the cities and towns is losing its hereditary character. Now the people take-up any of the occupations which suits them and which would provide them with sufficient income. In villages we may sometimes find tailors going from house to house collecting orders, taking measures, and finally making home-delivery of stitched clothes which is a rare phenomena in towns. In a village, the tailor, due to his limited business, does all the work himself, and does not have to depend on anyone. But a tailor in the town due to his large number of clientele works on the principle of division of labour. The owner himself or a specially employed tailor cuts the cloth and the stitching and other things are left for other employees.

In a village the tailor establishes his shop in the small verandah of a house with a sewing machine, a pair of scissors, a measuring tape, etc.

The tools and equipment of a tailor vary depending upon the size of the business. In the survey undertaken, it was found that the tools and equipment of a medium size establishment consisted of 2 or 3 sewing machines, each costing about Rs. 300 and three pairs of scissors, each costing about Rs. 12. The tools and equipment of small tailoring shops consisted of one sewing machine, its

value ranging from Rs. 275 to 375, one pair of scissors and one measuring tape.

The fixed capital of a tailor is usually represented by the furniture of the shop and the sewing machines. The fixed capital of medium-sized establishments was approximately Rs. 2,000 and that of small establishments, varied between Rs. 600 and Rs. 1,000.

The income of a tailor in a medium unit was Rs. 200 per month, and that in a small unit, fluctuating between Rs. 70 and Rs. 150 per month. The charges of a tailor varied, depending upon the locality of establishment, the skill he possessed and the quality of the clothes stitched by him.

HAIR CUTTING SALOONS

In a village, the itinerant barber moves from place to place to serve the customers. He keeps his accessories in what is popularly called the *dhopti*. These accessories consist of one or two razors, a pair of cropping machines, a comb, a piece of soap and an old mirror. This profession is generally followed by the 'Nhavi' community of the Hindus. In a village the barber prefers to sit under the shade of a tree or in the verandah of a house. In the towns this profession is not restricted to any particular community but is followed by those who have capacity and confidence. A town barber has generally to keep his shop well-furnished, and well-equipped with various items such as mirrors, radio-sets, etc.

The furniture of a medium-sized establishment in towns consisted of six mirrors, four chairs, etc., altogether costing about Rs. 700 whereas the cost of tools and equipment of a small-unit varied between Rs. 50 and Rs. 100. The accessories of these establishments consisted of cosmetics such as snow, powder, soap, etc.

The fixed capital of a hair cutting saloon varied from Rs. 200 to Rs. 1,000, depending upon the size of the business. The prices charged by the hair cutting saloons were generally the same in all types of establishments.

The survey revealed that the monthly gross income of a medium-sized saloon varied from Rs. 250 to Rs. 300, while that of a small saloon ranged between Rs. 120 and Rs. 240. Most of the saloons used family labour and only some were found to employ 1 or 2 outside workers giving them about half a portion of their earnings. The establishments were generally located in rented premises, the rent varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30 per month.

According to the 1951 Census, the services were grouped under 'Barbers, and Beauty shops' and the number of persons following this occupation was stated as 1,499 (men 1,476, women 23). As per the 1961 Census the number of persons engaged in services rendered by hair dressing saloons and beauty shops, stood at 1,834 men.

LAUNDRY SERVICES

Modern type laundries are rarely found in villages. The business is mostly concentrated in towns. The occupation is more or less of a recent origin. In the past, in the absence of such

establishments, *dhobis* or *parits* most of whom belonged to the Hindu Parit Community, used to render these services. Even in many villages the *dhobis* in a small number render the laundering services in person. The scope of the laundering business has increased considerably with the increasing urbanisation and the tendency of the people in both towns and villages to look clean and wear clean as well. The *dhobis*, the laundries, and those engaged exclusively in ironing are the three components serving the clientele in their own way. The increasing use of terylene garments has to some extent affected the business of laundries.

The accessories used by laundries generally consist of soda, soap, indigo, bleaching powder, coal, timber, etc. The tools and equipment of a small sized laundry comprised a table costing about Rs. 30 and an iron valued at about Rs. 40. The number of irons vary depending upon the number of clientele and the fixed capital, the owner has invested. The survey revealed that the fixed capital in five small units ranged between Rs. 200 and Rs. 800. In Buldhana district, a small sized laundry charged 15 paise for ordinary washing and 30 paise for special washing, while that for ironing it charged from 10 to 15 paise depending upon the type of the dress material. The small establishments were one man establishments. However, in a few cases they used the labour of the family members.

The small units of the district earned on an average Rs. 150 per month.

Some laundries in big towns of the district undertook dry cleaning of the woollen as also the terylene clothing.

As per the 1951 Census, this occupation provided means of livelihood to 506 persons, under the category "laundries and laundry services". The 1961 Census included in this occupation laundry services rendered by organizations and individuals, including all types of cleaning, dyeing, bleaching, dry-cleaning services and the persons engaged in this occupation numbered 774 in 1961. Of these 449 were men and 325 were women.

BAKERIES

The bakeries are generally engaged in the production of processed food-stuffs. With the westernization of food-habits on a large scale the bakery products are seen in most of the houses. In the past the consumption of processed articles was regarded with disfavour by all and their production was limited. The demand for them came mostly from the administrative personnel in the services of the British Government, both local and European.

Now the circumstances have changed radically with changing habits and changing outlook and the business does extremely well to-day.

Raw-materials consumed by a bakery consist of *maida*, *atta*, sugar, hydrogenated oil, yeast, butter, flavouring essences, eggs, etc. On an average, the expenditure on raw materials of a medium sized bakery was Rs. 700 per month.

The tools and equipment of a bakery consist of an oven or *bhatti*, metal sheets, iron rods, moulds, big plates, and shelves or cupboards to keep the processed food. The survey revealed that one medium-sized bakery unit in the district had tools and equipment worth about Rs. 1,000. The fixed capital of the same unit worked to about Rs. 1,500. It employed workers and had gross earnings of about Rs. 900 to Rs. 1,200 per month. The unit was housed in rented premises and the amount spent on rent and on other miscellaneous items came to Rs. 150 per month.

The bakeries produced products such as bread, biscuits, cakes, toasts, etc., and sold their products on wholesale as well as on retail basis.

The total number of persons engaged in the production of bread, biscuits, cake and other bakery products was 38 (including 4 women) as per the 1961 Census.

BICYCLE REPAIRING SHOPS

Bicycle repairing shops have increased in number with the increasing use of the machine in villages as well as in towns. The bicycle affords an easy means of conveyance involving less cost but assured punctuality. The shops are found dispersed in towns and big villages as well.

The accessories used by a cycle-repairing shop consist of spare parts, screw drivers, bolts, nuts, handles, bearings, etc. The tools and equipment of a repairing shop consist of cycles for hiring, a table, a chair, etc. The sample survey disclosed that the tools and equipment of a medium sized unit comprised one table, 15 cycles, etc., and the fixed capital invested varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 20,000. Some shop owners were indebted, the maximum debt in case of one being Rs. 5,000. The shops employed 1 or 3 workers in addition to the labour supplied by the family. The workers received by way of wages Rs. 80 to Rs. 120 per month.

The cycles were given on hire on an hourly basis. Some cycle shops undertook repairing of cycles in addition to above or as a separate occupation. They also undertook in addition repairing of stoves, petromaxes, drums, etc.

The monthly net income of the five medium-sized shops surveyed was found to range between Rs. 300 and Rs. 1,500.

The 1961 District Census, Buldhana, records the number of persons engaged in the 'repairing of bicycles and tricycles' at 234.

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS

Hotels and Restaurants today provide to the people living apart from their families either due to transfer of services or for any other business reason, their daily requirements of food. The tendency to take tea and other snacks outside has resulted in encouraging the growth of this occupation. Restaurants are not only well dispersed in cities and towns but could be found in distant located places.

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As per the 1951 Census, the number of persons employed in 'Hotels, Restaurants and Eating Houses' was 1,106 (males 1,087, females 19). The number as per the 1961 Census was 2,121 (2,080 males, 41 females) and included persons engaged in 'services rendered by hotels, boarding houses, and other organizations providing lodging and boarding facilities'.*

In most of the villages, a tea shop is found in a small hut, serving hot tea or coffee. A few, in addition to tea, also serve hot or cold beverages with eatables. Some also serve meals mostly on the rice-plate system. The establishments in rural and urban areas however differ considerably in various respects such as the state of maintenance, the prices charged, etc. Generally the get-up of a tea-shop is determined by the purse of the clientele and the locality in which it is established.

Restaurants in the rural areas are generally small in size, and not very well-equipped. The food-stuff they serve is generally cheap and could not be regarded as excellent by modern standards. They are generally situated near a bus stand or in the bazar locality. Their number in a particular place is very small and as such they do not face any competition. This may perhaps be the reason for their poor get-up and the bad quality of food items that they supply. The restaurants and tea-shops in urban areas are better equipped and try to cater to the needs of their customers as best as they can.

The common items of raw material in the tea shops in rural as well as urban areas are sugar, milk, tea, coffee, *maida*, *rava* (semolina) in addition to other items such as rice, dal, vegetables, condiments and spices in those serving meals.

The survey revealed that small tea-shops in rural and urban areas expended a sum of Rs. 40 to Rs. 80 per month on raw-materials. The expenditure of medium sized hotels varied from Rs. 600 to Rs. 800 per month. It was also found that the maximum expenditure in the district of a big hotel on the same items was Rs. 3,500 per month. In rural areas the furniture of an establishment was composed of benches to relax, and a few old tables and aluminium pots, brass plates and bowls, etc. The cost of furniture of a small hotel ranged from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500 whereas in the case of one medium sized hotel it was found to be Rs. 1,500. For big hotels it varied from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 2,500.

The medium and big sized units in urban areas of the district had crockery of good quality and they used steel and brass utensils. They also had a few cupboards in addition to the items of furniture noted above. It was found that the fixed capital of a small tea shop or a hotel varied from Rs. 200 to Rs. 700 and in case of big sized units, it ranged between Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 20,000.

The tea-shops in the rural areas or a small tea-shop in urban areas employed only one labourer doing all kinds of odd jobs such as serving, cleaning, taking orders etc. But the personnel employ-

* In 1971 there were 3095 persons working in 1038 establishments.

ed in a medium or big unit differed according to turnover and the number of clientele.

In 13 medium sized tea-shops surveyed, the number of personnel employed was 2 or 3, and in the case of 5 big sized hotels, it was 8 or 9. In the tea-shops of a larger size, different employees doing varied jobs such as the waiters, attendants, manager, etc. received different rates of wages. One such tea-shop paid a sum of Rs. 400 towards its wages per month.

According to the findings of the sample survey the monthly earnings of small sized tea-shops ranged between Rs. 100 and Rs. 150 per month and the big tea-shops were found to have their earnings ranging between Rs. 400 and Rs. 700 per month. On the occasion of festivals, at the time of local fairs or at the harvest time the business was brisk and more prospective, whereas in the rainy season, the business was normal if not dull.

Most of the establishments were located in rented premises, the rent varying from Rs. 25 to Rs. 70 per month. The amount of rent depended upon the locality and the availability of other similar facilities.

The business, however, is still not in an advanced state. The modern technique of business is hardly known and so naturally not employed. However, the gradual industrialization accompanied by urbanization of the district will provide a fillip to the growth of this business.

PAN-BIDI SHOPS

As we go to the extreme south and north-east of the State of Maharashtra, we find a distinct liking among the people for chewing pans. This explains the multiplicity of pan-bidi shops in the Vidarbha region in general and the district of Buldhana in particular. Most of the people are habituated to chewing pan with tobacco or otherwise. Similarly, offering *pan* or *panpatti* to the guests is also considered as a way of showing ones hospitality. It is no wonder therefore that pan-bidi shops have become a common sight even in distant parts of the district.

In rural areas, the farmers carry with them a small cotton bag or a *chanchi* to keep all the ingredients necessary for a *panpatti*, such as betel-leaves, catechu, betel-nut etc. Pan-bidi shops in villages and towns are usually situated in busy centres such as motor stand, bazar place, railway station etc., and are locally known as *panachi gadi* or *pan pattiche dukan*. These shops today cater to the ever increasing class of customers with whom chewing pan and smoking bidi or cigarette has become a part of their routine life. A pan-bidi shop is generally established on a raised wooden platform, which has an appearance of a small cabin.

Usually people chew pan after taking heavy meals or even after taking a cup of tea. In addition, the betel-leaves and areca-nuts are offered at the time of marriage ceremony or any other religious ceremony as they are regarded as possessing auspicious value.

The ingredients of a *panpatti* or *vida* are betel-leaves, lime, pieces of areca-nut, catechu or *kath*, tobacco leaf or tobacco powder, cardamom, and a clove to compact the *vida*. Various types of *panpattis* are prepared and they are known as Poona Masala, Banarasi, Mittha, etc., interpreting the tastes of people staying in different parts of the country.

A sample survey of a few pan-bidi shops was conducted at a few places in the district. Following are some of the observations resulting from the survey. The accessories kept in a pan-bidi shop consist of tobacco, betel-nuts, areca-nuts, lime, catechu, cloves, cardamom, other items of spices, and bidis and cigarettes of various types. In addition to the above noted items, some shops keep for sale a few patent medicines, postal cards, envelopes, inlands, soaps, and similar other articles of daily consumption having little money value and greater utility.

The expenditure of a pan-bidi shop on the accessories depended upon the size of the establishment. In the case of a medium sized shop, it was Rs. 42 per day, while in the case of a small shop, it was Rs. 15 per day.

The tools required by a pan-bidi shop included nut-cracker, balances for weighing the light articles such as betel-nut, snuff etc., a *chunam* pot with a rod etc.

The equipment of a medium unit consisted of mirrors, furniture etc., costing about Rs. 1,000 and that of a small unit consisted of pots, boxes etc., worth about Rs. 50.

The pan-bidi shops require capital for the purchase of a few tools and equipment and some items of furniture. A medium unit invested about Rs. 1,000, whereas in a small size shop the investment varied from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500.

Generally all the pan-bidi shops were one man establishments. The average gross income of a medium shop was placed at Rs. 1,200 per month and that of a small sized pan-bidi shop at Rs. 400 per month. All the shops were mostly located in rented premises, the rent depending upon the locality of the shop and varying between Rs. 16 and Rs. 65 per month.

FLOUR MILLS

In the past, it was a common sight mostly in villages and in many cases in towns to find women singing melodious songs called *ovyas* while grinding grain with the help of a pair of grinding stone wheels in the early hours of the morning or at dawn.

This phenomenon is now fast disappearing especially in towns and big villages due to the introduction of modern machines in the flour milling units which came to be established in the early years of this century. The development of flour milling was extremely convenient and was a necessary corollary of the introduction of an era of mechanization.

In the big villages, generally the flour mills work on oil engines whereas in the towns and cities, they work on power and are found in large numbers. There are a few places where no flour mills could be found so that people in such places go to the

neighbouring towns or villages and get their grain milled, generally on bazar days.

The flour mills undertake grinding of grain, chillis, turmeric, crystal salt etc. Most of the flour mills are small in size, catering to the needs of the customers staying in nearby locality.

As per the 1951 Census, there were 114 persons engaged in this occupation, and were called as 'millers of cereals and pulses'. Among them, 93 were men and 21 were women.

But as per the 1961 Census, 805 persons (786 men, 19 women) were engaged in this occupation and the category was called 'those employed in production of rice, atta, flour, etc., by milling, dehussing, and processing of crops and food-grains'.

The main equipment of a flour mill comprises a grinding wheel, *chakki*, oil-engines and electric motor where power is available.

It was found that the equipment of a big sized unit was composed of four grinding wheels worth Rs. 2,000, 2 electric motors worth Rs. 10,000 and other tools such as screw-drivers, pans, oil etc., valued at about Rs. 100.

Generally the proprietor of a flour mill performed all the work, but in a few cases, one or two outsiders were also employed. One unit had employed 4 workers.

Some flour mills in addition to grinding of grain undertook husking and polishing of rice and crushing of pulses and used special machines known as hullers and crushers in addition to grinding machines.

The prices charged by units differed according to type of service rendered. It was found that the net earnings of flour mills of all sizes ranged between Rs. 120 and Rs. 500 per month.

The monthly expenditure on wages, where outsiders were employed ranged between Rs. 60 and Rs. 180, depending upon the number of persons employed. Most of the establishments surveyed were housed in rented premises, the rents ranging between Rs. 10 and Rs. 25 per month.

The flour milling business is brisk throughout the year, and usually prosperous during the festival season, and before the outbreak of the monsoon when yearly provisions are stored.

REPAIRING OF RADIOS AND WATCHES

The use of radios, and watches has increased immensely during the last two decades, and they are today not considered as items of luxury. The emergence of a number of shops undertaking repairs of such articles is, therefore, most natural. The establishments doing this work are generally small in size. However their size had no relation to their earning capacity. Watch-repairing shops were found at Buldhana, Shegaon and Malkapur in the district.

The tools and appliances used by these shops are numerous and are obtainable only at a high price. The shops also require costly spare parts. They employed technical and skilled personnel to

carry out the repairing work. Some shops carried on business on a proprietary basis, the owner doing the work of repairing etc. As the performance of these jobs required skill, the charges were also high.

The earnings of the watch-repairing shops ranged between Rs. 100 and Rs. 300 per month.

Some of the shop-owners also undertook sale of new and second-hand watches in addition to the repairing services.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATERS

Factories manufacturing aerated waters are very few in the district. This is a seasonal occupation, as the product has purely a seasonal demand. One such factory of a large size was located in the district.

The raw-materials required for the manufacturing units comprised fruit-juice, saccharine, citric acid, colours, ice, essences, etc., the average expenditure on such items being about Rs. 300. Manufacturing of aerated waters required considerable capital investment in machines such as a cooler costing about Rs. 7,000; a soda water hand machine, valued at Rs. 500 and 2 cylinders worth Rs. 1,800. The unit surveyed, operated the machines by using electricity.

The yearly expenditure towards the consumption of water, gas, electricity amounted to Rs. 1,000. The factory surveyed employed six workers paying Rs. 2 per day in the summer season to each of them. Its production consisted of cold-drinks like Soda, Lemon, Mangola, Orange, Pineapple, Ginger, etc. The gross earnings of the unit amounted to Rs. 4,000 to Rs. 5,000 per month especially during the summer season. The factory was housed in rented premises, the amount of rent paid annually being Rs. 875.

According to 1951 Census, 18 men were employed in 'Manufacture of aerated waters and mineral waters and other beverages'. According to 1961 Census 17 men were employed in this occupation, the enumeration being restricted to include only those engaged in the 'production of aerated and mineral waters'.

SWEET-MEAT MAKING

Most of the sweet-meat makers shops were located at Shegaon and Jalamb, the reason for the location at Shegaon being the religious significance attached to the place due to the *samadhi* of Gajanan Maharaj. Persons visiting this place generally offer sweet-meats to the *samadhi*. The familiar local sweet-meat preparations are *pedha*, *ladu*, *barfi*, *halwa*, *jilebi* etc.

Most of the shops used family labour and were small in size. The initial capital needed for a small unit was on an average Rs. 250 and was spent on tools and equipment such as big vessels, *parat*, frying pans, etc.

The raw-materials were purchased locally and comprised milk, sugar, atta, oil, and flour of horse-gram, etc. The average expenditure on raw-materials varied from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500 per month.

The average net earning of a small unit was Rs. 200 per month and fluctuations in it depended upon the season and the size of the establishment. Charges towards rent were negligible.

GOLDSMITHY

Goldsmithy, is mostly a hereditary occupation and is practised since times immemorial. The discovery of various remains of ancient times shows that women of that period were fond of ornaments. Goldsmithy is generally followed by people from the Sonar Community of the Hindus. Goldsmiths are of two types; those who make and mould ornaments, and those who sell them.

The persons following the occupation generally combine the functions of gold and silversmithy as well as jewellery making so that no distinction could be made between them and the sarafs (shroffs). The occupation today is undertaken by those who have the requisite initiative and resources. The sarafs or shroffs sell precious metals, accept ornaments and other jewellery on mortgage and give money in return and charge a rate of interest.

The fixed capital required for the establishments which do not keep ready articles for sale is very small as they only execute the orders received from the customers. The tools and equipment required comprise anvils, bellows, hammers, pots, crucibles, moulds, blow-pipes, and other such equipment for executing ornamental work. The cost of these tools and equipment ranges from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500. The other equipment found in a shop comprised a cupboard or two for keeping the finished articles and a bench or two for the customers.

The chief raw-material required for making the ornaments is either gold or silver, generally supplied by the customers, and in some cases, purchased by the goldsmith. The ornaments, the orders for which the goldsmiths execute, are *Ekdani*, *Chaplahar*, ear-rings, rings, etc. However as the fashions change, the goldsmiths adapt themselves to the changing fashions.

The net earnings of a goldsmith depend upon his reputation and the type of customers for whom he executes the work. The charge for the execution of work of any type depends upon the skill and dexterity required in the performance of the task. The occupation is seasonal and is generally brisk during the festival time, and the marriage season.

The Gold Control Rules promulgated in 1963, in the initial stages, prohibited all dealings in gold and making of new ornaments of gold with a purity of more than 14 carats. Gold ornaments of a purity permissible under the Rules are thus hardly in demand. The Rules considerably affected the business of the goldsmiths in the district. The recent amendment in the Gold Control Rules, however, makes provision for the remaking of gold ornaments already existing.

As per the 1961 Census, 695 persons (including 9 women) were employed in this occupation, which included manufacturers of jewellery, and silverware, and wares using gold and other precious metals also.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSION

In the olden days of Brahmanical ascendancy, the priests ruled the affairs of every community more despotically than the mightiest prince. The priests controlled every conceivable concern of the household. Religion had been a full-time occupation and the main source of income for many persons in all the districts in the past. This district was no exception to it. The priest used to conduct the daily worship of all the deities for his patron and as such the class enjoyed a high status in the society.

But as a result of scientific education, empiricism and logical reasoning now-a-days, the various beliefs have disappeared and the people have become more skeptic and disbelievers in religious superstitions. But the priest still holds his position in a large number of villages among the rural folk though his position in towns is not so secure as it was in the past. According to 1951 Census, 649 persons (among them 600 were men and 49 were women) were engaged in the 'Religious, charitable and welfare services'. The figure included priests, ministers, monks, sadhus, religious mendicants and other religious workers. According to 1961 Census, total number of persons engaged in this occupation was 1,111 (men 1,054, women 57). The number comprised religious and allied services rendered by pandit, priest, preceptor, fakir, monk and is classified as follows:—

	Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Total	1,111	1,054	57
Rural	705	677	28
Urban	406	377	29

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

Since Independence, people (both men as well as women) have acknowledged the importance of education not only to follow it as a career, but also to make use of it as a source of their livelihood. This has resulted in the growth of institutions imparting education of all types and consequently in an increase in the number of persons, employed in the education and research services.

The 1961 Census gives the number of teachers employed in various educational institutions, as under:—

(1)	1951 (2)	1956 (3)	1961 (4)
Primary Schools	628	911	1,029
Secondary Schools	29	46	70
Colleges	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Other Institutions	47	70	113

The 1951 Census gives the number of persons employed in educational services and research at 2,401, and classifies these services as follows:—

(1)	Persons (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)
(1) Educational services and Research (if production is on a small scale, productive enterprises attached to a research or training institution).	2,401	2,174	227
(2) Professors, lecturers, teachers and research workers employed in universities, colleges and research institutions.	522	500	22
(3) All other professors, lecturers and teachers	1,721	1,529	192
(4) Managers, clerks, and servants in educational and research institutions, including libraries and museums, etc.	158	145	13

The 1961 Census gives the classification figures of the number of persons employed in 'educational and scientific services' as 5,351* and classifies the services as in table No. 1.

* In 1971 there were 7198 persons engaged in 1760 establishments.

TABLE No. 1
CLASSIFICATION OF THE NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN EDUCATIONAL AND SCIENTIFIC SERVICES, 1961.

(1)	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Persons (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)	Persons (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)
Educational and Scientific Services	5,351	4,798	553	3,183	2,964	219	2,168	1,834	334
(1) Educational services as those rendered by technical colleges, technical schools and similar technical and vocational institutions.	210	206	4	32	28	4	178	178	..
(2) Educational services such as those rendered by colleges, schools and similar other institutions of non-technical type.	5,140	4,591	549	3,150	2,935	215	1,990	1,656	334
(3) Scientific services and research institutions not capable of classification under any individual group.	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..

MEDICAL AND HEALTH SERVICES

In 1951, the total number of persons engaged in medical and other health services including nurses, compounders, vaidus, hakims and non-registered practitioners was 1,094 of whom 107 were women. The number showed an increase in the 1961 Census which showed 1,277 persons engaged in this occupation of whom 238 were women. The 1961 Census classified the number of persons engaged in these services as follows:—

(1)	Persons (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)
(a) Public Health and medical services rendered by organisations and individuals such as by hospitals, sanatoria, nursing homes, maternity and child welfare clinics as also by hakimi, unani, ayurvedic, allopathic and homoeopathic practitioners.	1,181	946	235
(b) Veterinary services rendered by organisations and individuals.	96	95	1

It may be noted, however, that the number of persons following this occupation is inadequate in view of the gradually increasing demand for their services.

LEGAL SERVICES

As the number of literates increases, the number of persons taking to law also shows a considerable increase. The increase in the number of lawyers could also be attributed to the fact that litigation is something from which a developing community cannot escape. This increase in the number of law graduates does not mean that there is an increase in the number of legal practitioners because many of them seek employment in Government jobs or follow further vocational courses. The 1951 Census recorded 414 persons as following the legal and business services (including one woman) and composed of 236 lawyers of all kinds (including 1 woman), qazis, law agents and mukhtars, clerks of lawyers, petition writers and others following business services.

The 1961 Census recorded 239 juries, and 176 legal practitioners and advisers following the profession in the district. The Census does not enumerate any woman as following this profession.*

DOMESTIC SERVANTS

Generally, those who are not educated, and so cannot seek any other job, take to working as domestic servants. Only families with good incomes, both in urban and rural areas employ the services of domestic servants. But the nature of service performed by domestic servants differs in rural and urban area. Similarly,

* In 1971 there were 229 persons with 27 establishments.

the services of rural servants differ according to the period of employment, i.e., (1) those employed during the sowing and harvesting period and (2) those employed for a year or more than a year and known as 'attached labour'. Both are paid in cash and kind.

In urban areas people employ domestic servants either for full-time household work or only for washing of clothes and cleaning of utensils. There has been a considerable decrease in the number of persons following this occupation because of the new avenues of employment made available in the mills or factories where they can earn higher incomes.

As per 1951 Census, the number of persons employed in 'domestic services (but not including services rendered by the members of family households to one another)' was 1,748 (1,188 men and 560 women). The number included private motor drivers, cooks, gardeners and other domestic servants.

As per 1961 Census, the number of persons engaged in the services rendered to households such as those by domestic servants and cooks was 1,522 of whom 598 were women. According to the Census the total number in urban area was 1,149 and that in rural area was 373.

RECREATION SERVICES

In the modern world of hustle and bustle, recreation is needed to infuse happiness and enthusiasm among the people without which they may lose interest in life and become simple automata addicted to a routine way of life. One such form of recreation is the cinema talkies as they are popularly called besides dramas, musical entertainment, etc.

According to the 1951 Census, the number of persons employed in recreation services was 251 of whom 17 were women. The number included those employed in 'motion pictures, operation of cinemas, managers, employees of theatres, opera companies, musicians, actors, dancers, wrestlers, etc.'.

The 1961 Census, in addition to the above, lists recreation services also rendered by indoor and outdoor sports by organisations and individuals including, horse and motor racing, etc. The number of persons employed in all the services stood at 441 of whom 24 were women.

* In 1971 there were 169 establishments and 456 persons.

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS

INTRODUCTION

THE PRECEDING CHAPTER ON AGRICULTURE, INDUSTRIES, BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE, COMMUNICATIONS AND MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS depict the picture of the economy of the district in its historical and structural aspects.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to give an analysis of the standard of living of the people in the district as well as of the future prospects for the district economy in the light of its current achievements. The chapter comprises two sections dealing with standard of living and economic prospects.

STANDARD OF LIVING

The study regarding the standard of living of the people in the district is necessary for the preparation of planning for its further economic development. The low standard of living is one of the many characteristics of an underdeveloped area. A district has a low standard of living due to its low per capita income. Naturally the emphasis now-a-days is to identify development with those changes and investments which will lift real income per person much closer to its potential level.

Many a time, the terms 'standard of life' and 'standard of living' are considered to be synonymous. This not being the case it is necessary to distinguish between the two. The term standard of living denotes the necessities, comforts and luxuries to the consumption of which an individual is accustomed, *i.e.*, it indicates the present way of living of an individual or a family. As against this, the term 'standard of life' represents an ideal situation towards which an individual or a family would aspire to reach in his or its effort to raise the standard.

The concept of standard of living is a relative one and gives a comparison between the standards enjoyed by the people in the past and the one enjoyed by them at present. This comparison between the present and the past is based upon a detailed analysis of income, expenditure, price level, etc., by the selection of a few normal years. This is done with a view to ascertaining a trend in the standard over a decade or so. However, analysis on such an elaborate scale is not possible in view of the difficulties encountered in obtaining the detailed statistical data required for such a purpose.

The other method to judge the standard of living of the people in the district is to measure the economic prosperity of the district in monetary terms in relation to fluctuations in price level.

The rise or fall in the district income along with the price level would reflect the relative rise or fall in the standard of living in the district. In this method of judging the standard of living of the people, it is assumed that there is an even distribution of income and a fairly steady rate of employment during the period under study. The method adopted for calculating the national income, is used to calculate the district income. The nature of statistics required for calculation of district income is more difficult to get than that which is required for the computation of the provincial or the national income. As both the methods, mentioned above, are impracticable, no attempt is made to study the relative standard of living of the people in the district in the present chapter.

Hence, what is described in this chapter is the analysis of the income and expenditure ratios of the people, *i.e.*, how they spend their incomes on various items by preferring one commodity to the other as also the allocation of that income over a wide variety of their needs. This analysis will positively indicate the trends in the pattern of standard of living of different families. It will also provide a foundation for comparison between the standards enjoyed by various strata of the community.

The old Gazetteer of Buldhana district published in 1910, offers some interesting remarks upon the standard of comforts enjoyed by the people in those times, and the same, reproduced below, may be of some value in the present analysis.

Standard of comfort: 'The standard of comfort in Berar, though not high, is probably lower than in any other rural tract of India. The house of the middle class clerk, for which he probably pays rent varying from Rs. 2 to 10 per mensem is scantily furnished. His food costs him but little for he is, in all probability, a Brahman, and therefore, a vegetarian; but he uses such luxuries as wheat, rice, milk, *ghi* and sweetmeats more freely than does the cultivator. His clothes are of fine cotton cloth, the *dhoti* having usually a border of silk, and he wears a silken turban; the whole outfit is so seldom renewed that it costs him comparatively little. The cultivator's style of living and the size of his house depend on the size of his holding; but the distinction between the well-to-do and the impoverished cultivator consists largely in the quantity and the quality of the jewellery worn by the women of the family. The cultivator's clothes are of coarse cotton cloth. The labourer's standard of living is similar to the cultivator's but lower. His house is smaller and meaner, his cooking pots fewer, his food scantier, and his family jewellery less costly. There has been no perceptible change in the standard of living of these classes¹ during the last decade. *Juari* is the staple food, which made into cakes is eaten with salt, chillis and a few vegetables when cheap and available. *Dal* is sometimes indulged in. The fruit of the Mahua, *ber*, *chironji* and other trees when in season also supplements the food of the poorer classes. Young

¹ The old Buldhana Gazetteer has reproduced this account from the Imperial Gazetteer of Berar, p. 35.

bamboo shoots and the leaves and roots of various plants are also consumed by the hill tribes. For fuel the droppings of cattle and dry wood and grass picked up are used. These classes are quite satisfied with this simple mode of living, and that they can easily secure enough in ordinary years is indicated by the luxuries that are often indulged in during marriage ceremonies, and at feasts and festivals, which are generally non-working days.

But it is in the matter of social ceremonies especially marriage, that the people expend their money freely. At marriage ceremonies the poor classes indulge in luxuries such as wheat, rice, sugar, etc., and luxuries are also reserved for some of the bigger feasts and festivals. Rs. 100 and more is sometimes spent by each of the contracting parties to a marriage. Among the better classes of cultivators between Rs. 400 and Rs. 500 is often spent. On the *pat* or second marriage the expenditure is much less.

Among the other classes, besides lavish expenditure on marriage, the Brahmans have the thread and the Musalmans the *Khutna* ceremonies. The thread ceremony consists of placing sacred thread on boys between the ages of seven and nine years, thus rendering them twice born, and constituting the wearer an established member of a higher caste. The ordinary expenditure on these occasions is between Rs. 50 and Rs. 500 according to the means of the boy's father.

The *Khutna* is the circumcision ceremony and is generally performed before the boy attains the age of seven years. The poorer classes of Muhammadans expend very small sums on these occasions, but with the better class, the expenditure is between Rs. 100 and Rs. 500.

A sample survey of the various classes of people staying in urban as well as in rural areas of the district was conducted in 1972. The survey covered Buldhana, Malkapur, Shegaon, Nandura, Jalamb, besides a few other villages. The data is based on tabulated information collected by direct contacts with a number of persons during the course of the survey. Though direct contacts and on-the-spot observations bear sufficient proof for the accuracy of the general outline of the picture so revealed, no statistical accuracy is claimed.

The survey was conducted with a household or a family as a unit of sampling in certain areas typically representative of urban and rural characteristics. For the sake of convenience a family was taken to represent four units. The families were grouped according to different income groups on the basis of average annual income of a family for four units. The families so surveyed were grouped as under:—

Group I—Families with an annual income of Rs. 4,200 and above,

Group II—Families with an annual income ranging between Rs. 1,800 and 4,200,

Group III—Families with an annual income of Rs. 1,800 and less.

However, the grouping has not been based upon the actual income of a family but has been based upon the computed income for a family with four units.

The annual income of a family consists of its earnings from all possible sources of livelihood. It includes income from landed or other types of property, business, profession, or occupation. The sources of income vary according to education and career of the persons in a family.

The largest amount of spendings done by the ordinary consumers is on consumers' goods. The total amount of spendings is thus equal to the sum total of consumption and saving in the form of long and short term investment. When a family has higher income it will usually spend more money on consumer goods. But the propensity to consume is high in the case of families with low incomes and low in the case of families with high incomes. There are many other factors like psychological attitude, expectations of changes in prices and rates of taxes determining the propensity to consume.

The details such as number of members, number of earners, its property, annual income and expenditure, savings, indebtedness, family possessions and other observations regarding literacy and housing conditions, customs and conventions were noted in respect of each family.

The expenditure was grouped under the two heads, *viz.*, monthly and annual. The monthly expenditure of a family was taken to comprise expenditure on items of daily use and in the case of which payment was generally made month by month. Such items included grocery, lighting, domestic services, education, entertainment, milk and house-rent. These are generally called consumers' goods. The annual expenditure included items on which expenditure was incurred occasionally such as clothing, religion, medical relief, social obligations, charity, etc.

In addition to all these items, information regarding the family possessions comprising the utensils, ornaments, clothing, furniture, radio-sets, etc., was also collected at the time of the survey.

GROUP I

The families in the first income group comprised landlords, merchants, doctors, highly paid officers, industrialists, big businessmen, etc. Generally they stayed in the so-called refined localities of the town, in the premises mostly owned by them in rural areas and big flats in urban areas. Their drawing-rooms were furnished with sofa-sets, and fans and mirrored steel cupboards. Many had gas stoves, pressure cookers, etc. A few enjoyed costly luxuries like the air conditioners and refrigerators, etc.

The families in this group with an annual income of over Rs. 4,200 lived comfortably. Very few families in this group derived their incomes from hereditary property such as house and land.

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The survey covered 23 families from this group. The family was composed of three adults and three minors making a total of 4.5 units. There were thirty-three earning members in twenty-three families and fifteen families had only one earning member. Of the families surveyed, ten owned houses collectively valued at Rs. 1,51,000, giving an average of Rs. 15,100; 9 owned landed property valued at Rs. 2,34,800 in aggregate, giving an approximate average of Rs. 26,089; three families owned other property such as cattle and bullocks aggregately valued at Rs. 14,100, giving an average of 467. Eight families owned both house as well as land and 13 families had no property, and so earned their incomes only from their occupations.

The survey disclosed, that of the families that had landed property, 9 families received an annual income from the land, and on an aggregate, it amounted to Rs. 57,500, giving an average of Rs. 6,390. Though 10 families owned houses, only one family was getting a rental income of Rs. 180 per year. The total annual income of all twenty families, earned from various occupations was placed at Rs. 88,388. With this the average occupational income of a family was Rs. 4,420 per annum.

In the survey, it was found that 14 families had their savings in cash and the total savings were Rs. 17,850, giving an average of Rs. 1,275. But the number of families having savings in paper securities or savings in other forms like insurance, provident fund, etc., was 17. These savings amounted to Rs. 87,425.

The families in this income group were well-placed compared to those in other income groups, and had no need to borrow, to make both ends meet. But some sudden calamities like illness, or other domestic needs forced some of the families to borrow. In these cases their debts were Rs. 15,500, giving an average of Rs. 2,214 per family of this group of seven families. But they had borrowed not from money-lenders, but from various other sources like cooperative societies, banks, provident fund, etc.

The average monthly expenditure of a family in this group on food items was Rs. 130 consisting of cereals and pulses, Rs. 55; oils, *i.e.*, edible oil, ghee, etc., Rs. 25; vegetables, mutton, eggs, Rs. 20 and milk Rs. 30. The other monthly expenditure of Rs. 110 was distributed on lighting, Rs. 12; domestic services, Rs. 43; education Rs. 25; entertainment Rs. 10; and house-rent and other expenditure on items like taxes, in case of the houses, Rs. 20.

The average annual expenditure on clothing of the family in this group was Rs. 635. The high expenditure was due to the expensive habits resulting from better taste for clothes of fine quality. Out of the surveyed families, nineteen families spent on religious items, the average per family amounting to Rs. 115 per year. The developing consciousness regarding health had resulted in a substantial expenditure of a family on medical services, which in the case of the group was Rs. 360 per annum. The

average annual expenditure on social obligations which included donations, etc., was placed at Rs. 105. The expenditure, of a family on miscellaneous items like travelling, charges paid to dhobis, tailors, etc., was about Rs. 360 per annum.

The family possessions generally consisted of utensils, gold ornaments, jewellery in a few cases, costly clothing used occasionally, furniture, and other comforts and items of luxury like radio-sets, motor-cycles, electric watches, etc. The utensils of a family consisted of stainless steel, brass and copper utensils, and some of them possessed silver utensils as well. A family had on an average, ornaments worth Rs. 1,800.

The households of these families were well-equipped with costly furniture and a number of other luxury goods which were rarely seen before the last few decades. The common items of furniture were cupboards, sofa-sets, big mirrors, number of cots, etc. Items more commonly found were bicycle, time-piece, etc.

The total monthly expenditure of a family in this group on food-items was found to be about 14 per cent of the total income and 35 per cent of the total expenditure.

GROUP II

The annual income of a family in this group ranged between Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 4,200. The families in this group aspired for a better standard but could not afford it due to limitations of their income. Theirs was the class of miscibles as well as immiscibles. Their dwellings were mostly small but clean and airy. Many of them had a radio-set, a fan and a steel cupboard.

A family from this group was composed of four adults and three minors making a total of 5.5 units. Of the fifty-six families surveyed from this group, 37 families, i.e., about 66 per cent had one earning member per family. The total number of earners in these families was eighty-one. More than 75 per cent of the families in this group followed a learned occupation as means of their livelihood.

Of the 56 families surveyed from this group, only 24 owned houses, valued at Rs. 1,06,600 in aggregate; only 18 families owned landed property, valued at Rs. 1,32,500, giving an average of Rs. 7,250 and 8 owned property in other forms, like cows, bullocks, valued at Rs. 785 in aggregate. Thirteen families owned both a house and landed property.

Of the eighteen families from this group who owned land, fifteen derived an annual income of Rs. 21,400 in aggregate from land; of the twenty-four families who had their own houses, five earned an annual rental income of Rs. 2,420, giving an average of Rs. 484 per annum per family. The total occupational income of all the families surveyed from this group was Rs. 1,65,348, giving the average occupational income of a family at Rs. 3,006 per annum. However, the approximate average annual income of a family in this group from all the sources came to Rs. 4,900.

Out of the 56 families surveyed from this group, only 13 families saved in cash and 32 families in paper securities, insurance, bonds, provident fund, C. T. D., etc. Thirty-eight families indulged in borrowings which amounted to Rs. 33,265. The borrowings were resorted to through various sources like relatives, banks, money-lenders, co-operative societies, provident fund, etc., the main purpose being to meet unforeseen expenditure on household, or on agriculture, or for some business transactions.

A family from this group spent on an average Rs. 135 on food items; and Rs. 85 on non-food items. Of the total expenditure on food items, Rs. 75 were spent on cereals and pulses; Rs. 20 on ghee, cooking oil; Rs. 20 on vegetables (including non-vegetarian items like mutton, eggs, etc.); and Rs. 20 on milk and milk products. The expenditure on cereals and pulses was thus the vital item of expenditure in the family budget accounting for 55 per cent of the expenditure on food items.

The monthly expenditure of a family on non-food items was less than that spent on food items. It comprised lighting Rs. 8; domestic servants Rs. 30; education Rs. 24; entertainment Rs. 5; and house rent Rs. 18.

The items which did not necessarily figure in the monthly expenditure bill of a family, were generally clothing, religion, medical facilities and social obligations. A family in this group spent annually about Rs. 360 on clothing; Rs. 65 on religion; Rs. 230 on medical account, Rs. 35 on social obligations; and Rs. 125 on miscellaneous items such as travelling, tailoring, laundering, etc.

The total average monthly expenditure of a family on food items was 33 per cent of the total income and 46 per cent of the total expenditure.

A family in this group though it could spend little on comforts, could spend practically nothing on luxury goods. A family on an average possessed utensils of copper and brass and a few of stainless steel. Their utensils were just enough to meet their daily and occasional requirements. Of the 56 families surveyed only 26 families possessed a few ornaments. The expensive clothing kept for ceremonial wear was rarely found in the households.

GROUP III

The families in this group with an income of less than Rs. 1,800 per annum generally stayed in one room tenements or huts constructed on the outskirts of the towns and villages. They just lived a hand to mouth existence and some times even satisfaction of their basic needs was beyond their means.

The survey included 68 families from this group. A family on an average was composed of four adults and three minors, making a total of 5.5 units. There were 108 earning members in the 68 families surveyed.

Most of the families in this group were in debt and very few had savings in the form of provident fund, insurance, etc. The

average occupational income of a family was placed around Rs. 1,360 a year. It was supplemented in case of only nine families by agricultural income which was not substantial. Of the families surveyed, 39 *i.e.*, about 57 per cent were indebted to the extent of about Rs. 650 on an average. Their small incomes forced these families to contract loans to meet their day-to-day requirements.

The average monthly expenditure of a family in this group on food items came to Rs. 106 comprising cereals and pulses Rs. 68; oils, etc., Rs. 12; vegetables, mutton, eggs, etc., Rs. 15 and milk Rs. 11. Besides, these families on an average, spent Rs. 2 each on lighting and entertainment.

A family, on an average, spent about Rs. 120 on clothing, Rs. 12 on religious account and Rs. 60 on medical account every year.

A family in this group spent about 94 per cent of its income which accounted for 84 per cent of its expenditure on food items.

Thus with limited monetary resources at their command, the families in this group did not possess any furniture except a *khat*. Their bedding was also scanty. These families mostly used earthen pots for household purposes. The standard of literacy in this group was also very low as they could not afford the luxury of sending their children to schools when they could earn something and help their parents. However, circumstances have recently improved as many families send their children to schools availing themselves of the free education facility provided by the Government to the families in this income group.

Comparison between the Three Groups.—The families in the first group generally stayed in the houses owned by them in the rural areas and occupied spacious airy tenements in urban areas. The families in the second group generally stayed in their own premises in rural areas and occupied smaller but well ventilated accommodations in urban areas. The families in the third group stayed in huts or in one room tenements.

The mode of apparel of the first as well as of the second group was the same with a slight difference in both the quality and quantity of the apparel used. The families in the first as well as the second group preferred quality clothes. The families in the first group possessed many sets of dresses which was not the case with the second. Families in both these income groups got their clothes stitched to their liking. However, it was altogether a different matter for the families in the third group. Their clothes were scanty and made of coarse cloth. The choice for entertainment of the families in the first and the third group also differed considerably, the choice of the first group being for cinema-shows and dramas against fairs and *lokanatyas* preferred by the third group.

Consumption of milk, to a great extent, was confined to the first and the second group and was a luxury for the third. Consumption of milk products was more common in the first group than in the other two.

The families in the first group spent about 14 per cent of their income on food items and 35 per cent of their total expenditure as against 92 per cent and 84 per cent, respectively, by the families in the third group. The corresponding figures for families in the second group were 33 per cent and 46 per cent.

On the basis of the study of standard of living of different classes of families in Germany, Ernest Engel propounded what is popularly known as Engel's Law of Consumption, incorporating the following conclusions: As income increases the percentage expenditure on food and other necessities of life decreases and *vice versa*.

In keeping with the above economic law, the higher income group spent 20 per cent of their income and 54 per cent of their expenditure on food and other necessities such as clothing. As against this the families in the second income group spent 45 per cent of their income and 58 per cent of their expenditure on food and other necessities. The corresponding figures for families in the third group were 92 per cent and 84 per cent, respectively.

It will thus be seen that a family from the first income group consumed only 20 per cent of its income for food and other necessities while a family from the third income group consumed 80 per cent of its income for food and other necessities. The families in the first group could, therefore, afford a surplus for being utilised towards the consumption of articles of comforts and luxuries.

As against this the second income group spent 45 per cent of their income, and 52 per cent of their expenditure on necessities. These figures were substantially higher as compared to the first group but positively lower in comparison to the third group. As regards literacy, the percentage of literacy in the first and second groups was higher than that in the third group. The lower percentage of literacy in the third group was mainly due to lower incomes.

In keeping with Engel's Law of Consumption the percentage of expenditure on clothing was approximately the same in the case of first and third income groups. It was 14 per cent in the case of the first income group whereas 13 per cent in the case of the third income group.

The composition of necessities, comforts and luxuries also differed in respect of these three income groups. What was a necessity for a family in the first group was a comfort to that in the second group and a luxury to that in the third group. Similarly, an article of necessity for a family in the third group did not necessarily find place in the budget of a family in the first or second group.

Though the items that accounted for the family budget were same for the rural and urban areas, the differences in housing accommodations, the size of household and the literacy standards were bound to result in variations in the living standards of the

respective areas. The following statement shows¹ the proportions of sample households classified by size. Percentage proportions of different types of households are as follows:

(1)	Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)
Single member ..	7.89	7.51	9.83
2-3 members ..	25.18	25.12	25.45
4-6 members ..	44.33	45.18	39.99
7-9 members ..	17.27	17.07	18.29
10 members and more ..	5.33	5.12	6.44
All sizes ..	100.00	100.00	100.00

'Among the different size groups, households with 4 to 6 members are common (44.33 per cent), than others. Single member and small size households are more (35.28 per cent) in urban areas than in rural areas (32.63 per cent). The average size of the household in the district is 4.86. It is 4.85 in rural areas and 4.92 in urban areas.'

The 1961 District Census Hand-book reveals the differences in housing conditions in rural and urban areas of the district.

'Classified by "owned" and "rented" categories 81 per cent of the dwellings in the district are owned and only 19 per cent are rented. The proportion of owned is higher (86 per cent) in rural areas but lower (54 per cent) in urban areas. Even this low proportion of 54 per cent for the urban areas in the district is higher than the average of 30 per cent for all the urban areas of Maharashtra.'

'Classified by the number of rooms occupied, 72.8 per cent households are occupying one-room dwellings and 18.3 per cent are occupying two-room dwellings. The households occupying larger number of rooms are more in urban areas than in rural areas. Average number of persons per room is 3.50 for total, 3.56 for rural, and 3.22 for urban areas.'

The literacy rates of the district have increased since 1951, but yet the differences in literacy percentage for rural and urban areas do exist.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS

Introduction.—Planning in the twentieth century has very well been looked upon as the panacea for all economic evils. Our country has put forth the greatest experiment in this behalf so that today practically every economic activity in the country involves some degree of planning. It includes the efficient exploitation and mobilisation of the resources of the country, increase in production both agricultural and industrial and volume of trade as also refashioning of the socio-economic institutions. Efforts in this behalf are directed towards the wholesome economic take off of the country. For the realisation of the programme the four-tier system including the Panchayat Samiti, the Zilla Parishad,

¹District Census Hand-book, Buldhana, 1961.

the State and the nation which has been evolved, is used. It serves a two-fold purpose: firstly it enables to have democratic decentralisation of power and secondly it facilitates the execution of the welfare programme in the local natural setting by giving the village—India a pivotal importance. Such approach brings harmonious blending of the psychological as well as the social and economic growth of the individuals in the community and of the community itself of the respective region. It helps in reducing the gulf between the local human factor and the natural resources. Such attempt on a large scale after Independence is an unique feature of our developing economy which implies all-round development in the fields of agriculture, industry, trade, commerce, finance and banking, social uplift and rural development.

However, to visualise all-round development of a region or a part thereof in a developing economy within a short period is hasty and unrealistic too. In fact the milieu of the local area must fit in, in the general frame-work of a greater national policy. Naturally a judicious combination between different sectors of economy including rural and urban, industry and transport, agriculture and forestry, etc., form the high lights of regional planning. This necessitates a thorough survey of the local natural resources and any other economic potentialities and also that of cultural environment in the absence of which there is likelihood of the programme drifting away from the people for whom it is launched. The human factor is very important because all the energies and efforts are directed towards making the peoples life happy and prosperous. As such one can expect that all the economic forces should reverberate around the individual. It is in this perspective that an attempt is made in this chapter to locate what the district has in its store to unfold to ameliorate the life of the district and to reach the stage of economic perfection if at all such a stage could be visualised. In the preceding chapters, as it can be seen, an attempt was made to give a descriptive and factual account of the various sectors of the economy of the district. Amongst those are the chapters on agriculture and irrigation, industries, banking and finance, trade, communications and miscellaneous occupations.

It can be seen from the above discussion that for the achievement of economic prosperity two things are essential: the availability of natural resources and the external factors such as capital, skilled labour, machinery and tools, improved techniques and transport facilities. Besides, the socio-economic institutional frame-work, the policies of the governing authorities, the efficiency of the administration and above all the response of the people of the locality, together shape the socio-economic standard and stage of the people and also help in gearing up the economic programme.

Since the publication of the old gazetteer of the district in 1910 many changes have occurred in the administrative set-up and socio-political-economic pattern of the district. The greatest change is that the district now forms one of the administrative

units of the Sovereign Democratic Republic of India. With the reorganisation of States in 1956, the district was transferred from Madhya Pradesh to Bombay State. It forms a part of the Maharashtra State since 1st May 1960. Following the principle of the democratic decentralisation of power, we notice another administrative change in the district. The Panchayat Raj institutions are now entrusted with the function of carrying out the programme of socio-economic development.

The district at present includes the same five tahsils which constituted the district in 1910. The total number of towns has remained the same since 1910, viz., 9. However its area has increased from 3,662 sq. miles in 1910 to 3766 sq. miles in 1961. The total number of villages also increased from 1,159 in 1910 to 1,225 in 1961. These changes are due to the readjustment of district boundaries. Another most important thing to be noted is the prodigious increase in the population of the district. It increased from 6,17,990 in 1901 to 12,62,978 in 1971. Since 1901 the population of the district has increased by 104.37 per cent. This tremendous growth of population is as an important factor in the economy of any district as in that of our nation, as it strikes at the very roots of a developing economy. Of the total population of the district in 1971 the urban population was only 23.87 per cent while the rural population was as high as 76.13 per cent. This again shows how the problem of economic development revolves around the rural population of the district. Naturally the problems of communications, agricultural and industrial production, health and above all educating the ruralites and changing their attitude to accept a new deal—all connected with the rural population elsewhere in the country, are found in this district also.

Taking into account the elevations and depressions of the country the district can be divided into two broad natural zones, the Payanghat zone and the Balaghat zone. The former includes Malkapur, Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils while the latter comprises Mehkar and Chikhli tahsils. The Payanghat division has fertile soil, moderate rainfall and hot weather. It grows mainly cotton and jowar. The Balaghat zone has hilly lands, forests, cool climate and shallow soils. This region grows cotton, jowar, pulses and bajri on the uplands and wheat in fertile soils. The Purna alluvium and the Deccan trap are the only two geological formations that are found in the district. The alluvium occupies a stretch of low-lying ground where the Purna crosses the northern part of the district.

In the light of the facts above stated an analysis of the economic trends in production, distribution, economic planning, prices, wages, etc., is necessary as a guideline for development planning. Such an analysis would also be interesting and useful as it would describe the economic prospects of a unit like a district.

AGRARIAN ECONOMY

With 76.13 per cent of the total population of the district residing in rural areas agriculture is the main pursuit of the people of the district. The percentage of the working population engaged in cultivation and agricultural labour is still higher as it stands at 85.32 per cent in 1971. This shows lack of opportunity of alternative employment in industry in the district. The most striking feature is that the proportion of agricultural labourers in the district, viz. 51.72 per cent is considerably higher than that of State average viz., 29.33 per cent. Even the proportions of workers engaged in trade and commerce and other services are significantly of lower order. Naturally the study of economic prospects of this district amounts to the study of its agro-economic structure.

The basic factors such as types and formation of soils, land utilisation, important crops grown, irrigational facilities, manures, soil conservation, livestock, improved techniques, financial assistance and the agrarian structure and reforms which together contribute to the agricultural development play a pivotal role in the agrarian economy.

The richest soil of the district locally known as *bharkali* is found in the valley of the Purna. The soils on the southern plateau are medium deep and contain fair amount of lime, those on the higher elevation are reddish brown and shallow with *murum* layer below and on still higher elevations coarse soils locally known as *barad* or *murmad* are also found. Though from the changes in the classification of land utilisation and in the district boundaries it is not possible to determine if there has been any shift in the pattern of land utilisation over about 50 years the situation of land utilisation as it stood at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of 20th century and that which existed in 1964-65 could be broadly considered. The net cropped area in 1894-95 was 16,41,487 acres which decreased to 15,52,490 acres in 1907-08. In 1906-07 the cropped area was 16,59,352, the highest figure reached since 1892-93. The decline in the cropped area was due to the famine years. In 1964-65 the net area sown was 16,97,318 acres. However, in 1959-60 the net sown was 17,11,098 acres, and it might be taken as the highest figure till now. Of the total area occupied for cultivation a total of 3,01,935 acres were under fallows in 1894-95 and the same increased to 3,88,122 acres in 1907-08. According to the new classification of land utilization the land under fallows is divided into current and other fallows. Thus in 1964-65 land under current fallows was 20,189 and that under other fallows was 86,982 acres. The land under forests in 1964-65 was 3,00,472 acres which has remained more or less constant since 1956-57. It can thus be seen that there is some scope to increase the acreage under cultivation in the district. The only major factor which will contribute to the increase is contraction of the forests. But this will result in a serious loss of forests, less rainfall and soil erosion. The area under cultivation can also be increased by reducing the fallow land. But in this case also there is some limit to the adoption of this process.

In the circumstances the only course left is to follow an intensive approach to the agrarian economy of the district. It is with this intention that the present agricultural development programme is being executed through the agencies like grampanchayats, panchayat samitis and the zilla parishad. Its main object is to change the attitude of the cultivators who have been traditional in their ways and to make them aware of the improved techniques in agriculture and thereby to increase the agricultural output. The draft of the Second Five Year Plan of Buldhana district rightly stresses, 'The potentialities of agricultural development lie mainly in getting increased production from lands already under cultivation. This can be done by intensive research in evolving high yielding strains, increase of minor irrigation facilities including wells, soil and soil moisture conservation, adoption of improved methods of cultivation, and increased use of improved seeds, judicious use of manures and fertilizers and adequate precaution against pests and diseases.' These various aspects of intensive cultivation have already been in operation in the district, a few important among which are described in the following paragraphs.

Improved Seeds.—Use of appropriate strains of crops suitable for the tract is one of the important measures that enhance the agricultural production. The Agricultural Research Station at Buldhana, established in 1928 has been rendering extremely useful service in this behalf. Research is made here on cotton as principal crop and chillis, groundnut and sugarcane as subsidiary crops. Besides improved varieties of crops evolved at various other research stations the hybrid seeds are also recommended. Thus for *kharif* jowar N.J. 156, N.J. 165; for wheat Hy. 65-4; for groundnut A. K. 12-24; for cotton A. K. 277, Buri L. 147, Buri-O 394 and for gram D-28 and chafa are recommended by the agriculture department. The nine seed farms established in the district multiply the improved strains and provide them to farmers. The following statement gives distribution¹ of improved seeds from 1962-63 to 1965-66.

Improved seeds (1)	Distribution of improved seeds			
	1962-63 (2)	1963-64 (3)	1964-65 (4)	1965-66 (5)
Wheat (Hy. 65-4) ..	825 mds.	2,200 mds.	1,190 q.	4,775 q.
Jowar (N. J. 156 and Savner) ..	9,525 mds.	13,100 mds.	140 q.	387 q.
Cotton Buri L. 147 ..	5,579 mds.	1,725 mds.	N.A.	N.A.
A. K. 277 ..	10,047 mds.	6,391 mds.	N.A.	N.A.
Groundnut A. K. 12-24 ..	734 q.	169 q.	N.A.	N.A.

Irrigation.—If improved seeds help in increasing the outturn of irrigated crops, other things being equal irrigation provides assurance to the yield. It also increases the agricultural output to a very great extent. Irrigation in the district depends mostly on irrigation wells which numbered 14,151 in 1964-65. The area

¹ These figures have been taken from the annual progress reports published by the Buldhana Zilla Parishad.

irrigated under these wells was 30,173 acres. Agriculturists now-a-days have developed a liking for oil-engines to lift water from the wells. In 1964-65 such oil-engines numbered 1108. However, irrigation works including small, medium and major are making a headway especially after having launched the Five Year Plans. At present 16 medium irrigation works including the major project of Nalganga have been completed in the district. The irrigational potential under these works is 31,817 acres. Two medium irrigation works with an irrigation potential of 10,920 acres are in progress. Besides, small irrigation works which are entrusted with the Zilla Parishad, each irrigating 220 acres and below there are 18 with an irrigational potential of 2,560 acres. There is thus scope to have more small irrigational works in the district and if the scheme like *vasant bandhara* is implemented with proper and prompt surveys it would augment the agricultural output. Moreover such a scheme would bring under its fold a large number of small agriculturists.

Fertilizers.—Amongst others, improved seeds and fertilizers are the outcome of the agricultural researches which are now-a-days conditioned by the great demand for agricultural output. Fertilizers also have an equal importance in the agricultural development programme. It is the periodical application of fertilizers and manures which maintains the fertility of the soil. Now the pivotal importance of manures and fertilizers is an accepted fact and the problem has to be tackled both on the executive and educative sides. The proper and timely distribution of sufficient amount of fertilizers are factors of prime importance. For this the distributive agencies should be very prompt and alert. The details regarding the sale of fertilizers, storage, etc., should be well planned and thought over. Again gaining of confidence of the large mass of small cultivators to make use of the fertilizers is very important. Herein lies the importance of providing training and making propaganda amongst the cultivators. The panchayat samitis and the zilla parishad organise village leaders' training camps and study tours of farmers. The use of fertilizers and the method of cultivating the improved seeds are also demonstrated. The following statement gives distribution¹ of fertilizers in the district from 1962-63 to 1965-66:—

(figures in tons)

Fertilizers (1)	Distribution of Fertilizers			
	1962-63 (2)	1963-64 (3)	1964-65 (4)	1965-66 (5)
Ammonium sulphat ..	3,245	4,783	3,642	5,285
Superphosphate ..	732	35	1,285	1,935
Ammonium sulphate nitrate ..	192	114	502	844
Nitrophosphate ..	136	122	813	2,678
Urea ..	143	345	1,093	1,536
Calcium ammonium sulphate ..	..	..	742	121
Mixture ..	..	..	501	700

¹ The figures have been taken from the annual progress reports of the Buldhana Zilla Parishad.

Prospective Crops.—A judicious combination of the above described aspects of agricultural development will go a long way in increasing the outturn of both food and non-food crops. From the view point of economic prosperity as conditioned by agriculture in the district it is necessary to consider the prospects of such cash crops as groundnut, cotton, sugarcane, etc.

Groundnut: The cultivation of this oil-crop has been slowly increasing since 1910. The old Gazetteer of the district does not describe it as an important crop and refers to it under the general term as other crops. It was then raised as a garden crop on *morandi* soil. The varieties then grown included the local and *khandeshi*. If the period from 1956-57 to 1964-65 is taken into account it will be seen that a large acreage has been brought under this crop. In 1962-63 the total acreage under this crop was 91,190 acres—being the highest during the period. The outturn of this crop, however, was 22,563 tons in that year. The same was 24,125 tons in 1961-62. This might be because of vagaries of nature upon which the whole agricultural structure depends. The crop is commercially important as it gives both oil and cattle-feed. The prerequisites to raise this crop do exist in the district. Only the large class of cultivators will have to be guided in a proper perspective.

Cotton: Cotton is by far the most important cash crop of the district. It was so even before 60 years. In 1907-08 the area under this crop was 6,61,637 or 43 per cent of the cropped area of the district and according to the old Gazetteer this area had possibly almost reached its maximum. The average percentage for three years from 1957-58 to 1959-60 shows that cotton occupied 36.63 per cent of the gross cropped area. This might be due to the corresponding increase in the total gross cropped area. In 1964-65 the area under cotton was 6,69,341 acres. This may be taken as the highest possible acreage under the crop. However, there can be two alternatives to increase the production of the crop. One is to grow cotton on light inferior soils and secondly, to evolve improved varieties of the crop. For raising the crop on inferior soils more irrigational and other facilities will be required. Formerly the varieties like *jari* (*kati Vilayati*), *bani* (*Hinganghat* or *Ghat kapas*) and upland Georgian were grown. The *buri*, an American upland variety of cotton was then newly introduced in the district. At present the improved varieties like A. K. 277; Buri L. 147, Buri—O. 394 are recommended by the agriculture department.

Sugarcane: This is also another equally important cash crop. In 1907-08 it covered an area of 1,074 acres. It is chiefly grown as a garden crop. Since 1956-57 the area under this crop has been slowly increasing. In 1956-57 sugarcane was grown over an area of 1,585 acres while in 1964-65 it increased to 3,470 acres. With the increased irrigational facilities it is likely that more area will be brought under the crop.

Agricultural Marketing.—The draft of the Second Five-Year Plan of the district has rightly observed when it says as follows:

'Development of regulated markets, organisation of co-operative marketing of purchase and sale unions and provision of a net-work of warehousing facilities are important parts of the integrated programme of improving agricultural economy'. Mere increase in agricultural production without its corresponding reward to the cultivator in the form of better prices through an organised market will curb the incentive to an enlightened farmer. In the past the illiterate agriculturists who did not know market conditions and price fluctuations in such markets, were placed at the mercy of moneylenders and middlemen who used to adopt mal-practices. Whatever surplus an agriculturist produced was sold either in the weekly markets or the itinerant buyers who then used to go round the villages bought the agricultural produce to be sold at good prices in the distant markets. The other aspect of the problem was that the majority of the cultivators who were already burdened with debt were compelled to sell a large portion of the total crop or sometimes the entire crop to the moneylenders who used to give loans to cultivators and to recover the same at exorbitant rates of interest.

The state of affairs which then pervaded all over the country attracted the attention of the rulers and the result was the appointment of various enquiry committees, such as the Banking Enquiry Committee, the Provincial Banking Committee, Bombay Banking Enquiry Committee, etc. Besides, a Rural Credit Survey was also conducted. All such enquiries ultimately led to the passing of various enactments which gave importance to the questions connected with transport facilities, marketing organisations, etc., which in turn helped to improve the financial condition of the agriculturists. The first such step was taken when the Central Provinces and Berar Cotton Markets Act of 1932 was passed. This enactment sought to regulate the trade in cotton, and was subsequently amended in 1937. The marketing of foodgrains was regulated under the Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1935. These enactments were followed by the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Produce Markets (Amendment) Act in 1954. After the merger of Vidarbha region, the Maharashtra Government decided to have a unified enactment for the various regions in the State, and passed the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act in 1963.¹

There are eight wholesale trade centres which are regulated under the above referred Acts as far as collection and export of agricultural produce are concerned. They are: (1) Mehkar, (2) Nandura, (3) Malkapur, (4) Chikhli, (5) Shegaon, (6) Jalgaon, (7) Deulgaon Raja, and (8) Khamgaon. The commodities regulated at these centres are cotton and other agricultural produce. The cotton market at Khamgaon ranks second in the State. In order to prevent distress sale of agricultural produce, nine godowns have been constructed by the State Warehousing Corpora-

¹ For detail's see Chapter 6, Section II, Regulated Markets.

tion in the district. These storage facilities are further supplemented by the large size godowns at Khamgaon and Malkapur belonging to the State Warehousing Corporation. The warehouses are very much in the interest of the agriculturists. They also saved the agriculturists from the clutches of the excessive number of middlemen who intervened between the cultivators and the final disposer of the crop and thereby avoiding the incidental loss that the agriculturists had to incur. One more thing may be noted and that is regarding the monopoly procurement of jowar by the Government which has been introduced in the district since 1964. Under this system Government purchases the commodity at a predetermined price.

TRANSPORT FACILITIES¹

It is said that culture follows communications. As a corollary it would not be wrong to add that any kind of development or ameliorating activities, be it agrarian or industrial, depends to a very large extent on the availability of a network of good roads and railway routes. In fact they serve as nerves in connecting the production centres with the marketing centres. In the absence of a good network of roads and railways, the agro-industrial development naturally suffers from a handicap. In this regard Buldhana district is fairly served by roads. It is well connected by roads with the adjoining districts of Jalgaon, Aurangabad, Parbhani, Akola, Yeotmal, etc. The district headquarters is also connected by roads to all the tahsil headquarters and trading centres. In the district, transport by road is more important than that by railways. The total railway mileage in the district is only 52.64 miles. The railway traverses from west to east in the northern portion of the district. This broad gauge line connects only four important trading centers, viz., Malkapur, Nandura, Khamgaon and Shegaon. The total road mileage of the district as on 31st March 1966 was 1,246.12 km of which 59.39 per cent was water bound macadam, 29.53 per cent back-topped, 9.41 per cent was of lower types and 2.01 per cent was of granular material. Khamgaon and Buldhana are the two State transport depots from where 69 routes are in operation covering 3,476.7 km. The Surat-Jalgaon-Malkapur-Khamgaon-Nagpur national highway passes through the district for 66.54 miles. Besides, there are seven state highways in the district. Further expansion of the roads is expected during years to come.

FORESTS

The total area under forests in the district was 115616 hectares in 1971-72. Of this 106355 hectares were under reserved forests while 11732 hectares were protected forests. The forests are mainly situated on the Balaghat plateau of the Ajanta hills and in the Purna Valley. Forests as source of economic raw materials however are less important in the district. The forest products are timber and firewood. Of this teak is most important. It is mainly

¹For details see Chapter 7.

transported to Aurangabad and Bombay. Temburni leaves, rosa oil and gum are the minor forest products. There are no forest based industries in the district. Forest produce worth about Rs. 5 lakhs is exploited annually. Efforts are, however, made to improve forests in the district. A number of schemes have been included in the Five Year Plans for the development of forests. Amongst others these schemes include plantation of teak, semal and eucalyptus afforestation.

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

The co-operative movement is an important socio-economic interaction. This movement as it stands today has brought under its fold every village in the district. It has many aspects. It pervades in almost all the economic sectors of the district giving benefits to the agriculturists-small and big, to entrepreneurs in their small and large enterprises and even to those who are engaged in non-agro-industrial activities. It gives a good incentive to produce more and also provides just and profitable marketing of agricultural produce.

This movement if worked in the spirit and letter of the principles of co-operation by the workers who are directly or indirectly connected with it, through service and self-surrender, can play an unusually important role in elevating the social structure as a whole to a very high altitude. However much remains to be done in this behalf. The quantitative or organisational aspect of the co-operative movement in the district especially after the attainment of Independence has reached its climax. Besides agricultural credit, the co-operative activities are now extended to processing of agricultural products, dairying, farming, marketing, etc. In addition to the financial activities, a good deal of progress has also been made by agricultural credit societies in the sphere of services to agriculturists such as distribution of agricultural requisites (like seeds, manure, etc.), marketing of agricultural produce etc. The credit requirements are fulfilled by the Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank, the Buldhana District Land Development Bank, the Buldhana District Industrial Co-operative Bank and Urban Banks. The other types of co-operative societies in the district are agricultural processing societies, industrial societies, forest labourers' societies, labour contract societies, co-operative farming societies, co-operative lift irrigation societies, dairy societies, produce and sales societies, housing societies, etc.

INDUSTRIALISATION UP TO 1910

Industrial activities in the district prior to 1910 were very insignificant. As pointed out earlier not less than 74 per cent of the population was engaged in agriculture. Though cotton was a great product of the district, there was not a single cotton mill. Ginning and pressing factories for processing the raw product for export were in existence. This was carried with the hand gins,

Note.—For details regarding membership, finance, etc., see section I of Chapter 6.
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hath-recha, which numbered 13,839 in 1897. But the number of gins showed a sharp decline, there being only 1,605 in 1908. The first cotton press was set up at Shegaon in 1868 by the Mofussil Company with a capital of Rs. 10 lakhs, and the same company opened another press at Khamgaon in 1872. The Cotton Press Company in 1871, and the New French Company in 1873, opened presses at Khamgaon, and Ralli Brothers did the same at Shegaon in 1873. The number of factories then remained unchanged till the end of 1886. In the next four years the number gradually increased to 12, and by 1900 it had reached 24. A great development took place in the next seven years, no less than 41 factories being erected.

The industrial survey which was conducted in 1908 pointed out that whatever rural industries then existed were fast losing ground. One of the reasons was that they could not compete with the machine made articles. The workers were found to be indebted and in the habit of buying their raw material on credit at rates of interest as high as 2 or 3 per cent per mensem. The silk industry then completely disappeared. In 1897 there were 1,339 cotton looms in the district. Their number also slowly decreased. Previously all the processes from the raw product to the finished article were performed in the district, but since the advent of the railway, thread had ceased to be spun locally and only the imported article was used. *Khadi*, *passodi*, *dhoti*, *dupatta*, *saris*, *pagris*, etc., were manufactured in the district. In 1908 there were 395 woollen looms as against 732 in 1897. There was only one oil mill of which the motive power was steam. It was established at Shegaon in 1891-92. The local oil presses, *tel-ghanis*, were managed by *telis*. Such oil presses in 1897 numbered 867. This number also decreased to 257 in 1908.

Recent growth of Industries.—From the above discussion it can be seen that whatever industrial development had taken place in the district prior to 1910 was mainly in areas where industrial climate was more congenial and where economic facilities including transport, power, promotional capital, skilled workers, etc., were easily available. This holds good even in the present days and which accounts for intensive industrial activities in places like Khamgaon, Malkapur, Shegaon, etc. However, the nature and composition of industries even after fifty years did not change very widely so as to cover a variety of industrial sectors. The industrial development of the district still depends largely upon cotton and a limited quantity of oil seeds. The district does not possess minerals or forest resources to a remarkable extent. In 1961 there were 44 large-scale factories, 36 of which were of cotton and ginning and pressing. There were 86 small-scale registered factories in 1956, but the number decreased to 55 in 1961. In 1964, there were 49 cotton ginning and baling factories in the district and one each of basic chemicals and fertilizers, besides electrical machinery, tobacco and metal. There were 224 looms out of which 177 and 47 were hand operated and power operated, respectively, located at 5 centres during 1965-66. All these looms

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were established in Chikhli and Malkapur tahsils only. They produced 57.08 crores of metres of cloth with average daily employment of 232 workers. According to the data collected in the Annual Survey of Industries in 1966 the value of productive capital of the factories was roughly of the order of Rs. 1.88 crores and the value added by manufacture was of Rs. 39 lakhs in the district. Under the circumstances the development of industries in the district is limited to the growth of a few large scale and the rest to small scale industries and that too of an agro-industrial nature.

PRICE TRENDS¹

Berar was not properly opened to the outside world till about 1862-63, and the feature of the prices¹ before that date was their immense fluctuation from year to year. The isolation of the country owing to the absence of railways and roads resulted in extraordinary low prices in good years, and extraordinary high prices in bad years; the figures were the result of purely local conditions, and could not be compared with commercial quotations in the outside world. A general rise of prices took place throughout India about 1860. The resources of the country began to be developed by the construction of roads and railways, while the American Civil War of 1861—65 gave an immense stimulus to the extension of cotton cultivation. There was also a large influx of the precious metals.

Jowar, the staple food grain of the district, was sold at 64 seers a rupee in 1853, the year of the cession of Berar to the British. During the next seven years the rate varied from 49 to 53 seers. The average rate at Jalgaon between 1856 and 1861 was 46 seers; in 1859-60 it was sold at 80 seers a rupee in the Chikhli market the low rate probably being due to the lack of communications in that tahsil. The following statement gives the average price of jowar which prevailed during the four decades between 1861 and 1900.

Decade	Price of jowar per rupee in seers of 80 tolas
(1)	(2)
1861—70	22
1871—80	24
1881—90	28
1891—1900	20

Prices steadily fell during the three decades between 1861 and 1890, but in the fourth decade the fall was arrested by the intervention of the two famines of 1896-97 and of 1899-1900. The price had never returned to its low rate and during the seven years ending 1907 the average rate was a little over 20 seers.

¹The account of price trends from 1853 to 1908 is based on the account given in the old Buldhana District Gazetteer published in 1910.

Wheat, mainly grown in Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils, was sold at an average rate of 30 seers in 1853-54, and during the next seven years the rate varied between 30 and 54 seers in the up ghat tahsils, and between 28 and 48 seers in the plain tahsils. For the two decades ending 1880 the price of wheat remained almost constant at 14 seers. The next decade witnessed a considerable fall, the average rate being a little over 19 seers. Since 1891 prices fluctuated between 6 and 17 seers a rupee, the two famine years the decrease of the area under *rabi* owing to the extension of cotton cultivation being responsible for the increase rates.

In 1853-54, 49 seers of gram could be obtained for a rupee; in 1859-60 this was reduced to 29 seers, and in 1869-70 to 11 seers. During the decade ending in 1880 the average price of gram was 16 seers; it was cheaper in the next decade, averaging 20 seers. The price went up in the period from 1890 to 1900, and averaged 14 seers. Since 1900 the price did not vary much but in 1907 the rate was as high as 10 seers.

Rice, chiefly imported from the Central Provinces, was sold at the rate of 19 seers per rupee in 1853-54, and varied from 12 to 6 seers during the subsequent years of the 19th century. In 1906 and 1907 the rates were 9 and 8 seers, respectively. The two famines of 1896-97 and 1899-1900, inflated the price of *bajri* and was sold at about Rs. 3 and annas 11 per maund in 1907, 20 per cent higher than of the previous decade. The price of *tur* went up by over 30 per cent in the last decade of the century, and the rate varied between 9 and 10 seers in 1907. Linseed, grown chiefly for export, was sold at 5½ to 6 seers a rupee or Rs. 6-8 to Rs. 7-8-0 per maund in 1908. The average rate during the decade ending 1902-03 was Rs. 4 to Rs. 5-14 a maund. Til, an important oil seed of the district fluctuated between Rs. 4-9-4 and 5-14-4 per maund during the ten years ending 1900-1901, except the famine year 1899-1900. The price in 1908 was Rs. 9 per maund, 27 per cent higher than that paid in 1899-1900.

The price of salt was nearly 16 seers per rupee during the three years ending 1863. There was a sudden rise to 12 seers in 1864, and during the next six years the price varied from 6 to 10 seers. There was a gradual fall between 1871 and 1877, the rate varying from 7 to 11 seers. In 1878 the duty of Rs. 3 per maund was lowered to Rs. 2-8-0, and to Rs. 2 in 1882, which was raised to Rs. 2-8-0 in 1888, and reduced to Rs. 2 in 1903, and to Rs. 1-8-0 in 1905. The retail rates varied with the duty. During the decade ending 1887 the price fluctuated between 8 and 11 seers; between 1887 and 1897 prices varied from 9 to 10 seers; from 1898 to 1903, the price was about 10 seers, and thence forward there had been a continuous fall, the average rate in 1908 being 15 seers. Gur, was manufactured in the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils, but the bulk of it was imported from the adjoining districts of Hyderabad. It was sold at a retail price of 5 seers a rupee. The retail price of ghee was Re. 1 per seer, and that for a maund Rs. 40. Milk could be obtained for 8 seers a rupee. Mirzapuri sugar was sold at the rate of 2½ seers a rupee; the Mauritius sugar was cheaper,

4½ seers a rupee. Oil was locally manufactured, and was also imported in large quantities from Hyderabad districts. Its retail price was 2¼ seers a rupee, and its wholesale price was Rs. 16 a maund. Chillies could be bought at 4 seers a rupee. A bottle of kerosene oil was sold for 2 annas, a tin at this rate fetching about Rs. 2-12-0. A cartload of firewood costed about Rs. 2-8-0 above the ghat, and from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 in the plain tahsils. Ginning and pressing factories bought *babul*-wood at the rate of Rs. 12 to Rs. 16 per ton. *Karbi* or jowar stalks costed from Rs. 8 to Rs. 4 per hundred bundles above the ghat, and from Rs. 12 to Rs. 6 below the ghat, the highest rate prevailing at the end of the hot weather. Cotton seed, which was used as a cattle fodder, was sold at 16 seers a rupee, and sometimes at 20 or 24 seers a rupee. Plough bullocks could be obtained at from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 a pair in the plain country, and at from Rs. 60 to Rs. 80 above the ghat. A sheep was sold at Rs. 2 or Rs. 2-8-0.

The wealth of the district was derived from the cotton crop, and it was on the price obtained for this commodity that the fortunes of the cultivator depended. Between 1855 and 1861, the average price of cotton on the tableland included in the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils was Rs. 9-7 per maund, and in the Jalgaon tahsil, for which alone the statistics are available, Rs. 8-5-0 per maund. After 1861 the price of cotton was enormously inflated by the American War. For the next five years the average price of a maund of cotton in the Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils was Rs. 36, and in the Jalgaon tahsil Rs. 25-12-0. The normal price was not reached till 1868. Since then, with occasional variations, the price per maund above the ghats had been about Rs. 13 and below Rs. 15 or Rs. 16. The prices fluctuated between Rs. 18 and Rs. 20 per maund at the beginning of this century. The price for raw cotton was however Rs. 47 per *khandi* or Rs. 6-11-5 per maund.

It could be seen from the above that the trend of prices till 1910 shows fluctuations mainly due to the lack of communications and scarcity or famine conditions and its chief determinants, *viz.*, demand and supply. However, from the first quarter of twentieth century onwards the war gave an unusual swing to the price mechanism. For example, during the first World War and the years that followed prices in general went up remarkably. In the subsequent years the whole picture underwent a radical change and the world had to face the Great Depression of 1930's. It did affect the international trade which in turn disturbed the economies of different countries including India. The crisis in the international markets adversely affected the prices of agricultural produce as there was considerable fall in the prices in the Indian markets. Things, however, improved from 1933 when there was a revival of prices and demand for agricultural produce. Again

in 1939 and during the subsequent years of the Second World War an overall shortage of consumers goods was felt which resulted into remarkably discernible rise in the prices of consumers goods. The Government then introduced rationing of consumers goods like cereals, oils, sugar, etc. However prices then showed a downward trend. The Korean War later on proved to be a boom but it was only for a short period. During the period between 1953 and 1955 the increase in agricultural production controlled the prices. But the subsequent four years witnessed an unusual higher trend in prices. Again the good harvests of 1960-61 and of the following year brought down the prices. Later on with the outbreak of hostilities with China in 1962 and with Pakistan in 1965, the country suffered greatly economically.

The price trend of consumers goods and other goods in the district between 1962 and 1964 as elaborated by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics can be reviewed as follows. The retail price of rice which is mostly imported from other districts was Rs. 1.10 per kg in November 1962. It rose up to Rs. 1.20 per kg in December 1963. The average price of medium variety of wheat in November 1962 was 58 paise per kg. It rose to 62 paise in December 1963. Jowar cost 30 paise per kg during November 1963, but its price fell from February 1963 to September 1963 and was as low as 25 paise per kg from February 1963 to April 1963. Afterwards it went up to 36 paise per kg during December 1963. Pulses such as gram and arhar which were sold at 62 paise and 75 paise per kg respectively, in November 1962 were sold at 67 paise and 88 paise per kg. respectively in December 1963. Thus it showed a rise of 5 paise and 13 paise per kg, respectively, over a year. In the rural markets rice of medium variety was sold at 62 paise per kg in November 1962. Its price rose to 81 paise per kg in December 1963. The prices of sugar were controlled by the State Government, and varied between Rs. 1.19 and Rs. 1.24 per kg. The prices of groundnut oil and gur fluctuated much. The price of gur was Re. 1 per kg in November 1962 and rose to Rs. 1.53 per kg in September 1963. The prices of goatmeat and eggs in the district market were more or less constant at Rs. 3 per kg and Rs. 1.87 per dozen. The price of tobacco (leaf) was between Rs. 4 and Rs. 5.

The prices of consumers goods in 1965 showed increasing trend. The Government, under the monopoly procurement, had fixed the prices of paddy at Rs. 45, Rs. 50, Rs. 55 and Rs. 60 per quintal for coarse, medium, superior and superior fine varieties, respectively, and that of rice were fixed at Rs. 69 for coarse, Rs. 76.55 for medium, Rs. 83.70 for superior and Rs. 90.80 per quintal for the superior fine varieties. The subjoined statement¹ presents the

¹ Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Govt. of Maharashtra, Bombay.

retail prices of some important commodities per kg at district headquarters during 1964 and 1965:—

Commodity (1)	Average for the year		Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) (4)
	1964 (2)	1965 (3)	
Rice (coarse)	0.79	N.A.	
Wheat (coarse)	0.87	1.13	(+) 29.9
Jowar	0.50	N.A.	
Gram pulse	0.96	1.58	(+) 64.6
Arhar pulse	1.18	1.18	
Gur	1.18	0.87	(—) 26.3
Groundnut oil	2.53	4.41	(+) 74.3
Vanaspati oil	3.58	6.62	(+) 84.9

WAGES

Farm-Servants.—“Farm-servants are usually hired for period of not less than a year, the agricultural year from June to May being the period fixed. Wages are either paid in cash or a combination of cash, food and perquisites. In the former case the yearly wage varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 60, a specially good man sometimes getting as much as Rs. 65. Payments are sometimes made monthly, and sometimes half the annual wage is advanced at the beginning of the year, and the balance is paid at the close of the year. The combination wage is known as *khaun piun pach pangrun ane thevila* ‘meal, drink, five articles of dress and keep’, Rs. 30 or Rs. 40 being paid in cash with the addition of a pair of *dhotis*, a pair of shoes, one blanket, one turban, and one scarf of the total value of about Rs. 7, and daily rations of *juari* and pulse estimated to cost about Rs. 2½ a month. The practice of paying servants entirely in cash is said to be gradually replacing the older custom of the combined wage. The wives of farm-servants do not necessarily work for their husbands’ master. The custom of giving presents to servants at certain festivals does not prevail, but in the Malkapur taluk, and to a less extent in the Khamgaon and Jalgaon taluks during the sowing time, servants are fed by their employers in addition to their ordinary wages. Each village usually employs a grazer (*guraki*) for pasturing the village cattle, and he is paid at the rate of 2 annas for a cow and from 4 annas to 6 annas for a buffalo per month. The grazer is responsible for providing additional hands, if the herd is too large for one man. The owners of large herds sometimes employ a private grazer, who is paid from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 a month. Plough bullocks are not sent with the village cattle, but usually grazed by their owners on the fields and field boundaries. All grazing dues are paid by the owners. A separate servant is always employed for watching the crops, and his pay varies from Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 a month; small cultivators sometimes combine to keep one watchman for their fields. Farm-servants frequently change their employment, few remaining for more than three years in one place. In the last 40 years their wages are said to have doubled.

Agricultural Labourers.—Weeding is usually done by women, and they are paid at a rate of from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas a day, or in grain at the prevailing rate according to their choice. When the rainfall is excessive and weeds are numerous, the general practice is to get the weeding done by contract. A party of men or women agree to clear an area of 5 acres for a sum fixed according to the work to be done. Under these contracts labourers can earn as much as 5 or 6 annas a day. Cotton-picking is also done by women, the Kunbis having a superstitious predilection in favour of this method. The cotton-pickings begin in November, and a good crop provides three pickings. Payment is made in kind, and the rate is from one-twentieth to one-tenth of the cotton collected. If the rate for the first picking is one-twentieth, that for the second would be one-tenth. The rate for the final picking is sometimes as much as one-half, as only a small quantity can be collected. As each woman finishes her task, she carries her load to the appointed place where the owner is in waiting, and each bundle is ranged with the picker seated near. The owner then divides the loads into the stipulated number of shares and tells the picker to choose one as her portion. This practice of payment in kind has a tendency to lead to an increase in cotton thefts, and to avoid this, the cultivators of some villages of the Malkapur taluk have introduced the custom of purchasing the cotton that falls to the share of the picker at its market value, thus substituting payment in cash for payment in kind. There is very little wheat in the District except in the Mehkar and Chikhli taluks. A harvester gets from 15 to 20 per cent. of the sheaves, and if he cuts 40 sheaves daily, he earns between 2 and 3 seers of wheat of the value of 4 or 5 annas. The cutting is done by men and strong women. Fallen ears are picked up by women and small children, who receive from one-third to one-half of the collections. The harvesting of gram is carried on in much the same way as that of wheat. In the case of *juari* the men cut the stalks (*songni*), and the women cut off and collect the heads (*khudne*). The women are invariably paid in kind, a basketful of heads equivalent to two or three seers being their portion; in the three plain taluks the men are paid in cash at the rate of 3 or 4 annas a day, but in the upland taluks of Mehkar and Chikhli they are paid in kind, a man's wage being almost three times that of a woman. It is calculated that on an average a quarter of the *juari* crop is paid in wages and harvesting.

Other Labourers.—The wages paid by the Public Works and Forest Departments can be ascertained with more accuracy than those paid by the general public. The wage of an ordinary male labourer for work such as metal-breaking, quarrying, digging earth, and the like, varies from 5 to 6 annas a day. Women earn from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas a day, and boys or girls 2 annas a day. *Chaukidars* or watchmen are employed at a monthly wage of Rs. 7. A native engine driver is paid Rs. 50 a month by the Public Works Department, and the same Department employs masons at 12 annas or 14 annas a day, carpenters at 14 annas or Re. 1 a day, blacksmiths at 14 annas a day, tailors at 10 annas or 12 annas a day,

thatchers at 10 annas a day, painters at 8 annas or 12 annas a day, and firemen at 12 annas a day. The Forest Department for grass-cutting and wood-cutting pays male labourers 3 annas, women 2 annas, and boys or girls 1 anna a day. The latter rates are somewhat higher in the Jalgaon taluk on account of the scarcity of labour; and there a male labourer can earn 4 annas and a woman 3 annas a day. Skilled workmen in the factories are paid as follows: Fitter Rs. 40 a month, blacksmiths from Rs. 25 to 30, carpenter Rs. 25, boilerman and engine-driver Rs. 15 to Rs. 20, oilmen Rs. 9 to Rs. 12, roller-cutters Rs. 8 to Rs. 11; *chuprassies* at factories get from Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 a month, and watchmen Rs. 8. The wages paid for unskilled labour in factories are somewhat higher than elsewhere as the work is harder. Men are paid at rates varying from 5 annas to 8 annas a day, and there is said to be some difficulty in getting labour even at these rates. Women earn from 3 to 4 annas a day. The rates have risen within the last five years; the old rates were men 4 or 5 annas a day and women 2 annas a day¹.

It can be observed that about three fourth of the labourers' class in the district used to seek their livelihood in agriculture and its allied activities. Even now in the later half of the twentieth century the circumstances are more or less the same for want of adequate employment opportunities in non-agricultural sector of the economy.

The 1961 Census enumerated 228,429 persons as agricultural labourers. Generally wages respond to changing trends in the price level. The rates of wages fluctuate alongwith the fluctuations in prices. Thus, at the time of First and Second World Wars alongwith the high trend of prices the wage rates also showed increasing trends, while the great depression in-between the two wars forced down both the wages and prices. In spite of this, the wages in general prior to 1910 compared with those prevailing now were very low. It may however be observed that wages do not move as fast as the changes taking place in prices and have a tendency to lag behind. This is mainly because the factors that cause changes in prices are unforeseen, sudden and unpredictable and cannot be compared with those that influence the labour and incidentally the wage market. However labour today is an organised force to be reckoned with and the activities of the labour organisations have forced up the level of wages in recent time more or less on par with the price level. The table on page 586 gives wage rates² in Buldhana district in 1965 and 1966.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The Community Development programme had covered almost all the rural area and population of the district by the end of the year 1966-67. At the end of the year 1966-67 there were 4.00 blocks in stage—I, 4.50 blocks in stage—II and 5.00 blocks in post stage—II stages.

¹ Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldhana District, 1910, Vol. A, pp. 243—47.

² Source: District Statistical Abstract, Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra.

TABLE No. 1
AGRICULTURAL WAGE RATES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1965 AND 1966

Category	Dongaon Centre				Deulghat Centre				Asalgaon Centre			
	1965		1966		1965		1966		1965		1966	
	June	December	June	December	June	December	June	December	June	December	June	December
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
(1)												
Carpenter	4.00	4.00	5.50	5.12	3.75	4.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	4.25	4.00	5.00
Blacksmith	3.50	3.75	5.00	5.12	3.75	4.12	5.00	5.12	3.75	4.00	3.75	5.12
Cobbler	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Field Labour—												
Male	2.00	2.00	1.50	3.00	2.00	1.50	2.00	2.15	1.50	1.75	1.50	2.15
Female	1.50	0.75	1.00	2.00	0.87	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.81	0.87	0.87	0.87
Other Agricultural Labour—												
Male	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.75	1.00	1.50	1.75	2.00	1.50	2.00	1.75
Female	0.50	0.87	1.00	0.75	1.25	0.81	1.00	0.87	0.75	0.94	0.75	1.00

CHAPTER 10 — GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

INTRODUCTION

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE IN THE LAST CENTURY was mostly concerned with providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails, and Judiciary representing security, and land revenue, excise, registration and stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of Governmental activities into what were called "nation-building" departments, namely, education, health, agriculture, co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When as a result of the Government of India Act, 1935, complete popularisation of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation-building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of the World War II and the attainment of Independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than that was felt necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the description that follows in this chapter and in chapters from 11 to 17 the departments of the State 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.
- Chapter 14—Local Self-Government.
- Chapter 15—Education and Culture.
- Chapter 16—Medical and Public Health Services.
- Chapter 17—Other Social Services.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

Up to 1863, Buldhana was a part of the West Berar district. Malkapur, Chikhli (formerly Deulghat) and Mehkar tahsils were separated from the West Berar district in 1864, to make what was at first called South-West Berar district and later named as Mehkar district. The district headquarters was shifted to Buldhana in 1867 and the district was renamed as Buldhana district. Khamgaon tahsil was created in 1870 by separating some villages from Balapur tahsil of Akola district. Consequent upon the realignment of district boundaries in Berar in 1905, Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils were transferred to Buldhana district from Akola district. There were no major changes in the boundaries of the district or its tahsils between 1911 and 1955.

With the Reorganisation of States in 1956, the district was transferred from Madhya Pradesh to the then Bombay State. The district forms a part of Maharashtra State since 1st May, 1960.

The district now covers an area of 9,754 square kilometres (3,766 sq. miles) and has, according to 1971 Census, a population of 12,62,978. The administrative divisions now stand as shown below :

Sub-Division (1)	Tahsil (2)	Area in (Sq. miles) (3)	Population (1961 Census) (4)
Buldhana	Chikhli	2,393	3,25,860
Mehkar	Mehkar	2,608	2,90,894
Malkapur	Malkapur	1,686	2,68,235
Khamgaon	Khamgaon	1,839	2,38,160
Jalgaon	Jalgaon	1,228	1,39,829
	Total	9,754	12,62,978

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER

Divisional Commissioner.—The jurisdiction of the Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, extends over the district of Buldhana besides those of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Wardha, Akola, Amravati and Yeotmal districts. He is the chief controlling authority of the division in all matters concerned with land revenue and the administration of the Revenue department. He acts as a link between the Collector and the Government. Appeals and revision applications against the orders of the Collector under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and Tenancy Laws lie to him. Besides revenue matters, he is also responsible for supervision of the work of the Collectors in their capacity as District Magistrates. He is responsible for the development activities in the division and has to supervise the work of regional officers of all departments concerned with development.

The following duties have been specifically laid down for the Commissioner:—

- Supervision of and control over the working of revenue officers throughout the division.
- Exercise of executive and administrative powers delegated by Government or conferred on him by law.
- General inspection of offices of all departments within the division.
- Co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all divisional heads of departments with particular reference to planning and development.
- Integration of the administrative set up of the incoming areas.

COLLECTOR

Collector.—The Collector as the head of the district administration is the pivot round which the district administration turns. In so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of other departments also.

Revenue.—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water wherever situated) and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interest of the Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract. Such land revenue is of three kinds, *viz.*, agricultural assessment, non-agricultural assessment and miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection, and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. The assessment is revised every 30 years tahsil by tahsil. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records department. Before a revision is made, the Collector is expected to review the settlement report with great care and caution. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of 30 years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is the duty of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, it has to be levied when agriculturally assessed lands are converted to non-agricultural uses. All this has to be done by Collector, according to the provisions of the rules framed by the Government. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector, according to the circumstances of each case, when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, revenue fines, etc.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector who has to see that the revenue dues are recovered punctually every year and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for in the *Jamabandi* branch, both at the tahsil-level and the district-level.

The following are the statistics relating to land revenue collections in Buldhana district for the year 1967-68:—

	Rs.
<i>Khalsa</i>	..
<i>Inam</i>	..
Gross fixed revenue including non-agricultural assessment, etc. ..	26,36,079
Deduct—	
Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forecasts. ..	..
Net alienation of total <i>inams</i>	..
Assessment of cultivable lands unoccupied	..
Free or specially reduced	..
Remaining fixed revenue for collection	26,36,079
Agricultural (assessment)—	
Government occupied land including specially reduced	26,36,079
Alienated land	..
Buildings and other non-agricultural assessment	..
Fluctuating—	
(Miscellaneous revenue)	(Demand not fixed)
Local funds	..
Demand	39,16,386
Remission	..
Suspension	8,04,995
Collection	27,40,766
Unauthorised balance	3,70,625

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other acts such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamps Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court-Fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923), and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The Collector and his office have to undertake recovery of such dues whenever necessary.

In regard to the administration of the Forests Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with the Collector and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the administration except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor addicts. In fact, he is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise executes the policy of the department. The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under various sections of these two Acts.

Inams.—All *inams* have been abolished under the Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, and donations or cash grants for charitable purposes, grants to religious, charitable and public institutions and to the descendants of the Ruling Chiefs under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, have been sanctioned. With the introduction of the Abolition of the Proprietary Rights Act, the *ex-Madhya Pradesh* Government inaugurated a policy of abolishing alienation and all lands in the district have now been assessed to full land revenue.

Public Utility.—The Agriculturist's Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their agricultural operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of the Government for the time being and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as could be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the need. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time. After the loans are advanced to the borrowers it is the duty of the Prant Officers and the Tahsildars to see that the loans are not utilised for purposes other than those for which the same were advanced.

Accounts.—The separation of the treasury and revenue cadres at the district level has come into force with effect from April 1, 1968. Before the separation of the treasury from the Revenue Department, the Treasury Officer was from Revenue department and he had to perform various important executive functions in that connection. After the separation, the Treasury Officer became a member of the cadre of Maharashtra State Accounts Service and functions independently. The treasuries are under the administrative control of the Finance department. At the district and tahsil headquarters, the cash business has been taken over by the State Bank of India. The accounts are submitted to the Accountant General and the instructions laid down in the Accounts Code and Compilation of Treasury Rules are followed by the District Treasury. Before the separation of treasuries from Revenue department, the Collector and Accountant General carried out periodical inspections of treasuries. As a measure of

administrative control, the Collector inspects the district treasury once in a year before the close of the financial year and similarly, the Deputy Collectors inspect the sub-treasuries. The Collector does not, however, participate in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work, the Treasury Officer is his delegate and representative.

Quasi-Judicial functions in revenue matters.—Besides the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeal from the decisions of the Sub-Divisional Officers under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, the following may be mentioned :—

- (i) the revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Tahsildars' 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 Court decrees; and
- (iv) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

Local Self-Government.—With the passing of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, the village panchayat administration is looked after by the village panchayats constituted for the villages. However, the actual control of the village panchayats has been transferred to the Panchayat Samitis with the passing of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act. The Collector is, however, empowered to hold elections and bye-elections to the municipalities and the village panchayats. The various Acts governing local bodies have conferred upon the Collector, as the chief representative of Government, authority to supervise the actions of the local bodies and to give them advice.

Officers of other departments.—The officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters are: (1) the District and Sessions Judge, (2) the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad, (3) the Superintendent of Police, (4) the Executive Engineer (B. & C.), (5) the Civil Surgeon, (6) the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (7) the Divisional Forest Officer, (8) the District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, and (9) the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer.

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 1951) has separated the magistracy into judicial magistrates who are subordinate to the Sessions Judge and Executive Magistrates who are subordinate to the District Magistrates. It has practically withdrawn all the powers of the Executive Magistrates of trial of criminal cases under the Indian Penal Code.

The Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad works in the capacity of an adviser to the District Selection Committee of which the Collector is the Chairman.

The District Superintendent of Police and Police force in the district are under the control of the Collector in his capacity as the District Magistrate in so far as the maintenance of law and order is concerned.

The work of the Executive Engineer (Buildings and Communications) being of a technical nature, he is not directly subordinate to the Collector. However, he is expected to assist the Collector whenever required to do so. The programme of relief works is to be chalked out by him in consultation with the Collector.

The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but is expected to place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

The District Agricultural Officer, the Social Welfare Officer, the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Educational Inspector, the Public Health Officer and the District Animal Husbandry Officer have been allotted to the Zilla Parishad since May 1, 1962, and are under the control of the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad.

The District Industries Officer, the Treasury Officer, the District Inspector of Land Records, the Employment Exchange Officer, the Publicity Officer and the Inspector of Shops and Establishments have intimate contact with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions. The Collector is invested with the power of requisitioning the services of any officer at the district-level either directly or through his superiors.

District Magistrate.—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all executive Magistrates in the district. He exercises the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Indian Penal Code.

When authorised by the State Government, the District Magistrate may invest any Magistrate subordinate to him with necessary powers. Besides being in control of the Police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of Police stations in order to gain insight into the state of crime in the limits of the Police stations and satisfy himself that the cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878) the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884) and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to

supervise the general administration of these Acts and functions laid down thereunder.

District Registrar.—As the District Registrar, the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

Sanitation and Public Health.—The duties of the Collector as regards sanitation are—(a) to see that sanitary measures are initiated in case of outbreak of epidemic diseases; (b) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the sanitary administration of municipal councils and other sanitary authorities, and (c) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary conditions of the areas under them in so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and the technical assistance of the District Health Officer.

District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board*.—The Collector acts as the president of the District Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Board and exercises overall control over the Board with the assistance of a paid secretary appointed from retired military officers' cadre. He maintains liaison between *ex-servicemen* and their dependants, with the help of the staff sanctioned for the Board by Government.

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board is composed of 12 members, a vice-President and a President. The Board meets periodically and tackles problems faced by *ex-servicemen* and their dependants.

Control of essential articles.—This function could be grouped under three important activities, *viz.*, procurement, distribution and price control. Under the scheme for monopoly purchase of jowar, every cultivator is required to sell a fixed proportion of his jowar produce to the Government. If after complying with this requirement, some surplus is still left with him, he has to sell to the Government additional fixed quantity of jowar after retaining some stock for his domestic consumption and other purposes.

The distribution of food-grains in the district is limited and is by way of supplementing normal supplies in open market. At present, one or more kinds of food-grains, subject to availability, are supplied at the rate of eight kilograms per adult per month and 4 kg per child per month. In addition to food-grains, levy sugar is also distributed by Government at the rate of 400 grams per adult per month and 200 grams per child per month in urban areas and 250 grams per adult per month and 125 grams per child per month in rural areas. Wheat products like *atta*, *rawa* and *maida* are supplied to bulk consumers like bakers, hotel-keepers and also to general public.

Kerosene is supplied through the retailers who draw their stocks from wholesalers, who in their turn receive their stocks from the oil companies. The quantities are prescribed by Government and there is no restriction on quantity of retail sale of kerosene.

* Now known as the Zilla Sainik Board.
A-1198—38-B.

The food-grains, sugar and wheat products are sold through fair price shops in the district, which number 750.

Prices of food-grains are fixed by Government while the prices of sugar, kerosene and wheat products are fixed by the Collector from time to time taking into consideration the basic price, transport and incidental expenses, octroi tax and margin of profit allowed to wholesalers and retailers. The administration of supply and distribution of essential commodities is governed under general orders issued by the State Government under the Essential Commodities Act, 1955.

The food and civil supplies administration of the district vests in the Collector and is operated upon by the District Supply Officer who is an officer belonging to the cadre of the Deputy Collector. He is assisted by the necessary staff at district and taluka levels. A team of Supply Inspectors and Inspecting Officers is provided for checking the fair price shops.

PRANT OFFICERS

Prant Officers.—Under the Collector are the Prant Officers (the Sub-Divisional Officers) who are either Assistant Collectors (I.A.S. officers) or District Deputy Collectors (members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are in all five *prants* or subdivisions in the district which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Officers.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Tahsildars and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and any other law in force or executive orders in regard to the tahsils in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specifically reserve to himself.

TAHSILDARS

Tahsildars and the Naib-Tahsildars.—Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildar. He is the officer in executive charge of the tahsil. Further each tahsil has been divided into revenue circles each in charge of a Revenue Inspector. Talathis are appointed for *halkas* and each *halka* contains on an average three to four villages depending upon the size of each village.

Revenue.—The Tahsildar's revenue duties are to enquire and report on cases under various sections of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and other Acts to the higher officers who have powers to dispose of the matters. There are certain powers under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code vested in the Tahsildars under which they themselves can dispose of certain matters.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue, the Tahsildar has to prepare the *jamabandi* for the tahsil. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue as well as the non-agricultural demand is also settled. There are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon the fixed demand in lean years.

Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewari* with the determination of which the Tahsildar is most intimately concerned. To the demand for fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stones, sand, melon beds, *etc.*, when the individuals apply for them.

The Tahsildar has also to supervise and inspect the work of collection of land revenue, *tagai* dues and other dues recoverable as arrears of land revenue. He can issue notices, impose fines, distrain and sell moveable and immoveable property under the provisions of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code. In short, he is to follow the procedure laid down in various sections of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and the Rules thereunder.

It is the duty of the Tahsildar to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions of the lease or any irregularities or encroachments upon Government land and to take immediate cognizance of the same, if there is any.

Applications for grant of *tagai* are received by the Tahsildar who enquires into them through the talathis and inspects the sites for the improvement of which *tagai* is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines what instalments for repayment would be suitable, *etc.* These applications are put before the Tagai Advisory Committee for advice. The final orders regarding the grant of amount of *tagai* are passed by the Tahsildar or Naib-tahsildar as the case may be. Under the provisions of the Agriculturists' Loans Act and the Land Improvement Loans Act, there are certain limits up to which the Tahsildar himself can grant the loan. If the granting of the loan is not within his powers he enquires into the case thoroughly and submits his report in the case for the orders of the Sub-Divisional Officer or the Collector, whoever is competent to pass final orders regarding grant of the loan. The Tahsildar's duties regarding *tagai* do not end with the granting of it. He has to see that the loan in question is properly utilised, to inspect the work undertaken with it, to watch the payment and to make recoveries from the defaulters. He is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948), within the area under his charge.

Additional Tahsildars and Naib-tahsildars have been appointed for each taluka for the work in connection with the implementation of the tenancy law. The Tahsildars are in overall charge of the taluka administration and are not in any way concerned with matters coming under the purview of the Tenancy law for which Additional Tahsildars and Naib-tahsildars are appointed.

Quasi-judicial.—In his capacity as a tahsil officer the Tahsildar has to perform multifarious duties. He is also to enquire in respect of disputed cases in connection with the record-of-rights in each village. The matters which the Tahsildar has to enquire into are registered under appropriate heads mentioned in the revenue book circulars.

Magisterial.—Tahsildar and Naib-tahsildars are appointed as Taluka Magistrates. They deal with cases under section 107 of Criminal Procedure Code from various Police stations allotted to them. They keep Sub-Divisional Magistrates informed of activities in their charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order with the aid of Police.

Treasury and Accounts.—Separation of sub-treasuries from revenue cadre at taluka-level has come into force in this district. Before the separation of the sub-treasuries from the Revenue Department, the sub-treasuries were under the control of the Tahsildars and one of the Naib-tahsildars was designated as Sub-Treasury Officer. After the separation, the Sub-Treasury Officer became a member of the cadre of treasury establishment and functions independently. The sub-treasuries are under the administrative control of the Finance department. At all the tahsil headquarters official cash business has been taken over by the State Bank of India.

Other administrative duties.—In addition to the duties mentioned above, the Tahsildar is responsible to the Collector and Sub-Divisional Officer who are to be kept constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreak of epidemics and other matters. He generally helps or guides the officers of other departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his tahsil is concerned. He is responsible for holding the cattle census. The Tahsildar is also expected to propagate co-operative principles in his tahsil. The Tahsildar's position in relation to the tahsil officers of other departments, *e.g.*, the Station Officers of the Police, the Sub-Registrar, the Range Forest Officer, Medical Officer, Post Master, *etc.*, is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their respective spheres.

Though the Tahsildar is not expected to work directly for local bodies he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them.

REVENUE INSPECTORS

Revenue Inspectors.—In order to assist the Tahsildar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants, Revenue Inspectors are appointed for every Revenue Inspector's circle. Each such Revenue Inspector has under him 25 to 30 talathis. They form a link between the Tahsildar and the village populace.

The main duties of the Revenue Inspector as laid down in various manuals concerning revenue matters and particularly the Revenue Inspectors' Manual are as follows:—

- (1) To supervise the work of talathis.
- (2) To prepare, maintain and check *rashid bahis* (*Kird books*).
- (3) To visit each *patwari* circle in his charge once in three months and each village once in each touring season.

(4) To submit report to Tahsildar and Sub-Divisional Officer with a copy to District Inspector of Land Records regarding condition of crops, rainfall, prices of food grains, fodder and water condition when called upon to do so.

(5) To report the occurrence of any calamity, i.e., outbreak of cattle disease, epidemic or anything unusual affecting the condition of the people, crop or cattle.

(6) To conduct survey or measurement of land survey operations whenever required to do so by the revenue officers.

(7) To make local enquiry in respect of correctness of entries in the village records and collect information relating to land or agriculture when required by any revenue officer.

(8) To make immediate reports regarding damage from hail-storms, locusts, floods, fires, etc., and failure of water-supply, permanent deterioration of land from diluvion, etc.

(9) To attest all entries made by *patwaris* in record-of-rights relating to any land improvement to ensure the exemption of such improvements from assessment.

(10) To watch the proper utilisation of loans granted under Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists Loans Act and report cases of misappropriation to the Tahsildar for necessary action.

(11) To detect and report the cases of diversion of agricultural lands to non-agricultural purposes.

(12) To maintain a register of survey appliances passed by the talathis and check the instruments once in every three months.

(13) To check and sign the traced maps, copies of record-of-rights and crop statements prepared by the talathis in connection with land acquisition work.

(14) To certify mutation only when they follow from the execution or cancellation of a conditional sale or relate to the imposition or discharge of a mortgage.

(15) To submit the forecast report to Tahsildar.

(16) To certify the mutation in respect of encumbrances.

(17) To prepare boundary marks inspection register.

(18) To issue notices to the defaulting persons for verification of the accounts.

(19) To submit reports in revenue cases as per orders of revenue officers.

(20) To prepare circle note books.

PATILS

Patils.—The *patil* is the principal village official. From 1st January, 1963, the posts of revenue *patils* have been abolished. In some villages, only one person was doing the duties of revenue as well as Police *patil*. The Police *patils* duties are laid down in Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867).

TALATHIS

Talathi.—The charge of the talathi depends on the size of the village and survey numbers under each charge. The village in his charge comprises a *halka*. His main duties are:—

(a) *Land Records*:—

(1) To prepare crop statements every year.

(2) To prepare *jamabandi* statement every year.

(3) To maintain register of record-of-rights upto date and to record mutations in respect of transfer, inheritance, etc. and to prepare copies of mutation entries and publish them and issue notices to the parties.

(4) To prepare classification of crop registers.

(5) To prepare boundary marks, inspect the registers and issue notices to the defaulters for repairs of marks.

(6) To report forecast of crops.

(7) To prepare vital statistics register—register of cattle, etc.

(8) To prepare and issue copies of record-of-rights and crop statements to the members of co-operative societies.

(9) To maintain the—

(i) register of fit and unfit wells;

(ii) register of mango trees;

(iii) register of roads;

(iv) register of plots.

(10) To recover land revenue dues, taccavi dues, including taccavi granted under agricultural schemes.

(11) To recover the other Government dues such as (i) irrigation dues, (ii) education cess, (iii) bunding dues, (iv) sales tax dues, (v) income tax dues, (vi) displaced persons loans, (vii) N. A. Loans and (viii) *nazul* dues in urban area.

(12) Recovery including forest dues and recovery memos received from other villages and authorities such as sales tax, income tax, co-operative society, etc.

(13) To maintain day book (*Kird-Khatawani-Irsalpatti*, etc.).

(14) To remit the amount of recovery to tahsil office.

(15) To prepare a list of defaulters.

(16) To issue demand notices to the *khatedars*.

(17) To report to the Tahsildar against the encroachers on Government land.

(18) To report after enquiry in revenue cases whenever the reports are called—

(i) solvency cases, (ii) grant of taccavi cases.

(19) To submit reports in tenancy cases to the Tenancy Tahsildar and Tenancy Naib-tahsildars and also ceiling cases.

(20) To send certified copies applied for by the parties, in respect of record-of-rights, crop statements, *jamabandi-patraks*, etc.

(21) To maintain taccavi register and verification of proper utilisation of loans.

(22) To get applications for *khatepustika* and complete it in all respects.

(b) *Forest department*:—

(23) To prepare grazing list.

(c) *Election work*:—

(24) To prepare voters lists every year.

Village Servants.—The village servants or *kotwals* are appointed on fixed remuneration. Generally one *kotwal* is appointed by Government for a small village. More than one *kotwals* are villagers to *chavadi*. They help the *patil* in detection of offences officers in the collection of land revenue, and in summoning villagers to *chavadi*. They help the *patil* in detection of offences and in apprehending known criminals as also in maintaining law and order in the village.

CHAPTER 11—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

LAND RECORDS DEPARTMENT

Introduction.—THE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM PREVALENT IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IS Rayatwari and it is based on a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of every field.

Buldhana was a part of West Berar District up to 1863. In 1864, Malkapur, Chikhli and Mehkar tahsils were separated from the district of West Berar. The district headquarters were shifted to Buldhana in 1867 and the district was renamed as Buldhana district. Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils from Akola district were included in Buldhana district at the time of reconstitution of district boundaries in Berar in 1905. In 1956, after the Reorganisation of States, the district was transferred from Madhya Pradesh to Bombay State and since 1st May 1960 the district forms part of Maharashtra State.

The old Gazetteer has given the following account of the Land Revenue Administration prevalent in the district since the Muhammedan period.

Sovereignty.—“The early history of the District is obscure; but what little is known shows that the District forming part of the north-western tract of the Deccan was under various Hindu dynasties down to 1294 A.D. In that year the Musalmans first appeared in Berar and the result of the raid of Ala-ud-din Khilji was the assignment of the revenue of northern Berar, in which the Jalgaon and Malkapur taluks were probably included, to Delhi. In 1312 A.D. the District with the rest of Berar came directly under Muhammadan administration. For a brief period from 1316 to 1318 A.D. the District reverted to Hindu rule but from 1318 to 1595 A.D. it was in the hands of various Muhammadan dynasties. In 1596 Berar became an appanage of the crown of Delhi, and remained in this position till 1724 A.D. In that year the battle of Sakharkhelda in the Mehkar taluk gave the sovereignty to the Nizam of Hyderabad. But this sovereignty was subject to the limitation of the right of the Marathas to levy an impost known as *chauth*, amounting to one-quarter of the land revenue, and a further contribution known as *sardeshmukhi* amounting to one-tenth of the revenue to cover the cost of collecting the *chauth*. This dual sovereignty lasted till 1803 A.D. when the Maratha power came to an end. From 1803 A.D. to 1853 A.D. Berar remained under the direct control of the Nizam. In 1853 A.D. Berar was assigned to the British and till 1903 A.D. it remained

for administrative purposes under the Resident at Hyderabad. In October 1903 it was amalgamated with the Central Provinces, and has since formed a division of that Administration.

Territorial Divisions.—Berar was one of the four provinces or *tarafs* into which the Bahamani kingdom was divided about 1350 A.D. and was in charge of a governor or *tarafdar*. In 1480 this province was further divided into two divisions the Gawil on the north and the Mahur on the south the latter probably including the Chikhli and Mehkar taluks and the former the three taluks of Malkapur, Jalgaon and Khamgaon. According to the *Ain-i-Akbari* the present District of Buldana comprised a large part of Akbar's *sarkars* of Narnala and Baitalwadi and the greater part of the *sarkar* of Mehkar. In 1634 a redistribution of territory took place. Berar was divided into 2 *subahs*, each under the control of a *subahdar*. The northern *subah* known as the Payanghat included the Malkapur, Jalgaon and Khamgaon taluks; and the southern *subah* known as the Balaghat contained the talukas of Chikhli and Mehkar. This arrangement did not however, last long, and in 1636 Berar as a separate *subah* formed one of the four divisions of the Deccan. Berar was assigned to the East India Company in 1853, when the District consisted of the following parganas: 1. Malkapur, 2. Jalgaon, 3. Badner Bholji, 4. Pimpalgaon Raja, 5. Jepur, and 6. Rajur. After the assignment Berar was divided into two districts, South Berar (the Balaghat) with its headquarters at Hingoli, and North Berar with headquarters at Buldana. After the Mutiny the province was reconstituted into East Berar with headquarters at Amraoti, and West Berar with headquarters at Akola, the present Buldana District being included in the latter. In 1864 the taluks of Malkapur, Chikhli and Mehkar were separated from the West Berar district and formed into an independent charge styled the South-West Berar district. This designation was changed to the Mehkar district in 1865. In 1867 Buldana was selected as the headquarters of the District to which it thenceforth gave its name. On the reconstitution of the six districts of Berar in August 1905, Buldana received the Khamgaon and Jalgaon taluks from the Akola District. The District as it now stands is composed of five taluks, Chikhli, Mehkar, Malkapur, Jalgaon and Khamgaon.

Taluk Boundaries.—From the time of the Muhammadan conquest the lowest administrative denomination was the pargana or *mahal*, both of which terms seem to have signified the parcel of lands known by separate entry and assessment in the revenue rolls of the State. Akbar grouped the pargana into *sarkars*, of which thirteen formed in his reign the Berar *subah*. In 1853 the number of parganas that lay in the Narnala division, which nearly represented Western Berar in which was included the present Buldana District, was fifteen, and nearly half of these lie still in the District. The organisation into *sarkars* and parganas survived in the records till 1853, but even before that date it had for practical revenue purposes become obsolete. It was superseded by the term taluk, which meant the parcel of villages made over to one talukdar, and

after 1853 signified the sub-circle of revenue collections under a State Tahsildar. Of the five taluks constituting the District, only four were in existence in 1853. They were as follows:—

Taluk (1)	No. of villages (2)	Area in square miles (3)
Chikhli	357	1,112
Jalgaon	232	423
Mehkar	346	966
Malkapur	274	638

The fifth taluk of Khamgaon was formed in 1870 by transfer of 148 villages from the Balapur taluka.

At the original survey (1861—1870) the number of villages attached to each taluk was as follows:—

Taluk (1)	Government villages (2)	Jagir villages (3)	Total (4)
Chikhli	358	7	365
Mehkar	348	12	360
Malkapur	335	4	339
Jalgaon	214	3	217
Khamgaon	143	5	148
Total	1,398	31	1,429

Since the original settlement several changes have been made in the taluk boundaries. Chikhli transferred between the first and second settlement 48 Government villages and one jagir village to the Malkapur taluk, six villages to the Mehkar taluk, five villages to His Highness the Nizam's territory and received in return eight villages from the Mehkar taluk. One jagir village (Pimpalgaon) was resumed in 1889; and three Government villages were made jagir; so that at the close of the revision settlement (in 1896) Chikhli had 305 Government and 8 jagir villages. Mehkar similarly transferred eight of its villages to Chikhli and six to His Highness the Nizam's dominions and received from them respectively six and six villages; amongst the latter, however, there were four jagir villages. Two jagir villages—one Pahur and the other Bhisra were resumed in 1881 and 1889, respectively. Thus the Mehkar taluk contained 344 Government and 14 jagir villages at the revision settlement. Malkapur gave seven of its villages as jagir to Raja Hari Har Rao Bahadur Nemiwant of Hyderabad in 1877 and resumed two of its jagir villages, one in 1881, and the other in 1884. Thus the Malkapur taluk consisted of 330 Government and nine jagir villages at the revision settlement. Jalgaon transferred eighteen villages, eight to Akot and ten to Malkapur and received in exchange from Akot one village. The khels of the three large villages of Jalgaon, Jamod and Pathurda which numbered twelve, five and four, respectively, were each counted as a separate village. It received two Government

villages and five jagir villages from the Melghat in 1891, and thus at the close of revision settlement it contained 217 Government and eight jagir villages.

Khamgaon shows no change. In August 1905 further alterations in the boundaries of the taluks of Mehkar, Jalgaon and Khamgaon were made with a view to making the boundaries of forest charges conterminous with those of the revenue District. Thirteen villages forming the Ambabarwa State forest in the Melghat taluk were transferred to the Jalgaon taluk. Similarly, the village of Dhadham, forming part of the Ghatbori forest, was transferred from Khamgaon taluk to the Mehkar taluk. The latter again received the four villages of Mohona Buzruk, Mandwa Sawat Dongar, Lakhanwara Buzruk and Pimpri Dhangar from the Balapur taluk. Thus the total number of villages that each taluk now contains is as follows:—

Chikhli	..	..	..	..	313
Mehkar	..	..	..	..	303
Malkapur	..	..	..	..	339
Jalgaon	..	..	..	..	238
Khamgaon	..	..	..	..	147
Total	..	..	..	..	1,400

Early Revenue Administration—Pre-Muhammadan Period.—The aboriginal unit was in Berar, as all over India, the village, into the vexed question of the nature of the early village community it is not necessary to enter here, complicated as that question is by the difficulty of describing in terms of civilized thought the half-conscious reasonings or instincts of savages, and in India by the unreliable nature of the evidence. Of the differences between the primitive Dravidian and the primitive Aryan village, of the early growth of law and the subsequent growth of a quasi-feudal society in India, we really know absolutely nothing. The latter process seems to have been and least accelerated in Berar by the successive invasions, and their resulting overlordships. The Indian village has in a crystallized form survived them all, and into the successive types of rule its headman or patel has always been adopted as an integral part. As a leader of the party of settlers the headman had a special holding set apart for him, and the territorial chief was also supported by another lot of land in each village, the entire produce of which went to him. This latter plan, however, was gradually superseded by the chief taking a share in the grain produce of all lands, except the village headman's and certain other privileged settlers. This share in the grain became the principal source of State revenue, and is the parent of our modern land revenue. The traditional share in the produce so taken was one-sixth, but there is evidence to show that this limit was freely raised when the necessity arose. With the introduction of the grain share came the appointment of a second official, the prototype of the patwari, and he also was remunerated by a hereditary holding of land. It is these ancient holdings that were afterwards called by the Muhammadan rulers *watan*. All the *watan* lands and the various privileges and dignities

associated with them constituted a family property which was capable of descending to a number of heirs jointly. Further, in each village there grew up a staff of artizans, menials and servants, who became hereditary and served the village, not for payment by the job (such a thing was of course unknown) but for a regular remuneration, paid in kind, chiefly by a fixed share in the harvest. This ancient village community is the prototype of the modern Berar ryotwari village.

Early Muhammadan Period 1294 A.D. to 1596 A.D.—We possess no detailed information about the earliest method of Moslem revenue management but the policy seems to have been to preserve the older village institutions. The hereditary offices of Deshmukh and Deshpandia are supposed by some writers to owe their origin to this period, but it is a very doubtful supposition. The Deshmukh was a head patel of a circle of villages, and was responsible for apportioning and collecting the land revenue, while the Deshpandia was a head patwari or kanungo and kept the accounts. They were always Hindu, the Deshmukh generally a Kunbi and the Deshpandia a Brahmin, and they may have been instituted by the Muhammadans to conciliate a conquered people. An interesting description of this period may be quoted from Sir A. Lyall:—“If we take the centuries between 1300 and 1600 A.D. as the period (roughly stated) of independent Muhammadan dominion in the Dakhan, and compare it with the same breadth of time in Western Europe, the Dakhani government will not lose much by comparison. We shall be struck by resemblances more than by contrasts in all that concerns civil policy and the use made of their arbitrary power by princes and lords of the land. Long wasting wars, bloody feuds, revolts, massacres, assassinations, cruel and barbarous punishments, “sad stories of the death of kings” all these things fill the chronicles of Plantagenets and Valois as plentifully as the annals of the Bahmanis. Yet, as has often been said, although these descriptions now startle us into horror and astonishment, it may be guessed that life in those times was more tolerable than it appears to modern readers. A majority of the people took no share at all in the constant fighting or in the perilous intrigues which were continually exploding in violent catastrophes that shook or overturned the throne; while another section of the people enjoyed the stirring life and the chances of rebellion and staked their lives on the sport quite as readily as men now risk their limbs against a tiger. For Berar, it seems to have been always an agricultural country, situated off the high road of foreign armies, and distant from the capitals of royalty. It suffered like other districts from inroads and internal disorders, but its battlefields are comparatively not numerous. Then the settled Muhammadan government always attempted, in the interests of revenue, to protect the tillers of the land, keeping the collections as much as possible in their own hands, except when jagirs were granted, and never formally abandoning the cultivator to the mercy of a feudal lord. We may conjecture that

the peasantry as a class were much above the mediaeval serfs and villeins of Europe; and altogether that they were at least as well off under the Bahmani and Imad Shahi rulers as the commons of any outlying countries of England during the great wars of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Probably the peasants of France were worse off up to the end of the seventeenth century. Certainly the *subah* of Berar was in a high state of cultivation, and yielded an ample revenue when Akbar annexed it; and the land must have prospered still more under the wise administration of Malik Ambar, of whom more hereafter.

In those ages the whole Dakhan swarmed with adventurers from every nation in Asia, and from the African coast of the Indian Ocean. These men and their descendants settled in the towns, their chiefs occupied most of the high military and civil offices; but in Berar at least, the Muhammadans appear to have left the Hindus in undisturbed possession of the soil. And although the hereditary revenue authorities, the Deshmukhs and Deshpandias who were chief officers of districts with much influence and profit, are said to have been instituted by the early Muhammadan kings, yet in Berar these places and perquisites have from time immemorial been in the hands of Hindus.

Mughal Period 1596 A.D. to 1720 A.D.—Berar was ceded to the Emperor Akbar in 1596 A.D. and was one of the *subahs* which came under the famous land revenue settlement made by him and his Hindu minister Todar Mal. The early Hindu system had been one without any survey or measurement and without any records to speak of. The Mughal rulers crystallized it into more business like permanence by measuring and recording villages, parganas and *sarkars* with their revenue assessment. The first beginning of a change from the mere levy of a share of grain to a regularly assessed cash revenue may be traced to Akbar's settlement and the cash rates were when possible, fixed for a period of years instead of being liable to annual alteration. A more or less uniform system of revenue accounts was also established. The settlement was fixed by measuring the arable lands and making a careful estimate of their produce. The unit of land for purposes of assessment was taken to be a *bigha*, a term used to denote a piece of land measuring a little more than two-thirds of an acre. Each *bigha* was rated at the value of one-fourth the estimated produce, and the sum total of the demand on a village or group of villages thus calculated was termed its *tankhwa* or standard rent-roll; from this rating were omitted lands which were barren or never brought under cultivation. The average rate of assessment per *bigha* of land was Rs. 1-4. Mr. Bullock, in his Report on North Berar for 1854-55, gives the following account of the land assessment of this province under the Mughals. It is probably taken from some old papers preserved among the Kanungo records, but these are usually copies, several times repeated, of original documents.

'I may as well mention that under the kings of Delhi when the mode of assessment was under strict regulation, the valley of Berar was divided into three main descriptions of land, viz., *ainkali*, *miankalas*, and *kalaspali*. The *ainkali* was the deep black soil. The *miankalas* was the soil where the black began to mingle with a lighter description. The *kalaspali* was the light soil lying towards the hills. The black soil is towards the centre of the valley. Each of these divisions had its general rate fixed upon each *bigha* but divided into various sorts with a rate on each, and these rates were only slightly modified by local circumstances.'

'The *bigha* of arable land was less than the *bigha* now in use in Khandesh or elsewhere, which is 3,600 square yards, and the garden and *inam bigha* was larger, viz., the *inam* land was measured by the *Ilahi gaz*, equal to 7,225 square yards per *bigha*. The garden land was measured by the *gaz*, *Bara Sikandari*, which gave 5,500 $\frac{69}{100}$ square yards per *bigha*, and the arable land by the *Chhota Sikandari gaz*, which gave 2,256 $\frac{25}{100}$ square yards per *bigha*. The average rates on land were as follows: first sort, divided into two sorts—first sort Rs. 1-3-9, second sort As. 13-3 per *bigha*; second sort, sub-divided into two sorts—first sort Rs. 1-1-3, second sort As. 12-3 per *bigha*; third sort, sub-divided into two sorts—first sort As. 11-6, and second sort As. 11-3 per *bigha*. Garden land in two kinds—first sort Rs. 3-11-0, second sort Rs. 2-4-0. The whole was under *khamwasul*, and the Annual Settlement paper was as nearly as possible that which I have now introduced, but with even more exact detail. We can form some idea of the prosperity of the valley at that time, as the total revenue in the year quoted during the reign of Alamgir was Rs. 27,44,750-11-0, because the land was fully cultivated and the population abundant and vigorous instead of being scanty, ill-fed, and weakly, as they are now.'

The present Buldana District comprised a large part of Akbar's *sarkars* of Narnala and Baitalwadi, and the greater part of the *sarkar* of Mehkar. The demand on account of land revenue amounted to more than sixteen lakhs of rupees. Another important settlement in Berar was made by Malik Ambar, a minister of the Nizam Shahi dynasty, which established an independent rule in the Deccan from 1605 A.D. to 1628 A.D.; although this settlement left a great mark on the province, if the traditions of the people are to be believed, the information about it is very meagre. It is probable that his assessments varied with the crop and were not fixed like the Mughal settlements; they were also lump assessments on the village in some cases. Grant Duff states that when the assessment was in kind it was two-thirds of the produce, and that where there was a cash assessment, it equalled in value one-third of the produce. Malik Ambar is also credited with having settled the land revenue upon a recognition of private property in the land, whereas Akbar had held that all land belonged to the State. Writing in 1870, Sir A. Lyall estimates that the revenue raised in Berar in the seventeenth

century was much larger than that paid under the original settlements made after the cession, and that the cultivated area was not less. His conclusion as to the view we ought to take of the history of this period is as follows: 'It is common mistake to suppose that the normal state of India was that in which we English found the country when we conquered most of it; whereas each province usually fell into our hands, like a rotten pear, when it was at its worst, and because it was at its worst. The century that preceded our rule may be regarded as a catastrophe in the history of India's government a dark age of misrule interposed between two periods of comparative, though unequal, light. We who are now clearing away ruins, repairing an utterly dilapidated revenue, may sometimes fancy that we are raising a new and quite original edifice, when we are only reconstructing upon the old foundation up to the level of earlier architects.'

Period of Double Government (Do Amli), Maratha and Nizam 1720 A.D. to 1803 A.D.—The Maratha connection with Berar originated with the grant of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* by the Delhi Emperor in 1717 A.D. The Marathas pretended to keep regular account with the Nizam's officers who were never openly ejected from their posts, as from a conquered country, though they were often entirely set aside for a time. The districts were called *Do Amli*, that is jointly administered; and in all the revenue papers the collections are divided, the Maratha share being usually sixty per cent. Of this percentage ten per cent. was called *sardeshmukhi* and the rest *mokasa*, which seems in Berar to have been the technical term that included in a lump sum all the Maratha dues except the ten per cent above-mentioned. The *mokasa* was thus made up; *chauth*, twenty-five per cent; *faujdars*' allowance for district administration, twenty-five per cent. This period has been described as one of barefaced plunder and fleecing without attempt at principle or stability. Whenever the Nizam appointed a collector, the Marathas appointed another, and both claimed the revenue, while foragers from each side exacted forced contributions, so that the harassed cultivator often threw up his land and helped to plunder his neighbour's.

Period of Nizam's Sovereignty 1803—1853 A.D.—This period was one of even worse mal-administration than the former. The system was introduced of farming out the land revenue to contractors, who adhered to no rates, but squeezed what they could out of the ryot's crop and his goods and chattels. Whole talukas and parganas were let and sub-let to speculators for sums far above the ancient standard assessment. During the ministry of Raja Chandu Lal (1820—1840) the land revenue of certain tracts was regularly put to auction at Hyderabad for the highest bid. It is related of that famous minister that he did not even respect these auction sales, as it was usual to do but disposed of the same contracts simultaneously to several different buyers. Then came the opportunity of the pargana officers; he who secured them on his side kept the farm; or sometimes these

officers solved the complication equitably by putting all purchasers on a kind of roster, whereby each got his turn at the collections. While this roster was known to be full, even Raja Chandu Lal could not persuade a fresh set of contractors to deal with him. There is a story told of one of these contractors that he rode out of Hyderabad after the auction with his face to the horse's tail. His followers approached him and asked, 'Why this undignified position?' 'I am on the look-out,' said he, 'for my successor to overtake me'. Some of the great farmers-general deserve mention. One Raja Bisan Chand who held the greater part of the Berar valley in farm about 1831 left a name at which the Kunbi still grows pale; to pronounce it of a morning early is unlucky. Another by name Puran Mal, a mighty money-lender of Hyderabad, at one time got most of Berar in farm. In 1839 he was turned out of his districts by the Nizam's minister, under pressure from the British resident. Puran Mal refused to quit hold of his security for advances made, and showed fight when his successors sent agents to take his place; however, in the end he had to give way; but he presented to the Hyderabad Government an account showing a balance due to him of two millions sterling, which the ministry altogether refused to pay, proving by a different system of book-keeping that Puran Mal was deeply in debt to the treasury. Puran Mal's successors were Messrs. Pestanji and Company, enterprising Parsi merchants, who in 1841 received large assignment of revenue in Berar for reimbursement of advances to the State. But in 1845 they were ordered to give up their Berar districts, and on their refusal their collecting agency was attacked and sixteen men killed. They were then forced to evacuate the assignments with a claim of forty lakhs of rupees against the Nizam. Messrs. Pestanji and Company, had made large and liberal advances to tenants in Berar; they had thus restored cultivation over wide tracts, and rekindled the lamp in many deserted villages. Among Berar agriculturists they left a very good reputation. One result of the farming system and the disorder into which the country fell, was a great decrease in the revenue. The revenue collected about 1815—20 was not more than half the sum which the province was estimated to yield in 1803, and the land revenue of the present Buldana District mentioned in the treaty of 1853 was only a little more than three lakhs, a great fall from the 16 lakhs of Akbar's settlement. Under the farming system the Government had no means of checking false revenue returns, and the rough enquiries made by the British officials after the cession shewed cultivation to be concealed to an incredible extent. Thus in 1854 the Resident reported that whereas the cultivated area in North Berar was recorded at 425,000 *bighas*, the naked eye detected by rapid survey of each village more than 1,700,000 *bighas*. The Government simply looked to the revenue for which the contractor was answerable, and did not trouble about the extension or otherwise of cultivation. In spite of this concealment of cultivation the ryots in 1853 were found to be in a very depressed and impoverished state. This was due, not

so much to the severity of the assessment for that was not found to be too heavy but to its shameful inequality. Deshmukhs, Brahmans, Rajputs and Musalmans were paying an average of $7\frac{1}{2}$ annas a *bigha*, while the Maratha Kunbi was paying as much as Rs. 1-14-0 a *bigha*. The mode of assessment was very arbitrary and seldom had any reference to the capabilities of the soil. Thus it was found that one man was paying Rs. 10 for land of the same extent and description as that for which another man was paying Rs. 100. When waste land was required by a cultivator it was apportioned out by the patwari by guess work so that the amount allotted to any individual depended partly on the ability of the patwari to judge area, and partly on his goodwill towards the cultivator.

Land Tenure and the position of revenue officials prior to 1853.—

The ordinary tenure from time immemorial had been that which permitted a man to keep possession of his fields so long as he paid to Government the customary rent. Some such general principle of reciprocal convenience must have always prevailed, so long as land was more plentiful than cultivators. Malik Ambar (1612 A. D.) is stated to have recognised the ryot's private property in his land, but such rights, if ever they were conferred, cannot long have outlasted the wear and tear of the disorders which followed his death. We may suppose that where the tenants managed to keep land for any long time in one family they acquired a sort of property adverse to all except the Government; that where the land changed often by the diverse accidents of an unsettled age, in such cases occupancy never hardened into proprietary right. Good land would have been carefully preserved, bad land would be often thrown up: failure of crops or the exactions of farmers would sever many holdings; and all rights ceased with continuity of possession. When mis-Government became chronic, and the country was incessantly exposed to be wasted by famine, war or fiscal extortion, the tenant's hold on any one piece of land would be more precarious and ephemeral. But perhaps it may be said that in theory the general basis and limit of property in the land was cultivating occupancy undisturbed, except by violence or injustice, so long as the traditional standing rates of assessment were paid upon the fields taken up. It is easy to see that various rights and prescriptions might, under favouring circumstances, arise out of this sort of holding. Several terms as *mirasi*, *mundkari*, etc., were formerly known to distinguish the class of occupants in Berar whose possession of their land was long established and by descent, but their precise privileges were never closely defined. The essence of these holdings seems to have been the privilege of paying a fixed sum without regard to cultivated area, and the right to trees. The property was also admitted usually to be heritable and transferable. Then certain advantageous tenures were created by expedients used to revive cultivation in deserted tracts; long leases were given at a rent mounting upwards very gradually year by year, or a whole ruined village was made over by what is called *palampat*, which fixes

the rental of the entire estate without taking account of the spread of cultivation. Whatever rights in the land may have grown up previously, they all disappeared under the Maratha and Nizam's Government. Under this regime the mass of cultivators held their fields on a yearly lease which was made out for them by the Patel at the beginning of each season: the land was acknowledged to belong to the State, and as general rule no absolute right to hold any particular field, except by yearly permission of the officials, was urged or allowed. A man could not always give up or transfer his holding without official authorization. Cultivators were ejected from their holdings and others put in their places, as it suited the caprice or interest of the farmer of the revenue. Under such a system all value was wrung out of property in land.

The patels, Deshmukhs and Deshpandias who were employed to manage the collection of land revenue in villages and parganas never got beyond hereditary office nor transmuted themselves into proprietors of the land. The patel always remained the agent between the State and the village tenants for cultivation and collections. He was paid by rent-free land, money dues and dignities, the whole being grouped under the term *watan*. The Deshmukhs and Deshpandias had risen to great local importance under the Muhammadan dynasties. They held by virtue of office the right to take certain dues from the revenue collected in their sub-divisions, but some of the more powerful families received large grants of land in jagir and patents for the collection of additional subsidies, on condition of military or police service and the maintenance of order. Towards the decline of the Mughal power in Berar they sometimes obtained their sub-divisions in farm, and some of them were probably fast developing into the status of talukdars and zamindars of Upper India. But the Nizam and Marathas were too powerful to let any subjects stand between them and the full demand, and in 1853 it was decided that though these officials had frequently, beside their money dues, large quantities of *inam* or revenue-free land, and they themselves advanced the most extravagant pretensions, their real position was that of hereditary officers and not that of landed proprietors.

Early British Administration.—The period from 1853 to 1861, the first year of the survey settlement in Buldana district, was spent by the British officials in clearing up the confusion into which the land-revenue administration had fallen, and in feeling their way towards some better system. The services of the Deshmukhs and Deshpandias were dispensed with but the patel and patwari were retained. The native system was carried on temporarily with the difference that security and fixity of definite demand were given. The Government of India ordered measures to be taken for organizing a survey and suggested a settlement for five years with an annually increasing *jama*, where circumstances warranted it. Further instructions were issued in 1856 to the effect that a revenue survey should be instituted and a settlement

formed which 'while it shall put an end to all unlicensed exemptions and privileges and shall secure a fair revenue to the State, shall by the recognition of proprietary right in those who can establish a hereditary or prescriptive title and by the protection of the interest of other cultivators of the soil, invest tenures of land with security and permanency under certain declared conditions and shall restrict the demand of the State within reasonable limits, which shall not be subject to variation for a fixed term of years'. The system of measurement by the local patwaris was approved; the ryotwari system of settlement was condemned, and the introduction of a village system of settlement with joint responsibility was recommended. Pending the introduction of some regular system of survey and settlement the land-revenue administration appears to have been carried on according to the discretion of each Deputy Commissioner tempered by occasional instructions from superior authority: an annual *jamabandi* was made by the Deputy Commissioner through the medium of the patel, and the account of each man's holding was taken from the patwari's papers. This system was fraught with the greatest inconvenience both to the Government and to the people, and was made a fruitful source of speculation and corrupt practices. Each officer charged with the carrying out of the *jamabandi* arrangements was necessarily virtually charged with discretionary powers to remit revenue to any extent, and was from the extensive tract of country over which his supervision extended, entirely dependent upon his native revenue subordinates for the data on which the *jamabandi* was formed, and could not exercise any real and salutary control over the correctness of the return showing the fluctuations of cultivation and revenue derivable therefrom. In some cases a rough measurement of land under cultivation was made with a rod six cubits in length. The agency available was a very imperfect one, and the magnitude of the work prevented it being carried out with any great accuracy. There was an intention at the outset to rate the land according to its productive powers, as from three to five different rates were found at settlement to exist in some of the villages, but it proved a failure, as at settlement inferior soils were found assessed highly, and rich soils assessed lowly as if there had been no method whatever in the distribution of rates. In some cases of the Mehkar taluk for the first three years the land was assessed by a lump sum being fixed for each village according to its size; the standard adopted at first being the same as that found under native rule. Subsequently the area of the holdings was arrived at by the native system of *nazar andaz* or simple guess work, the eye and imagination being the only 'instruments' used and finally a rough measurement was carried out as in the other taluks. Although these measurements were anything but reliable, neither the means at command nor the mode adopted being calculated to produce very accurate returns, they were nevertheless sufficient to form the basis for a more satisfactory and more equitable system of assessment than the existing one. In order to encourage cultivation and the taking up of waste land, the

system of giving out land on *kauls* (leases at a low but gradually increasing assessment) was also adopted. In 1857 the Commissioner submitted a report on the progress made in the revenue survey. He reported that the *khasra* survey by patwaris had been a complete failure and practically no progress had been made. The Government of India then decided to send professional survey parties to carry out the survey on the system followed in the Punjab and Central Provinces, but for various reasons the operations were postponed. In the meantime in 1859 an experimental survey on the Bombay system of parts of two districts (since handed back to Hyderabad) was started by Captain W. C. Anderson. In 1860 it was proposed that Captain Anderson's operations should be extended to the rest of Berar, and after much demur the Government of India in 1861 consented to the introduction of the Bombay system which will be described later. In spite of the absence of a proper system of settlement this early period of British rule was one of great prosperity. Remissions of revenue were almost unknown. Writing of this period in 1870 Sir A. Lyall remarks that, 'the land revenue increased and multiplied with marvellous rapidity, under the combined stimuli of good Government, railways and the Manchester cotton famine. Cultivation spread over the land like a flood tide'; and Sir R. Temple's remarks in 1867 are also deserving of quotation. "The condition of Berar when the province was assigned to British management, though weakly and needing restorative measures, was not beyond the hope of speedy recovery. And fortunately the means of restoration were at hand; for the soil was famed far and wide among the peasantry for its fertility; and its repute, always high, was further enhanced by the fact of so much of it having remained fallow of late years a circumstance which was supposed to ensure a rich return to those who reclaimed the waste and raised the first crops on virgin culture. The neighbouring districts were full of families who had emigrated thither from Berar, and who with the usual attachment of the people to their original patrimony, were anxious to return on any suitable opportunity. Thus hundreds of families and thousands of individuals immigrated back into Berar. Many villages in the Nagpur country lost many of their hands in this way, and were sometimes put to serious straits. Some apprehension was even caused to the Nagpur officials. But of course the natural course of things had its way, and Eastern Berar became replenished. This was only one mode out of several, which it would be tedious to detail, whereby the cultivation of Berar was restored and augmented.

Up to 1856 there was no regular system of collecting the Government revenue or keeping the accounts. Sometimes money was carried to the credit of Government as revenue, which was in fact borrowed by the Sar Naib (or Tahsildar) from a *sahukar*, the Sar Naib realizing it subsequently as best he could. In some cases the taluk accounts dealt not with villages but with the subordinate charges under the *hamdars*, whose duty it was to make

the collections from the villages and remit them to the taluk *kacheris*. The *kamdars* received receipts from the Sar Naib or Tahsildars, and the village authorities from the *kamdars*. Elsewhere village collections were made very much in *akras* or orders on the moneylender of the village. In 1856 instructions were issued ordering all payments to Government to be made in cash: the patel, as the village representative of Government, was to collect dues, dealing directly with the landowner, to give receipts and to transmit the money direct to the Tahsildar. The *kamdars* interposed between the patels and the Tahsildar were abolished, and the Tahsildars were to give receipts to patels.

Berar survey and settlement system.—The basis or unit of assessment is the survey number or plot of land of a size adapted for cultivation by a peasant with a pair of bullocks. The arable land, whether cultivated or waste but available for cultivation, is split up into these numbers, the area of which is accurately ascertained by survey measurement. Each field is separately measured by means of the chain and cross staff, and in the field register there is a separate map of each field complete in itself. The area of the holding is obtained by simple arithmetic, and the calculations are recorded. This detailed field register obviates the necessity of having the village map on a larger scale than 8 inches to the mile. The area of each survey number does not exceed from 20 to 30 acres, and the minimum below which survey numbers cannot be divided is 5 acres in the case of dry crop land, 1 acre in the case of rice land, and $\frac{1}{2}$ acre in the case of garden land. The fields are marked off from each other by a *dhura* or a narrow strip of land, $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in breadth being left uncultivated between them; by mounds of earth (*warli*) 10 feet in length by 5 feet in breadth, and 3 feet in height, and by stones (*gota*, *patthar*) between $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 feet in length sunk in the ground at certain angles. Besides the culturable land the *gaathan* or village site is also surveyed and allotted, and land is reserved for free grazing and other purposes. The term *parampok* is used for numbers that are unculturable by reason of having tombs, sites of wells etc., on them and the Bombay plan of allowing parts of numbers to be deducted from the culturable area as bad bits (*potkharab*) is followed. The survey being done, the classification of the soil begins. There are three classes of land, unirrigated or dry crop (*jirayat*) land, rice land and garden land which is called *motasthal* if irrigated by means of a well, and *patasthal* if irrigated by a channel. For classification purposes each field is divided temporarily into about twelve parts of some two acres each. Three tests to discover kind of soil, depth of soil, and freedom from defects are made in each part. For the first test soils are divided into three classes or orders, which are described briefly as black, red, and white. The full description is, 'First order, of a fine uniform texture, varying in colour from deep black to deep brown. Second order, of uniform but coarser texture than the preceding and lighter in colour which is generally red. Third order, of coarse, gravelly or loose friable texture, and colour varying from light brown to

grey'. For the second test, that of depth, the soil is dug up and a crowbar driven in until it is obstructed by rock or some hard substratum or until it has gone in $1\frac{3}{4}$ cubits, that is $31\frac{1}{2}$ inches. For the third test a list of eight defects has been drawn up, the chief being the presence of fragments of limestone or of excessive sand, slope, liability to flooding, excess of moisture, and clayey soil. When a classification is being made, the classer draws an outline of each field, marks the parts into which it is temporarily divided and enters in each part figures and symbols to show the results of each test. A soil to be of standard quality, a sixteen-anna soil, must be black, of full depth, and free from all defects. Indeed it may have some special advantage, such as a beneficial flooding in the rains which raises it two or four annas more. For every detail or combination of details in which a plot falls short of standard quality so many annas are deducted according to a table which has been drawn up. Each field is finally valued as a field of so many annas according to the average value of the plots contained in it. In the case of garden land it is necessary in addition to examine the effect of the well or other means of irrigation on the soil. Rice land is classified on a scale of its own. The full details thus obtained about each field are entered in a *prate* or field book which is kept at the headquarters of the District.

These operations of measurement and classification have nothing whatever to do with the pitch or amount of the assessment. They are only the methods by which assessment is distributed over the numerous individual holdings of a ryotwari system. The basis of the distribution of the assessment having been fixed, the next step is for the Settlement Officer to work out the rates of assessment. These rates are determined in the following manner. The area dealt with which is the sub-division of a District known as the taluk, is divided into groups homogeneous as to physical characteristics and economic advantages, such as climate, rainfall, general fertility of soil, communications and the like. For each of these groups uniform maximum rates are fixed. These maximum rates are the sums which would be leviable upon a field, the soil valuation of which is sixteen annas. Thus if the maximum rate be Rs. 3 per acre of a sixteen-anna field, the assessment per acre upon a field the valuation of which was eight annas would be Rs. 1-8-0, and so on. By applying the maximum assessment rates to the soil valuation the rate per acre on each field is arrived at. In an original settlement the difficulty is to arrive at suitable maximum rates. This difficulty was solved for Berar by taking the rates found in the neighbouring District of Khandesh as a basis for the early settlements. Special rates are imposed on rice and irrigated land. The settlement is made for 30 years and at the end of that period is liable to revision. In a revision settlement the Settlement Officer before fixing the maximum rates considers what direction the revision should take. For this purpose he reviews fully every circumstance shown in the past revenue history, prices, markets, communications, rents, selling, letting and mortgage value of land, vicissitudes of seasons,

and every other relevant fact indicating the incidence of the previous assessment and the economic condition of the tract, and upon this indication he bases his proposals for enhancement or reduction of assessment as the case may be. When he finds from the records of the previous settlement, that the assessment was designedly pitched low with the object of encouraging cultivation, or for other reasons deemed sufficient at the time, and if he further finds from the land records of the period of the lease under revision that cultivation has in consequence largely expanded, that prices have risen, that the assessment bears a low proportion to the sale, letting and mortgage value of the land, and that notwithstanding vicissitudes of season the assessment has been paid with conspicuous ease, he will probably propose an increase of assessment. If, however, he should find that the condition of the country has been stationary, that prices have not risen, and that the country has not been developed or any rise occurred in the value of land, he will not propose any enhancement. Again if the assessment at the original settlement was pitched high, and the cultivation has been contracted, or the revenue has proved difficult to collect, and the relation of the assessment to the value and rental of land is found to be high, the Settlement Officer will propose a reduction. The general result to be attained by the revision of assessment being decided on, the maximum rates are proposed which when applied to each field by means of the classification, would bring about that result, higher rates being imposed on those groups which enjoy the greater advantages, and lower on the less favourably situated groups. In this way the total assessment which it is reckoned that the subdivision will bear, is equitably distributed throughout each group, village and field.¹

Survey.—The Survey and Settlement department was organised in 1875 A.D. and then the settlement operations were started immediately and concluded in 1880 A.D. The original survey and settlement had taken place during the years 1862 to 1870. The first Division Settlements were made between 1891 and 1898 and second between 1926 and 1928, except that of Mehkar tahsil. The period of current settlements in all the tahsils of this district have expired and have become overdue for revision. The survey was conducted from field as per actual possession of the holders.

The survey work in this district was done with a chain of 33 feet and cross staff in all the tahsils. The unit of area was the English Anna. Since the adoption of metric system, the unit of area is changed to hectare. The area of each parcel of land is now converted into metric unit. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the Land Records (*akarband*) under the indicative number and the area of sub-division of a survey number is shown in a separate book known as *Pot Hissa Misals*.

Accurate village maps have been prepared on the scale of 1"=20 chains for all surveyed villages showing the survey number

and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, nallahs, etc. From the village maps, tahsil and district maps were constructed to a scale of 1"=2 miles.

Classification.—The classification of land was done in all the tahsils in this district on the pattern of old Bombay State. The main classes of land recognized in 5 tahsils of this district were *jirayat*, *bagayat* and *tari* and each field was classified with reference to the texture of the soil, its depth and advantage of water.

Settlement and Assessment.—The rates are proposed for the whole tahsil. Due consideration is given to factors like climate, rainfall, market, agricultural skill, the actual condition of the cultivator, water resources and general prosperity of the farmers. In addition to this, the capacity of the soil and income of the majority of the persons dependent upon agricultural profession is also taken into consideration. Thus the whole tahsil is divided into groups and maximum rates of assessment are proposed for dry crop as well as rice and *bagayat* lands.

A uniform rate of assessment is proposed after taking into account the sources of water facilities.

All the settlement details are preserved in a book called *Jamabandi* report for the whole tahsil.

Generally 30 years is the guarantee period fixed for the settlement.

Prior to 1954 the settlement procedure prescribed under sections 78 to 105 of Berar Land Revenue Code was applicable to this district. Consequent upon the introduction of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, the procedure laid down in sections 54 to 87 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code was made applicable to the district, so far as lands in non-urban areas were concerned. The procedure is briefly described below.

Settlement is defined as the result of operations conducted in a local area in order to determine the land revenue assessment (section 55 of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code). The Settlement Officer (appointed by the State Government) under section 59 (of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code) fully examines the past revenue history of the area with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on the economic condition of the area and with reference to the various statistical data, and by careful enquiry in villages, he collects information required for the revision of assessment.

If the settlement of any local area is to be made a forecast of the probable results of the settlement is to be prepared under the order of State Government under section 63 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code.

A notice of the intention of the State Government to make settlement together with the proposals based on the forecast is to be published for inviting objections. Such forecast proposals

¹Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Buldana District, Vol. A, 1210, pp. 325—350.

are to be sent to every member of the State Legislative Assembly 21 days before the commencement of the session of the Legislative Assembly. After considering the objections if any and the resolution of the proposals that may be passed by Legislative Assembly, notification of proposed revenue survey under section 64 is to be issued. The local area notified is held under such survey from the date of notification till another notification for closing the operations is issued.

For the purpose of assessment, the settlement officer divides the area to be settled into groups and in farming such groups he takes into consideration the physical features, agricultural and economic conditions and trade facilities under section 70 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The Settlement Officer prepares the proposals of assessment, rates of each group and submits them for the approval of State Government, *vide* section 73 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The assessments are so fixed that the increase in fair assessment of an agricultural holding does not ordinarily exceed 50 per cent of the original. The principles laid down in section 76 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code are followed while fixing the fair assessment. Improvements made at the cost of the holders are exempted for the purposes of enhancement of assessment, *vide* section 76 (5) of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The announcement of settlement is done by giving a notice under section 77 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The assessment finally announced under this section is the Land Revenue payable annually on such land during the term of settlement unless it is annually modified in accordance with the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code or any other law. There is no provision for hearing objections regarding assessment rates or fair assessment in the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. Once the assessment rates are approved by the State Government the Settlement Officer calculates the fair assessment on each holding in accordance with those assessment rates. The term of settlement is to be fixed by the State Government and it is not to be less than 30 years (section 80 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code). The State Government can reduce during the currency of settlement the assessment, if it finds necessary, after considering the general conditions, for such period as it may deem fit. The term of settlement can be reduced to 20 years by the State for special reasons.

For the assessment or reassessment of lands in urban areas, no forecast report is required to be prepared nor is the notification required to be published.

The table No. 1 gives the statistics of demand and collection of Land Revenue, tahsilwise in the district.

TABLE No. 1
DEMAND AND COLLECTION OF LAND REVENUE IN THE DISTRICT

Year (1)	Demand (in Rs.) (2)	Collection (in Rs.) (3)
1952	27,95,792	27,25,344
1955	26,73,907	20,36,140
1961-62	27,64,200	20,62,663
1965-66	37,45,881	10,91,630
1971-72	54,05,555	19,42,146
1973-74	54,51,539	25,62,259

Source.—District Census Handbook, Buldhana, 1961, p. 198.

Record-of-rights.—The intention of the Government in introducing this Act, was to give relief to co-partners of the registered holders who were at the mercy of the *pattedars* as they could neither sell nor mortgage their holdings without the consent of the *pattedars*. It was also intended to protect the rights of the protected tenants and to stop the mal-practices of their eviction at the will and pleasure of the owners of the fields. In the revenue accounts only the names of the *pattedars* were to be found further, when a survey number was sold or partitioned among the heirs, the recorded area and the spot possession differed thus giving rise to confusion. These drawbacks were removed by the introduction of the record-of-rights by the Government.

The register contains survey number, total area, total assessment, the name of the occupant, the number of bits, their area, assessment worked out by the *patwari* dividing the area and assessment in equal parts as per the bits order, the nature of the right of holdings, details of incumbents if any, the number of trees and the share in the well, if any. After the completion of the register, the surveyors are sent for measurement as per the possession of the spot of bit holders.

During the pot-hissa measurement, *gat* plot for each survey number is drawn showing the bits in red ink and their area is worked out with telesquare and not by actual multiplication. At present the assessment of each bit or *hissa* is calculated by working out separate *bhag annas* for each *hissa* and separately finding out its rate as per the individual *bhag annas*.

After the completion of the recess work, *i.e.*, calculation of areas, preparation of *gats*, etc., the announcement slips are prepared for each bit containing the name of the bit holder alongwith the area and assessment. The measurement fees are collected as per the rates stipulated.

If the assessment of the bit is less than Rs. 5, the fee of Rs. 2 is charged per *hissa* and if the assessment of the *hissa* is Rs. 5

or more, the fee of Rs. 4 is charged per *hissa*. In addition to the above amount, an extra fee of Re. 0.50 is collected towards the announcement slip. The recovery is made by the tahsildars on supply of information to them in village form number 12.

Administrative set-up.—This district formed part of the Madhya Pradesh till 1st November, 1956. There was a separate Survey and Settlement Department for Madhya Pradesh. Now the head of the Land Records Department is the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, Maharashtra State, Poona.

Settlement Commissioner.—The Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records is the head of the department. He is assisted in his work by the Regional Deputy Directors. The Superintendent of Land Records is the officer next to the Regional Deputy Director. The jurisdiction of the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur, who is responsible to the Regional Deputy Director at Nagpur, extends over all the eight districts of the Vidarbha region. Under him are the District Superintendents of Land Records (District Inspectors of Land Records) assisted by the District Assistant Superintendents of Land Records. The District Superintendent and the Assistant District Superintendent are assisted in their work by Measurers, Nazul Maintenance Surveyors (for the district survey record room), Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors, Revenue Inspectors, Patwaris and Survey Clerks.

District Superintendent of Land Records.—The District Superintendent of Land Records has to supervise and inspect the works of Revenue Inspectors, Patwaris, Measurers, Survey Clerks, Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors.

He has to arrange for the training of Patwaris and holding of their examination. He is to see that all Revenue Inspectors under him perform their duties. He has also to satisfy himself that the District Survey Records are properly maintained.

The District Superintendent of Land Records is under the immediate control of the Collector, while his immediate superior in all matters of leave, allowances and discipline is Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. The Assistant Superintendent of Land Records is likewise controlled by the Collector and the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records in the same way and manner as the District Superintendent of Land Records. He is to assist the District Superintendent of Land Records in all the inspections and office work.

The main duties of the other Land Records officials are as follows:—

Revenue Inspector.—He is to supervise the work of Patwaris in his circle and to check the village accounts of all the villages under his charge. He is to detail the defaulters of Government dues and to see that every Patwari has maintained the register

of records up-to-date and all mutations have been recorded. He has to check the following records prepared by the Patwaris:—

(1) crop statements, (2) *jamabandi* statements, (3) boundary marks statements, (4) statement of live-stock and agricultural implements, and (5) village accounts. The circle of Revenue Inspector consists of 70 to 80 villages with an area of 70,000 to 80,000 occupied acres. About 20 Patwaris work under him. He keeps close watch over the recovery of Government money by village officials and has to see that all the Government money recovered by them is credited to the Government without delay. He is held responsible if there is any defalcation of Government money by the village officers.

He has to get prepared the *annewari* statements of crops in case of crop failure. He has to do all the measurement work except *pot hissa* measurement in all the villages in his circle and has to prepare sketches, etc.

Measurer: There is a permanent staff of 5 measurers in the district. They are to measure the sub-divisions in their talukas and to work out the areas of the measured sub-divisions. They have to prepare *gat* maps for the Patwaris also.

Survey Clerk: He is to maintain the 'district survey records, make corrections in the survey records and issue *kami jasti patraks* regarding the changes in area and assessment according to orders in revenue cases. He has to issue village and tahsil maps to Government officials and public after due corrections and has to keep account of them. He has to supply *tipan*, *utaras* to all Revenue Inspectors or Tahsildars in the district. He is directly subordinate to the District Superintendent of Land Records.

Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor: Nazul Maintenance Surveyor is responsible for the proper maintenance of the register of records of the towns maintained by the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor. He has to certify the mutations recorded by the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and has to check the base lines and traverse stones in the towns. He has to correct the maps and has to prepare the field books for new changes. He has to write the figures of demand of Nazul revenue in the demand register. He is directly subordinate to the Nazul Officer.

The main duty of the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor is to record mutations, after due enquiry and to maintain the register of records up-to-date. Although they are directly subordinate to the Nazul Officers, they are under the technical and administrative control of the District Superintendent of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur Circle, Nagpur.

Patwari and Cadastral Surveyor: The Patwari is the land record official at village level. He prepares the original annual records and maintains record-of rights and other records

concerning land. He is also subordinate to the revenue officer. The charge of the Patwari consists of 3,740 acres of occupied area, on an average. He maintains the village accounts and helps the patel for recovery of Government money.

All the measurement work except that of a *pot-hissa* measurement in the district is carried out by the Revenue Inspectors as mentioned above. A temporary staff of cadastral surveyors is created now-a-days, when the volume of measurement work increases and where it is beyond the scope of the normal staff to take up the work of measurement connected with the land acquisition cases.

District Survey Record Room: The survey records prepared at the time of settlements are kept in the district survey records room and one official designated as Survey Clerk is placed in-charge of the same. He belongs to Revenue department and must possess perfect knowledge of the survey system. The duties of the Survey Clerk have been described above.

Nazul Work: There are six Nazul towns in Buldhana district. They were surveyed in the year 1929 when enquiry into their rights and titles was completed. There are four Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and four Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors who maintain the record-of-rights. They are working under the supervision of Nazul Officers, i.e., Sub-divisional Officers. The District Inspector of Land Records is the technical supervisor of their work.

Important laws enacted since Independence and applied to this district are:—

The Maharashtra Land Revenue Code (Act No. XLI of 1966) has come into force with effect from August 15, 1967. It has repealed the former Madhya Pradesh Land Records Code which was applicable to this district. This has been done with a view to amend the law relating to tenancy of agricultural lands and sites used for allied pursuits, in the Vidarbha region of the State of Maharashtra and to make certain provisions in regard to those lands and with a view to bringing the status and rights of tenants as far as possible in line with those prevailing in certain other parts of the State.

Special Schemes: The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act (Extension and Amendment) has been brought into force with effect from April 1, 1959 and the work has been started in this district from January 1960. In Malkapur tahsil, up to 1968-69 the consolidation work in 110 villages was completed and 18 new villages were taken up for consolidation work during the year 1969-70 by the Assistant Consolidation Officer, Malkapur.

The Office of the Consolidation Officer, Nagpur, has been transferred to Malkapur and two more Assistant Consolidation Officers, are working at Nandura since June 1, 1967. They have so far completed the work of 23 villages.

City Survey of Urban Towns: The special District Inspector of Land Records (Urban), Akola, has completed the city survey work of Chikhli town. The enquiry work is yet to be started.

Survey of village gaathan: Government have sanctioned the scheme¹ of survey of village *gaathan*. Accordingly the work of survey of 25 villages was completed by the end of May 1969. Out of these 25 villages, the enquiry work of 14 villages was also completed.

Model Colonisation Scheme: During the last three years the survey and demarcation of model colonisation scheme in respect of two villages consisting of 130 plots has been completed by the Cadastral Surveyors and the lands have been allotted by the Collector. Single boundary marks have been fixed at village Marni in Chikhli tahsil. The work of single boundary marks in Nalkunda village in Malkapur tahsil is to be taken up.

Adoption of Metric System in Survey Records: The scheme of adoption of metric system in the survey records was sanctioned by the Government in September 1964 and the post of Special District Inspector of Land Records (Metric System), Akola, with his ancillary staff was created in July 1966, for Akola and Buldhana districts. The work of conversion of survey records from foot pound system to metric system has been completed in respect of all the villages and six Nazul towns. So also the work of converting survey records into record-of-rights in respect of 338 villages was completed up to the end of May 1969.

Forest Survey: Thirteen villages have been proposed by the Forest Department for grant of tenure rights to the forest villagers². The survey work in respect of 11 villages has so far been completed and record-of-rights prepared. The work in respect of two villages is in progress.

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, 1954,
 - (ii) the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act (III of 1936), and
 - (iii) Special Marriage Act (III of 1872); and
- (c) registration of births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act (VI of 1886).

Organisation.—The Inspector General of Registration is the head of the department. Under him is a District Registrar for each district who supervises the registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as an *ex-officio* District Registrar. Under the District Registrar, there are Sub-Registrars with their offices at Buldhana, Chikhli, Deulgaon-Raja, Mehkar,

Lonar, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Malkapur, Nandura, Jalgaon and Tamgaon. The Sub-Registrar at Buldhana, works as the headquarters Sub-Registrar and assists the District Registrar in the administration of the registration department and exercises powers under section 30 (i) of the Indian Registration Act, 1908.

The Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector General of Registration.

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector General of Registration in all departmental matters. He renders advice on the difficulties raised by the Sub-Registrars in their day-to-day work. He visits the sub-registry offices in his district at least once in every two years and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector General of Registration. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by Sub-Registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34 of the Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct the documents concerned to be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in the cases of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or a codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover, and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the depositor's death.

Senior Sub-Registrars are appointed as Inspectors of Registration. Their work is to inspect the work of all sub-registry offices in their charge. The jurisdiction of the Inspector of Registration, Akola Division extends over the district of Buldhana.

Registration of Documents.—Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. Documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid are registered. A record of such registered documents is kept and extracts of documents affecting property in respect of which record-of-rights is maintained are sent to the offices concerned for making mutations. Certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents are also issued to parties who apply for them. In all 21,142 and 26,642 documents were registered in the district during 1967 and 1968, respectively. Their details are as under:—

(A) *Immoveable property*

Year (1)	No. of compulsory registrations (2)	Aggregate value (3)	Optional registrations (4)	Aggregate value (5)	Wills (6)
1967	20,325	Rs. 2,19,65,509	462	Rs. 12,04,636	216
1968	25,684	3,34,70,073	552	14,22,268	219

(B) *Moveable property*

Year (1)	No. of documents (2)	Aggregate value (3)
		Rs.
1967	139	1,65,575
1968	187	75,225

Fees are levied for registration according to the prescribed scale but the State Government have exempted or partially exempted levy of registration fees, etc., in respect of documents pertaining to the societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

Photo-copying system.—All the sub-registry offices in this district are under the photo-copying system since January 16, 1964. During the year 1968, 23,310 documents were photographed as against 20,430 in 1967.

Income and expenditure.—The average annual income and expenditure of the registration department in Buldhana district was Rs. 2,56,874 and Rs. 81,337, respectively (based on the figures for 1966 to 1968).

SALES TAX

Sales tax, the most important source of revenue to the State, was first introduced in the former State of Madhya Pradesh in Central Provinces and Berar with effect from 1st June 1947 by the Central Provinces and Berar Sales tax Act, 1947 (XXI of 1947). The Act underwent various amendments from time to time. The former Act was replaced on 1st January 1960 and the Bombay Sales Tax Act (LXXVI of 1959) was brought into force from 1st January 1960.

Dealers liable to pay tax.—Under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, the dealers have been divided in three categories, viz., (1) importer, (2) manufacturer and (3) others.

In respect of the importer the liability to pay tax commences when the value of any goods imported is not less than Rs. 2,500.00 and his total turnover of sales or purchases exceeds Rs. 10,000.00. The manufacturer becomes liable to pay tax if the value of goods manufactured by him exceeds Rs. 2,500.00, his total turnover of sales or purchases exceeds Rs. 10,000.00 and his taxable sales or purchases exceed Rs. 2,500.00 or more.

The other dealers become liable to pay tax if the total value of their purchases or sales exceeds Rs. 30,000.00 and their taxable sales or purchases exceed Rs. 2,500.00.

As soon as any of the dealers from the above category becomes liable to pay sales tax he has to apply for registration. When registered he has to file returns under section 32 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act. The dealers under the Sales Tax Act in the district were 1,401 and 1,312 in 1957-58 and 1958-59, respectively.

The dealers are assessed under section 33 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act. The assessments are completed after allowing deductions contemplated under sections 7, 8, 9 and 10 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959. For the purpose of assessment the dealers are divided in 2 categories (1) non-document holders and (2) document holders.

On fulfilment of certain conditions stated in sections 23, 24, 25, 26 and 27 the dealer is entitled to hold documents known as licence, authorisation, recognition and permits. On the strength of his documents a dealer can purchase goods without payment of tax to his vendor or on concessional rates under section 11 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act. Section 35 of the Act contemplates reassessment of the dealer if his turnover has escaped assessment under section 33 of the Act.

Penalty has been provided under section 36 for not furnishing the returns in time and payment of tax and concealment of transactions by the dealer.

If the dealer fails to pay the amount of tax assessed, the same is recovered as arrears of land revenue under section 38 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act. Section 39 of the Act provides for special mode of recovery. Under this section recovery can be effected from a person who holds money on behalf of the defaulter.

Section 37 of the Act provides for forfeiture of tax collected by the dealer in contravention of the provisions under this Act.

Section 52 of the Act provides for reference of any dispute arising from the assessment of a dealer to the department.

Provisions for appeals against the assessment order have been made in sections 54 to 61 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act.

Section 62 provides for rectification of mistakes apparent in the records.

Section 63 provides for prosecution of the persons committing various offences. The compounding of offences has been provided for under section 69 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act.

There are 5 schedules incorporated in the Act. Schedule A deals with tax free commodities. The other Schedules are concerned with provisions for bringing the commodities under the purview of the sales tax and general sales tax. Sections 13 and 14 provide for the imposition of purchase tax under the Act.

For regularising the administration of the Act, the Bombay Sales Tax Rules, 1959 have been framed.

The Act being a multi-point one, provisions pertaining to the set-off to be given are made under the Rules and such set-off is ordinarily given to dealers who manufacture goods for sale or who export goods outside the State.

A-1198-40-B.

Classes of tax.—Unlike the Bombay Sales Tax Act (1953) the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act (1947) provided for the levy of tax only at the point of sale, i.e., it was a single point tax. The provisions of section 4 (6) of the Act which came into force with effect from 1st December 1953 do not actually amount to purchase tax but are only intended to seal off a loophole for evasion of sales tax on goods purchased on the strength of declarations.

No tax was levied on goods specified in Schedule II which consists of 43 entries. Goods specified in Part I of schedule I were taxable at one anna in a rupee up to 7th April 1957. This rate was changed to 7 paise after the introduction of decimal coinage system. The goods specified in Part II of schedule I were taxable at 3 pies in a rupee up to 7th April 1957 and 2 paise from 8th April 1957 onwards. All other goods not covered by any of the entries of Schedule I or II were taxable at 6 pies in a rupee up to 7th April 1957 and at 3 paise from 8th April 1957 onwards.

The scheme of the Act (1947) is such that no tax is imposed on the sale of goods made in the course of inter-state trade and commerce. Further, tax on a particular transaction is to be paid only once. Generally the wholesalers or manufacturers are not required to pay tax, unless they sell their goods to unregistered dealers or customers direct. The goods required directly for use in the manufacture of articles for sale can also be purchased free of tax by manufacturers and by giving declaration in the prescribed form to the seller.

Administrative Organisation.—The Sales Tax Officer exercises the powers delegated to him by the Commissioner of Sales Tax for administration of the Act. He registers the dealers liable to pay tax and receives returns from them. After the close of the year adopted for the purpose of calculation by the dealers, the sales tax office prepares the assessment case on the strength of returns furnished by the dealers. The dealer is assessed under section 33 by the Sales Tax Officer.

Immediately above the Sales Tax Officer there is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration) who supervises the work of the Sales Tax Officers within his jurisdiction. There is also the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Appeals) who hears appeals preferred against the assessment orders passed by the Sales Tax Officers. Over the Assistant Commissioners there is one Deputy Commissioner who exercises control over the Assistant Commissioners and Sales Tax Officers for the administration of Act. The Deputy Commissioner exercises both appellate and administrative powers. At the apex of the sales tax organisation is the Commissioner of Sales Tax, who, exercises all the powers under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959. Under section 55 of the Act the dealer can go in appeal against the order passed by the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Appeals) to the Sales Tax Tribunal or to Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax in the Second Appeal.

Section 61 relates to certain questions of law arising out of the orders passed by the Tribunal.

Statistics of Collections.—The following statement gives the amount of Sales Tax collected in Buldhana district:—

Year (1)	Amount Collected		
	B. S. T. Act, 1959	C. S. T. Act, 1956	M. S. T. Act
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950	..	..	..
1951	..	..	..
1952	..	..	..
1953	2,16,903-8-0	..	..
1954	11,30,421-0-0	..	..
1955	12,49,624-6-6	..	..
1-1-56 to 31-10-56 ..	7,36,620-0-0	..	..
1-11-56 to 31-3-57 ..	5,16,802-0-9	..	..
1957-58	18,09,369-13	1,58,812-27	..
1958-59	12,38,471-29	3,84,669-67	18,912-69
1959-60	10,60,200-02	2,81,781-60	731-22
1960-61	12,08,017-29	3,39,920-09	12-00
1961-62	9,16,660-17	4,20,145-07	84-00
1962-63	9,40,189-74	5,84,047-37	30-00
1963-64	11,26,741-47	8,20,076-03	28-00
1964-65	11,72,720-00	7,50,081-74	37-00
1965-66	13,38,294-88	5,92,606-53	32-00
1966-67	13,70,826-24	7,50,197-49	4-00

STAMPS

Organisation.—The Superintendent of Stamps, with headquarters at Bombay, is the authority that controls the supply and sale of State stamps in the State. In Buldhana district the Collector of Buldhana is the administrative head of the department. The Sadar Treasury Officer, Buldhana is in charge of stamps. The work is done by a senior clerk under the supervision and control of the Treasury Officer, Buldhana who is a gazetted officer. He is in charge of the local depot at Buldhana and is responsible for the branch depots and the sale of stamps to the public. The Treasury Officer is not empowered to grant refunds of the value of unused, spoiled or obsolete stamps. A branch depot is located at every tahsil headquarters and is in charge of the Sub-Treasury Officer, who is an officer of the Finance department.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold not only at the local and branch depots but also at various other centres by vendors authorised by Government. There are 37 such vendors in the district. Non-judicial and judicial stamps above the value of Rs. 30 and Rs. 100, respectively, in each case are sold at the treasury and the sub-treasury. The stamps senior clerk and the Sub-Treasury officer work as *ex-officio* stamp vendors. Stamps below this value in each case are sold by the authorised vendors.

The total income from stamps realised in Buldhana district during the year 1967-68 was Rs. 10,69,808.00 from non-judicial stamps and Rs. 3,58,491.00 from judicial stamps.

MOTOR VEHICLES

Motor Vehicles Act.—The Motor Vehicles department with headquarters at Bombay is concerned with the administration of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, as amended by Act 100 of 1956 and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Rules, 1959, the Bombay Motor Vehicles Taxation Rules 1959; the Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1959 and the rules made thereunder. The department is headed by the Commissioner of Transport, Maharashtra State. For the purposes of administration of the above Acts in the State, regional transport offices have been set up in Bombay, Poona, Thana, Nagpur and Aurangabad with sub-regional offices at Amravati, Kolhapur and Nasik. For the enforcement of Chapter IV of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, a State Transport Authority and a Regional Transport Authority have also been constituted by Government by Notification under section 44 of the Act.

The jurisdiction of the Regional Transport Officer, Nagpur, extends over the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Wardha, Yeotmal, Akola and Amravati besides Buldhana. However, for administrative convenience the work in Amravati, Yeotmal, Akola and Buldhana districts is controlled by the Assistant Regional Transport Officer with headquarters at Amravati.

State Transport Authority.—There is a State Transport Authority for the State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities and policies of the Regional Transport Authorities. The Regional Transport Authority controls the different categories of transport vehicles in the regions according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It has also control over the drivers of all public service vehicles and conductors, has the power to take departmental action against those permit holders who commit breach of any condition of permits and is competent to prescribe policy in certain important matters relating to vehicular transport in the region.

Commissioner of Transport: The Commissioner of Transport is the administrative head of the department and also *ex-officio* secretary and member of the State Transport Authority, Bombay.

The Commissioner of Transport is also the Taxation Authority for the fleet owners (owner owning 100 or more than 100 transport vehicles) under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958, and Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958. He is also the Taxation Authority for motor vehicles visiting the State of Maharashtra for inter-state transport both under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958, and the Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act, 1962.

Regional Transport Authority: The Regional Authority for the Nagpur region with its headquarters at Nagpur has jurisdiction over Buldana district and also over Nagpur, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Wardha, Amravati, Akola and Yeotmal districts. The Regional Transport Authority, Nagpur, the Superintending Engineer, Roads and Buildings, Amravati, the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Nagpur Range, two officials nominated by notification by Government and the Regional Transport Officer who works as the secretary to the Regional Transport Authority.

Regional Transport Officer: The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the Authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer, he is the licensing authority for licensing drivers, conductors and the registering authority for registering vehicles. He is also vested with powers of prosecuting offenders under the Motor Vehicles law. The Assistant Regional Transport Officer, Amravati, is in charge of the sub-region comprising the districts of Amravati, Akola, Yeotmal and Buldhana with its headquarters at Amravati. The Assistant Regional Transport Officer exercises the powers of the licensing authority and the taxation authority for the area of the sub-region. He is assisted by the Regional Supervisor of Motor Vehicles in taxation matters. Under Regional Transport Officers there are in all six Inspectors of Motor Vehicles and six Assistant Inspectors of Motor Vehicles.

Motor Vehicles Inspectors.—The duties of Motor Vehicles Inspectors are to inspect transport vehicles (goods vehicles, buses and cabs) and issue certificates of fitness; to inspect vehicles for registration; to carry out tests of competence of persons to drive motor vehicles; to carry out tests of persons applying for grant of conductor's licences in stage carriages; to inspect vehicles involved in accidents, whenever their services are requisitioned by the Police; to carry out tours for the purposes of enforcement of the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act and Rules and to check and report infringements to the Regional Transport Officer for further action; to collect taxes and issue learners licences and to effect renewal of driving licences and conductors licences at tour centres. The Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors generally do not act independently but assist the Motor Vehicles Inspectors in the discharge of their duties.

Liaison with Police Department.—This department has liaison with the Police Department which is in general control of vehicular traffic in checking motor vehicles periodically and detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to the references from Motor Vehicles department in the matter of verification of character and antecedents of applicant for grant of authorisation to drive public service vehicles, conductors licences, contract carriage permits in respect of taxi cabs, auto-rikshaws, etc. Besides, it assists in the verification of motor vehicles which are off the road, recovery of arrears of taxes and notification of parking places and halting stations for specified types of motor vehicles. The District Magistrate also renders all possible help to this department in connection with the control of vehicular traffic by imposition of restrictions on laden weights and speed limits of motor vehicles on specified roads and bridges in the interest of public safety.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.—Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles used or kept for use in this State except those designed and solely used for agricultural operations on farms and farm-lands. The taxes are imposed according to the type of vehicle (*e.g.*, motor cycles and tri-cycles, goods vehicles, passenger buses, etc.) and their laden or unladen weight and seating capacity. The Act has removed all municipal and state tolls on motor vehicles. The rules made under the Act lay down that when a motor vehicle is to be registered within this State, the taxation authority, *i.e.*, the Regional Transport Officer or the Assistant Regional Transport Officer shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration *i.e.*, the make of the vehicle, its capacity, etc., and determine the rate of tax for which the motor vehicle is liable. Every registered owner or person in possession or control of a motor vehicle who wants to use or keep it for use in this State has to pay the tax determined in accordance with the tax Act and rules thereunder. In the case of transport vehicles the limits within which the owners of a vehicle intends to use the vehicle, *i.e.*, whether only within the limits of a particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State have also to be declared. Similarly, the fuel used for motor vehicles has also to be specified for appropriate assessment. On payment of tax due, a token 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 a public place. A fresh declaration in the prescribed form has to be made annually or every time the tax is to be paid *i.e.*, quarterly or half yearly. The taxation authority before issuing the tax taken in respect of the payment of tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid. Every owner or person in possession or control of a motor vehicle has to give an advance intimation of his intention of keeping his vehicle in non-use during any period for which he desires to be exempted from the payment of tax and declare the place of garage while

in non-use from where he is not to remove it without payment of tax due in advance or without the prior permission of the taxation authority.

Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act.—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 20 per cent inclusive of the amount of fares payable to the operators of stage carriages. In the case of such carriages used exclusively within a municipal area or on such routes serving municipal and adjacent areas, as may be approved by the State Government, the rate of passenger tax payable is only five per cent. The onus of collection of the tax and its payment to the State Government is on the operator who has to submit prescribed returns to the taxation authority at regular intervals laid down in the rules made under the Act.

The Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act.—The Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act, 1962, provides for levy and collection of a tax on goods carried by road in vehicles (both private and public). In the case of a public goods vehicle it is at the rate of three per cent of the freight charged for the carriage of goods and in the case of a private goods vehicle it is at the rate of four-tenths of a paisa per metric tonne per kilometre. The Act and Rules made thereunder also require the operators to submit periodical returns and to maintain the relevant accounts and records which are to be produced before the taxation authority whenever required. The operator, however, is permitted to make payment on lumpsum basis for which necessary permission is to be obtained at the commencement of every financial year or whenever the liability arises for the first time. The rate of lumpsum tax is based on the load capacity of a motor vehicle and the tax is payable annually or for one or more quarters. On payment of the tax due, the taxation authority issues the necessary certificate of payment which has to be carried on the motor vehicle whenever in use in a public place. Exemption from payment of the tax on the ground of non-use is admissible in the case of those who opt to pay tax on lumpsum basis and only where: (i) the non-use of the vehicle is or shall be for a continuous period of not less than three complete calendar months, and (ii) the taxation authority is satisfied that the motor vehicle has been exempted from the tax imposed under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958 on the ground of non-use for the period in question.

CHAPTER 12 — LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

POLICE

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT ARE MANIFOLD and those relating to maintenance of law and order and security to life and property of citizens are carried out through Police, Judicial, Social Welfare and Jail Departments. In what follows is detailed the functioning and set up of these departments in the district.

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, treasury, 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 execution of warrants in criminal cases, inspection of explosives and poison shops, extinguishing fires, giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, passport and naturalisation inquiries, etc.

Organisation.—Under section 17 of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951), the District Magistrate has full control over the District Police Force. In exercising this authority the District Magistrate is subject to the rules and orders made by the State Government and to the lawful orders of the revenue commissioner. Under section 6 (1) of the Bombay Police Act, 1951, the direction and supervision of the entire Police Force in the State vests with the Inspector General of Police, who is assisted by one or more Assistant Inspectors General of Police of the rank of the District Superintendent of Police. It is the province of the Inspector General of Police, to advise the Government on all problems, especially those connected with police personnel, their training and equipment, supplies and stores, financial provision for the sanctioning of the force, the powers and duties of various grades of officers, and to make rules and orders for the guidance of the officers on all such matters. He has to keep in touch by frequent inspections, with the requirements of the Police Force so as to maintain its efficiency and has to keep due watch over all matters relating to the maintenance of law and order and prevention and detection of crime.

For the purpose of administration, the State is divided into four Police Ranges, besides the three Commissionerates in Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police who is second in the police hierarchy is in charge of the Greater Bombay Police Force. The Commissioners of Police at

Poona and Nagpur are of the rank of the Deputy Inspector General of Police.

The State Criminal Investigation Department is divided into two branches *viz.*, (1) intelligence, and (2) 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 have a number of Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Head-Constables working under them. 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.

There are eight State Reserve Police Force groups each under a Commandant of the rank of the Superintendent of Police. These groups are under control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Armed Forces, Bombay.

The Police Training College at Nasik, the schools at Khandala, Jalna and Nagpur and the Motor Transport Organisation are under the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Training and Special Units, Bombay. The Wireless Organisation is headed by an officer designated as the Director of Police Wireless, who is of the rank of the Deputy Inspector General of Police.

Each range in the State is in charge of a Range Deputy Inspector General and is divided into districts. Each range corresponds to the revenue division except that of Ratnagiri which though in the Bombay revenue division is included in the Poona Police Range and Ahmadnagar though in the Poona revenue division is included in the Bombay Police Range, the reason being that because of their geographical position, the police working in the districts of Ratnagiri and Ahmadnagar can more conveniently be supervised by the Deputy Inspector General, Poona Range, whose headquarters is at Kolhapur and Deputy Inspector, General, Bombay Range, whose headquarters is at Nasik, respectively.

Subject to the control of the Inspector General of Police and the District Magistrate in their respective spheres of authority, the direction and regulation of the police throughout the district is vested in the Superintendent of Police, who as executive head of the Police Force has full control over the internal economy of the force under him. His primary duties are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and content and to ensure, by constant supervision, the proper and effective prevention, investigation and detection of the crime in his district.

Each district is divided into two or three Sub-divisions. Each Sub-division is in charge of a Sub-divisional Police Officer, who is of the rank of the Assistant Superintendent of Police or the Deputy Superintendent of Police and he is responsible for the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his charge. Subject to the general orders of the Superintendent of Police, he is responsible for efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in

his sub-division. He has to hold detailed inspections of Police Stations and out posts in his charge at regular intervals.

Buldhana district, which has its headquarters at Buldhana, is divided into two Police Sub-divisions, *viz.*, Buldhana Sub-Division and Khamgaon Sub-Division, with their headquarters at Buldhana and Khamgaon, respectively. Each Sub-Division is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer. He is responsible for all crime work in his charge and visits all scenes of serious offences as laid down in the standing orders. He is also responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division.

At the district headquarters, the Superintendent of Police is assisted by an Inspector of Police, who is designated as the Home Police Inspector. He works as a Personal Assistant to the Superintendent of Police and supervises the work of the whole office which consists of the establishment, accounts, crime and confidential branches, disposing of routine correspondence and various other miscellaneous items of work. He also supervises the work at the District Police Headquarters.

There are 22 Police Stations and 6 out-posts of which 5 are taluka Police Stations and 17 Rural Police Stations. Buldhana Sub-division contains 11 Police Stations with headquarters at Buldhana, Chikhli, Dhad, Amdapur, Andhera, Deulgaon Raja, Mehkar, Lonar, Janephal, Kingaon Raja and Sakharkheda and 3 out posts, at Deulgaon Mahi, Dongaon and Sakharkheda. Khamgaon Sub-division also contains 11 Police Stations *viz.*, at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Borakhedi, Dhamangaon, Nandura, Jalgaon, Pimpalgaon Raja, Hiwar Kheda, Shegaon, Jalamb and Tamgaon and 3 out posts, namely at Chandurbiswa, Wadnerbholji, and Paturda. Jalgaon, Khamgaon, Mehkar, Malkapur and Chikhli are Taluka Police Stations, while the rest are rural Police Stations. A Sub-Inspector of Police is ordinarily the officer in charge of the Police Station. The Police Station Officer exercises all the powers as defined in the Criminal Procedure Code. The Sub-Inspector is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime in his charge and for implementation of the orders and instructions issued by the Superior Officers. He is also responsible for the proper maintenance of the discipline of the police under his control. He is provided with the required strength of head constables and constables for attending to the various duties in his charge. The head constables keep him informed of all crime in their beats and assist him in the investigation and detection of crime. When incharge of a particular post or beat, the head constables act in all police matters in co-operation with the heads of the village police, *viz.*, the police *patils*. When attached to a Police Station, the seniormost of them present at the Police Station at a particular time holds charge of the Police Station in the absence of the Sub-Inspector, and attends to all routine work, including investigation of crime, and exercises all the powers of the Police Station Officer as laid down in the Criminal Procedure Code.

The police constables perform such duties as are laid down in standing orders and circulars, etc., and also those entrusted to them by the Sub-Inspector and the head constable under whose charge they are posted.

The control and administration of the Railway Police in the district is vested in the Superintendent of Police, Central, South-Eastern and Western Railways, Nagpur, who has separate force under him, organised on the lines of the District Police. He functions under the supervision and control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Crime and Railways (CID), Maharashtra State, Poona, and the Inspector General of Police.

Recruitment.—Appointments of the Superintendents of Police are made by promotion of the Assistant Superintendents of Police and the Deputy Superintendents of Police in accordance with regulations made in that behalf by the Government of India in consultation with the State Government and the Union Public Service Commission. Recruitment to the cadre of an Assistant Superintendent of Police, who belongs to the Indian Police Service, is made by the Government of India on the recommendations 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 Indian Police Service probationers are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for 3 months and in the districts for practical training for 9 months before they are appointed to hold independent charges as Sub-divisional Police Officers. Assistant Superintendents of Police are considered eligible for promotion to senior posts in the Indian Police Service cadre after their confirmation in the Indian Police Service in vacancies in the direct recruitment quota.

Seventy per cent of the total number of appointments on the sanctioned cadre of the Deputy Superintendents of Police are filled in by promotion from the lower ranks of the district Police Force and the remaining 30 per cent by direct recruitment, which is made by the State Government from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Candidates appointed by direct recruitment are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a 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 the Government.

After a year's training at the Police Training College, they are required to undergo military training for five 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 have put in eight years service as the Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Appointments of the Inspectors of Police are made by the Inspector General of Police by promotion of the Police Sub-Inspectors who are found fit for promotion by the selection board comprising the Inspector General of Police as Chairman and Commissioner of Police/Deputy Inspectors General of Police as members. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made.

Recruitment of the Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector General of Police both by promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the District Police Force and by direct recruitment, 50 per cent of the vacancies being 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 selected either from outside or from the Police Department. These candidates in the first instance, are selected for training in the Police Training College, Nasik as Police Sub-Inspector. The selection is made by the Inspector General of Police assisted by a committee composed of the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, a Deputy Inspector General of Police and the Principal, Police Training College, Nasik.

Recruitment to the posts of police constables is direct; and for the posts of head constables, it is generally from the rank of constables by promotion. However, to attract better educated men, recruitment of head constables is made direct from qualified candidates to the extent of 33 per cent of the vacancies that may occur.

Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau.—With a view to eradicating the evil of corruption and running a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of the Government, the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau has been created under the control of a Deputy Inspector General of Police who is designated as the Director, Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau, Maharashtra State, with his headquarters at Bombay. He has been declared as the head of the department under the administrative control and supervision of the home department of the State Government. He is assisted by an officer of the rank of the Superintendent of Police, who is *ex-officio* Deputy Commissioner of Police and six other officers of the rank of the Assistant Commissioners of Police/Deputy Superintendents of Police. The Bureau has its offices in all districts and has four Regional Units with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur each in the charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police. The unit for Greater Bombay is in charge of the Deputy Commissioner of Police.

The Anti-Corruption Unit at Buldhana is headed by a Police Sub-Inspector, who is assisted by 2 constables.

State Reserve Police Force.—With a view to providing the armed force which may be required at any place in the State to deal with any serious disturbances 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 facilities.

Training Institutions.—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 charge of a Principal, who is of the rank of the Superintendent of Police. He is assisted by a Deputy Superintendent of Police designated as the Vice-Principal and by the requisite number of Police Inspectors, Police Prosecutors, Sub-Inspectors and head constables, who are employed as instructors.

There are Regional Police Training Schools at Khandala, Jalna, Nagpur and Bombay which provide training for unarmed constables and they are in charge of Principals, who are of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police/Assistant Commissioner of Police. The Principals are assisted by the necessary staff of Inspectors, Police Prosecutors, etc.

Women Police Branch.—Women Police Branches exist in almost all the districts of the State. 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 Executive Police Officers at the time of holding inquests on dead bodies of women, whenever required.

The Women Police Branch in the district consists of two women head constables and six women police constables.

Arms Inspection Branch.—There is an arms inspection branch under the charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police, whose head quarters are at Bombay. He is assisted by 2 Police Inspectors, 1 Police Sub-Inspector, 3 Head constables and 4 Police Constables. The main function of the branch is to inspect the arms and bicycles held by the police regularly and to ensure their proper maintenance. The branch is under the control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Armed Forces.

Motor Transport Section.—A Motor Transport Section for the whole State under the control of a Superintendent of Police, designated as the Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport, is organised for maintaining a fleet of motor vehicles and water craft for police duties. The Motor Transport Section at the district level consists of (i) a District Motor Transport Section at the headquarters of each district, and the 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 Superintendent of Police of the district or the Commandant of the group, as the case may be, and, for technical supervision, under the Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport.

The Buldhana district has a fleet of 8 vehicles including 2 jeeps, 1 state car and 5 personnel carriers.

Wireless Grid.—In order to facilitate quick communications pertaining to law and order between Police Units in this State and with other States, a Police Wireless Grid has been established and it is under the control of a Deputy Inspector General of Police designated as the Director of Police Wireless, Maharashtra State. The grid consists of wireless telegraphy circuits of high frequency and very high frequency with static and mobile stations and broadcast service stations. There are wireless stations at the headquarters of each district/State Reserve Police Force group and in the three Commissionerates of Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur cities. The wireless personnel in Bombay and those attached to the districts and S. R. P. F. groups are under the control of the Commissioners of Police, Superintendents of Police and the Commandants at the S. R. P. F. groups concerned, respectively.

The district has a network of high frequency system of communications. There are two Wireless Stations in the District. One is located at the district headquarters and the other at Khamgaon.

Village Police.—At the village level, the District Police are helped by the village police. Under Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867), the control of the village police rests with the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate may, however, delegate his authority in certain matters 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 and criminals 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 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 1968, the number of police *patils* in the district was 1,188.

Village Defence Parties.—The Village Defence Parties are chiefly meant for the defence of the villages against depredations of dacoits and other types of criminals and for the protection of persons, watch and ward, security of property and the public safety of the villages.

At the close of the year 1968, Village Defence Parties were formed in 225 villages with 2,335 members.

Strength.—During the year 1968 (13-12-1968), the strength of the District Police Force was 52 officers and 959 men. The composition of the Police Force was as under:—

Superintendent of Police	1
Deputy Superintendents of Police	2
Police Inspectors	4
Police Sub-Inspectors	45
Head Constables	356
Police Constables	603
Total ..	1,011

Literacy.—Amongst the 52 officers and 959 men of the Buldhana district at the close of the year 1968, none was illiterate.

Housing.—Officers of and below the rank of Police Inspectors are entitled to rent free quarters.

Prosecuting staff and Prosecutions.—There were eight police prosecutors in this district. The senior most police prosecutor stationed at the district headquarters supervises and co-ordinates the work of all the police prosecutors. Each police prosecutor is entrusted with the work of prosecution of criminal cases in one or more courts. The total number of cases conducted by the prosecuting staff in 1968 was 4,261 of which 2,010 cases ended in conviction.

Welfare Fund.—A benevolent fund known as the 'police welfare fund' was started in the district with a view to providing amenities and comforts to the policemen and their families and other low paid staff of the department. The fund is of a private nature and is operated in accordance with the Welfare Fund Rules framed by the Inspector General and approved by the Government. The fund is raised through the periodical contributions of the members of the fund, donations and entertainment programmes, etc. staged for augmenting the fund. The fund is operated by the Superintendent of Police in his official capacity. Out of the proceeds of the fund, a news paper library, a floor mill, a *balak-mandir*, a sewing class, etc., have been started and conducted for the welfare of families and children of the policemen at the district headquarters. A multi-purpose hall has also been constructed for providing entertainment programmes, etc. Out of this fund, monetary help for purchase of school books, payment of tuition

fees in respect of deserving students for school and college education, purchase of costly medicines not stored by Government hospitals, loans for purchase of sewing machines, is given. Sports articles are also supplied from this fund. Cheap grains shops are also being run from the fund for the benefit of the police families at Buldhana, Khamgaon and Malkapur. The balance in this fund at the end of the year 1968, was Rs. 73,139.06.

JAILS

Organisation.—In Buldhana district, there is one District Prison class III and six magisterial lock-ups. The District Prison class III is located at Buldhana. Magisterial lock-ups are located at (1) Chikhli, (2) Mehkar, (3) Malkapur, (4) Jalgaon, (5) Khamgaon and (6) Buldhana.

The District Prison at Buldhana is mainly meant for confinement of short-term casual prisoners and local under trial prisoners.

For the purposes of Prison administration the State is divided into two divisions, viz., Eastern and Western. The Eastern Division is composed of the revenue divisions of Aurangabad and Nagpur and the Western Division, of Bombay and Poona. The Inspector-General of Prisons, Maharashtra State, Poona, exercises general control and superintendence over all prisons and jails in the State subject to the orders of the State Government. The Superintendents of Nagpur Central Prison and the Yeravada Central Prison have been appointed as the *ex-officio* Deputy Inspectors-General of Prisons for the Eastern and Western Divisions, respectively. Some of the powers exercised by the Inspector-General of Prisons have been delegated to the Deputy Inspector-General of Prisons. They are in immediate overall charge of the prisons in their respective divisions.

The Superintendent, Buldhana District Prison, is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to discipline, internal economy, labour, punishment, etc., subject to the orders and authority of the Regional Deputy Inspector-General of Prisons, Eastern Region, Nagpur, and Inspector-General of Prisons. The Superintendent of Prison is assisted by the executive and ministerial staff.

Prisoners promoted to the rank of convict overseers and night watchmen are utilised for prison services.

Recruitment.—The post of the Inspector-General of Prisons is filled by the appointment of an officer belonging to the Indian Administrative Service or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of the Superintendent of Central Prisons (*i.e.*, including the holder of the post of the Deputy Inspector-General) or by transfer of a suitable officer in Maharashtra Medical Service, Class I, or by direct recruitment.

The Superintendents of Central Prisons are officers promoted from the ranks of Superintendents of District Prisons. The seniormost Superintendent of Central Prison is usually appointed

to hold the post of Deputy Inspector-General in consultation with the Public Service Commission. The Superintendents of District Prisons are appointed both by direct recruitment or by promotion from amongst the Jailors in Grade I in the proportion of 1:2. Jailors in Grade I are also appointed both by direct recruitment and by departmental promotion from amongst Jailors in Grade II in the proportion of 1:2. The candidates for direct recruitment to the post of Superintendent of a District Prison and/or Jailor, Grade I, must hold a bachelor's degree with honours. They are recommended for appointment by the State Public Service Commission. A diploma in sociology or penology is considered to be an additional qualification. Appointments to Jailors, Grade II, are made by the Inspector-General by promotion of Jailors in Grade III. Appointments to Jailors, Grade III are also made by the Inspector-General. However 50 per cent of the posts are open to outside candidates who must necessarily be graduates, while the remaining posts are filled in by promotion of suitable departmental candidates who have passed the S. S. C. or its equivalent examination. The candidates for appointment to the posts of Jailor, Grade III, are interviewed by a Selection Board consisting of the Inspector-General and two Superintendents of Prisons who are nominated by Government. The posts of sepoys are filled in by direct recruitment and higher posts from the guarding establishment are generally filled in by promotion according to seniority. But if suitable persons according to the seniority are not available, appointments to the posts in higher grade are made by selection from amongst the members of the next lower rank or by nomination of candidates with some high academic qualifications fixed for similar posts.

Appointments to the posts of junior clerks are made by nomination from amongst candidates who must have passed the S. S. C. Examination or its equivalent. Appointments to the ministerial posts in higher grade are made by promotion generally according to seniority from amongst the members of the next lower rank. Medical Officers are drafted for services in Jail Department for a period of two years from the Medical Department.

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 practical knowledge regarding the duties which are expected of a jail guard.

A Physical Training Instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities both to the inmates of the jail and also to the jail guards.

Guarding Establishment.—Part of the guarding establishment is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the

prison or in extramural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny, escape or other emergency. It is also available to mount guard over particularly dangerous prisoners or prisoners sentenced to death who are termed as "Condemned Prisoners".

No posts of Matrons are sanctioned for headquarters sub-jails; but the Superintendent is empowered to engage a matron locally whenever a woman prisoner is admitted to the jail. No medical staff is sanctioned for headquarters sub-jails; but the Maharashtra Medical Service Officer incharge of the Local Government Dispensary or the Medical Officer attached to the Zilla Parishad or municipal dispensary stationed at or nearest to the place where the sub-jail is situated is deemed to be the Medical Officer of the jail.

Classification of prisoners.—Prisoners are classified as class I or class II by the court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence. They are further classified as casual, habitual, under trial and security or detenu. There is no separate class of political prisoners but certain rules which do not allow the grant of facilities and privileges on the score of length of sentence are relaxed in their favour under the specific orders of the Government. Prisoners are also grouped as "short-termers, medium-termers and long-termers". Prisoners with sentence up to three months are classed as short-termers, those sentenced up to a period of three months and above but up to two years are classified as medium-termers and those sentenced up to two years and above are classified as long-termers. Headquarters sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short-term prisoners and under-trial prisoners only.

On admission, a prisoner is examined by the Medical Officer and is classified as fit for light, medium or hard labour. Work Allotment Committee's constituted for Central and District Jails the members of which have to take into account health conditions of the prisoners, their aptitude, past experience, etc., and assign suitable work for newly admitted prisoners with a sentence of six months and above. Any change in the work so allotted to prisoners by the committee has to be effected only with the concurrence of the members of the committee. No such committee is to be appointed for short term prisoners.

Medium-term and long-term prisoners so also security and undertrial prisoners who volunteer to work are paid as per the prison rules. They are generally paid 1/5th of the wages which are normally paid for similar work outside, provided they complete their daily quota.

Jail Reforms.—In recent years many reforms¹ calculated to bring about the reformation of prisoners, have been introduced. With the Abolition of Whipping Act (*vide* Bombay Act No. XXXIX of 1957), flogging as a jail punishment is stopped altogether. Punishment of penal diet and gunny clothing have been abolished. Rules about letters and interviews have also been liberalised.

¹ Reports of Jail Reforms Committee appointed in 1946.

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 relatives or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole will not be counted as part of the sentence. If any prisoner is found to have misused or violated parole rules, he is liable to be punished. Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks, which is counted as a part of the sentence. A prisoner who is sentenced to more than a year and up to five years and who has actually undergone one years' imprisonment is eligible for release on furlough for a period of two weeks. A prisoner sentenced to more than five years is eligible for release on furlough on completion of two years of actual imprisonment. The period spent on parole counts as part of sentence.

Remission of Sentence : Only long-termers come within the ambit of the rule on remission of sentence. Prisoners confined in the main prisons are granted liberal remissions which are ordinary remission, annual good conduct remission, special remission, blood donation remission, remission for conservancy work and remission for physical training. In addition, State remission is awarded by Government on the occasions of public rejoicing. It is granted unconditionally and cannot be forfeited under any circumstances.

Board of Visitors.—A Board of Visitors composing of official and non-official visitors is appointed for every headquarters sub-jail and taluka sub-jails. There are ordinarily four non-official visitors for the headquarters sub-jail, out of which two are members of the Maharashtra Legislature and two are nominated by Government, of whom one is a lady visitor. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period, not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of Government are interested in prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both while they are in prison and after their release are nominated by Government on the Board of Visitors on the recommendation of the District Magistrate concerned and Inspector-General of prisons. The Chairman of the Board of Visitors who is usually the District Magistrate arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board. Quarterly meetings of the Board are also convened. Non-official visitors are also allowed to visit the prison on any day and at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman. The Board records in the visitor's book its observations after the detailed inspection of the jails. Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders with such remarks as the former may desire to offer.

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each year by the prisoners themselves, and the Jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

Education.—Literacy classes are conducted for those prisoners who are ignorant of the three R's under the supervision of literate convicts and paid teachers who are appointed only at some of the main jails by the Deputy Educational Inspectors. Towards these literacy classes, the Jail Department receives a grant-in-aid from Education Department. Twenty-five per cent of the grant-in-aid received is given to the Convict Teachers as an encouragement after the quarterly examinations of the students (prisoners) are held and the remaining portion is utilised towards the purchase of books, boards, etc., required for the literacy classes. Necessary facilities are also provided to those desirous of prosecuting higher studies.

Recreational and Cultural activities and other facilities.—The Zilla Parishad arranges an exhibition of documentary and full length feature films for the benefit of the prisoners once in a month. Newspapers are also supplied to the prisoners. Musical programmes and other cultural programmes are also arranged for their benefit.

Prisoners are allotted work which would benefit them after their release from the prison. The prison has attached to it land measuring about 18 acres where prisoners are engaged in agricultural activities. Emphasis is 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 prisoners.

SOCIAL WELFARE

The Department of Social Welfare was formed in 1957 after amalgamating offices of the Director of Backward Class Welfare and the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools.

Organisation.—At the Ministerial level, it is controlled by the Ministry of Social Welfare. At the Secretariat level there is a combined department of Education and Social Welfare. The office of the Directorate of Social Welfare has been divided into two wings one dealing with backward class welfare and the other dealing with correctional work and the work relating to the Welfare of Women under the Social and Moral Hygiene Programme and of the Physically Handicapped. In the Correctional Wing, the Director of Social Welfare is assisted by the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration) who is also *ex-officio* Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions. There are three Assistant Directors of Social Welfare each in charge of Children's work, Beggars' work and

Plan work, respectively. There is also a Probation Superintendent of the rank of Assistant Director for looking after the work under the Probation of Offenders Act. There is also a small unit of inspectorate staff working under the Chief Inspector.

At the divisional level the department has regional officers called Divisional Social Welfare Officers each posted at the headquarters of the revenue division. They are entrusted with administrative and supervisory work relating to all the subjects handled by Directorate of Social Welfare. For correctional and allied work they have been given the assistance of an Inspector of Certified Schools.

At the district level the Correctional Wing has no elaborate administrative machinery, save superintendents of the institutions posted in the districts where there are institutions. The District Social Welfare Officer is primarily responsible for Welfare of Backward Classes.

The Correctional Administration Wing is responsible for the implementation of the Bombay Children Act, 1948 which is applicable throughout the State.

Broadly speaking this Act provides for the protection of destitute, neglected and victimised children below the age of 16 and seeks reformation of delinquent children through training provided in remand homes and certified schools.

Children Act.—The Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959 deals with the problem of elimination of beggary. It is however, not applicable throughout the State but only to the cities of Bombay and Poona. The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938, provides for the probation of offenders in lieu of jail punishment in suitable cases recommended by the probation officers appointed by this department under the Act. Its jurisdiction extends over the districts of Western Maharashtra only. The Central Provinces and Berar Probation of Offenders Act, 1936 is applicable to the districts of Vidarbha region. The Central Provinces Probation of Offenders Act, 1958 is applicable to 4 districts in Aurangabad Division. The Bombay Habitual Offenders Restriction Act, 1959 is applicable to Western Maharashtra only and deals with the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. Such habitual offenders are sent to Industrial and Agricultural Settlements for their rehabilitation in appropriate cases. The Bombay Borstal Schools Act, 1929, is applicable to Western Maharashtra and deals with offenders between the ages of 16 and 21 committed to the Borstal School, Kolhapur. The provisions of the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1958 are implemented by the Police Department. However, the Department of Social Welfare is responsible for starting the protective homes and supervising the administration of these homes provided for by the Act. For this purpose the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools is the Chief Inspector of the Protective Home. At present there is only one such home at Chembur, Bombay. The Women's and Childrens

Institutions Licensing Act, 1956, is an all India Legislation provided for the licensing of institutions opened by voluntary agencies for the benefit of women and children. For the inspection and supervision of such institutions a Woman Inspector is appointed while the Director of Social Welfare is the licensing authority.

After-Care Programme.—Besides these Social legislations with which this department is actively concerned, the Directorate of Social Welfare has undertaken the following after-care programmes pertaining to the welfare of children and women.

The Maharashtra State Probation and After-care Association is a federal body devoted to the care and after-care programmes relating to children. Whenever the Bombay Children Act has been applied, Remand Homes are sponsored by the District Probation and After-care Associations which are affiliated to this body. In the after-care field the Association maintains after-care hostels for boys and girls released from certified schools.

Social and Moral Hygiene Programme.—The object of the Social and Moral Hygiene Programme is to take care of women's welfare. It envisages the opening of Reception Centres and State Homes for Women either released from the Correctional Institutions or seeking shelter on reference. Eight Reception Centres and three State Homes have been functioning in the State of Maharashtra for girls and women in moral danger, destitute women or women released from institutions.

The department is also in charge of work relating to the education and rehabilitation of the physically handicapped. At the headquarters, the work is organised by an officer designated as the Deputy Director (Education and Rehabilitation of the Physically Handicapped). The department runs schools for the various categories of the handicapped and also shelter workshops for their sake as well as home for crippled children for their treatment and education. It also aids voluntary agencies doing work in this field. The Deputy Director (ERH) is assisted by 4 Inspectors in this work.

The department also accords grants to dance, drama and music institutions and also to other social welfare institutions such as Rescue Homes, Mahila Mandals, Akhadas, Kustigir Parishads, Bharat Sevak Samaj, etc. As a preventive measure Juvenile Guidance Centres have been organised in localities which are the breeding places of delinquency. In order to promote proper community living among the youths, youth clubs have been organised.

Shri Chhatrapati Shivaji Multipurpose High School at Chikhli and Government Certified School at Buldhana are the institutions functioning under the Bombay Children Act in the Buldhana district.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT¹

Organisation.—The District and Sessions Judge is the head of the Judicial Department in the district with headquarters at Buldhana. The judiciary is entirely separated from the executive. The Collector continues to be the District Magistrate and the Deputy Collectors and Tahsildars are vested with magisterial powers. But those powers are limited to section 37 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, and none of them ever tries any criminal case. The District Magistrate does not have any administrative control over the other Magistrates who try criminal cases in the district. This separation of the judiciary from the executive has been brought about in the district in the year 1959.

The District and Sessions Judge is assisted by one Assistant and Additional Sessions Judge, with headquarters at Khamgaon. He has jurisdiction over Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils and Nandura Revenue Circle in Malkapur tahsil. He attends to Civil appeals arising out of suits in which value of subject-matter is not over Rs. 10,000. He also attends to criminal cases, both original and appellate, cases under the Guardians and Wards Act and appeals under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926.

There are two Civil Judges (Senior Division) one having jurisdiction over Khamgaon and Jalgaon tahsils and Nandura Revenue Circle of Malkapur tahsil and the other over Chikhli, Mehkar and Malkapur tahsils except Nandura Revenue Circle. They attend to special and regular suits (unlimited jurisdiction), cases under the Co-operative Societies Act in which value of subject-matter is over Rs. 10,000, suits under the Hindu Marriages Act, 1955 and cases under the Indian Succession Act of 1925, insolvency cases, suits under the Trusts Act, cases under the Displaced Persons Act, 1951, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, the Land Acquisition Act and the Railways Act.

The Civil Judges (Junior Division) with headquarters at Buldhana and Khamgaon attend to regular suits of value of subject-matter below Rs. 10,000, cases under the Co-operative Societies Act below Rs. 10,000, insolvency cases, cases under the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, and the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, arising in their respective tahsils.

There are also five Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, with headquarters at different tahsil headquarters. They attend to Civil Suits of value of subject-matter below Rs. 10,000. They also try ordinary criminal cases. There are two Judicial Magistrates, First Class, with headquarters at Khamgaon and Chikhli. They attend to criminal cases arising within their respective jurisdictions.

Crime.—The following table gives statistics of cases decided in civil and criminal courts and the cognizable and non-cognizable crimes reported in 1950, 1955, and in 1960 in the district.

¹ District Census Handbook, Buldhana, 1961, p. 4.

TABLE
CASES DECIDED IN CIVIL AND CRIMINAL COURTS AND CRIMES REPORTED IN THE DISTRICT.

Year	Civil					Criminal				Cognizable crimes reported	Non-cognizable crimes reported
	Original		Appellate			Original		Appellate			
	Regular (2)	Miscellaneous (3)	Regular (4)	Miscellaneous (5)	Regular (6)	Miscellaneous (7)	Regular (8)	Miscellaneous (9)			
1950	2,836	1,007	350	32	13	6	191	69	4,805	N.A.	
1955	2,687	978	340	52	20	13	207	54	3,705	N.A.	
1960	3,605	3,082	21	152	7,893	654	265	147	4,283	N.A.	
1973	4,248	329	153	47	7,697	511	242	39	5,472	4,154	

CHAPTER 13 — OTHER DEPARTMENTS

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT

Organisation.— WITH THE FORMATION OF THE ZILLA PARISHAD THE BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT IN THE DISTRICT has come under the dual control of the State Government as also under the Zilla Parishad. The department at the Secretariat level is headed by a Secretary to the Buildings and Communications Department.

The department in the State sector deals with roads above the category of state highways, Government buildings and maintenance of electric installations therein. The department in the district in the State sector is headed by the Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications Division, Khamgaon, who is responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Buildings and Communications, Amravati Circle.

The Buildings and Communications Division is composed of three sub-divisions with headquarters at Khamgaon, Buldhana and Mehkar of which the sub-division at Mehkar is a temporary one.

The Executive Engineer with headquarters at Khamgaon is responsible for the administration of the department in the district. He inspects all the works in the district. He has also to check mathematical instruments, tools and plants. He is also an *ex-officio* professional adviser to all Government departments in the district.

The sub-divisional officers—Deputy Engineers—who are subordinate to the Executive Engineer are responsible for the management and execution of works within their sub-divisions. The Overseers are placed in charge of sections under various sub-divisions.

The total length of roads under National Highways and State Highways in the district measured 530.57 km as on 31-3-1974 of which the length of National Highways in the division is 75.60 km, excluding the length of roads passing through the municipal limits of Khamgaon and Malkapur towns. The total mileage under the State Highways is 454.97 km. Of these roads, a total of 440.94 km is black topped while a distance of 88.41 km is water bound macadam and lower types, 6.22 km.

The functions of the electrical organisation are the execution of Government work in respect of electrical posts and maintenance of electrical installations and equipment in Government build-

ings. It has also to carry out advisory, administrative and executive duties pertaining to the generation and use of electricity and the administration of the Indian Electricity Act, Indian Electricity Rules, Electricity Duty Act, Tax on Sale of Electricity Act, etc. The jurisdiction of the Chief Engineer (Electrical), Buildings and Communications department, Bombay, extends over the entire State of Maharashtra. He is assisted by two Superintending Engineers one for execution and another for inspection. At the divisional level the electrical organisation is bifurcated into two wings *viz.* the executive wing under the control of the Buildings and Communications Department and the inspection wing under the control of Industries and Labour department.

The entire State has been divided into five executive divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Thana, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur.

The jurisdiction of the Deputy Engineer, Akola Electrical Sub-Division who is responsible to the Executive Engineer, Nagpur Electrical Division, extends over the district of Buldhana.

There are seven Electrical Inspection Divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Nasik, Poona, Kolhapur, Aurangabad, Nagpur and Amravati.

Besides, there is a Secretary, Licensing Board and Inspector of Lifts, Bombay, who conducts the electrical supervisor's and wiremen's examination and inspects the lifts in the State. Buldhana district falls under the jurisdiction of Electrical Inspector, Amravati.

The department in the district sector, *viz.*, works department of the Zilla Parishad, is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who also acts as the Secretary of the works committee of the Zilla Parishad. Roads below the category of State Highways which have been transferred to Buldhana Zilla Parishad cover a length 1,647.95 km. The department maintains five ferry services and has undertaken 5 minor irrigation schemes.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—The Irrigation and Power department in the district deals with major and medium irrigation works, minor irrigation works, water-supply and drainage works and flood control works.

The department at the Secretariat level is headed by the Secretary to the Government, Irrigation and Power department. He is assisted by Chief Engineer in charge of major and medium irrigation projects, water-supply and development schemes in the State, and the Director of Minor Irrigation in charge of minor irrigation projects in the State. The Superintending Engineers are responsible to the Chief Engineer and the Director of Minor Irrigation for the works in their respective spheres. The Superintending Engineer is placed in charge of a circle that nor-

mally consists of four to five divisions. A division comprising four to five sub-divisions is headed by an Executive Engineer. A sub-division is placed in charge of an Assistant or a Deputy Engineer. Each sub-division is further divided into sections each in charge of an overseer. The section is generally formed for the maintenance of about 5,000 acres of irrigated land or where the capital expenditure involved exceeds one or two lakhs of rupees.

The activities of the Irrigation and Power department have increased manifold due to the development works to be carried out during the Five Year Plans. To cope up with the increased work pertaining to preparation of plans and estimates of irrigation projects for administrative approval of the Government prior to the construction of the projects, a separate organisation has been created for survey and investigation of major and medium irrigation projects in the Third Five Year Plan and the future Five Year Plans.

Thus came into existence the Irrigation Projects Investigation Circle, Nagpur, for survey and investigation of major and medium irrigation projects of Vidarbha region (of which Buldhana district forms part) proposed in the third, fourth and fifth Five Year Plans according to the priority for survey fixed by the Government. The circle has been placed under the charge of Superintending Engineer and comprises three divisions, *viz.*, (1) Irrigation Investigation Division, Amravati, (2) Irrigation Projects Investigation Division, Nagpur and (3) Irrigation Projects Investigation Division (South) Nagpur with 20 sub-divisions thereunder.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—The agricultural activities in the district come under the dual control of the State Government as also of the Zilla Parishad. The department in the State sector is headed by the Secretary, Agriculture and Co-operation Department, Bombay at the Secretariat level and by the Director of Agriculture with headquarters at Poona at the Directorate level. The department at the district level is headed by the Agricultural Development Officer of the Zilla Parishad who has to seek guidance in administrative matters from the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad and in technical matters from the Director of Agriculture. The animal husbandry activities in the district are looked after by the District Animal Husbandry Officer who works under the supervision of the Agricultural Development Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Under the State sector, these activities are controlled by a separate Directorate.

The Superintending Agricultural Officer, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, is the representative of the Director of Agriculture at regional level and is also the technical and administrative head of the division. The Superintending Agricultural Officer also gives technical guidance and advice to Zilla Parishad in implementing the agricultural schemes under the local sector. The

Superintending Agricultural Officer is assisted by class I officers like Deputy Director of Agriculture (I. C.)/(R & E)/and (Eng./and SC) and class II officers like Plant Protection Officer, Seed Development Officer, Assistant Horticultural Development Officer, Assistant Vegetables Development Officer, Hybrid Seed Production Officer, Assistant Oilseeds Extension Officer, Assistant Cotton Development Officer, Assistant Statistician, Divisional Supervisor (F. V. T.) and Agricultural Engineers in implementing the State sector schemes at regional or divisional level and gives technical guidance to local sector schemes at Zilla Parishad level. In addition to the above, the State level specialists, who are specialised in different crops, also give technical guidance for State and local sector schemes.

The Agricultural Development Officer, Zilla Parishad, Buldhana, implements the agricultural schemes in the local sector. He is assisted by the District Agricultural Officer, the Campaign Officer and the Hybrid Seed Production Officer who is deputed by State Government for supervision and implementing hybrid seed production programme.

Under the State Sector Schemes a Sugarcane Research Station has been established at Sindkhed Raja. Free demonstration of fertilizers is also undertaken. Taluka seeds farms have also been established. Under the Hybrid Seed Production programme, the seed of jowar was produced on 1,756 acres, of bajri on 65 acres and of maize on 13 acres during 1967-68. During 1967-68 an amount of Rs. 1,02,613 was distributed by way of subsidy for the construction of new wells and an amount of Rs. 3,32,518 was distributed towards the purchase of integrated pumping sets. During the same period contour bunding was undertaken over an area of 51,128 acres at the cost of Rs. 29,28,198. A few of the State Sector Schemes in the district are managed by the Zilla Parishad on agency basis.

Besides the schemes in the State sector, among the schemes implemented by the Zilla Parishad, may be mentioned, Plant Protection Scheme, Intensive Cultivation Scheme, Horticultural Development Scheme, scheme for reclamation of waste lands belonging to backward classes, scheme for the construction of wells for irrigation for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, schemes for the construction of prefabricated *bandharas* and for mass training of farmers.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

Introduction.—The Animal Husbandry Department was a separate department till the formation of the Zilla Parishad. In 1962 with the inception of the Zilla Parishad, the Animal Husbandry activities in the district are looked after by the Animal Husbandry section of the Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad. At the State level, the department still continues to function as a separate Directorate. The activities are looked after by Animal Husbandry Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is responsible to the Agri-

cultural Development Officer of the Zilla Parishad, though in technical matters the advice given by the Directorate in the State sector prevails.

Organisation.—At the State level, the department is headed by the Director of Animal Husbandry, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Buldhana district falls under the Nagpur Division. The District Animal Husbandry Officer, Buldhana, is responsible to the Regional Animal Husbandry Officer, Nagpur, in technical matters. For other matters he is responsible to the Agricultural Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The Animal Husbandry Officer of the Zilla Parishad is assisted by the District Veterinary Officer and Veterinary Extension Officer, each at taluka headquarters along with stockmen and other necessary staff.

There are 13 full-fledged veterinary dispensaries located at Buldhana, Chikhli, Mehkar, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Jalgaon, Dasar-khed, Motala, Lonar, Sangrampur, Nandura, Deulgaon Raja and Malkapur.

In addition there are veterinary aid centres located at 36 different places. Treatment of animal diseases, control of epidemics, castration of scrub bulls and control and destruction of animal parasites are the main services rendered in these dispensaries.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—The head of the Forest Department in the State is the Chief Conservator of Forests, with headquarters at Poona. For administrative purposes the State Forest Department is divided into seven territorial circles as under:—

Name of Circle	Headquarters
(1)	(2)
(1) Nagpur	Nagpur.
(2) Chandrapur	Chandrapur.
(3) Nasik	Nasik.
(4) Amravati	Amravati.
(5) Thana	Thana.
(6) Poona	Poona.
(7) Aurangabad	Aurangabad.

The officer in charge of each circle is the Conservator of Forests. The Conservators of Forests have under them Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to look after the administration of the Divisions and independent Sub-divisions, respectively. The Divisional Forest Officers belong to Maharashtra Forest Service Class I and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to Maharashtra Forest Service Class II. The Divisions in some cases are divided into Sub-Divisions, which are incharge of Sub-Divisional Forest Officers. The Divisions or Sub-Divisions as the case may be are divided into small executive units called Ranges and each Range is managed by a Range Forest Officer under the control of the Divisional Forest Officer and Sub-Divisional Forest Officer as the case may be. The Range Forest Officer is a non-Gazetted sub-

ordinate officer (Class III) who is usually trained at one of the Indian Forest Rangers' Colleges of India, *i.e.*, those at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore. The Assistant Conservator of Forests (Sub-Divisional Forest Officers) are also trained at Dehra Dun. Some are promoted from the Range Forest Officer's Cadre in the State. Each Range is sub-divided into rounds and each round is managed by a Round Officer, a Forester or Range Assistant who is usually trained as a Forester at the Forest School in the State. Finally each round is sub-divided into Beats and each Beat is in the charge of Beat Guard. The Beat is the smallest unit of forest for purpose of forest administration and protection.

Buldhana District falls under the Amravati Circle. In this District there is only one Forest Division, *viz.*, the Buldhana Forest Division, with headquarters at Buldhana under Divisional Forest Officer, Buldhana. The following staff has been provided:—

Buldhana Forest Division.

(1) Range Forest Officers	..	5	in territorial charges.
		1	under the Forestry Extension scheme.
			Buldhana.
(2) Round Officers	..	22	in territorial charges.
		2	under Nistar.
		1	under afforestation.
		3	under the Forestry Extension scheme.
(3) Forest Guards	..	96	in territorial charges.
		25	on special duty.

The following are the Ranges in the Buldhana Division:—

Names of Ranges		Headquarters	
(1)		(2)	
(1) Buldhana	..	..	Buldhana.
(2) Khamgaon	..	..	Khamgaon.
(3) Ghatbori	..	..	Ghatbori.
(4) Mehkar	..	..	Mehkar.
(5) Jalgaon	..	..	Jalgaon.

An area of 471 acres and 35 gunthas belonging to Bhokardan taluka of Aurangabad district is included in Buldhana range.

CLASSIFICATION.

The type of vegetation is mainly governed by soil formation, configuration of the ground, drainage and influence by man. The variations of rainfall are very little, the average rainfall in the district being about 30" to 40" received from the south-westerly monsoons. About 75% of the rainfall is received during the monsoon followed by a long dry spell. The type of the forest that is met with belongs to the Southern Tropical Dry Deciduous and can be further classified as follows:—

Superior Teak Forests.—This type of forest is mainly confined to the Ambabarwa block and Mangeri F. S. The stretch of forest is, however, narrow. The quality is M.P. III (40' to 60'). The principal associates are *Ain* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *Karam* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*), *Bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *Tiwas* (*Sugenia dalbergioides*), *Lendia* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *Dhawada* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *Tendu* (*Dicopyros melanoxylon*) and *Semal* (*Salmelia malharica*).

Inferior Teak Forests.—(a) General Type: This type occurs over a major area, the average quality being IV-b and IV-a (25' to 40') high. Teak has a tendency to form almost a pure crop, the percentage, invariably found being 50. Interspersed better quality patches teak III (45' to 60') high, as in Pachdeola and Girda Reserve of Ghatbori and Buldhana Ranges, respectively, are met with where the soil deposits are fairly deep. The density is invariably 7 to 8.

(b) *Poor and openly stocked teak type*: This type is more or less similar to Sr. No. 1, described above, the difference being in the condition and the composition of the crop. The crop is of poor density and quality due to its occurrence on shallow soil and the variations caused by frequent severe fires. The crop is generally M.P. IV-b (25' to 40') high. Teak occurs almost pure with a heavy growth of rank grasses.

Mixed Forests: This type of forest occurs in all blocks in the Buldhana Division. The soil derived is from shales and stones of the Raipur series. The quality is poor IV-b and consists of *Ain*, *Lendia*, *Dhavada*, *Tendu*, *Anjan*, *Char*, *Bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *Bahera* (*Terminalia belerica*), and *Karam*. *Bharati* (*Gymnosporia montana*), *Chilati* (*Mimosa rabicaulis*), *Khair*, *Bor* and *Anjan* are found in the understorey.

Understocked and blank areas: Such areas are common and comprise about 50% of the forest areas and lie interspersed all over. This occurrence is particularly due to the shallow soil with the out crop of the rocks at the surface.

Bamboos: This is not a separate type but occurs along the *nala* valleys and the easy slopes of the hills. The area under bamboo is however, sparse and occurs in some of the blocks of Ambabarwa, Wasali, Saikheda, Chunkhedi in Jalgaon Range of Buldhana Division. Bamboos due to its great value and demand from the cultivators have been planted successfully in the Ambabarwa Reserved Forests of Buldhana Division.

The Revenue and Forest departments are clearly interconnected in their work at a number of points. The general public enjoy certain rights and privileges over the forests. The extent of rights and privileges is however, assessed from time to time and fixed by the Revenue Department. Thus afforestation and disforestation become periodically the joint functions of the Revenue and Forest Departments. Working plans for the management and development of forests are prepared solely by the Forest department, but in so far as the prescriptions of working plans affect local needs and rights and privileges of the inhabitants of the district, the approval of the Collector concerned has to be obtained before it is submitted to the Government by the Chief Conservator of Forests, for sanction.

Divisional Forest Officer.—The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the exploitation and regeneration of the forests according to sanctioned working plan and other orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts, supplies materials to public, realises revenue and controls expenditure under instructions from the Conservator of Forests. In short he is responsible for forest administration and management in all matters relating to technical forest operations of his division.

Sub-Divisional Forest Officer.—Buldhana division has no sanctioned post of Sub-Divisional Forest Officer.

Range Forest Officer.—The Range Forest Officer is in executive charge of his range. He is responsible for carrying out with the help of Range Assistants and Beat Guards and according to orders of Divisional Forest Officer and Assistant Conservator of Forests or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, all works in his charge as per the annual plan of operation, such as marking, main felling, thinning, felling of trees departmentally for various purposes, the transport of timber, fuel, etc., to the sales depot, all plantation works, such as, sowing, planting, tending and other silvicultural operations, maintenance of nurseries, construction of roads, buildings and wells according to the sanctioned plans and estimates and their annual repairs, protection of forests and investigation of forest offences, supervision and removal of forest produce by purchasers and by holders of rights and privileges, supply and issue of forest transit passes and permits and general supervision of the working of forest labourers' co-operative societies and rendering them all help in technical matters.

Round Officers.—The foresters' duties include the supervision of the silvicultural and conservancy works, protection of forests, detection and investigation of forest offences, issue of forest transit passes and permits, collection of revenue from permits and compensation on offence cases, supervision and control on extraction of produce in contractors' coupes and supervision on work of forest guards. Some Foresters who work as coupe agents to the Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies render guidance in technical matters, maintain proper accounts of the timber outturn, logging, preparation of lots in the depot according to size and quality classes and all other work in so far as they relate to working of the coupe.

Beat Guard.—The Forest Guard's functions are to patrol and protect all forests in his beat and to carry out all work pertaining to their proper maintenance, such as, repairs and silvicultural work, viz., sowing, planting and climber cutting and to detect forest offences.

Working Plan.—Under the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927) forests of this Circle are divided into two categories, viz., reserved and protected forests. Before forests are classified, they have to be subjected to regular settlement by a Forest Settlement Officer, who enquires into the existence of all public and private rights. In case of the reserved forests, the existing rights are

settled, transferred or commuted. In the case of protected forests the existing rights are clearly recorded and regulated. The details of the reserved forests and protected forests are as below:—

Division	Area in charge	Reserved Forests	Protected Forests
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Sq. kms.	Sq. kms.
Buldhana	Forest Department	1,082.16	94.52

The reserved and protected forests of the division are organised and managed under the prescription of the working plan.

The working plan is a document which lays down the details of scientific management of forests, for a prescribed number of years. Before a working plan is drawn up, a survey is made of growing stocks at times by actual enumerations and an analysis is made of the stems of standing trees to determine the rate of growth of the principal species with special reference to the soil and the climatic conditions of each locality. On the basis of data thus collected, plans are drawn up for felling, regeneration, silvicultural treatments and protection of forests with provision for the due exercise of the rights and privileges of the people, including grazing of cattle. The preparation of the working plan for this division was done by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Amravati and Nagpur Circles, who is under the control of Conservator of Forests, Working Plans, Poona.

Functions.—The main functions of the Forest Department are exploitation, regeneration and protection of forests according to the sanctioned working plan and other orders and conducting the sales, entering into contracts and supply of material to Government Departments and the public. In addition, a number of schemes under the five year plans are executed by this Department. The salient aspects of the functions are described below:

Regeneration and Maintenance: As the annual area is exploited, it is regenerated afresh. Great care and precautions are taken against the damages by man, animals, fires, insects and other pests and against adverse climatic influences and other inanimate agencies. Damage by man is caused by lighting fire, faulty exploitation methods, illicit cutting and misuse of forest rights and privileges.

Though occasionally forest fires may originate from natural causes, in vast majority of cases they are due to human action. To prevent damage by fire and illicit cutting the wholehearted support and co-operation of the public is required. The co-operation is secured through the authority and influence of the village headman. Precautionary measures like fire tracing of newly regenerated coupes, clearing of shrubby growth along roads and paths and yearly burning to avert any occurrence of fires or its

spreading in the forests are taken by the department as per fire protection scheme under the prescription of the working plan. Fire watchers are also appointed at important places during summer to keep watch over the forests with a view to avoid occurrence of fire. Rigid patrolling is enforced through the staff and vigilant watch against unauthorised felling and removal of forest produce by the villagers is maintained.

Continuous, unlimited and unregulated grazing in 'C' class forests has badly affected the tree growth there. The 'A' class forests under systematic working are already loaded to their full capacity of grazing incidence. Adequate protection, introduction of intensive measures for conservation and development of these forests is, therefore, the primary need of the day. Offences in respect of unauthorised grazing and other damage from cattle are dealt with under the Forest Act and other laws.

The area under the management of the department in the division is worked under various silvicultural systems prescribed in the current working plan. Regeneration work is carried out in two ways, viz., (i) mainly by natural means (coppice), and (ii) partly by artificial means. Under the coppice system, trees are allowed to be cut at ground level or near it and regeneration takes place naturally by shoots from the stumps. Under the artificial system, when trees are felled, regeneration is effected by artificial method, such as, sowing, planting of roots and shoots cutting (called stumps) with a regular spacing.

In the working plan drawn in 1956, the following system of management was prescribed:—

Name of Working Circle			Area in sq. metres
(1)			(2)
(1) Improvement working circle	5		111.80
(2) Coppices with reserve working circle	18		291.06
(3) Selection-cum-improvement	2		64.40
(4) Babul working circle	3		15.00
(5) Pasture working circle	22		194.46
(6) Miscellaneous working circle	..		22.57

Clearing, thinning and other cultural operations are also undertaken by the department mainly in coppices with reserve working circle at the age of 10 to 20 years and in the plantation working circle, at the age of 5, 10 and 20 years.

The general configuration of forest land in this Division is undulating and, as such, steep slopes or deep ravines are not noticeable. The forests are also fairly well stocked. Hence no afforestation schemes, as such, are being undertaken. However afforestation plantation on small scale is being undertaken in Mehkar Range of Buldhana Division

Plantations are being carried in areas bearing mainly miscellaneous stock or in the areas devoid of natural reproduction to restock these areas naturally on agrisilvi method. On an average 100 acres in 500 acres in a division are being taken for plantation from 1965. Under the agrisilvi system the villagers are encouraged to produce food-crops along with plantation of tree species. Though the system is successful in this division, some drawbacks are normally experienced. For example, the plot-holders have a tendency to attend to their agricultural work in the plot and neglect the silvicultural part of the system. This can be avoided by strict and continuous supervision by the staff. Most of the plantations in this division are being done under this system only. Plots each with an area of 5 acres duly cleared of tree growth are handed over to the allottees in the beginning of May. The allottees plough the plots and prepare them for cultivation. Staking for purposes of planting forest species is done at 6' x 6'.

In the first year only cotton is allowed to be sown. Sowing is done in 3 lines, one foot apart leaving 2' wide strips on either side of the plant lines. The plants of teak and other forest species thus get a clear 4' wide strip, 2' on either side for its growth. Planting of forest species is done departmentally. After the planting is over, weeding operations including mulching are done by allottees.

In the 2nd year the cultivators are allowed to cultivate cotton as before. Casualties are replaced departmentally and the remaining tending operations including weeding and soil mulching are done by the allottees.

In the 3rd year, agrisilvi operations are terminated and the tending operations in the plantation are done departmentally. Extensive plantations under this system have been raised in the Buldhana division.

Exploitation Forest products of this division are divided into two main classes, i.e., major and minor. The chief major forest products are timber and firewood. Almost all good quality timber is consumed by the timber markets at Aurangabad and Bombay. The firewood is consumed locally at Buldhana and other places in the neighbourhood. Due to inadequate means of communications, however, complete exploitation of all forest produce is rendered impossible.

There are no forest-based industries in this division. Present logging methods are very wasteful. Adequate labour is not available and hence it is necessary to work these forests intensively by using mechanical devices. Timber and firewood are derived out of those coupes due for working. These coupes are advertised for sale and are sold by public auction. The coupes are also worked through the forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies on the revised formula basis.

The minor forest products are mainly *temburni* leaves, *rosha* oil and gum. They are sold by public auction. Some minor products like grass are sold on rated passes.

Income and Expenditure.—The revenue and expenditure of the Division for the year 1964-65 was as below:—

Buldhana Division (1)	Revenue (2)	Expenditure (3)	Net Income (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1964-65	6,34,303	3,90,510	2,43,793

Forest Roads.—The total mileage of principal forest roads in the Division is 164. These are all earth and *murum* roads and need to be properly repaired and maintained to facilitate the easy movement of the forest produce.

Public Relations.—No adverse rights or concessions burden the 'A' class reserved forests. The numerous concessions which burden the 'C' class forests are laid down in the Madhya Pradesh Forest Manual.

Ex-private forests taken over by Forest Department are not burdened with rights but in some of them *Nistar* and grazing are to be provided on payment.

Vanamahotsava.—The Government of India inaugurated in 1950 an important programme called *Vanamahotsava* to be celebrated in the first week of July every year. However the week of celebration of *Vanamahotsava* varies depending upon the commencement of monsoon. The object of *Vanamahotsava* is to encourage the planting of as many trees as possible in suitable localities. In choosing the trees preference is given to quick growing species of economic value, such as, eucalyptus, bamboos, fruit trees, etc. Free supply of seedling is made to public institutions and to other departments for planting during *Vanamahotsava*, and nurseries for this purpose are raised in all the ranges in this division.

The aftercare of the young plants is undertaken by the individuals or by the public bodies to whom seedlings are supplied. Under the Third Five Year Plan schemes, the following development works have been completed in Buldhana District.

Plantation of valuable species: The object of the scheme is to plant valuable trees, such as, teak, semal, eucalyptus, etc. During the plan period i.e., 1961-62 to 1965-66 an area of 60 hectares was brought under plantation and pre-monsoon work over an area of 10 hectares was completed at a cost of Rs. 54,063.

Creation of fuel and fodder resources:—The object of the scheme is to raise fuel plantation and create fodder resources. An area of 30 hectares has been planted under the scheme at a cost of Rs. 8,151.

Development of pasture lands:—The object of the scheme is to develop the pasture lands. An area of 10 hectares has been planted under the scheme at a cost of Rs. 9,970.

Plantation of oil-bearing species:—The trees bearing oil seeds have been planted under this scheme over an area of 16 hectares at a cost of Rs. 2,535.

Agave plantation:—Agave plants over a length of a square kilometre at a cost of Rs. 1,570 have been planted under this scheme.

Plantation of Bamboo:—Bamboo has been planted over an area of 7.60 hectares at a cost of Rs. 2,794.

Land reclamation and utilization.

(a) Cultivable Nil.

(b) *Kumari* cultivation Nil.

(c) Clearing of forest for agricultural purpose. An area of 3,822 acres 15 gunthas has been transferred for agricultural purpose.

Measures for halting deserts by planned afforestation. A scheme to create excellent surroundings near Buldhana town is under consideration.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES

Organisation.—Prior to reorganisation of States, Buldhana district was a constituent of the *ex-Madhya Pradesh* State and the problem of the administration of industries and their development was under the control of the Director of Industries, Madhya Pradesh, Nagpur, and no district level officer was functioning in the district.

Soon after the reorganisation of States the office of the District Officer for Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives was established in 1956. The said officer was responsible for the promotion and development of cottage and small scale industries in the district. He worked under the administrative control of the Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Akola.

During the year 1960, the Department of Cottage Industries was abolished and the activities under cottage industries sector were transferred to the Zilla Parishad and a part of the activities was entrusted to the Directorate of Industries, Maharashtra State and the activities under industrial co-operatives were transferred to the Co-operation Department. Later, the post of Senior Industries Inspector (Metric Units), Khamgaon was also created in the district to co-ordinate the activities of the Directorate of Industries and those of the weights and measures organisation for the introduction of the metric system of weights and measures in the district.

Subsequently on 15th October, 1962 these two Inspectors at Buldhana and Khamgaon were placed under the administrative control of the Industries Officer, with headquarters at Buldhana.

This measure was followed by further delegation of powers of the Industries Commissioner to the Collector, the object being to ensure smooth and efficient working of the Directorate and to use the office of the Collector for solving the problems of industries on the spot.

Functions.—The functions of the Directorate of Industries are two-fold in nature, *viz.*, (1) regulatory and (2) statutory. The work of the Directorate of Industries, is mainly confined to the development and progress of cottage, small scale and large scale industries.

Functions of the Directorate in respect of the promotion of large scale industries are restricted to processing of applications for industrial licences and offering recommendations to the Government of India under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, and developing areas for the location of large scale industries, providing them with necessary amenities, such as, power, water, transport, etc., and facilities for industrial research and export promotion.

The Directorate plays a major role in the development of small scale industries. It assists the entrepreneurs by way of, (i) securing land, water and power; (ii) organising co-operative industrial estates; (iii) giving financial aid; (iv) providing assistance for importing machinery, spares, raw materials; (v) providing assistance in obtaining machinery on hire-purchase-basis; (vi) making available indigenous raw materials; (vii) arranging for the marketing of products through central stores purchase organisation meant for buying requirements of State Government; (viii) undertaking quality marking of products of small scale industries; (ix) thriving for export promotion; (x) providing research facilities through industrial research laboratories and grants; (xi) imparting training to craftsmen; and (xii) organising resource based small and cottage industries through Government sponsored industrial co-operatives with a view to stimulating industrialization in under-developed areas.

In respect of cottage and village industries and handicrafts, the Directorate gives technical guidance to the institutions under the Zilla Parishad upon whom devolves the responsibility for the development of these industries.

Though the metric system of weights and measures has been introduced in the district about a decade back, much work is yet to be completed in that behalf. As a part of the enforcement programme, introduction of metric measures in timber trade was being made compulsory in addition to other fields as well. The revenue collection on account of verification of weights and measures, etc., during the two yearly programme in the district was as under:—

Cycle	Amount collected
1963—65	... Rs. 23,350.83
1965—67	... Rs. 35,120.19
1967—69	... Rs. 35,552.52

Under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, 28 prosecutions were launched against the defaulters during 1968-69 in the district.

CO-OPERATION DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—Co-operation has been accepted as the medium for bringing about socio-economic evolution in the life of the people of the country. This has created a vast surge for the organisation and development of co-operative activity with the result that the department has become an important department of the Government as the activities of the department extend to the fields of rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operatives, consumers co-operatives and money lending business in the district. All these activities are governed under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the department has come under the dual control of the State Government as also of the Zilla Parishad. The Co-operation and Industries department of the Zilla Parishad, which is headed by the Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad who is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad, is entrusted with the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc., of all types of co-operative societies in the rural areas having authorised share capital of Rs. 50,000 or working capital of upto Rs. 5 lakhs. It also controls and supervises all regulated markets in the district. All other schemes are looked after by the department in the State sector. The department in the local sector administers the extension and promotional activities of co-operative societies, whereas the regulatory functions have been retained by the department in the State sector. Hence the advice of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies in technical matters prevails upon the Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad though the Chief Executive Officer is his administrative head.

The department at the State level is headed by the Commissioner for Co-operation and Registrar of Co-operative Societies with his headquarters at Poona. At the divisional level the department is headed by the Divisional Joint Registrar assisted by Divisional Deputy Registrar and Divisional Assistant Registrar. The Divisional Special Auditor is in charge of the audit section.

The department in the State sector in the district is headed by the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, a class I gazetted officer. He is assisted by Assistant Registrars, Co-operation Officers, and Assistant Co-operation Officers.

The main responsibility of the supervising staff is confined to detailed supervision over the working of all agricultural credit and multipurpose societies in the district. They are expected to supervise every society in their charge. They are appointed by the Divisional Joint Registrar, Nagpur. They are placed under the administrative control of the Assistant Registrars.

District Co-operative Board.—Education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the spread of co-operative movement are carried out by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union, Ltd., Bombay. The membership of the Board is of two classes, viz., ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district and associate consisting of individuals. A nominee of the financing agency, the District Deputy Registrar and the Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are the *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 or by the persons authorised by him. In the district, it is the responsibility of the District Special Auditor who works under the supervision and guidance of the Divisional Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies, Nagpur.

Money Lending.—The salient features of the Bombay Money-lenders Act are licensing of money-lenders, maintenance of accounts by money-lenders in prescribed forms and restrictions on rates of interest.

The District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies works as the Registrar of Money-lenders in the district, while the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies works as Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders in their respective jurisdictions. The District Deputy Registrar who works as Registrar of Money-lenders issues licences to money-lenders and is responsible for the administration of the Bombay Money-lenders Act. The Co-operation Officers have to work in dual capacity both as Co-operation Officers and Inspectors of Money-lenders.

Central Co-operative Bank.—The four separate Central Co-operative Banks at Buldhana, Khamgaon, Malkapur and Mehkar were amalgamated into one bank called "The Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank" with headquarters at Buldhana on 26th January, 1962. The amalgamated bank has been working as a federal financing agency catering to the credit requirements of all the primary credit societies in the district. The Zilla Parishad also transacts business through this bank.

Co-operative Movement.—By the end of 1964-65 almost all the villages in the district were covered by the agricultural credit societies. The following table gives the information about the co-operative societies in the district during 1963-64 and 1964-65.

TABLE No. 1

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES OF EACH TYPE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Type of Society (1)	Year (2)	No. of Societies (3)	No. of members		Share capital (6)	Reserve and other funds (7)	Working capital (8)	Loans advanced (9)	Loans recovered (10)	Loans overdue (11)	Loans outstanding (12)
			Societies (4)	Individuals (5)							
Agricultural Marketing Society	1963-64 1964-65	9 12	409 559	4,349 4,903	2.75 16.23	7.23 8.38	32.83 50.98	..	..	..	..
Consumer's Society	1963-64 1964-65	25 27	..	3,963 4,091	0.26 0.36	0.16 0.26	0.43 0.71	..	..	..	..
Co-operative Bank—											
(a) Central	1963-64 1964-65	1 1	746 766	1,609 1,683	38.20 47.70	13.36 14.45	318.08 418.42	243.98 301.05	157.91 200.22	42.65 67.67	186.07 302.52
(b) Other Banks	1963-64 1964-65	5 5	..	640 986	0.90 2.25	0.04 0.13	6.40 10.00	37.16 84.88	33.54 77.94	0.04 0.20	0.68 13.71
Farming Society—											
(a) Collective Farming Society	1963-64 1964-65	72 73	..	830 955	0.66 0.79	0.10 0.16	4.80 5.63	0.07	0.07	..	0.07
(b) Joint Farming Society	1963-64 1964-65	5 5	..	75 75	0.13 0.13	0.06 0.06	0.36 0.36	0.01	0.01	..	0.01

CO-OPERATION

TABLE No. 1—contd.

TABLE NO. 1—Contd.

(Rs. in lakhs)

Type of Society (1)	Year (2)	No. of Societies (3)	No. of members		Share capital (6)	Reserve and other funds (7)	Working capital (8)	Loans advanc- ed (9)	Loans recover- ed (10)	Loans over- due (11)	Loans out- stand- ing (12)
			Societies (4)	Indivi- duals (5)							
Housing Society—											
(a) Tenement Ownership Housing Society.	1963-64 1964-65	47 47		1,900 1,900	1.03 1.03	0.16 0.16	4.31 4.31	0.04 ..	0.10 0.03		3.60 4.10
(b) Tenement Co-partnership Society ..	1963-64 1964-65										
(c) Other Housing Society ..	1963-64 1964-65										
Processing Society—											
(a) Agricultural Processing Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	17 16	35 35	1,110 1,583	2.82 5.44	0.35 0.05	4.12 13.28	3.99 ..	0.31 ..	0.01 ..	0.04 3.18
(b) Industrial Processing Society ..	1963-64 1964-65										
Producer's Society—											
(a) Industrial Processing Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	47 45	8 8	1,159 1,178	0.84 1.32	0.40 0.83	1.70 7.75				
(b) Labourers Industrial Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	4 6		221 272	0.09 0.13	0.01 0.02	0.40 0.52	0.65 ..		0.21 ..	0.30 0.07

(c) Agricultural Producers' Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	15 17	8 13	1,159 222	0.16 0.19	0.00 0.01	0.82 1.35	.. 0.49	.. 0.31	0.25 0.33	0.65 0.84
Resource Society—											
(a) Credit Resource Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	623 632		80,774 90,866	54.07 64.27	16.29 17.68	321.89 399.43	226.61 349.26	159.88 171.16	57.55 80.49	268.92 308.14
(b) Non-Credit Resource Society ..	1963-64 1964-65	18 18	600 616	2,032 2,043	0.31 0.35	0.03 0.06	1.25 1.39				
(c) Service Resource Society ..	1963-64 1964-65										
General Societies—											
(a) Social ..	1963-64 1964-65	3 3	280 280	151 222	0.03 0.33	0.04 0.04	0.02 0.02				
(b) Commercial ..	1963-64 1964-65	2 2	149 ..	121 149	0.50 0.50	1.10 1.67	2.20 2.61				
(c) Others ..	1963-64 1964-65	1 1		90 90	0.31 0.31	0.03 0.04	0.31 0.46				
District Total ..	1963-64 1964-65	894 910	2,086 2,277	1,00,183 1,11,118	103.33 141.03	38.96 43.9	609.92 917.22	507.83 740.32	351.43 450.55	100.50 148.69	460.34 632.56

Source : Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—Before 1956, fisheries activities in the eight districts of the Vidarbha region and the three districts of Chhindwara, Seoni and Betul, now in Madhya Pradesh, were looked after by an Assistant Fisheries Development Officer posted at Nagpur, while the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer with headquarters at Bhandara was in charge of fish seed collection scheme with Statewide jurisdiction. The post of Assistant Fisheries Development Officer was redesignated as the Superintendent of Fisheries with the re-organisation of States in 1956. Subsequently, the Superintendent of Fisheries, Bhandara, was placed in charge of the fisheries activities in Bhandara district while the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, supervised the work in the remaining seven districts of Vidarbha region. Both the Superintendents were responsible directly to the Director of Fisheries, Bombay.

With the addition of one more post of Superintendent under the Second Five Year Plan in 1958, with headquarters at Chandrapur, the work in Chandrapur and Yeotmal districts was transferred to him. The post of Assistant Director of Fisheries was created with headquarters at Nagpur as a regional head for Vidarbha region. With this, the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, has control over Buldhana district along with the districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Akola and Amravati.

The Assistant Director of Fisheries is the planning, supervising and co-ordinating officer for all the activities of the department in the three fisheries divisions of Vidarbha region.

Duties.—The duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries are as follows:—

- (i) to carry out survey of new sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture,
- (ii) to stock tanks and ponds with suitable varieties of fish every year,
- (iii) to construct nurseries and to nurture fry in them,
- (iv) to form and supervise all the fisheries co-operative societies and to devise ways and means to improve the socio-economic conditions of fishermen,
- (v) to investigate applications from fishermen for loan and subsidy from Government,
- (vi) to effect loan recoveries and credit the money into the treasury,
- (vii) to associate and encourage fishermen to take advantage of different schemes of the department,
- (viii) to collect statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen in the district,

(ix) to give technical guidance to deep tank fishing operations conducted by the societies,

(x) to supervise the working of ice and cold storage plant and

(xi) to supervise in general the work of development of fisheries in areas under his jurisdiction.

Developmental Activities.—With a view to increasing the production of fish within the district and improving the socio-economic condition of the fishermen, the Department of Fisheries established an office in 1962 for the district, with one Fisheries Assistant in charge, who works under the Superintendent of Fisheries, Akola.

Fisheries Co-operatives.—In the socio-economic field, efforts are made to bring the Fishermen in the district under the co-operative fold, so as to extend the benefits of different schemes of development and financial assistance to the fish trade. There are at present 5 fishermen's co-operative societies in the district, with a total membership of 105 and a total share capital of Rs. 5,650.

Financial assistance is granted by way of subsidy on the purchase of fishery requisites such as nylon and cotton twine. The co-operative societies and private fish-culturists get rebate on the procurement of the carp fry. Financial assistance is also granted by way of loan and subsidy for construction of rearing and nursery tanks, desilting and renovating tanks and screening of the outlets. All measures eventually undertaken have increased production of fish and socio-economic welfare of the fishermen in the district.

Progress of Work.—As the water resources of the district were lacking in the availability of quick growing varieties such as *Catla*, *Rohu* and *Mrigal*, the tanks in the district are being surveyed with a view to bringing about as much area of water surface as possible, under the culture of these three types of fishes. Under Five Year Plan schemes quick growing Bengal Carps are stocked annually in the perennial water tanks for propagation of pisciculture. The varieties stocked are *Catla*, *Rohu* and *Mrigal*. In the municipal tanks at Buldhana and Khamgaon, about 1.60 lakhs of fry was stocked during the Second Five Year Plan period. During the first two years of the Third Plan period the quantity stocked amounted to 1.61 lakhs alone. Intensification of stocking of fry or fish seed of these fishes, is being undertaken every year. Attempts are also being made to explore the production of fish-seed within the district, by undertaking the artificial method of breeding these fishes.

The total area of water that has been brought under pisciculture until 1969 was 1,570 hectares. The tanks which are being stocked with fry of major carps by the department are Sangam tank (2.4 hectares), Yarkhed tank (43 hectares) and Nalganga reservoir (1100 hectares). Technical assistance and requisite facilities are also extended for undertaking pisciculture in tanks belonging to various gram-panchayats, municipal committees and interested pisciculturists.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

Introduction.—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 of which 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 Corporation Act LXIV of 1950. Nationalisation of services in Buldhana district, which forms part of Akola division of the Corporation was started in March, 1963.

For administrative convenience of operating the services the erstwhile State of Bombay was originally divided into 16 viable units called divisions. After the States re-organisation in 1956, three units were transferred to Mysore State leaving 13 divisions. With the bifurcation of the bilingual State of Bombay on May 1, 1960, five northern divisions were transferred to the State of Gujarat, leaving eight divisions in residual Corporation in Maharashtra. With the merger of the Provincial Transport Service, Nagpur in the Vidarbha region and the State Transport Services in the Maharashtra region, two new divisions were created with effect from July 1, 1961. The name of the Corporation was subsequently changed from Bombay State Road Transport Corporation to Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation. The Corporation is at present divided in 15 operating divisions. The Divisional Controller belonging to Class I State service is the officer in charge of Akola division of which Buldhana district forms a part. He is immediately under the control of the central office of which the General Manager is the administrative head. The Divisional Controller is assisted by the following departments and branches, *viz.*,

- (1) administration, (2) accounts and audit, (3) traffic, (4) mechanical engineering, (5) statistics, (6) organisation and methods, (7) security, (8) stores, (9) civil engineering, (10) secretariat, (11) legal and (12) central workshop.

As the head of the division, the Divisional Controller is responsible for the State Transport operations in Akola Division and is assisted by 11 class II officers who are charged with the following functional responsibilities.

The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters relating to traffic and operations. The labour officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration. Matters relating to publicity in the division are also looked after by the Labour Officer. Accounts and statistics branches are manned by the Divisional Accounts Officer assisted by the Assistant Stores Officer and the Divisional Statistician. The technical side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer

assisted by the Divisional Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many Depot Managers as there are depots.

Depots.—The operations in Buldhana district were first started from Khamgaon depot on 11 routes with a total of 530.5 route kilometres, with a strength of 10 vehicles. The process of expansion was very rapid and by the end of December 1968 there were two depots in the district, one at Khamgaon with 45 vehicles and the other at Buldhana with 46 vehicles. From these two depots buses were plying on 69 routes in all with a total of 3,476.7 route kilometres. On an average 12,176 and 5,595 passengers were carried per day from each of these depots, respectively. The Akola division, has 219 buses plying on 175 routes with a total route length of 9,905 kilometres. The buses put on road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 49, exclusive of the seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily kilometres operated by these buses during December 1968 amounted to 41,889 carrying on an average 42,703 passengers per day.

Maintenance.—The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the divisional workshop which is situated at Akola. Further, after the operation of every 24,000 kilometres, the vehicles are routed by the depots to the divisional workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, there are two depots in the district situated at Buldhana and Khamgaon for daily maintenance of the vehicles. Regular daily and weekly servicing and 8,000 kilometres docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

For the convenience of the travelling public the Corporation has provided various amenities in the district. A temporary bus station has been constructed at Khamgaon and pick-up sheds have been provided for at Buldhana, Chikhli, Nandura and Malkapur.

The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. A labour welfare centre at the divisional headquarters provides facilities for indoor games. Dispensaries for the State Transport personnel have been opened at Buldhana and Khamgaon. Rest rooms for the running staff have been provided for at Buldhana, Khamgaon and Chikhli.

CHAPTER 14 — LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION

THE LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT VESTS IN THE VARIOUS BODIES, SUCH AS Municipalities, panchayat samitis and zilla parishads, enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions could be noted in three ways. *Firstly*, they are now entirely elective bodies although there is a provision in the law for the nomination of a member by the State in case of necessity. *Secondly*, in regard to their franchise which is based on the principle of universal adult franchise, through an enactment so that a person who-(a) is a citizen of India, (b) has attained the age of 21 years, and (c) has the requisite residence, business or taxation qualification is entitled to be enrolled as a voter. From 1958 onwards, reservation of seats has been provided for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes under certain circumstances. *Thirdly*, wider powers have been conferred upon these local bodies and the needs for the administration of areas under their charge have been met with.

Another landmark in the reforms in the history of local self-government relates to the controlling power over these institutions. Prior to the reorganisation of States, the State Government used to control these bodies, but afterwards these powers were delegated to the Director of Municipal Administration. Municipalities in the districts are now governed under the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965.

MUNICIPALITIES

The old Gazetteer of Buldhana, published in 1910, has the following to say about the municipalities in the district:

“The District has four Municipal towns, Buldhana, Malkapur, Khamgaon and Shegaon. The Buldhana Municipality contains two *ex-officio* and ten nominated members; Malkapur three nominated and nine elected; Khamgaon three nominated and nine elected; Shegaon four nominated and nine elected. The income of the Buldhana Municipality was Rs. 14,887 and that of Khamgaon, Shegaon and Malkapur was Rs. 33,170, Rs. 18,505, and Rs. 7,753, respectively, in 1906-07. The expenditure during the same year was, Buldhana Rs. 17,294; Malkapur, Rs. 6,377; Khamgaon, Rs. 27,297; Shegaon, Rs. 16,482. The total population within municipal limits was 50,647 and the

average municipal income per head was Rs. 3-7-6 in Buldhana, annas 9 in Malkapur, Rs. 1-11-11 in Khamgaon and Rs. 1-2-5 in Shegaon. General administration, conservancy, and education are the principal heads of expenditure. The Buldhana and Khamgaon Municipalities have water-works of their own."¹

There are in all nine municipal councils in Buldhana district at Deulgaon Raja, Buldhana, Malkapur, Shegaon, Chikhli, Nandura, Khamgaon, Jalgaon and Mehkar. None of these belongs to the 'A' class municipal councils. Of the nine municipal councils, three municipal councils are placed in 'C' class. This classification is based upon the population as per 1961 Census.

These municipal committees were established under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act, 1922. The municipality at Shegaon is the oldest of all of them. Three out of the 9 municipalities were established in last century. It may be noted that most of these municipal towns are famous for their cotton markets.

The total area, population, etc., of each municipal council is shown in detail in table No. 1.

TABLE No. 1
STATISTICS OF MUNICIPALITIES IN THE BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Name of municipal council	Class of municipal council	Year of establishment	Area in sq. kilometres	Population			No. of wards	Seats reserved for				No. of Co-opted councillors
				Total	Males	Females		Scheduled castes	Scheduled tribes	Women		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	
Buldhana	C	1890	3.96	15,985	8,798	7,187	17	..	..	2	1	
Jalgaon (Jamod)	C	1931	2.62	12,117	6,172	5,945	16	..	..	2	1	
Mehkar	C	1929	5.28	11,872	6,231	5,641	15	2	..	2	1	
Nandura	C	1931	5.67	17,405	9,072	8,333	18	..	..	2	1	
Chikhli	C	1930	10.36	13,499	7,231	6,268	16	1	..	2	1	
Deulgaon Raja	C	1949	3.86	8,767	4,524	4,243	15	..	..	2	1	
Malkapur	B	1906	5.18	29,687	15,512	14,175	23	..	..	2	2	
Shhegaon	B	1876	84.93	21,674	11,204	10,470	20	1	..	2	2	
Khamgaon	B	1887	13.36	44,432	23,437	20,995	28	1	..	2	2	

¹The Gazetteer of Buldhana, 1910, p. 387.

In regard to income and expenditure of these municipal towns in the district the position during 1965 was as detailed below. Nearly 46.86 per cent of the total income of all the municipalities was derived from rates and taxes, 29.64 per cent from grants, 3.83 per cent from municipal property and 18.62 from other sources. Out of the total expenditure during the same period, 26.56 per cent was incurred on public health and convenience, 34.52 per cent on public instruction and the rest on other heads of expenditure.

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922*, as amended, the State Government is empowered to declare any local area to be a municipal committee and to extend the present limits of the existing municipal committees. Every municipal committee consists of a body of elected councillors. The Director of Municipal Administration has powers to nominate the councillors to represent the wards if they fail to elect any seat allotted to them. The State Government has also powers to prescribe the number of wards, councillors to be elected from each ward and seats reserved for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

The life-term of each municipal committee is for five years but this period could be extended by the State Government. The President, who is elected from among the councillors, holds office for a period of not less than one year or for a period not less than the residue of the term of office of the committee, whichever is less and not more than a term of three years as the committee may, previous to the election of the President, determine or until the expiry of the term of his office as a member of the committee. Every committee has a Vice-President nominated by the President from amongst the members.

The committee, by passing a resolution, can remove the President or Vice-President from office, provided three-fourths of its members vote in favour of such a resolution. Before removing a President or a Vice-President from office the incumbent is given a reasonable opportunity to put forward his case against such an action. A President or Vice-President could be removed by the State Government from office for misconduct or incapacity to perform his duties.

Under the provisions of the Municipal Act and rules framed thereunder, the duties of President are detailed as under:—

- (1) to preside over the meetings of the municipal committee,
- (2) to guide the financial and executive administration of the committee and to perform such other executive functions as detailed under the Act, and
- (3) to supervise and exercise control over all officers and servants of the municipality.

The Act provides for the formation of the sub-committees for different branches of municipal administration for the proper

*Now the municipal councils are governed by the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965.

functioning of municipal affairs. The functions of municipal committee are divided into obligatory and optional. The obligatory functions include health, safety, convenience and well-being of the people, while optional functions are those which though considered to be the legitimate objects of local expenditure are not considered essential. Following are some of the obligatory duties of municipalities:—

- (1) cleaning public streets, places and removing noxious vegetation and abating all public nuisance;
- (2) lighting public streets, places and buildings;
- (3) disposing of night soil and rubbish;
- (4) extinguishing fires and protecting life and property when fires occur;
- (5) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices;
- (6) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places;
- (7) establishing and managing cattle-pounds;
- (8) securing possession of or removing buildings which are in a dilapidated state;
- (9) acquiring and managing, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead;
- (10) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary-marks, markets, slaughter-houses, latrines, urinals, drainage services and public facilities for drinking water;
- (11) Providing proper and sufficient supply of water;
- (12) naming streets and numbering houses;
- (13) registering births and deaths;
- (14) carrying out public vaccinations;
- (15) printing and publishing annual administrative reports of the committee;
- (16) taking such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak, spread or recurrence of infectious disease;
- (17) carrying out the annual census of agricultural cattle; and
- (18) registration of cattle or any specified categories of cattle.

Municipalities may at their discretion provide out of their funds for the following among others:—

- (1) reclaiming unhealthy localities and laying out new public streets;
- (2) Constructing, establishing or maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, halls, offices, residential houses, hospitals and dispensaries
- (3) furthering educational objects other than establishment and maintenance of primary schools;

- (4) watering public streets and places ;
- (5) planting and maintaining road side and other trees ;
- (6) taking a census and granting rewards for information which may tend to secure the correct registration of vital statistics ;
- (7) undertaking destruction or detection and preservation of stray dogs ;
- (8) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for carrying on offensive trades ;
- (9) supplying, constructing and maintaining pipes and other fittings for the supply of water to premises and works maintained by the committee ;
- (10) supplying, constructing and maintaining receptacles, fittings, pipes, etc., for the use of private premises for recovery and conducting the sewage thereof into sewers under the control of the committee ;
- (11) establishing and maintaining a farm or a factory for the disposal of sewage ;
- (12) constructing and maintaining such roads, buildings and other Government works other than irrigation works ; and
- (13) taking safety and health measures during fairs and exhibitions.

The municipalities derive income from the following items of taxation :—

- (1) tax on buildings and lands ;
- (2) tax on persons exercising profession or art or carrying out any trade ;
- (3) octroi tax on animals or goods brought within the municipal limits for the purpose of sale, use or consumption ;
- (4) market dues on persons exposing goods for sale in any market or in any place belonging to or under the control of State Government ;
- (5) fees on the registration of cattle sold within the limits of municipality ;
- (6) latrine or conservancy tax payable by the occupiers or owners ;
- (7) tax for the construction or maintenance of public latrines ;
- (8) water rate where water is supplied by the committee ;
- (9) lighting rate ;
- (10) drainage tax ;
- (11) tax payable by the occupiers of buildings or lands ;
- (12) terminal tax and
- (13) tax on pilgrims.

The State Government may take an objection to the levy of a tax which is unfair in its incidence or against public interest.

The State Government is empowered to sanction or refuse to sanction any proposal for the levy of a tax or give sanction subject to the modification as it may deem fit or return the proposal to the committee for reconsideration. In order to improve the financial position of the municipal committees, the State Government may allow the municipal committee to levy any new tax.

Such new taxes sometimes fall short to meet the expenditure of the municipal committees. Therefore, their income is supplemented by grants of a recurring and non-recurring nature made by the Government from time to time.

The Director of Municipal Administration exercises control over the municipalities in Buldhana district. The Director can examine the proceedings of any committee, allow any authorised person to inspect any immoveable property in possession of the committee or any work in progress under its direction, call for and inspect any document which may be in possession or under the control of a committee and require a committee to furnish such statements, accounts and reports as required. The Collector can also suspend the execution of an order or a resolution of a committee.

When a particular municipal committee is deemed to have become incompetent to discharge its functions, the State Government appoints an executive officer for general improvement in the administration by dissolving the municipal committee.

The accounts of the municipal committees are audited once in a year by the local audit department of the Office of the Accountant General. The Director of Municipal Administration is empowered to disallow any item of expenditure which seems to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person responsible for making such illegal expenditure in the form of a payment. Appeal against this order lies with the District Judge or the State Government.

The Director has also powers to remove any member of the municipal committee on receipt of a recommendation to the effect from the committee on account of disqualification or misconduct.

ZILLA PARISHAD

Historical Background.— The villages in ancient India were autonomous units and enjoyed freedom in the administration. Efforts were made to revive these institutions, by the British Government with a view to train the people in the administration of such local self-government institutions by giving them representation in these local bodies.

With the attainment of freedom, India initiated efforts towards economic and social advancement and planned economy was accepted as the basis of future progress. Community Development Programmes and National Extension Service were envisaged to improve the lot of the rural population. However, after a certain lapse of time the Government realised that the progress of

rural development was not commensurate with expectations and this was mainly due to non-participation of villagers in the implementation of development schemes. To investigate into the causes behind such a state of affairs, the Government appointed a committee called the 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee'.

The Committee visited development activities, interviewed many Government officials and social workers. It was pointed out that the Government could not succeed in appealing and attracting leadership of the masses in participating in various schemes, as self-governing institutions did not take keen interest in such work. There was too much interference in the working of such local bodies, at the district level, with Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finance etc. It recommended the formation of local committees on par with Block Development committees to be named as Panchayat Samitis and at district level a district committee to be named as Zilla Parishad. Thus the Gram Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti and Zilla Parishad subsequently came to be entrusted with the implementation of the development schemes.

Accordingly, the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act was passed in 1961. The Act provides for the establishment of Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis in rural areas and assigns to them the functions of local government.

The basic conception behind the formation of Zilla Parishad in each district is to assign to such Zilla Parishad the local government functions, to entrust the execution of certain works and developmental schemes of the State Five-Year Plans and to provide for the decentralisation of powers and functions under certain enactments for the purpose of promoting the development of democratic institutions and further to secure a greater measure of participation by the people in the said plans and Government schemes.

The Zilla Parishad, Buldhana, came into existence in the year 1962. The area under the jurisdiction of the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis corresponds to the district and taluka boundaries, respectively, except in the case of municipal towns which are not covered by them. The Zilla Parishad covers 98.62 per cent of the area and 83.44 per cent of the total population of the district. The population covered by the Zilla Parishad is entirely rural.

The Buldhana Zilla Parishad is thus the local self-Government agency at the district level with the following 13 Panchayat Samitis under it, viz.:

- (1) Buldhana; (2) Motala; (3) Malkapur; (4) Nandura;
- (5) Jalgaon; (6) Sangrampur; (7) Khamgaon; (8) Shegaon;
- (9) Mehkar; (10) Lonar; (11) Chikhli; (12) Deulgaon-Raja; and
- (13) Sindkhed-Raja.

In practice, the jurisdiction of each of the above Panchayat Samitis corresponds with the jurisdiction of the erstwhile development block. The above 13 Panchayat Samitis are part and parcel of the Zilla Parishad and do not have separate legal entity.

The Zilla Parishad carries out its functions through the following authorities:—

- (1) 13 Panchayat Samitis mentioned above,
- (2) the standing committee,
- (3) six subjects committees, viz., one sub-committee each for agriculture, education, works, industries and co-operation, health and finance,
- (4) presiding authorities,
- (5) the Chief Executive Officer; and
- (6) the Block Development Officers (one for each Panchayat Samiti).

Powers and Functions.—In what follows are described in brief the powers and functions of the President, the Vice-President and other official and non-official authorities:—

President: The President:—

- (a) has to preside over the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;
- (b) has access to the Zilla Parishad records;
- (c) discharges all the duties imposed and exercises all the powers conferred on him by or under the Act;
- (d) supervises the financial and executive administration and submits to the Parishad all problems connected therewith which require its orders and
- (e) exercises 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 any subjects committee, or of any Panchayat Samiti.

The President, in case of emergency, directs 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 works or doing of 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 meeting and the Zilla Parishad or the committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

Vice-President: The Vice-President—

- (a) in the absence of the President, presides over the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(b) exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time, subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegates to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercises the powers and performs the duties of the President.

Chairman of Standing Committee or Subjects Committee: Subject to the provisions of the Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government, the Chairman of the standing committee or a subjects committee—

(i) convenes, presides over and conducts the meetings of the committee; and

(ii) has access to the records of the committee.

The Chairman of any such committee, in relation to the subject allotted to the committee can—

(i) call for any information, return, statement, accounts or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof; and

(ii) enter and inspect any immoveable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction;

Provided that, the Chairman of the standing committee may, in relation to any subject allotted to any subjects committee, also exercise the powers under this clause;

(iii) The Chairman of the standing committee can grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of class I service (other than the Chief Executive Officer) or class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

Save as otherwise provided by or under this Act, the powers to be exercised and the duties to be discharged by the standing committee and each of the subjects committees, are 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.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Block Development Officers, and the heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers and are transferable by the State Government to other districts. The Chief Executive Officer belongs to the cadre of Indian Administrative Service and his rank is equal to that of a Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are class II officers while the heads of the departments are either class I or class II officers. All the executive officers draw their pay and allowances from the

consolidated fund of the State except travelling allowance (other than travelling allowance on transfer) which is drawn from the District Fund.

Chief Executive Officer: The Chief Executive Officer—

(i) shall lay down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the State Government;

(ii) shall be entitled to call for any information, return, statement, accounts or report from any officer or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad;

(iii) shall supervise and control all the activities of the Zilla Parishad;

(iv) shall have power to possess papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its committees (excluding Panchayat Samitis);

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the District Fund;

(vi) shall exercise supervision and control over 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, are also exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowered by order in writing; all such orders of the Chief Executive Officer are (however, to be laid before the President, the standing committee and relevant subjects committees for information;

(ix) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officer of class I service and class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad; forward them to such authorities as are 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 is the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the standing committee.

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 ;
 (iii) shall, subject to the general orders of the Chief Executive officer, grant leave of absence to officer or servant of class III service or of class IV service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti ;

(iv) shall call for any information, return, statement, accounts, 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 of rents payable to the Panchayat Samiti under section 185 ; and

(vi) shall in relation to the works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property, sale or transfer thereof, as are specified by the State Government.

Heads of the Departments: (i) Every head of the Department of the Zilla Parishad in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his department accords technical sanction thereto.

(ii) He assesses and gives his opinion confidentially every year on the work of officers of class II service working in his department and forwards them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) The head of department, specified in this behalf, shall be the secretary *ex-officio*, of such subjects committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct.

Organisation.—The Zilla Parishad, Buldhana, is composed of 47 elected councillors, two co-opted women councillors, five associate councillors (Chairmen of five federal co-operative societies) and 13 *ex-officio* councillors. The Chief Executive Officer is the administrative head of the Zilla Parishad.

As per the provisions contained in section 78 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the Zilla Parishad has appointed the following committees, *viz.*, standing committee, finance committee, works committee, agriculture committee, co-operative committee, education committee and health committee.

General Administration Department.—The General Administration department of the Zilla Parishad deals with non-technical matters such as establishment, parishad revenue, panchayats, social welfare and planning. The General Administration department is controlled and directed by the standing committee of the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is its secretary and he heads the General Administration department. He is assisted by an administrative officer, a revenue officer, a social welfare officer and two area organizers for tribal welfare. The social welfare section of the department is in charge of a District Social Welfare Officer. He is entrusted with the work of implementation of various schemes for the uplift and welfare of the backward classes. The amelioration of the backward classes is sought by granting them various educational and financial concessions and through cultural activities. An amount of Rs. 3,98,000 was spent for social welfare schemes during 1972-73.

Finance Department.—The Finance department of the Zilla Parishad is divided into four branches, *viz.*, audit, budget, compilation and works. It is headed by the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer, who is Class I Gazetted Officer. He is assisted by the Accounts Officer. The Finance department is controlled by the finance committee of the Zilla Parishad with the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer as its secretary.

The total revenue receipts of the Zilla Parishad during the year 1972-73 were Rs. 31,175,000 comprising Government grants of Rs. 28,196,000 ; local fund cess including stamp duty grants of Rs. 9,60,000, and other taxes and fees Rs. 76,000.

During the same period the total revenue expenditure amounted to Rs. 3,25,43,000, while the debt section amounted to Rs. 41,224,000.

Agriculture Department.—The Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Agricultural Development Officer who has to exercise technical and administrative control and to execute and supervise the departmental activities in the district. The department is controlled by the agriculture committee of the Zilla Parishad. Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the Agriculture department has made good progress in the programme of intensive and extensive cultivation for *kharif* and *rabi* crops especially of jowar, groundnut and cotton. The department has installed 74 pumps and has constructed 364 wells towards expanding irrigation facilities. Under the rural compost scheme, 44,870 pits have been dug. The department in 1962-63 distributed ammonium sulphate 3,486 tons ; ammonium-sulphate-nitrate 383 tons ; urea 3,507 tons ; nitro phosphate 255 tons and super phosphate 120 tons. Side grafting was done on 130 local mango trees with improved variety along with 345 *bor* trees. Spraying operations were completed on 1,393 acres of citrus plantation in the district. Loans amounting to Rs. 50,000 were released to the cultivators for the plantation of new orchards. Under the rust resistant wheat scheme 212 quintals of wheat seed of HY 65 variety was distributed. Under the green manuring programme 99 maunds of sann seed was distributed.

The whole district is now brought under the activities of the farmers' unions. About 1,244 villages in the district are covered by 1,041 farmers' unions with 33,291 members. Taluka farmers' unions have been established in all the five tahsils while the district farmers' union has also been organized at the district level.

The animal husbandry section controlled by the District Animal Husbandry Officer deals with the treatment of sick animals, and carries out vaccination against the various diseases of live-stock and with breeding of animals.

There are 13 full fledged veterinary dispensaries located at the following places in the district, *viz.*, Buldhana, Chikhli, Khamgaon, Shegaon, Jalgaon, Dasarkhed, Motala, Lonar, Sarangpur,

Nandura, Deulgaon-Raja and Malkapur. In addition, there are veterinary aid centres located at 36 different places. Treatment of animal diseases, castration of scrub bulls, etc., are the main services rendered in these dispensaries. Breeding bulls are located for selective breeding at four key village centres under the key village scheme. Natural service as well as artificial insemination method are practised at these centres. Cattle development work is also taken up through the *Gorakshan Sanstha* at Khamgaon.

Industries and Co-operation Department: The Industries and Co-operation department of the Zilla Parishad is under charge of a Co-operation and Industries Officer. The department is controlled and directed by the co-operation committee of the Zilla Parishad with Co-operation and Industries Officer as its secretary. The department administers the extension and promotional activities of the co-operative societies as the regulatory functions have been retained by the Co-operation department in the State sector. The department also deals with the grant of loans to small-scale and cottage industries under State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961, grant of loans to educated unemployed, grant of financial assistance to *bona fide* craftsmen and backward class artisans, grant of subsidies to industrial co-operatives and loans to industrial societies.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the department has registered 88 co-operative societies comprising 16 *sewa sahakari* societies; 12 dairy societies; 5 labour contract societies; 11 farming societies; 8 housing societies; and a crop protection society. The department has sanctioned Rs. 11,711 to 37 industrial co-operative societies as management subsidy. An amount of Rs. 3,000 has been sanctioned to an industrial society under the handicraft scheme. A sum of Rs. 8,852 as loan and an equal amount as subsidy have been sanctioned to 21 industrial co-operative societies for tools and equipment.

Education Department: The Parishad Education Officer heads the Education department of the Zilla Parishad. He also works as the secretary of the education committee. The education committee of the Zilla Parishad guides and directs the working of the Education department. Technical guidance and suggestions for improvement are made by the Director of Education, Maharashtra State.

The Zilla Parishad has under its control 1,120 boys' and 46 girls' primary schools; 6 Indian-English middle schools and 15 and 2 high schools and higher secondary schools, respectively. The department had spent during 1972-73 Rs. 16,978,000. The department also participates in the *gramshikshan mohim* aimed at imparting social education.

Public Health Department: The Public Health Officer is the head of the Health department of the Zilla Parishad. He is also the secretary of the health committee of the Zilla Parishad which

guides and directs the functioning of the Health department. He is responsible for effecting measures to control epidemics, for maintaining the sanitation of the district and for all the medical and public health activities in the district except the civil hospital and the State controlled schemes. There are 12 primary health centres, 75 *Ayurvedic* dispensaries, 21 *Allopathic* dispensaries along with two sub-centre dispensaries of the primary health centres, 7 family planning centres and 6 leprosy survey, education and treatment units in the district. The total budget estimates for the Health department for the year 1974-75 amounted to Rs. 22,46,000.

Works Department: The Works department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who works as the secretary of the works committee of the Zilla Parishad. The works committee guides and controls the activities of the department. The department maintains roads transferred to it from Buildings and Communications department which measure 667 km (417 miles). The department controls five public ferry services. It has also undertaken five minor irrigation schemes.

PANCHAYAT SAMITIS

Under section 57 of the Act, a Panchayat Samiti is provided for every block. 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 councillor of the Zilla Parishad residing in the block.
- (c) The Chairmen of such co-operative societies, conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural products in the block, as nominated by Government (to be associate members).
- (d) The Chairman of a co-operative society conducting business relating to agriculture [not being a society falling under (C) above] in the block, co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member).
- (e) In case of non-availability of a woman member belonging to scheduled castes or scheduled tribes, one co-opted member who is a regular resident in the block.

(f) *Sarpanchas* elected by members of the Village Panchayats.

Chairman.—The term of the office of the Chairman and members of the Panchayat Samiti is co-terminous.

The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 per month with the facilities of free residential accommodation. The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month.

TA-1198-44-A.

Powers and Functions.—Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules or regulations made thereunder:—

Chairman: (1) the Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti:—

(a) convenes, presides over and conducts meetings of the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) has access to the records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(c) exercises supervision and control over the officers and servants of or under the Zilla Parishad and working in the block in matters of execution or administration and the accounts and records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(d) in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from block grants, exercises such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property or sale or transfer thereof as may be specified by the Government.

(2) The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is authorised:—

(a) to call for any information, return, statement, accounts or report from any officer or servant working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) to enter and inspect any immovable property in the block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad, or the Panchayat Samiti, or any work or development scheme in progress in the block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction.

Deputy Chairman: (1) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti:—

(a) in the absence of the Chairman, presides over the meeting of the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti, as the Chairman from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in that behalf, delegates to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of the Chairman or during the absence of the Chairman, exercises the powers and performs the duties of the Chairman.

(2) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is competent to enter and inspect any immovable property in the block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction and to send a report of such inspection to the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti.

There are in all 13 Panchayat Samitis in the district.

A-1198—44-B.

The following statement gives the details about the membership of these Panchayat Samitis:—

Name of Panchayat Samiti	Elected councillors	Co-opted councillors	Chairmen of agricultural co-operative societies	Women councillors [if not included in (2), (3) and (4)]	Elected sar-panchas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Malkapur	3	..	2	..	6
Motala	4	..	2	..	8
Nandura	3	..	2	1	6
Jalgaon	2	..	2	..	4
Sangrampur	3	..	2	..	6
Khamgaon	4	..	2	..	8
Shegaon	4	..	1	..	8
Mehkar	4	..	1	1	8
Lonar	4	..	2	..	8
Chikhli	4	..	2	..	8
Buldhana	4	..	2	..	8
Deulgaon-Raja ..	4	..	2	..	8
Sindkhed-Raja ..	4	..	1	..	8

The following table* No. 2 shows the number of villages and population covered, with percentage of area, by Panchayat Samitis

* District Census Handbook, Buldhana, 1961.

TABLE No. 2
NUMBER OF VILLAGES AND POPULATION COVERED BY PANCHAYAT SAMITIS IN THE DISTRICT

Name of Panchayat Samiti (1)	Name of headquarters (2)	Area in sq. miles (3)	No. of inhabited villages (4)	Population in 1961 (5)	Percentage by area (6)	Percentage by population (7)
Jalgaon ..	Jalgaon ..	212.9	77	48,299	6.0	5.5
Sangrapur ..	Sangrapur ..	226.5	88	55,135	6.3	6.2
Malkapur ..	Malkapur ..	176.1	60	53,288	4.9	6.0
Nandura ..	Nandura ..	182.0	86	59,162	5.1	6.7
Motala ..	Motala ..	283.7	102	79,762	8.0	9.0
Khamgaon ..	Khamgaon ..	371.9	100	73,646	10.4	8.3
Shegaon ..	Shegaon ..	492.2	113	71,825	8.2	8.1
Buldhana ..	Buldhana ..	247.2	88	81,193	6.9	9.2
Chikhli ..	Chikhli ..	292.7	98	70,812	8.2	8.0
Deulgaon-Raja ..	Deulgaon-Raja ..	298.8	91	68,780	8.4	7.8
Mehkar ..	Mehkar ..	382.8	115	76,106	10.7	8.6
Lonar ..	Lonar ..	305.7	105	73,029	8.6	8.3
Sindkhed-Raja ..	Sindkhed-Raja ..	297.8	102	73,223	8.3	8.3

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS

The village panchayats are at the lowest rung of Government machinery and administration. From early times the villages in India formed units which were self-sufficient and administered by the gram panchayats. The self-sufficiency was so much ingrained in the character of villages and their institutions that they could withstand the rigours of foreign invasion. Centralization of power that emerged during the British regime resulted in political, social and economic disruption of the rural areas. The freedom struggle that started in the country during the 20th century forced the alien power to grant at least a restricted form of local government so as to appease the popular discontent. Thus an Act was passed in 1915, which was implemented in 1920 by establishing a few village panchayats in the district, their supervision having been entrusted to the District Councils then in existence.

The Village Panchayats Act of 1946 envisaged the establishment of village panchayats in villages, the population of which was above 1,000, above 500 and below 500 in three stages. Within a year, the phased programme was completed except for a few villages in the last stage.

Under the Act, panchayats with membership of between 5 and 15 were established on the basis of adult franchise. They were to elect a *sarpancha* and *upasarpancha* from amongst themselves. The revenue patil of the village was to be an *ex-officio* member of the panchayat.

The Act divided the duties of the village panchayats into obligatory and optional. The obligatory duties of the village panchayats included sanitary and health measures, construction and repairs of roads, maintenance of birth and death registers, provision of water-supply, and undertaking such other works meant for public convenience, while the optional duties involved construction and maintenance of *dharmashalas*, finding ways and means for development of agriculture, co-operation, veterinary services, etc. The gram panchayats were to undertake the optional functions provided their funds permitted them to do so.

The incomes of the village panchayats were derived from various sources such as cesses, house-tax, sanitary-tax, and other taxes as also grants from the Government.

A few gram panchayats were entrusted with the performance of judicial functions. They were authorised to impose fine up to Rs. 20 and conduct civil suits of the value of not more than Rs. 100. The appeals upon the decisions of the gram panchayats were heard by the District and Sessions Judge. The panchayats were authorised to appoint the secretaries and other necessary staff.

After the reorganisation of States, the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, was made applicable to the district.

Under this Act, which was put into force in the district from June 1959, females were represented in the panchayats. The

membership of revenue patils who were *ex-officio* members of the panchayats was abrogated. The division of the duties of village panchayats as obligatory and optional was annulled and panchayats were made responsible for all round development of villages. This Act has given wide powers to village panchayats.

The special features of the new Act are:—

- (a) reservation of two seats for women in every village panchayat;
- (b) constitution of *gram sabhas* of all adult residents of the village;
- (c) establishment of district village panchayat *mandal* for every district (now defunct since the formation of the Zilla Parishad);
- (d) appointment of the secretary of a village panchayat as a full-fledged Government servant;
- (e) training of village panchayat secretary to be undertaken at its own cost;
- (f) making of the work of collection of land revenue and maintenance of land records;
- (g) payments to village panchayats of grants-in-aid of not less than 25 per cent of the land revenue collected in villages and
- (h) constitution of group *nyaya* panchayats for five or more villages with fairly wide judicial powers, both civil and criminal.

A District Village Panchayat Officer was appointed to control the administration of village panchayats in the district. He assists the Collector in his functions and duties in respect of administration of village panchayats with the aid of District Auditor, five Sub-Auditors and other necessary staff. Besides, two Social Welfare Inspectors were allotted to the district to work as supervisory staff.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the district panchayat *mandal* was abolished and the Village Panchayat Officer now works with the Zilla Parishad. The control of the village panchayats now vests in the Zilla Parishad and is exercised through the Panchayat Samitis.

All the villages in the district are covered by 765 village panchayats of which 427 are independent village panchayats, while the remaining 338 are group-village panchayats. 124 *nyaya* panchayats are established in the district under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958.

During 1961-62 the village panchayats received grants from Government to the tune of 57.30 per cent, which included 30 per cent of land revenue collected in the villages or one rupee per head of population whichever is higher. The village panchayats also get the entire local fund cess collected in the villages. Out of 749 village panchayats, 211 have levied taxes on houses and properties. Only 55 village panchayats have levied octroi. During

the year 1961-62 the expenditure of all village panchayats in the district, on health and public lighting was 11.19 and 4.21 per cent, respectively, while 70.92 per cent was incurred on other items including improvement of village roads, construction of new drinking water wells, construction of panchayat *ghar*, schools and such other buildings.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION

Introduction.—The Maharashtra State has an independent Town-Planning and Valuation department under the administrative control of the Urban Development, Public Health and Housing department. This department, came into existence in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government, Poona, now designated as Director of Town-Planning, Maharashtra State, Pune as its head.

Functions—Town Planning: The department as its name indicates, principally deals with the important subject of town-planning and valuation of real properties. Some of the important duties and functions of this department as stipulated by Government are as under:—

- (1) To prepare the regional plans, development plans and town planning schemes under the provisions of the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, which has come into force in the State with effect from 11th January 1967.
- (2) To render assistance to the municipal authorities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice, as well as loan of the services of technical assistants for the preparation of development plans, draft town planning schemes, etc.
- (3) To perform the duties of Town-Planning Officers, Arbitrators, when so appointed by Government under the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, to carry out surveys, prepare the existing land-use-plans and development plans, to scrutinise development or building permission cases, to tender advice to the Tribunals of Appeal and to draw up final town planning schemes, to work as members of the Regional Planning Boards, constituted by Government and to prepare regional plans.
- (4) To advise Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation.
- (5) To advise and prepare town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the Municipal Acts.
- (6) To prepare development schemes or layouts of— (i) lands belonging to Government, (ii) lands of co-operative housing societies, and (iii) lands of private bodies with the sanction of Government.
- (7) To prepare village layouts for extension of old village *gaathan* and new village *gaathan* sites.

(8) To advise Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation.

(9) To prepare type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans.

(10) To scrutinize miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and to recommend suitable building regulation for adoption in the areas concerned and lastly.

(11) To advise the Nagpur Improvement Trust, Nagpur, in the preparation of the improvement schemes under the Nagpur Improvement Trust Act, 1936, and advise Government regarding sanction to the schemes.

Valuation : The Director of Town Planning is the chief expert adviser to 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 purposes of sale or lease ;

(2) valuation of Government properties for the purpose of rating under the provincial Municipal Corporations Act, and functioning as the authorised valuation officer for finalisation of the lists of assessment of all the properties in municipal towns submitted by the Chief Officers under the provisions of the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965 ;

(3) valuation for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate or stamp duty, etc. ;

(4) valuation for the purposes of fixing standard rate of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing zones of values in all villages and rising localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns ;

(5) valuation for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments ;

(6) scrutiny of awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894 ;

(7) supplying trained technical assistants to do duty as Special Land Acquisition Officers in important towns where the land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature ;

(8) giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in the District Courts and High Courts when appeals are lodged against the awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act ; and

(9) undertaking valuation work on behalf of Railways and other departments of Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc.

Miscellaneous: (1) To advise the various heads of departments of Government in the selection of sites required for the public purposes.

(2) To see that all town planning schemes or layouts sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed in the schemes and lastly,

(3) To advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment of or addition to the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, or Rules thereunder.

Regional Planning— The statutory powers regarding planning were embodied under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, which was in force till its replacement by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. The Act of 1954 generally incorporated the provisions of Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, and in addition made it obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction.

The Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, applied to lands included within the municipal limits only, and therefore, there was no provision for exercising proper and effective control over the planning and development of land in peripheral areas outside the municipal areas which were growing in an irregular and haphazard manner. The evil results of such uncontrolled growth and development have already become apparent in the vast areas outside Greater Bombay, Poona and other important urban centres. It was considered that the only way to tackle adequately these evil effects arising out of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation would be by resorting to regional planning for areas around the metropolitan centres like Bombay, Poona and Nagpur and by developing counter magnets for the dispersal and reallocation of both industries and population within the region.

There was no statutory power under the Act of 1954 for the preparation of regional plans which has, therefore, been repealed and replaced by the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966. This Act came into force in the State from 11th January, 1967. It provided for the establishment of regions and constitution of Regional Planning Board for the preparation of regional plans, designation of sites for new towns ; establishment of development authorities to create new towns, preparation of development plans for the municipal areas and town planning schemes for execution of the sanctioned development plans. The Government has established Metropolitan Regions at Bombay, Poona and Nagpur and constituted Regional Planning Boards for these three regions.

The scope of the regional plan for an urban region is to formulate a policy for guidance and control of development within the region in such a manner that:—

(i) land be used for the best purposes for which it is most suitable e.g., residential, commercial, industrial, agricultural,

recreational, etc., having regard to both public and private interests,

(ii) adequate means of communication be provided for traffic throughout the region,

(iii) building development be concentrated in areas where adequate public and utility service can be supplied economically,

(iv) ample areas be reserved as open spaces,

(v) amenities and country side be protected including preservation of land scape, and

(vi) preservation of historical monuments, etc.

Briefly, the object of the regional plan is to regulate development so as to maintain a proper balance between buildings and open space and secure healthy and economic urban growth.

Organisation.—The department, as stated above, was started in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government, Poona (now designated as Director of Town Planning, Maharashtra State, Poona) as its head who was later on assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Deputy Director of Town Planning) and Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor (now designated as Assistant Director of Town Planning) and two Senior Assistants (now designated as Town Planner) with the requisite staff. As the activities of this department increased, these assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to attend to the work of town planning, valuation, etc., very essentially required in and around the towns and cities. There has been tremendous increase in the activities of this department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of this department is at Poona and other offices at present exist at Bombay, Poona, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Thana, Sholapur, Akola and Nanded. The department also spares officers to work in the awards section of Revenue and Forest department to scrutinise the land acquisition awards in the Bombay Collectorate to deal mainly with valuation work in Bombay, and in the rural housing cell of the Rural Development department to prepare layouts of villages included in the schemes of that department; officers of the department are also called upon to give expert evidence in the courts in land acquisition references and appointed to function as arbitrators to finalise draft town planning schemes prepared by the planning authorities and as part-time or full-time Land Acquisition Officers at important places like Bombay, Poona, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Satara, Ahmadnagar, etc. Five posts of the Authorised Valuation Officers have been created by Government for fixing rateable values of properties under the provisions of the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965. Their headquarters are at Kalyan, Jalgaon, Amravati, Aurangabad and Miraj.

So far as Buldhana district is concerned, the same is under the jurisdiction of the present branch office at Amravati of this department headed by the Assistant Director of Town Planning, Amravati. The work of the town planning, valuation and allied matters arising from the district of Amravati, Yeotmal and Buldhana is dealt with by the Amravati branch office.

According to the provisions made in the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, it is obligatory on every planning authority as defined in that Act, to carry out survey, prepare an existing land-use map and prepare and publish a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. Since the municipal councils have no technical staff, the Town Planners from this department are appointed by them to function as Town Planning Officers under section 24 of the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966. There are in all 9 municipal councils in the Buldhana district, viz.,—(1) Buldhana, (2) Chikhli, (3) Deulgaon Raja, (4) Khamgaon, (5) Shegaon, (6) Jalgaon, (7) Mehkar, (8) Malkapur, and (9) Nandura. Out of these 9 municipal towns the work of the development plans of 8 municipal towns, viz., (1) Buldhana, (2) Chikhli, (3) Deulgaon Raja, (4) Khamgaon, (5) Shegaon, (6) Jalgaon, (7) Mehkar, and (8) Malkapur is being dealt with by the Amravati branch office. The work of development plan of Nandura is being dealt with by the Akola branch office. So far as Amravati branch office is concerned, the municipal councils of Buldhana and Shegaon have passed resolutions to declare their intention to prepare the development plans for their towns. The municipal councils have been advised to move Government for sanctioning the appointment of the Town Planning Officer under section 24 of the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966.

The municipal councils of Khamgaon, Malkapur and Jalgaon-Jamod have been advised to declare their intention to prepare development plans for their respective towns. The work in respect of the municipal councils of Chikhli, Mehkar and Deulgaon Raja is held up for want of city survey sheets. Further, the work in respect of development plan of Nandura which is at present with the Akola branch office is in progress and the Town Planner, Akola has been appointed as Town Planning Officer under section 24 of the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966.

The final town planning scheme, Malkapur No. 1 was prepared by this office covering an area of about 63.35 acres for residential purpose. Government has finally sanctioned the same.

Several layouts in respect of Government lands in Buldhana district were prepared and necessary advice was given to the local authorities as also to the Revenue authorities as and when sought for. Necessary opinion was also given to the Revenue authorities in dispensing off the Government *nazul* lands in the various towns in the district, and the valuation of lands and buildings either for the purposes of leases, sales, etc., by the State Government. A

number of layouts for the backward class co-operative housing societies, low income group housing societies, etc., were referred for scrutiny and sanction by the local authorities as also by the Revenue authorities, etc., and necessary opinion was offered. During the heavy floods that occurred during the preceding few years a number of villages were affected by the floods and layouts were prepared for them as desired by the Revenue authorities. Besides, a number of building permission cases, non-agricultural conversion and layout cases, grant of land cases, cases for approval of layouts arising out of various development plans were dealt with the remarks offered to local authorities/Revenue authorities. Several layouts for village extensions were also prepared as and when the same were referred to by the Revenue department. Preparation of Industrial Estate layout at Khamgaon for the Khamgaon Industrial Co-operative Estate Ltd. is under consideration with Amravati branch office.

CHAPTER 15 — EDUCATION AND CULTURE

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

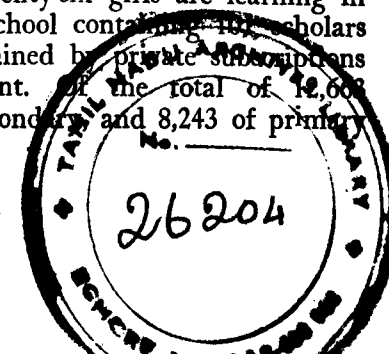
IT MAY BE NOTED THAT SOME SORT OF SYSTEM imparting education was in existence in ancient and mediæval times although no precise and definite date is available. The education by heritage might be considered as one of the ways of imparting it during those times. It is also likely that schools and *pathshalas* were organised by the learned in various communities for imparting instructions in the various fields of knowledge then available. The system of education that prevailed when we come to semi-modern times, i.e., in about 1853 when Berar was a part of Nizams dominion and was assigned to the East India Company has been described by the old Gazetteer of Buldhana published in 1910. It says "Before Assignment no schools were supported by Government, and the condition of keeping schools was not attached to grants of land or money. Sanskrit was taught to a few Brahman boys, and Marathi to Hindus of the lower castes. A few *munshis* also taught Persian to Muhammadan boys. Hindu teaching was given for a fee, but Muhammadan teaching was free. The Education Department was introduced in 1866, and middle and lower class schools were opened. The following statistics of schools and scholars show the progress of education:—

Year	No. of schools	No. of scholars
(1)	(2)	(3)
1904-05	191	8,853
1905-06	236	12,663

The District has no High School, but possesses seven English Middle Schools with 1,402 scholars, and 30 Vernacular Middle Schools with 3,018 scholars.

The total number of primary schools is 122, with 6,376 schools. Seventy-six schools containing 1,766 scholars are result aided primary schools. The District has only 13 girls' schools with 560 scholars. One hundred and seventy-six girls are learning in boys' schools. One Mission girls' school containing 102 scholars exists at Khamgaon which is maintained by private subscriptions without assistance from Government. Of the total of 12,663 scholars, 4,420 were in receipt of secondary and 8,243 of primary education." *

*Gazetteer of Buldhana, 1910, p. 391-92.



After the British firmly established their rule in India, they felt the need of imparting western education to the people and hence in Nagpur District one Mr. Cooper started a school imparting education on the western style in 1858. The system soon spread and extended throughout the Berar in 1869.

During the years from 1862 to 1864 the Government-run Indian English Middle Schools were started at taluka places such as Malkapur and Chikhli, Mehkar and Buldhana by the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces and Berar. During the years from 1869 to 1870, the I.E.M. Schools were started at Khamgaon and Jalgaon. The I.E.M. School at Khamgaon was upgraded in the year 1917 and I.E.M. School, Buldhana, was upgraded in the year 1928. The starting of schools under Government auspices encouraged a few private individuals with the result that western style schools were started and run by private institutions.

Growth of Literacy.—Since then, there has been rapid growth in the number of primary institutions accompanied by a growth in the literacy percentages. Facilities for secondary education also steadily improved.

The percentage of literacy in the district for total males and females since 1901 is as follows:—

Year (1)	Population (2)	Total (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)
1901	617,990	4.08	7.98	0.18
1911	673,698	4.11	7.92	0.25
1921	703,643	4.98	9.33	0.53
1931	766,584	7.74	14.31	0.98
1941	820,862	16.53	27.42	5.32
1951	870,158	20.78	32.32	9.03
1961	1,059,698	26.99	41.15	12.22
1971	1,262,978	37.34	51.33	22.67

During the period from 1911 to 1931 there was a rise of 3 per cent in the literacy of the total population in the district. During the same period the percentage of literacy among males rose from 7.98 to 14.31 i.e., a rise of 6.33 per cent while the increase in percentage of female literacy was 0.80 per cent during the same period. During the period from 1931 to 1951, the percentage of literacy rose from 7.74 in the year 1931 to 20.78 in 1951, i.e., an increase of 13.04 per cent. The percentage of male literacy rose by 18.01 and that of female literacy by 8.05 per cent during the same period.

There was a rapid growth in the number of primary and secondary institutions during the decade 1951—61. The district literacy rates, however, are still below the State average. Expansion of educational facilities during the first two Five-Year Plans and implementation of compulsory primary education have helped to raise the literacy rates since 1951.

Within the district, the percentage of literacy is highest in Khamgaon tahsil (30.84 per cent) and lowest in Mehkar tahsil (22.47 per cent). For urban areas Chikhli tahsil has the highest literacy for total population and for males. This is because of the location of the district headquarters within the tahsil. Female literacy is highest in Khamgaon tahsil.

Average literacy rates for males is as high as 41.15 per cent because of the high figures for age groups 15-34 and 35-59. In case of females the highest figure for age group 5-14 indicates that female education has been receiving attention only recently.

The following statement shows the classification of literates in different categories as per 1961 Census:—

Educational level (1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
Primary and Junior Basic Schools	44,773	32,287	12,486
Matriculation and Higher Secondary	6,108	5,128	980
Technical Diploma not equal to Degrees ..	167	156	11
Non-technical Diploma not equal to Degrees.	20	20	..
University Degrees or Post-Graduate Degrees other than Technical Degrees.	518	462	56
Technical Degrees/Diplomas—			
(a) Engineering	8	8	..
(b) Medicine	66	57	9
(c) Agriculture	18	18	..
(d) Veterinary	8	8	..
(e) Technology	2	1	1
(f) Teaching	124	102	22
(g) Others	71	56	15

ORGANISATION

Before the formation of Zilla Parishad, education was under the State control and was administered by the Director of Education. Since the establishment of Zilla Parishad, the education came under dual control of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Director of Education for Vidarbha region is in-charge of education in the State sector.

The Education department of the Zilla Parishad is placed in charge of the Parishad Education Officer who also acts as secretary to the education committee of the Zilla Parishad. He supervises and controls the work of his subordinates. He has also powers to inspect and release grants to the primary and secondary schools in the district. He is also competent to grant authorisation to the

primary, middle and secondary schools. The Education Officer is assisted in his work by two Deputy Education Officers. One of them is responsible for inspection and matters relating to the primary education; and the other is entrusted with the administration of secondary education.

All girls' high schools, both primary and secondary, come under the jurisdiction of the Zilla Parishad. The Assistant Deputy Education Officer of the Zilla Parishad inspects the primary schools whereas secondary schools are inspected by the Inspector of schools.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary Education.—There has been rapid growth in the number of primary schools during the last ten years. The number of primary schools in 1951 was 628. It rose from 911 in 1956 to 1,029 in 1961, and 1,033 in the year 1962*. Of these, 951 primary schools are managed by the Zilla Parishad and only 5 schools are managed by private institutions. The total number of pupils in 1951 stood at 43,994 including 12,025 girls; while in 1956 it rose to 72,798 including 19,376 girls. In 1961 it rose to 87,696, out of whom 26,588 were girls. The total number of teachers engaged in these primary schools increased from 1,671 in 1951 to 2,621 in 1956 and it rose to 3,173 in 1961.

The State Government's share in the total expenditure, incurred in 1961-62, was 73.0 per cent. The expenditure on primary education is incurred by the State Government through grant-in-aid to Zilla Parishad. Similarly, wards of parents whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 1,800 get free education. Students from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes similarly get free education, and scholarships are given to them at the rate of Rs. 3 per year in 1st and 2nd standard and Rs. 6 per year in 3rd and 4th standards.

The policy of converting primary schools into basic schools is also making steady progress. The number of basic schools was 5 in 1951-52. It increased to 27 by the end of the Second Plan. There were 28 basic schools in the district by March 1962. The number of primary schools and their classification, in August 1966, was as follows:

Institutions	Total	Basic			Non-Basic		
		Sr. Basic	Jr. Basic	Single Teacher	Single Teacher	I-IV Multi Teacher	Middle I-VII
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Total No. of Schools.	1,219	14	15	3	435	452	300
State Government.	1	..	1	..	..	..	..
Zilla Parishad..	1,159	14	13	1	34	400	..
Central Govt...	1	..	..	..	1	..	297
Municipal ..	51	..	..	..	..	49	2
Aided ..	6	..	1	2	..	2	1
Unaided ..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..

* During 1972-73 there were 1,251 institutions with 91,200 boys and 51,985 girls. The number of teachers was 4,840.

By March 1962, 9 towns and 894 villages in the district had primary schools and 245 villages had schooling facilities available only within a mile from the village. 86 villages were without schools. Out of 3,242 teachers, 2,174 or 67.1 per cent were trained.

Prior to the First Plan, the scheme of compulsory primary education was introduced in the Buldhana town only. In 1955-56, the scheme was applied to children in the age group 6-10 in 4 towns and 20 villages in the district. By the end of 1960-61, the scheme was extended to two more towns.

Other indices of the progress of primary education in the district compared with those of the State averages as in March 1962 were as follows:

TABLE No. 1
PROGRESS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE DISTRICT

Particulars (1)	Buldhana District (2)	Maharashtra (3)
Average population served by a primary school	1,038	1,135
Average area served by a primary school (sq. miles) ..	4.6	3.4
Pupils per teacher	30	38
Pupils per school	93	27
Average annual salary per teacher (Rs.)	1,035	1,250
Average annual expenditure per school (Rs.)	3,765	4,903
Average number of teachers per school	3.1	3.3
Percentage of trained teachers	67.1	64.8

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary Education.—During the year 1961-62 the total number of students in the secondary schools was 24,980 including 4,592 girls. The total number of teachers was 1,059 in the same year. Out of them 528 or 49.9 per cent were trained teachers. In 1951 there were only 383 teachers and 8,683 students including 1,609 girls.

In March 1962 the number of institutions and their classification in the district was as under:

TABLE No. 2
NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE DISTRICT

(1)	Total (2)	Vocational High Schools (3)	Higher Secondary Schools		Middle Secondary Schools (6)
			Multi-purpose (4)	Ordinary (5)	
State	8	..	2	2	4
Municipal	7	..	..	5	2
Private	45	1	2	36	6
Zilla Parishad	14	..	..	5	9

The number of secondary schools rose from 29 in 1950-51 to 70 in 1960-61. It was 96 in March 1966*. These schools are dispersed throughout the Buldhana district. Jalgaon tahsil has seven secondary schools as compared to Chikhli tahsil which has as many as 22 secondary schools.

Private institutions manage about 60.8 per cent of secondary schools in the district. The Government's share in the total expenditure on secondary education during 1961-62 was 83.9 per cent. It is incurred through various schemes of grants for maintenance, salaries, buildings, equipment, freeships, loans, scholarships, etc., and special concessions to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes or other backward class students.

The following statement shows certain distinct features of secondary education in the district as compared to the State averages:—

(1)	Buldhana District (2)	Maharashtra (3)
Population served by each school	14,493	13,805
Area served by each school (sq. miles)	50.6	40.8
Pupil-teacher ratio	24	25
Pupils per secondary school	338	338
Average annual salary per teacher (Rs.)	1,745	1,870
Average annual expenditure (direct) per secondary school (Rs.).	32,189	39,543
Average number of teachers per secondary school	14.2	13.7

There are 9 municipal councils in this district. They have been given certain powers under the local self-government enactments of the former Central Provinces and Madhya Pradesh. They run primary, middle and secondary schools too in this district. The inspection of their schools is done by the Education department. The grants are placed at their disposal by the Deputy Director of Education, Nagpur.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher Education.—To fulfil the need of higher education, many colleges were started in the district during the last ten years. These colleges are situated at Buldhana, Khamgaon, Malkapur, Chikhli, Jalgaon, Mehkar and Shegaon. The number of colleges and students in 1972-73 was 6,105 including 688 girls. All these colleges are managed by private institutions and receive grants for maintenance, buildings, and dearness allowance from the Government.

* During 1972-73 there were 152 schools with 33,905 boys and 11,363 girls. The number of teachers was 2,061.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS

School for Agriculture.—In order to train personnel as multipurpose village level workers in development projects a Basic Agricultural School was established in 1958-59 at Buldhana. Training in agriculture and allied subjects is given in this school in a course which extends over a period of one year.

School for Social Services.—To secure all-round development of villages and realise the goal of complete literacy a scheme was introduced to impart instructions to the village people, in regard to health, sanitation, agricultural practices, etc. Similarly the Government of Maharashtra inaugurated the *gram shikshan mohim* to achieve cent per cent literacy in villages. This scheme was started in the district in 1961. Under the scheme 1,171 *gram gauravs* have been celebrated and 2,12,261 persons have been made literate.

Tilak Rashtriya Vidyalaya, Khamgaon, was established in 1921. It imparts instructions not only in national education, village uplift, social education and social service but also in drawing, modelling, music and dancing. The total strength of the vidyalaya in 1959 was 96 students including 6 girls.

National Discipline Scheme.—The National Discipline Scheme sponsored by the Government of India, aims at making the younger generation mentally and physically healthy by instilling into them a sense of patriotism, self-reliance and discipline.

At present there are 17 schools imparting instructions under the scheme and 18 Instructors have been appointed by the Central Government. There are also 47 schools wherein physical education is given to the students.

Libraries.—The number of libraries in the district recognised by the State is seven. The libraries were extended a grant of Rs. 1,874 during 1963-64 by the State Government.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Professional and Technical Education.—The technical and industrial education in the district is controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Bombay. The Deputy Director of Technical Education, Nagpur, is responsible to the Director in all matters and looks after the activities of the department in the district. The Government have appointed a State Council for training in vocational trades which carries out the policies of the National Trade Certificates in engineering, buildings and leather trades and other similar trades. Until 1963, the department was also conducting examinations of diploma and some certificate courses offered by the polytechnics and some other institutions in the State. A separate board was constituted in 1963 to take over this responsibility. The Director conducts annual examinations in the courses approved by the State Council and awards certificates or diplomas.

In the Buldhana district there are a polytechnic, an industrial training institute, a technical high school, a pre-vocational training centre and a crafts and needle crafts centre. At present the following courses are conducted in the Industrial Training Institute, Buldhana:—

Course	Intake capacity
(1)	(2)
Blacksmith	16
Carpenter	32
Electrician	32
Fitter	64
Machinist	48
Turner	48
Welder (G and E)	24

There are at present three institutions imparting technical education in the district two of which are managed by the State Government. The Industrial Training Institute located at Khamgaon conducts courses for electricians, fitters, machinists, turners and welders. In 1964-65 the institute had 80 students on its roll. The Government Technical High School Centre at Khamgaon also provides training in various technical subjects. The centre had 71 students undergoing training during 1964-65. The Samagra Gramkala Shikshan Samiti at Khamgaon conducts courses in tailoring, carpentry and welding and is under private management. In 1964-65 the number of students in the institute was 39.

According to the number of seats per million population for technical training upto diploma level during 1963-64, the district ranked 3rd and 13th in the division and the State of Maharashtra, respectively. In so far as technical training at craftsman's level is concerned, the district ranked 6th in division. The following statement gives the number of institutions for technical education during 1961-62, and 1965-66 and pupils attending them in Buldhana district:—

(1)	Year		Percentage increase or decrease
	1961-62	1965-66	
	(2)	(3)	(4)
Institutions	7	8	+14.3
Pupils	1,748	279	—84.0
(a) Boys	1,636	234	—85.7
(b) Girls	112	45	—59.8
Teachers	104	79	—24.0

From this statistics, it is seen that though one technical institution was opened in 1965-66, the strength of the pupils has registered a decrease. In the field of technical education, it may be pointed out that, there was not a single girl student enrolled for engineering, agriculture and veterinary courses.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY

Directorate of Publicity.— The Directorate of Publicity, Maharashtra State, has four regional publicity offices, one of which is situated in Nagpur. The jurisdiction of the Regional Publicity Officer, Nagpur, extends over the Vidarbha region including the Buldhana district. The District Publicity Officer is in charge of the district publicity office.

Regional Publicity Officer.— The Regional Publicity Officer acts as the link between the Government offices and press. He is the correspondent of the Director of Publicity, Maharashtra State, and has to give due publicity to various schemes of the Government. He also helps the film section of Directorate of Publicity in producing the documentaries and news-reels, on subjects relating to the Vidarbha region.

District Publicity Officer.— The District Publicity Officer, Buldhana, works under the supervision of the Regional Publicity Officer. He keeps himself in touch with the various offices in the district and issues press notes, write-ups, etc., disseminating factual information on schemes and activities of the Government. He also arranges press conferences to provide the opportunity to the press to get first-hand knowledge of the subjects to be covered. He arranges talks on various nation-building subjects by Government officers, and keeps the Regional Publicity Officer in touch with trends in local press. In short, he carries out publicity needs of all the Government departments in the district.

District Information Centre.— The District Information Centre forms an important part of the District Publicity Office. It is provided with the various Government publications, newspapers, magazines, charts, models, etc., with a view to enlighten the public on the aims and objectives and achievements of Five-Year Plans. The centre is provided with a radio set.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, mobile publicity vans along with the cine equipment have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. Free film shows and talks are arranged on various subjects, including agriculture, cattle improvement, village and cottage industries, prohibition, untouchability, small savings, etc. These films are produced by the Directorate of Publicity while some are borrowed from the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India.

The District Publicity Officer visits information community centres working under the control of the Zilla Parishad and tenders technical guidance on the various aspects of running the Information Centres and emphasises the need for disseminating information on national and local activities.

Rural Broadcasting.—To enable the listeners, residing in rural areas to listen to the special programmes broadcasted daily from AIR, Nagpur Station, the Government has installed the community receiving sets in some of the villages of the district. Under the contributory scheme of community listening, a village desirous to have a radio set, is required to pay Rs. 175 as installation contribution. These radio sets are installed in public places, such as village *chawadi*, village panchayat office, village library, etc. Till the year 1969, villages numbering about 720 in the Buldhana district were provided with radio sets under the above mentioned scheme.

The installation and maintenance work of the radio sets is carried out by Rural Broadcasting Units located at Buldhana, Khamgaon and Mehkar. Supervisors are placed in charge of units at Buldhana and Khamgaon while a senior Radio Mechanic looks after the Mehkar unit of Rural Broadcasting. These units are provided with the requisite testing equipment to carry out the repair work of the radio sets. A departmental motor vehicle is stationed at each unit for transportation of radio sets, allied accessories, and staff to and from the villages in connection with the installation and maintenance of radio sets.

The community receivers installed in the villages are specially designed for the purpose and majority of these receivers are regularly maintained and used batteries are replaced by new ones. The response to rural broadcasting scheme in the district is satisfactory.*

*The entire scheme of Rural Broadcasting is curtailed as an economy measure since March 1976.

CHAPTER 16 — MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

INTRODUCTION

IN THE PAST, DISEASES WERE RARELY ATTRIBUTED TO THE PHYSIOLOGICAL DISORDER. Many a times they were ascribed to some evil influence which was propitiated by some sacrifice. In such cases of illness the people hankered after magic and such magical practices as *bhanamati*, *saifi amal* and *alvi amal*. In most of the cases, the treatment was so severe that there was little hope of the survival of the patient. At present the people in the rural areas are sometimes the victims of such beliefs and ideas.

The *vaidyas*, *vaidus* and *hakims* played an important part in the medicinal practices of the past. Although the knowledge of such persons was mainly based on the indigenous system of medicine, they made full use of local plants and herbs. The *vaidus* moved from one place to another treating the people, especially residing in the rural areas. They sometimes treated the live-stock also, when veterinary doctors were not available. The treatment given by *vaidyas* was according to the *ayurvedic* system of medicine. Their knowledge represented a combination of what they inherited from their fore-fathers and the practical experience obtained during their medical practice. The system of diagnosis by *vaidus* and *hakims* did not essentially differ from the *ayurvedic* system of medicine. But the psychological impression created by them was very important.

As regards maternity homes, the maternity and child care was in the hands of experienced and elderly ladies in the joint families.

Majority of the population regarded the propagation of male off-spring as a religious duty and barrenness was considered as a terrible punishment for crimes committed in a former birth. A move in the direction of birth-control was, therefore, unconceivable. All these beliefs and views regarding particular illness were replaced by the development in medical science and spread of education amongst people. Today hospitals and dispensaries are doing well in treating the patients with modern medicines and doctors well trained in medical sciences are replacing the persons practising the traditional system of medicines.

The Gazetteer of Buldhana, published in the year 1910, gives an interesting account of public health in the past which is reproduced below :—

"Up to June 1897 the District was much healthier than in the previous two years, but the consumption of jungle vegetables during the rains produced a violent epidemic of cholera in July, August and September, and diarrhoea and dysentery carried off many victims. For the year ending 31st August, 1897, the death-rate was 41.91 per mille as against 46.05 in the previous year, the highest figure being reached in August with a rate of 11.62 per mille. The next month September was also a very unhealthy month with a death-rate of 11.52 per mille. The birth-rate up to 31st August 1897 does not appear to have been affected by the famine as it was 44.80 per mille as against 42.13 in the previous year and slightly exceeded the average mean of the preceding ten years."¹

"The district has suffered greatly from cholera, no less than eleven severe epidemics having occurred since 1869. In 1878, a year of distress, 7,414 deaths were recorded. For three consecutive years, 1895, 1896 and 1897, cholera raged and in 1906 a very severe epidemic took place, 5,277 deaths or a rate of 8.59 per mille of the population being returned. The infection is said to be introduced generally from some sacred centre of pilgrimage, especially Pandharpur in the Sholapur District of the Bombay Presidency. During the epidemic of 1906 efforts were made to purify the water-supply by permanganate of potash and 8,358 wells were thus disinfected. At first the attitude of the people towards the measures was distinctly suspicious, but underwent a marked change when it was seen what benefits resulted in villages where the wells were properly treated. Plague appeared in the District in 1902, and has prevailed every year since, the total number of deaths from that year to 1906 being over 16,000. The worst epidemic occurred in 1903 when the mortality was 5,282 or 8.44 per mille of the population. The town of Khamgaon especially suffered severely in 1902 and 1905, when 1,179 and 872 deaths were recorded. The type of plague usually observed was the bubonic, and the percentage of deaths to persons attacked was over 75, though in some villages it reached the appalling figure of 90. The attitude of the people towards plague measures is slowly undergoing a change, and evacuation is freely resorted to. Small-pox is always present. The worst epidemic occurred in 1877, when 2,682 people died, and in 1905, when the mortality was 1,483. The District is fairly protected by vaccination, about 24,000 persons being vaccinated annually. But the severe epidemic of 1905 is partly attributed to the fact that in the previous year children had not been adequately protected, two or three indifferent scars being very often found. Four scars are now the minimum number permitted. Fever which is a wide term covering pneumonia and inflammation of the brain and other

¹ Gazetteer of Buldhana, 1910, p. 315.

organs, is responsible for about one-third of the total mortality of the District. The type of malarial fever usually seen is the benign tertian though occasional cases of ague are met with."¹

The following account, reproduced from the old Gazetteer, describes vaccination in the district as under:—

"The Municipal towns of Buldana, Khamgaon, and Shegaon are the only places where compulsory vaccination is permissible. The ratio of persons protected against small-pox is about 80 per cent. of the population. In recent years owing to the prevalence of plague during the winter months, when vaccination is in full swing, the work of protection has suffered to a certain extent, and very recently the Sanitary Commissioner has pointed out the insufficiency of the protection afforded by one or two marks; an order has been lately issued to produce four scars, this being considered by the Metropolitan Asylums Board to be the minimum number requisite to produce efficient protection."²

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT

The diseases common in the district are malaria, cholera, small-pox and other fevers and respiratory diseases. Mention may be made of tuberculosis which is also widespread in the district. All these diseases have attracted the attention of Public Health Department and many schemes have been undertaken to organise preventive measures to eradicate them.

Malaria.—A malaria control unit was established at Jalgaon in 1953 because the incidence of malaria in the tahsil was high. The entire district was brought under malaria eradication programme in the year 1958. Under this programme DDT is spread throughout the district, between June and October every year. Surveillance programme was introduced during 1960 under which surveillance workers visit the houses in areas noted for malaria incidence twice in a month to detect fever cases. Up to 1961 four more sub-centres were established at Chikhli, Khamgaon, Malkapur and Mehkar for carrying out the malaria eradication programme. Details of the coverage of spraying done and insecticides (DDT 75 per cent w.p.) used during 1961-62 are shown below:—

	Targeted	Sprayed	Missed	Percentage of houses sprayed
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I round	317,801	308,508	9,293	97.0
II round	334,759	326,013	8,746	97.4

¹ Gazetteer of Buldhana, 1910, pp. 65-66.

² Gazetteer of Buldhana, p. 393.

A third round of spraying during the same period was given to 29 villages in Chikhli tahsil covering a population of 26,897. Following statement shows the number of in-door and out-door malaria patients treated :—

Out-door patients treated in			In-door patients treated in			Deaths		
1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
274	86	1	37	30	76	..	2	6

Tuberculosis.—Mass BCG vaccination campaign was carried out in the district in 1961. During this campaign the infant BCG vaccination was given almost in all the hospitals and dispensaries. The TB sanatorium hospital at Buldhana accommodates nearly 2,000 patients. In the year 1964, 161 cases were treated and 57 cases were vaccinated. The total number of in-door and out-door patients for the period 1963 to 1965 is given in the following statement :—

	Out-door patients treated in			In-door patients treated in			Deaths		
	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Tuberculosis of lung.	13,759	7,150	35,655	820	978	1,167	33	41	41
Other forms of tuberculosis.	530	980	619	137	174	171	11	18	19

Leprosy.—The control measures for this disease are administered mainly through the out-patients treatment in all hospitals, dispensaries, special treatment centres, etc. The voluntary organisation also undertake such out-patient treatment. One leprosy clinic is functioning at Borkhedi in Malkapur tahsil. During the second plan period five survey, education and treatment units were started at Nandura, Jancfal, Sangrampur, Buldhana and Sindkhed-Raja. A leprosy subsidiary centre was also started at Khamgaon in the year 1960. One special ward with 6 beds has been provided in the main hospital. The centre at Khamgaon covers 24 villages having a population of 79,862 as per 1961 Census. In 1961, 255 cases were under treatment in this centre

Cholera.—When the outbreak of cholera epidemic is reported, prompt steps are taken to organise mass anti-cholera inoculation in the affected areas. Temporary cholera regulations under Epidemic Diseases Act, 1897, are applied sometimes to enable the staff to undertake mass inoculation campaign without public opposition. Regular disinfection of water sources with the bleaching powder is undertaken so that the villagers would not fall a prey to the disease. In 1961, 21 deaths were recorded in the district. The number of patients for the year 1963, 1964 and 1965 is shown in the following statement :—

Out-door patients			In-door patients			Deaths		
1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
53	643	1	..	31	20	..	8	..

As regards small-pox, the number of deaths recorded in 1961 was put at 79. The out-door patients treated in 1963, 1964 and 1965 were 762, 22 and 13, respectively, as against the in-door patient who numbered 1, 238 and 1 for the same years.

The vaccination statistics and cholera inoculation in Buldhana district is shown in the following statement :—

(1)	1963	1964	1965
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Number of primary vaccinations—			
(a) Below one year	42,878	10,524	38,193
(b) Above one year	..	163,455	8,219
Number of re-vaccinations	422,905	128,976	94,191
Cholera inoculation	193,562	76,339	167,472

VITAL STATISTICS

As regards births and deaths and infant deaths, table No. 1 shows the position for the years 1951 to 1962. Table No. 2 gives the statistics of deaths in the district due to various diseases from 1951 to 1965.

TABLE No. 1
BIRTHS, DEATHS AND INFANT DEATHS IN THE DISTRICT FROM 1951 TO 1965

Births and deaths (1)	Year														
	1951 (2)	1952 (3)	1953 (4)	1954 (5)	1955 (6)	1956 (7)	1957 (8)	1958 (9)	1959 (10)	1960 (11)	1961 (12)	1962 (13)	1963 (14)	1964 (15)	1965 (16)
Births	32,030	43,124	38,763	36,198	45,805	44,455	42,477	39,663	30,254	42,556	41,827	NA.	47,610	44,521	47,618
Deaths	21,813	N.A.	25,421	18,930	20,841	19,656	22,629	25,019	18,276	17,074	21,295	NA.	20,144	17,554	16,953
Infant deaths.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,018	NA.	5,050	4,937	4,629

TABLE No. 2
DEATHS DUE TO VARIOUS DISEASES IN THE DISTRICT

Cause of death (1)	Year														
	1951 (2)	1953 (3)	1954 (4)	1955 (5)	1956 (6)	1957 (7)	1958 (8)	1959 (9)	1960 (10)	1961 (11)	1962 (12)	1963 (13)	1964 (14)	1965 (15)	
Cholera ..	1	1,120	4	78	68	136	305	..	..	21	..	..	342	6	
Small-pox ..	411	18	66	41	340	49	320	..	25	79	67	241	32	46	
Fever ..	6,812	6,679	6,167	6,537	5,561	7,230	7,469	4,777	5,699	7,439	6,255	6,061	4,482	4,496	
Dysentery and diarrhoea.	1,744	3,246	1,829	1,968	1,569	1,607	1,798	1,757	1,718	3,386	2,420	1,661	1,446	1,338	
Respiratory diseases.	2,057	3,990	2,069	1,747	2,032	2,313	2,489	2,466	2,600	4,544	4,442	2,467	2,415	2,400	
Other causes ..	10,788	10,368	8,795	10,470	10,086	11,294	12,629	9,276	7,032	5,801	8,760	9,694	8,822	8,617	
Total deaths ..	21,813	25,421	18,930	20,841	19,656	22,629	25,010	18,276	17,074	21,270	21,944	20,124	17,539	16,903	

There is a considerable increase in the number of in-door and out-door patients treated in hospitals. The district ranked 4th and 9th in the Division and State, respectively, on the basis of number of hospital beds per lakh of population in the year 1962. The following table shows the number of patients treated from the year 1960 to 1965 :—

TABLE No. 3
NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED FROM 1960 TO 1965.

District/Tahsil	Year	In-door patients treated			Out-door patients treated		
		Males	Females	Children	Males	Females	Children
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Jalgaon ..	1960	50	37	52	20,557	16,315	26,509
	1961	860	1,765	117	35,640	24,329	43,703
	1963	55	70	40	26,445	18,745	31,053
	1964	45	40	17	10,255	7,153	11,593
	1965	558	57	96	29,087	25,611	23,025
Malkapur ..	1960	146	110	60	24,433	14,973	35,433
	1961	129	248	197	42,519	29,609	38,361
	1963	59	109	56	35,239	19,569	56,793
	1964	30	45	22	26,368	20,168	33,452
	1965	484	296	119	41,778	25,821	35,841
Khamgaon ..	1960	3,382	4,059	5,271	35,714	43,177	52,718
	1961	575	3,792	247	62,619	45,084	59,475
	1963	185	415	265	41,053	49,323	54,150
	1964	162	379	238	44,585	52,345	70,347
	1965	453	4,446	2,930	59,243	62,623	40,351
Chikhli ..	1960	1,435	1,153	714	47,338	28,704	49,263
	1961	6,808	1,603	912	69,323	51,183	53,897
	1963	1,007	2,023	1,105	78,163	40,262	78,107
	1964	916	2,407	1,323	72,344	41,639	61,554
	1965	2,219	2,122	1,489	98,682	62,258	78,654
Mehkar ..	1960	69	93	15	29,969	14,811	34,901
	1961	194	292	619	57,605	33,633	44,539
	1963	42	152	79	55,078	25,554	53,609
	1964	67	172	93	38,907	28,971	29,802
	1965	115	138	55	41,144	32,226	31,832
District Total..	1960	5,057	5,452	6,112	158,011	117,980	198,824
	1961	8,566	7,700	2,092	267,706	183,838	239,975
	1963	1,348	2,769	1,545	235,978	153,453	273,712
	1964	1,220	3,043	1,693	192,459	150,276	206,748
	1965	3,829	7,059	4,689	269,934	208,539	209,602

FAMILY PLANNING

Family Planning.— There are urban and rural family planning centres in the district. Each family planning centre is provided with a social/field worker for carrying out family planning work. In 1961 there were seven family planning centres at Nandura, Shegaon, Jalgaon, Kinhola, Janefal, Lakhanwada and Warwat Bakal. 343 and 323 vasectomy operations were performed in the

district during 1960 and 1961*, respectively. In the year 1961 the number of total sterilisations carried out was 471, including 399 males and 72 females. 11 camps were organised and 304 operations were performed in the district during the year. The family planning centre is attached to the General hospital put under the control of a Family Planning Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

PRIMARY HEALTH CENTRES

Primary Health Centres.— The general aim of health programme is to expand existing health services, to bring them increasingly within the reach of all the people, and to promote a progressive improvement in the level of national health. For rendering integrated health services in the development blocks, one primary health centre with three sub-centres was provided for each development block with a population of about 60,000 to 66,000. The primary health centre is put in the charge of a Medical Officer who carries on his duties with the help of a Health visitor and a Sanitary Inspector. He is held responsible for providing both curative and preventive services to the people in the block. He works under the technical and administrative control of the District Health Officer. In 1960, there were seven primary health centres at Nandura, Shegaon, Jalgaon, Kinhola, Janefal, Lakhanwada and Sangrampur. This number rose to eleven in the year 1963-64. In 1967 there were 13 primary health centres in the district.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

Public Hospitals and Dispensaries.— As regards the dispensaries existing in the district in former times the old Gazetteer has to say the following :—

“The District has 11 dispensaries, including the main dispensary at Buldana. They are located at Khamgaon, Shegaon, Malkapur, Nandura, Jalgaon, Pimpalgaon-Raja, Chikhli, Mehkar, Donegaon, and Deulgaon-Raja. Of these the first four dispensaries are on the railway line. The dispensaries have accommodation for 59 male and 16 female in-patients. The number of in-patients and out-patients treated during 1908 was 708 and 81,197, respectively; 2,520 operations were performed in 1908, and of these 46 were of an important nature. The dispensaries have been chiefly supported by Government. Since April, 1906, contributions from local bodies have been increased, and greater authority has been vested in Dispensary Committees. Government pays the salary of the Medical Officers and contributes towards the supply of medicines and surgical appliances, but the largest contributions now come from the District Board and Municipalities. All the dispensaries except Khamgaon and Buldana have sums of money invested in stock, which is put by for a rainy day. The interest on these sums together with subscriptions from local bodies constitute the other main sources of revenue. The items under which most money is spent are

*During 1973-74, 1801 and 882 vasectomy and tubectomy operations were performed.

European medicines, dieting, establishment, and buildings. The diseases principally treated are malarial fevers, diseases of the eye and digestive system, and skin affections. Buldhana, Mehkar, Nandura and Khamgaon dispensaries have a midwife attached to them."¹

The general hospital at Buldhana was previously run by the dispensary fund committee. In 1956 the bed strength of this hospital was only 56, which now stands at 84. During the Third Plan period one family planning centre was opened and it was attached to this hospital. A midwife training centre has been started in this hospital during the Fourth Five-Year Plan. In the year 1967, 87,083 out-door and 38,606 in-door patients were treated in the General hospital. 816 major and 1,403 minor operations were carried out during the same year.

At present four hospitals including the General hospital at Buldhana are managed by Government. These are situated as under: two at Buldhana and one each at Khamgaon and Shegaon. The number of hospitals run by municipalities stands at 6. They are situated at Khamgaon, Malkapur, Shegaon, Chikhli, Deulgaon-Raja and Mehkar. The Zilla Parishad manages 19 dispensaries, now functioning in rural areas. The two big hospitals in the district, viz., T. B. Sanatorium, Buldhana, and J. M. hospital, Khamgaon, are controlled by the Deputy Director of Medical Services, Nagpur, whereas the other hospitals are under the supervision of the Civil Surgeon, Buldhana. There is also one Mobile Mission hospital at Buldhana. The following statement gives the number of hospital beds in each tahsil of the district for the years 1961 and 1965.

Tahsil (1)	1961 (2)	1965 (3)
Jalgaon	15	15
Malkapur	23	23
Khamgaon	245	281
Chikhli	234	245
Mehkar	17	22
Total ..	534	586

The number of hospital beds per lakh of population for the year 1965 worked out to 57 for the district as a whole. The Khamgaon tahsil had the highest number of beds, viz., 133 per lakh of population followed by Chikhli 94, Mehkar 13, Jalgaon 13 and Malkapur 12.

The number of surgeons, physicians and doctors for the year 1961 stood at 494 including 20 females; whereas the number of nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians for the same year was 532, including 388 males and 144 females.

¹ Gazetteer of Buldhana, 1910, p. 392.

Thus, out of a total of 1,026 persons engaged in medical and public health services, 862 were males and 164 females. Out of the same total, 498 were working in the rural areas and 528 in urban areas. Thus for every 1,033 persons in the district there was one person engaged in the medical profession. The number of such medical personnel per one lakh population in the district is 47 as against 54 for the State of Maharashtra.

ORGANISATION

Organisation.—The Health department's work in the district is now within the purview of the Zilla Parishad. A subjects committee looks after its working and the District Health Officer works as a secretary to it as well as officer-in-charge of the health matters in the district.

The head of the Public Health department at the State level is the Director of Public Health, stationed at Pune. For the public health administration the State is divided into four divisions and each division is placed under the control of a Deputy Director of Public Health Services. The health activities in the Buldhana district are controlled by the Deputy Director of Public Health, Nagpur, through the District Health Officer, Buldhana.

After the formation of the Zilla Parishad in the year 1962 the health activities at tahsil and district levels have been entrusted to the Zilla Parishad. The District Health Officer organises measures for public sanitation and hygiene, investigates the causes of diseases and adopts preventive measures. He also gives his advice to the local self-government institutions about health, sanitation, drainage, water-supply, family planning and child and maternity welfare, etc.

CHAPTER 17—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR DEPARTMENT

THE INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR DEPARTMENT of the Government of Maharashtra controls the offices dealing with labour matters. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. At present, he has under him—(i) six Deputy Commissioners of Labour (four at Bombay and one each at Nagpur and Poona), (ii) twenty-seven Assistant Commissioners of Labour (eighteen at Bombay, four at Nagpur, two at Poona and one each at Aurangabad, Nasik and Kolhapur), (iii) thirty-eight Government Labour Officers (eighteen at Bombay, five at Nagpur, three at Poona, two at Aurangabad and one each at Thana, Kalyan, Nasik, Jalgaon, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Ahmadnagar, Sangli, Nanded and Amravati), (iv) Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, with subordinate Inspectors at different important centres of the State, and (v) Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay with subordinate inspectorates.

The Deputy Commissioner of Labour is the regional head of all the offices in Nagpur and Aurangabad divisions. He performs various statutory functions under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. He is assisted by two Assistant Commissioners posted at Nagpur with jurisdiction over Vidarbha region. Both these officers are appointed as Authorities under section 16 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and one of them is also appointed as Assistant Registrar of Recognised Unions under the said Act.

The Commissioner of Labour performs the statutory functions entrusted to him under the following Central and State Acts, and supervises their administrative enforcement:

Central Acts: Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; Trade Unions Act, 1926; Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946; Minimum Wages Act, 1948; Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955; Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, and Bidi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966.

State Acts: Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948.

Apart from the above, the Commissioner of Labour supervises and co-ordinates the working of the abovementioned offices

under his control. In addition, the office of the Commissioner of Labour performs the following functions—

(1) Compilation and publication of the Consumer Price Index Numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad, Nanded and Poona.

(2) Conducting of socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour.

(3) Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters in general and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mills, trade unions, etc., in particular.

(4) Publication of two monthlies, viz.—

(i) The Labour Gazette; and

(ii) The Industrial Court Reporter.

(5) Supervision over the working of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, where it is administered by local authorities.

Government Labour Officer.—In Vidarbha region there are five Government Labour Officers, two at Nagpur and one each at Akola, Amravati and Bhandara. The Labour Officer posted at Akola looks after the work in Buldhana district. There is also one Inspector of Shops and Establishments, with headquarters at Khamgaon who is entrusted with the enforcement work of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948. He has to attend to the complaints of the employees under the above Act. The Government Labour Officer incharge of Buldhana district supervises the work of the Inspector and implements the labour laws in the district.

Conciliation Machinery.—The Government labour officers are statutory labour officers under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and are also appointed as conciliators under that Act. When there are no recognised unions in industry the labour officers have to act as representatives of employees in collective disputes. They attend to all the complaints from employees from all industries and keep the Government and other authorities informed about the labour and industrial situation in the district. The conciliation work and other labour disputes coming from Buldhana district are attended by the Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, who has been notified as conciliator and/or conciliation officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and/or the Industrial Disputes Act, respectively.

Labour Unions.—The provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, have been made applicable to the Vidarbha and Marathwada regions of the State with effect from 1st May, 1965. One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Nagpur,

has been notified as Additional Registrar with one Assistant Registrar under him for Vidarbha region. The Registrar's work is of a quasi-judicial nature which includes,—(i) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (ii) registration of unions; (iii) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (iv) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards; (v) maintenance of list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Act, (vi) maintenance of list of protected employees of unions connected with the industries covered under the Act.

Trade Unions Act, 1926.—The Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, in addition to his other duties, has been notified as Additional Registrar of Trade Unions of Vidarbha region under the Trade Unions Act, 1926. The Additional Registrar is assisted by one of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Nagpur, who has been notified as Deputy Registrar of Trade Unions for Vidarbha region. The work done by the Additional Registrar in connection with administration of Trade Unions Act includes the registration of trade unions, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions, registration of the dissolutions, amalgamation and cancellation of registration of trade unions and submission of annual reports on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by registered trade unions under section 28 of the Act.

Trade Union Movement: There are 16 workers unions in Buldhana district registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, some of which are noted below.

The Buldhana District Co-operative Bank Employees Union is a recognised union under the provisions of Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, for the local area of Chikhli. The other unions which could also be noted are the Gin Press and Oil Mill Mazdoor Sangh at Shegaon and the Nagar Palika Kamgar Union at Deulgaon Raja.

Wages and Earnings.—There is no working class cost of living index for Buldhana district or any other centre in the district.

Minimum Wages Act, 1948: The Government of Maharashtra have fixed the minimum rates of wages as per provisions of the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, for the following industries in the Buldhana district :—

(1) oil mill, (2) tobacco (including *bidi making*), (3) rice mill, floor mill or dal mill, (4) cotton ginning and cotton pressing manufactory, (5) industry in which any process of printing by letter press, lithography, photogravure or other similar work or work incidental to such process or book binding is carried on, (6) rubber manufactory industry, (7) glass industry, (8) tanneries and leather manufactory, (9) potteries, (10) stone breaking or stone crushing, (11) road construction or building operations, (12) local authority, (13) shop and commercial establishment not being an employment in any bank, and (14) cinema exhibition industry.

Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948: The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, has been made applicable to the municipal areas of Buldhana, Nandura, Malkapur, Shegaon and Mehkar in the district.

Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952: Extension of the Employees' State Insurance (scheme) is under consideration for the district under the Fifth Five-Year Plan. The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, is applicable to Buldhana district.

Authority under Payment of Wages Act, 1936: The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Buldhana, has been appointed as the Authority under the Payment of Wages Act for the area within his jurisdiction.

The Civil Judges who have been appointed as Authorities under the Payment of Wages Act and the Minimum Wages Act are also empowered to hear and decide claims arising out of payment of less than the minimum rates of wages fixed for employees employed in their respective jurisdiction.

Factory Department.— The enforcement work of the Factories Act is carried out by the Factory department. The function of the Factory department is to ensure that the provisions of the Factories Act are observed by the managements of factories covered under the Factories Act. Besides this, the department has to administer various other laws, viz., Payment of Wages Act, Maternity Benefit Act, Employment of Children Act, and Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act in so far as section 9 of the said Act is concerned.

The department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour and Director of Employment. The Chief Inspector of Factories is the head of the office and is officially subordinate to the Commissioner of Labour and Director of Employment. The department has a regional office at Nagpur under the Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, who has jurisdiction over eight districts of Vidarbha and five districts of Marathwada. The Junior Inspector of Factories, Akola, is in-charge of Akola and Buldhana districts for inspection, visits, etc. The activities of this department also extend to securing labour welfare amenities such as education, recreation, co-operative societies, housing, etc.

The main function of the Inspector is to ensure that the provisions of the Factories Act are observed by the managements of factories to which the said Act is applicable. The Collector is also the *ex-officio* Inspector of Factories in Buldhana district. The Inspector has power to prosecute, conduct and defend before the courts after taking permission from the Chief Inspector of Factories, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

The administrative control of Factory department vests in the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. But in so far as the technical side pertaining to the Department is concerned the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, exercises overall control over the department in the State. The Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, Nagpur, is the regional head for the Vidarbha and Marathwada regions. The Factory department looks after the administration of the Factories Act, 1948; Payment of Wages Act, 1936; Maternity Benefit Act; Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925; Employment of Children Act, 1938; and Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.

Labour Welfare Activities.— The scope of labour welfare activities in the district is very limited. The district has a sizeable number of seasonal factories, viz., ginning and pressing. During off season the workers engaged in ginning and pressing factories, who are mostly villagers and agriculturists, go back to their respective villages which results in a comparatively larger degree of mobility among them. There is therefore, less scope for labour welfare activity. However, there are 2 *kamgar kalyan kendras* at Khamgaon and one at Buldhana run by the Labour Welfare Board at Buldhana. One recreation centre-cum-library is run by the Municipal Council, Shegaon.

Following is the list of trade unions in the Buldhana district :—

Name of the Union.

- Buldhana District Co-operative Bank Employees' Union, Chikhli.
- Flour Mills Kamgar Union, Chikhli.
- Khamgaon Gin Press and Oil Mills Shramik Sangh, Khamgaon.
- Mehkar Municipal Octroi Employees' Union, Mehkar.
- Chikhli Nagarpalika Karmachari Sangh, Chikhli.
- Nandura Gumasta Mandal, Nandura.
- Gin Press Kamgar Union, Mehkar.
- Bharatiya Gumasta Kamgar Sangh, Malkapur.
- Grampanchayat Kamgar Union, Dongaon.
- Nagarpalika Kamgar Union, Deulgaon Raja.
- Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank Karmachari Union, Khamgaon.
- Buldhana Zilla Parishad Vaidya Mandal, Khamgaon.
- Gin Press and Oil Mills Mazdoor Sangh, Shegaon.
- Bhartiya Gumasta Mandal, Chikhli.
- Nandura Nagarparishad Karmachari Sangh, Nandura.
- Buldhana Zilla P.W.D. Kamgar Sangh, Buldhana.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—The Director of Prohibition and Excise is the head of the Prohibition and Excise department and is responsible for the administration of excise and prohibition laws in the whole State. His office, therefore, forms a central organisation for directing proper implementation of the policy of the department and for guiding Collectors and District Prohibition and Excise Officers in the State.

The Prohibition and Excise department administers Acts and Rules and Regulations and Orders made thereunder, viz., Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949; Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936; Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959; Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955; Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955; and Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930.

The subjects dealt with by the above Acts are briefly as under:—

- (i) The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949,—prohibits production, manufacture, possession, exportation, importation, transportation, purchase, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants. However, these transactions can be permitted by rules, regulations or orders. The Act also regulates the possession, sale, etc., of mohwa flowers and molasses,
- (ii) The Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936,—prohibits the smoking of opium,
- (iii) The Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959,—regulates the possession and sale of certain drugs which are used in a manner injurious to health and which are specified by Government in the Maharashtra Government Gazette as "Notified Drugs".
- (iv) The Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955,—provides for the levy and collection of duty on medicinal and toilet preparations containing alcohol, opium, Indian hemp or other narcotic drug or narcotics.
- (v) The Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955,—regulates, in the public interest, the movement on an inter-State basis of certain spirituous medicinal and other preparations,
- (vi) The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930,—prohibits the manufacture, exportation, importation, sale, possession and transportation of manufactured drugs like cocaine, morphine, heroin, pethidine, etc., except in accordance with rules made in that behalf.

The control in all excise matters is vested in the Director of Prohibition and Excise. He is also responsible for the general supervision of prohibition propaganda work carried on by departmental officers. The Collectors have certain functions under the

aforesaid Acts such as issue of licences, permits, etc., and they are, in respect of such functions, subordinate to the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

Buldhana district is at present under the charge of Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise who assists the Collector in all excise and prohibition matters. Under the Superintendent there are two Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise for executive work at Chikhli and Khamgaon. Sub-Inspectors of prohibition and excise have been vested with certain powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act, Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act. There is also a Prohibition Propaganda Officer in Buldhana district who carries out prohibition propaganda throughout the district under the guidance of the Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Buldhana, and the Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organiser, Nagpur Division.

Enforcement Work.—The enforcement of prohibition, i.e., detection, investigation, etc., of offences under the above Acts is entrusted to the Police department. Besides the administration of the Acts mentioned above, the department plans and arranges prohibition propaganda. Social workers of repute are appointed at regional levels as Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organisers and they attend to the work of prohibition propaganda by addressing meetings and impressing upon the masses the evil effects of intoxicants. They also work for enlisting the co-operation of Social workers and institutions for prohibition propaganda. At the district level prohibition propaganda officers carry on intensive prohibition propaganda.

The main functions of this department are confined to licensing, inspection of licences and the enforcement of various controls enacted under the Acts referred to above, particularly under the Bombay Prohibition Act. The officers of the department have also to do propaganda on total prohibition and the various advantages derived therefrom amongst the people in the State and to supervise and organise recreation centres in their charges and to co-operate with the Police department in their duties of prevention and detection of prohibition crimes. The excise staff is responsible for the supervision of bonded manufactories, warehouses, neera centres and management of Government drugs sale depots and inspection of various excise licences. They are also required to associate themselves in increasing measure with the ameliorative and social side of the prohibition campaign, and to tighten loop-holes when such are noticed. Briefly, they are responsible for control, propaganda and ameliorative work, and the work now is of a liaison and supervisory type and also educational. Though, 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 information of the 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, 1949, village officers or servants useful to Government and officers and servants of local authorities are bound to give information to the Police of breaches of provisions of the Act which come to their knowledge and also prevent the commission of breaches of the provisions of the Act about which they may have knowledge. Under section 133, officers and servants of local authorities are also bound to assist any Police officer or person authorised to carry out provisions of the Act. Under section 135, occupiers of lands and buildings, landlords of estates, owners of vehicles, etc., are bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or manufacture or transport of liquor or intoxicating drug to a Magistrate, Prohibition officer or Police officer as soon as it comes to their knowledge.

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 jurisdiction, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any articles of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes and detains any articles, has to forward such person or articles without unnecessary delay to the officer-in-charge of the nearest Police station.

Kinds of Permits*.—Various permits are granted for possession, use, etc., of foreign liquor. They are as follows:—

Emergency Permit: An emergency permit is granted for the use and consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for his/her own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his/her household for medicinal use on emergent occasion. The permit is granted for a yearly period up to 31st March and for a quantity not exceeding 4 drams, i.e., 13½ fluid ounces of brandy or rum or 8 drams, i.e., 26⅔ fluid ounces of champagne for three months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at any one time. The term "household" is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as members of one domestic unit.

Health Permit: The health permit is granted for the use or consumption of foreign liquor to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. Persons over 40 years of age are granted health permits for the quantity as recommended by a Registered Medical Practitioner but not exceeding four units per month for a period not exceeding 24 months and persons between the age group of 30 and 40 are granted three units per month for 24 months on production of a certificate from a Registered Medical Practitioner and persons

* In 1972 the Government liberalised the prohibition policy with the result that any person above 21 years can purchase any quantity of liquor or wine.

below 30 are granted 2 units per month for a period not exceeding 12 months on recommendation of an Area Medical Board. Persons under 30 years of age should apply through the Area Medical Board or the Civil Surgeon of the district concerned for the grant of a health permit.

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 24 months from the date of its commencement. The permit is granted for such monthly maximum quantity not exceeding six units.

Visitor's Permit: Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of one week is granted this permit and it can be extended for not more than a week at a time and for a total period not exceeding in the aggregate one month.

Special permit for privileged persons: This permit is granted to a Sovereign or Head of a Foreign State, a representative or officer of any international organisation to which privileges and immunities are given under the United Nations (Privileges and Immunities) Act, 1947, and to consular officers and members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are nationals of a foreign State. It is also granted to the consort and relatives of the above persons. This permit is granted free of cost and valid up to 31st March of the following year.

Interim Permit: Any person who is eligible for a temporary resident's permit, health permit or special permit for 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.

Tourist's Permit: A foreign tourist holding a tourist's introduction card or tourist visa visiting the State of Maharashtra is granted free a tourist's permit for a period of his stay in the State but for a period not exceeding one month. An all India tourist's permit is granted for a period of three months by visa issuing officers of Indian Mission Overseas, the Director and Assistant Director, Tourist Officer, Government of India, at Bombay, Delhi and Madras.

Mild Liquor: 'Mild liquor', i.e., fermented liquor containing not more than 5% alcohol by volume, is allowed to be purchased, possessed, transported and consumed at their residence by persons over 21 years of age without any permit, pass or authorisation. Such mild liquor is allowed to be sold by retail by holders of foreign liquor vendor licences granted under the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953.

Toddy: The possession, use, etc., of toddy is completely prohibited in the district of Buldhana.

Denatured Spirit: The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited except under permit or licence. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit for domestic purpose is normally granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month, provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reasons grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month. Provided further that, with 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. Industrial denatured spirit required for use in any industry, etc., is allowed to be possessed on licences issued under the Bombay Denatured Spirit Rules, 1959.

Country Liquor and Wine: Authorisations for use of country liquor and wine for 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 and Bhang and Opium: A permit for personal consumption of opium, *ganja* and *bhang* is granted only on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by Government or Medical Officer appointed for the purpose.

Neera and Palm Products Scheme: Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing gur from neera are granted only to—(1) co-operative societies organised by constructive social workers, (2) other similar organised institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, *ashrams*, organisations incharge of intensive area schemes, *sarvodaya* centres, etc., on the recommendation of the Khadi and Village Industries Board for the State of Maharashtra. No neera licences to individuals are granted.

Sanskar Kendras: In order to provide facilities for recreational purposes and as counter-attraction for the purpose of weaning the addicts from the drink and drug habit, *sanskar kendra* or recreation centres are established. They are run either departmentally or by the local social workers or social institutions interested in prohibition work. At the *sanskar kendras*, newspapers, magazines and facilities for in-door and out-door games are provided and programmes like *bhajans*, *kirtans*, music, folk songs, dramas, etc., in which people of the locality are interested, are arranged. Government grants subsidy to the *sanskar kendras* run by institutions. In Buldhana district there are three departmental *sanskar kendras* at—(1) Dongaon, (2) Shegaon and (3) Asalgaon.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT

Organisation.—The Department of Social Welfare was constituted at State level after the Reorganisation of States in November 1956. The welfare work done in the past by the Backward

Class department was transferred to the newly constituted department, viz., the Social Welfare department. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare was changed to Director, Social Welfare department. The post of Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions was redesignated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (correctional wing) who assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to correctional wing. There is also another post of a Deputy Director which is entrusted with the work relating to the backward class welfare and correctional administration. The important function of the backward class wing of the Social Welfare department is to improve the conditions of backward classes so as to put them on par with the other advanced classes of the society.

The divisional offices of the Social Welfare department are working at the headquarters of each revenue division of the State. The incharge of the divisional office is the Divisional Officer who is a class I officer; whereas the Social Welfare Officers, who are class II officers, are posted at district level. After the formation of Zilla Parishad the services of the Social Welfare Officers have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. Now they are responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of Zilla Parishad. The subject of welfare of scheduled castes and other backward classes in the district is now within the purview of the Zilla Parishad. In the standing committee of Zilla Parishad, at least two members from scheduled castes and other backward classes are required to be elected under the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act. The standing committee acts as subject committee for that subject and the District Social Welfare Officer works under it. The Social Welfare Officers are required to execute the various schemes formulated by the Social Welfare department. The Social Welfare Officer is assisted in his work by a Social Welfare Inspector.

The Social Welfare Officer acts as a liaison officer between the backward classes and the departments of the State Government. He is supposed to see that full benefits of the legislation and schemes undertaken by the Government accrue to the backward classes. In addition to these officers, there are Organisers who are class II officers, incharge of certain zones in Vidarbha region. Their duties are to look after the welfare of the tribal people in their respective zones.

The backward classes are divided into three broad categories—(a) scheduled castes or Harijans, (b) scheduled tribes or *adivasis* and (c) other backward classes who are backward in terms of social, economic and educational activities. The first two categories have been notified by the Government of India for each State, whereas the communities forming the third group which are recognised by the State differ in the component units of the State. However, the classification of other backward classes based on the communities does not exist now. The new category is based on the income of family such as a family whose income does not

exceed of Rs. 1,800 per annum. Thus the students coming from this class enjoy concessions and other facilities such as free education, etc., at all stages of education.

The backward class population in the Buldhana district, as per 1961 Census, is as under:

Scheduled castes	56,214
Scheduled tribes outside the specified areas in Vidarbha	22,700
Vimukta jatis	44,145
Nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes	10,000
Neo-Buddhists	1,38,928
Total	171,987

The percentage of backward class people to the total population comes to 25.7%.

To improve the conditions of the backward classes, many concessions and privileges have been granted to them by the Constitution of India. In addition to the normal concession in respect of all matters, the State Government implements various schemes for the welfare of backward classes under Five-Year Plans.

Measures of uplift.—The disabilities of the backward classes can be grouped as—(a) educational, (b) economical and (c) social. Efforts are being made to eliminate these drawbacks within the shortest possible time.

Educational: The educational facilities include schemes of granting fees at all stages of education irrespective of age and income, examination fees of the recognised examinations and scholarships to the students from the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, *vimukta jatis* and the backward classes. The concession is awarded to the students learning in primary schools, high schools or technical institutions. During 1962-63, 1,378 students were given benefits to the tune of Rs. 86,579 under these schemes.

The provision of hostel facilities is regarded as a boon to the backward class students scattered in villages where the educational institutions are absent. These facilities lift them from their none-too-happy surroundings. The students are given opportunities to mix-up with different stratas in social life which helps in eradicating the stigma of untouchability. The Social Welfare department encourages voluntary agencies to establish and maintain the backward class hostels for boys and girls by giving substantial amount of grants under the rules for recognition and payment of grant-in-aid to backward class hostels run by voluntary agencies. At present there are 8 backward class hostels in the district run by different voluntary agencies. Students belonging to the non-backward class category are admitted in these hostels to the extent of

20 per cent of their total income capacity. These hostels are located as under :—

Name of hostel	Sanctioned strength
Harijan Students Hostel, Buldhana	95
Bharati Ashram, Buldhana	70
Chokhamela Hostel, Chikhli	65
Ashok Boarding, Mehkar	45
Bharat Sevak Samaj Vasatigriha, Deulgaon-Sakharsha	45
Jai Hind Chokhamela Hostel, Malkapur	35
Ashok Free Boarding, Paturda	45
Shri Vasantao Naik Vasatigriha, Khamgaon	30
Total	430

In addition to the above hostels, following are the cosmopolitan hostels in the district with a sanctioned strength of 64 students :—

Shri Shivaji Cosmopolitan Hostel, Chikhli	15
Bharat Sevak Samaj Vasatigriha, Dhamangaon	12
Bharat Sevak Samaj Vidyarthi Vasatigriha, Padali	17
Bharat Sevak Samaj Vasatigriha, Masrul	20

In 1967-68 separate hostels each for boys and girls were opened at Buldhana and Khamgaon, respectively.

The total expenditure on the educational schemes for backward class students was Rs. 1,46,354 during the year 1967-68. The department is running a *Balwadi* at Sakharherda, the annual expenditure on which comes to Rs. 210.

Economical : The backward classes suffer from poor economic conditions and with a view to assist them in improving their economic conditions, financial assistance is given to them. The schemes under which such financial assistance is given are as under :—

Grant of loan-cum-subsidy to backward classes :—

- for cottage industries and professions,
- for purchase of milch cattle, and
- for purchasing improved agricultural implements, etc.

A number of housing societies of backward classes have been formed in the district. Financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies is given to these societies. Assistance in cash or kind for repairing the houses is also provided under this scheme. Rs. 21,100 were given to 68 beneficiaries during 1962-63. There were 28 co-operative housing societies in the year 1967-68. In addition, loans amounting to Rs. 65,967 and subsidy of Rs. 24,845 were sanctioned by the Directorate of Social Welfare, Poona, for construction of 30 houses for sweepers.

In so far as provision of drinking water facilities is concerned, an amount of Rs. 2,200 was spent for digging tube wells, and a sum of Rs. 3,500 was spent for digging 2 drinking water wells for scheduled castes.

Monetary aid is also given to the backward classes on medical grounds. Rs. 600 were spent during the year 1962-63 on 15 beneficiaries. The total expenditure incurred as aid given on account of housing, health and other schemes amounted to Rs. 72,000 during the year 1965-66.

Financial assistance is given to poor agriculturists belonging to *vimukta jatis* and other backward classes to purchase ploughs, bullocks, carts, seeds, implements, etc. An amount of Rs. 9,200 was given to 84 beneficiaries in the year 1962-63. An amount of Rs. 1,200 was distributed among 120 backward class agriculturists under the scheme of loan-cum-subsidy for purchase of improved agricultural implements during the year 1967-68. Out of the total land amounting to 29,269 acres available for distribution, 13,480 acres were distributed to 1,702 backward class families for cultivation up to year 1968.

Social : The schemes for removal of untouchability include various measures of publicity against untouchability. The legislation on the subject, viz., the Bombay Harijan (Removal of Social Disabilities) Act (XXXVI of 1947), as amended in 1948, can be said to be a land-mark in this respect. *Sanskar kendras* and *Balwadis* are organised, filmshows and dramas are staged, gatherings are addressed at fairs and other places of assembly and inter-caste dinners, celebration weeks and days are arranged. Similarly, building sites are given to scheduled castes people in localities peopled by other castes and communities and subsidy is paid to caste Hindu landlords for letting their premises to backward classes. Mixed hostels where backward class pupils and caste Hindu boys are admitted are recognised by State Government for grant-in-aid. Inter-caste marriages are encouraged by Government and public reception is given to such couples which is attended by many officials of the Government. Prizes are also awarded to villages which show outstanding work for the removal of untouchability. An amount of Rs. 2,123 was spent under the various schemes during the year 1962-63. During 1967-68 the expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,640.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER

Bombay Public Trusts Act.— A composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX) was passed in the year 1950 which was made applicable to all the public trusts. Prior to this Act the religious and charitable trusts in the State were governed by various Acts based on religion. The said Act defined the 'Public Trust' as "an express or constructive trust for either public religious or charitable purpose or both and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmadaya* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)".

The State Government can apply the provisions of the Act to any public trust or class of trusts and on such application the

provisions of the old Act cease to apply to such public trusts. The Act was made applicable to the following classes of public trusts in the then Bombay State from January 1952 and in Marathwada and Vidarbha regions in the February 1961 :—

(1) temples,

(2) *maths*,

(3) *wakfs*,

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing mainly for the benefit of any community or any section of society.

(5) societies formed for religious or charitable purpose and registered under Societies Registration Act of 1860.

(6) *dharmadaya*, i.e., any amounts which according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose, and

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public, religious or charitable purpose.

But the Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The administration of the Act is vested in the Charity Commissioner who is stationed at Bombay. Deputy Charity Commissioner is appointed for Nagpur region who is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner. The Buldhana district comes under the jurisdiction of Assistant Charity Commissioner, Akola.

Duties of the Trustee.— As per the provisions of the Act a trustee has to apply for registration of trust within the period of three months of the application of the Act or its creation. He has to give full particulars, given in the Act, which include—(a) the approximate value of the moveable and immoveable property owned by trust, (b) the gross annual income of the trust's property and (c) the amount of expenditure of the trust. No new registration is required if the trust is already registered under provisions of the previous Act. So also the clause of registration is not applicable to the *dharmadayas* which are governed by special provisions of the Act in certain respects.

The registration fee varies according to the value of the property of the trust. A contribution at the rate of two per cent is levied on gross annual income and the sum is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. Exemption from the payment of registration fee is given to the public trusts for the purpose of advancement of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less. Further the amount spent on education, medical relief, donations, various taxes, interest on depreciation and grants received from

Government, etc., is allowed to be deducted from computing the annual gross income. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

The trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which is to be audited by Chartered Accountant or persons authorised under the Act. Such persons are authorised to audit the accounts only of public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 3,000 or less.

If the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied from the report made by auditor or by any officer authorised under section 37 of the Act that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report the matter to the Charity Commissioner, who after inquiry, determines the amount of loss caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on person found guilty. The sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property or lease for a period of more than ten years in case of agricultural land and three years in case of non-agricultural land is not valid without the prior sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in securities on certain conditions. For this purpose he has to seek the permission of Charity Commissioner.

Application of funds by Cypres.—If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of public trust, other than a religious trust, if it is not in the public interest, necessary to carry out wholly or partially the original intention of the author of the public trust, an application can be made to the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for the application cypres of the property, or income of the trust.

If there is breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property belongs to the trust or a direction is required to recover the property, 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, to obtain relief given in the Act. The Charity Commissioner can file such a suit on his own motion. If the Charity Commissioner refuses the consent, an appeal lies to the Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal.

Charity Commissioner to be sole trustee if appointed as trustee.—The Court or author of a public trust can appoint Charity Commissioner as trustee of the public trust, provided the appointment is made as a sole trustee. But the Court is not empowered to appoint Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. If the Charity Commissioner is appointed as a trustee, he can levy charges of administration on the trust as prescribed in the rules made under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.—Inquiries in respect of the registration of a public trust or regarding loss caused to a public trust, registered under the previous Act, have to be conducted with the aid

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of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. These persons are selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which inquiry relates. The list of such assessors has to be prepared and published in the Official Gazette every three years.

Charity Commissioner and Charitable Endowments.—The Charity Commissioner is always deemed to be the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State. He is appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890.

In case of religious and charitable institutions and endowments, the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred to the Management Committee to be appointed by State Government for each district. The Charity Commissioner is vested with requisite power to require duties of these committees to be performed and to direct expenses in respect thereof to be paid from the funds belonging to the endowments.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with fines ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending upon the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for instituting the legal proceedings in the case of such contraventions.

The following table shows statistics relating to the public trusts in Buldhana district, as on 30th July 1968 :—

TABLE No. 1
PUBLIC TRUSTS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Category (1)	Total No. of Public Trusts registered (2)	Value of Property		Gross average annual income (5)	Average annual expendi- ture (6)
		Moveable (3)	Immove- able (4)		
'A' Trusts for the benefit of Hindus.	774	4,98,210	41,39,754	3,52,406	3,38,670
'B' Trusts for the benefit of Muslims.	206	32,388	4,54,725	40,975	41,393
'C' Trusts for the benefit of Parsees.	..	..	..	..	..
'D' Trusts for the benefit of Christians.	..	..	..	..	..
'E' Trusts for the benefit of any particular community.	97	94,188	4,61,617	71,433	62,115
'F' Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860.	200	14,62,178	27,01,261	23,76,294	15,63,264

MANAGED ESTATES

On many occasions, Government takes over the administration of property of minors, lunatics and persons incapable of managing their own property. The object is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. Such superintendence of estates is also undertaken when the estate is encumbered with debt or is mismanaged or when there is no capable person to look after it and the Government is of opinion that it is in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family.

With the prior permission of State Government, the Court of Wards can assume superintendence of property of any landholder or any person who is declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing his own property.

The Collector of district has to act as Court of Wards and to manage the estates taken over under the Court of Wards Act. At present there is no estate under the management of Court of Wards, Buldhana.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS INTRODUCTION

THE VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS HAVE A PLACE OF IMPORTANCE in the public life in general and in the socio-economic scheme of society in particular. Considered in the historical perspective, they are of a recent origin. As a matter of fact their growth in recent times and their non-existence in the past could be attributed to the nature of human existence in the historical and political surroundings in those times. Human life in the past was not so eventful as it is today. What could be regarded as the various aspects of the cultural and civilized life were mostly in a backward and semi-progressive state. Human wants both material and non-material were very few and far between. There was no richness and fullness in human life in those days and strangely enough it was not desired also. Human existence was more natural than sophisticated. There were no complexities and intricacies in the social life of the individual and the energies of the human beings were more directed towards the satisfaction of their immediate needs rather than towards the search of the unknown. Not that science and increasing knowledge of life did not spurt the imagination of a few in the society. These few did see a full and beautiful life, leading a more sophisticated existence but the prognostications of a few did not materially affect the even tenor of life which the majority sought for. The life of the individuals as the members of the social organization and as citizens of a state was guided by certain norms of behaviour and moral code of conduct with which the individuals were content. The necessity for competitive and complementary associations to supplement the efforts of the society and the State was not felt and if it was felt by some under the pressing urge of advance and progress, their existence would not have been tolerated by the political power which guided the course of social events under its auspices. These conditions underwent a radical change during the last hundred years or so. Tremendous progress was visible in every aspect of human activity—social, economic, political, moral, scientific, literary, artistic and aesthetic. Fields unknown were opened in wild stretches which the developed and scientific intellect of those pioneers in the Social and Scientific fields could not very well fathom. Development of transport brought together hitherto separated parts of the world and created a feeling of commonness, fraternity and brotherhood. Scientific advance solved the problems of life which were getting more complex with the march of time and made life more comfortable and easier than

what was in the past. Literature and art developed bringing out forthwith the hidden and unbounded virtues of human life and created an altogether different political philosophy which gave prime importance to individual in the general scheme of things. These developments were sure to have a profound effect on the life and psychology of the individuals. The new knowledge that was fed to the individuals through the media of books, newspapers and periodicals that came to be published widened his horizons, affected his outlook on life and created in him a hankering for a better and rich existence. This process of thinking was accentuated by the developments that were taking place in the socio-economic organization of the society. Almost everywhere the villages lost their character of economic self-sufficiency; mass production replaced and relegated to the background the concept of localised and limited production; a new class, numerically powerful, viz., the working class came into existence and the very panorama of human existence in its economic and social perspective changed. These factors made life more complex and increased the needs of the individual and though they added to the material comforts of life they now made life more machine-like, rigid and a humdrum existence. The tired human intellect started finding avenues where he could refresh his mind and mental faculties and get relief. The State was not, however, a silent spectator of these phenomenal changes that were taking place in human existence and its environments. It had taken upon itself the role of satisfying those human needs and fulfilling these human aspirations which the individual could not do on his own. The power of the State had increased enormously and so also its responsibilities. No state could lead an isolated existence in the world which was now living a life of co-operation. But even the powers of the State failed to respond to the convulsions and the urges that were felt in the inner depths of human mind. The State could supply the material wants of the individuals and create circumstances to make life worth living but it could never touch these inner compartments of human mind which seek satisfaction which cannot be measured in material terms. This urge is diverse and the atmosphere where this urge requires fulfilment is incompatible with the rigours of discipline that go with the functions of the State. Hence the necessity of such outlets where this urge could be fulfilled and where human mind could recapture its essence. This is provided by the Voluntary Social Service Organizations whose very name indicates their voluntary character. These institutions are in a way competitive to the State but they differ from it in that they allow free play to human emotions and volitions and supply the individual with a moral force that the State may be incapable of providing. It may not be misunderstood that their voluntary character and the looseness with which they bind their members implies an inherent weakness in them. As a matter of fact their very voluntary nature provides them with a strength of character which the very powerful of the States may fail to supply because if the State appeals to the intellect of the individual they touch the very core of the human existence—that is the heart of

the individual. History has proved time and again that if results are to be judged by the means with which they are achieved then these organisations supply a far more powerful means than the one supplied by the State. That does not mean that the aims and objectives of the State and these organizations are conflicting. Far from that, these organizations supplement the efforts made by the State towards the development of human personality and by their power and influence over the lives of the individuals make it rich, resourceful and worth living. They are a part and parcel of the public life and though morally superior they are subordinate and subservient to the political organization. Their importance in the social organization cannot be minimised, because they reflect the culture and civilization of the social group of which they form a part. As a matter of fact they represent the various aspects of the public life in a social organization. They exercise a formative influence on the public opinion which is a conglomeration of distinct social, political and economic views held by the majority of persons in the community. The concepts of public life and public opinion are complex and intricate. If public life is more concerned with the social and cultural sides of human existence and is an expression of individual feeling through social organism, public opinion is more concerned with the political and economic sides of human existence. Both, however, are complementary to each other because the aim of both is to educate the masses and bring about social, political and economic reform. In this context it may be noted that the factors that are responsible to create public life and public opinion may differ in their characteristics and connotation but unequivocally these factors are in one way or the other a representation of voluntary organisations that are working in the society.

NEWSPAPERS

Public life in Buldhana has been enriched by newspapers which voice popular grievances of the people from time to time. There are at present eight periodicals in the district which purvey district news and national events and educate public opinion. Of these six are weeklies and two monthlies. Of the weeklies, the *Yashwant Sandesh*, *Panchayat Raj* and *Awhan* are published from Malkapur. *Shetkari* is published from Buldhana, *Ninad* from Khamgaon, *Shiv Sandesh* from Mehkar and *Navsamaj* from Shegaon. The two monthlies *Sahakar Pragati* and *Gramdarshan* are both published from Buldhana. All the periodicals are published in Marathi language. There is no English periodical published in the district. Besides these local periodicals, a number of English and Marathi newspapers published from Akola, Nagpur and Bombay find a wide circulation in the district. These include *Nagpur Times*, *Tarun Bharat*, *Maharashtra*, *Hitawada*, *Jay Vidarbha* (all published from Nagpur) and *Times of India*, *Free Press Journal*, *Indian Express*, *Maharashtra Times*, *Maratha*, *Blitz*, *Navbharat Times* and *Loksatta* (all published from Bombay) and *Matrubhumi* and *Shivshakti* (published from Akola).

POLITICAL REPRESENTATION

Buldhana district is represented in the Lok Sabha by two Members of Parliament from the Buldhana and Khamgaon Constituencies. The strength of Members in the State Assembly elected from the district is 7.

During 1957 Mehkar constituency was a double member constituency with one of the two seats reserved for Scheduled Castes. This double member constituency was abolished in 1961 and the seat from Janefal was declared as reserved for Scheduled Castes.

In 1971 General Elections the Assembly constituencies of Chikhli, Buldhana and Malkapur combined with Yawal, Raver and Edlabad from Jalgaon district together formed one Parliamentary constituency, *viz.*, Buldhana and the remaining Assembly constituencies, *viz.*, Jalamb, Khamgaon, Mehkar and Janefal combined with the Assembly constituencies of Washim and Gowardhan from Akola district formed another Parliamentary constituency called Khamgaon constituency.

During the 1971 Parliamentary election, out of 9,98,260 total electorates, 6,13,385 exercised the voting right, the percentage of votes being 61.44. In the case of Assembly elections of 1972, out of 6,59,530 total electorates, 4,38,339 voted, the percentage of votes being 66.46.

During 1972 General Elections for the State Assembly out of the seven seats in the district the Congress captured five seats, *viz.*, Khamgaon, Chikhli, Buldhana, Mehkar and Lonar. Of the other two seats, Malkapur was won by the Jansangh and the Shegaon constituency was claimed by the Peasants and Workers Party.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

Nav Yuvak Natya Mandal, Asalgaon.—The Navayuvak Natya Mandal, the oldest of its kind in the district, was founded at Asalgaon in 1934 with the object of spreading cultural education among the masses. It aimed to achieve this objective by encouraging Indian music, dance, drama, cultural activities, etc. In addition the *mandal* also aimed at running library classes and arranging series of lectures by prominent persons.

The day-to-day affairs of the *mandal* are looked after by an executive committee of seven members consisting of president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer and three other members. The *mandal* had a membership of 100 in 1969.

The *mandal* has so far encouraged the staging of Marathi dramas and has created a liking for them amongst the people. Besides, the *mandal* has donated handsomely to institutions doing useful service in religious, educational, recreational and social

spheres. The details of such donations for a few years are given below:—

Year	Amount donated	Institution
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	
1934 ..	150	Maruti Mandir.
1944 ..	900	Red Cross Society.
1947 ..	650	Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Fund, New Delhi.
1952 ..	250	Retired Army Men's Welfare Fund.
1968 ..	9,600	Ambedkar Vidyalaya Building Fund.
1969 ..		
	300	Patil Sangha.

The income of the *mandal* is composed of membership fees and donations received from the public.

Lions Club, Khamgaon.—The Lions Club was founded at Khamgaon on 8th January 1967 with the object of creating a feeling of national and international brotherhood and fraternity among the citizens and also making them conscious about the civil, moral and social rights, enjoyed by them.

The day-to-day affairs of the Club are looked after by the managing body consisting of president, vice-president, secretary and treasurer. The Club had a membership of 30 in 1969.

The Club has been rendering useful social service by taking keen interest in medical and public health activities by providing injections of Triple Antigen and Anti-polio Vaccine at Khamgaon. Besides, the Club also proposes to open a diabetic clinic and a maternity home at Shegaon. The Club also encourages education by giving attractive prizes to the students who stand first in their respective classes in their annual examinations.

The income of the Club consists of membership fees and donations. During the year 1969 the income and expenditure of the Club amounted to Rs. 3,600.

Mahila Mandal, Jalamb.—The *Mahila Mandal* was established in 1954 at Jalamb with the object of bringing about all round development of women and raise their status in the society.

The *mandal* is governed by an executive body of seven members consisting of president, vice-president, secretary and executive members. The *mandal* had 27 members in 1968.

The *mandal* for the realisation of its objectives, celebrates *Sharad-otsav* every year, when social gathering, *Haladi-kumkum*, group songs, etc., are arranged. The *mandal* also celebrates days of national importance. The *mandal* derives its income with the help of subscriptions from its members and donations from the public.

Rathod Sangh, Jalamb.—The Rathod Sangh at Jalamb was established with the object of bringing about social reform to improve the lot of common man and to eradicate the social barriers in society.

The Sangh is controlled by a managing body of ten members including president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer and executive members. The Sangh had a membership of 85 in the year 1967.

The Sangh is housed in its own building and possesses arable land admeasuring 18 acres. The income from this land amounts to about Rs. 2,000.

Sharada Bhagini Samaj, Shegaon.—The *Sharada Bhagini Samaj* was established in 1955 at Shegaon with the object of increasing the social status of women in society and to bring them together by arranging social gatherings on occasions of local and national importance.

The day-to-day affairs of the *Samaj* are looked after by an executive body of five members consisting of president, secretary, treasurer and executive members. The *Samaj* had 25 members on its roll in 1967-68.

At the time of the gatherings, series of lectures by prominent persons are arranged. Besides, the *Samaj* also celebrates *Sharad-otsav* for about 15 days when a variety of functions, such as, drama, debating and *kumkum* ceremony are held. The *Samaj* also arranges *kirtan* by *kirtankars* who are known for their national outlook.

The income of the *Samaj* is composed of subscriptions given by its members and donations from the public. The income of the *Samaj* amounted to Rs. 288 in 1967-68, while the expenditure to Rs. 263 in the same year.

Anand Natya Mandal, Khamgaon.—The Anand Natya Mandal was founded on 6th February 1952 at Khamgaon by various artists with the object of creating a liking for Marathi drama in society and render financial assistance to the educational, social and religious institutions in the district through the income received by staging dramatic performances.

The *mandal* is managed by an executive body of six consisting of president, secretary and four other members. The *mandal* had a membership of 26 in 1969-70.

The *mandal* has staged many charity shows so far and given financial assistance to various institutions to the tune of Rs. 31,000. A few of these institutions are listed below:—

(i) Dastur Ratanji Vachanalaya, Khamgaon, (ii) Rashtra Bhasha Vachanalaya, Khamgaon, (iii) Jain Yuvak Mandal, Khamgaon, (iv) Amar Vidyalaya, Amdapur, (v) Secondary School, Sakharkhed, Mehkar, (vi) Secondary School, Shirasgaon Deshmukh, (vii) Dharmashala of Sindhi Community, Khamgaon, (viii) Kolhatkar Memorial, Khamgaon, and (ix) Maruti Mandir, Mahakhed.

Mahila Vikas Mandal, Nandura.—The *Mahila Vikas Mandal* was established on 28th January 1963 at Nandura with the object of bringing about all round development of women and of serving the cause of female education.

The *mandal* is governed by an executive body of 11 members including president, vice-president, secretary and treasurer. The executive body looks after the day-to-day affairs of the *mandal*. The *mandal* had 40 members in 1968.

The *mandal* runs a *Balwadi* and *shishuvihar* where children below the age of 12 years are admitted. There were 20 children in these institutions in 1968. Besides, the *mandal* conducts free tailoring classes for its members. The *mandal* celebrates *sharad-otsav* every year for about 15 days. The *mandal* has a *bhajani* party of its own which organises *bhajan* every fortnight. The *mandal* also arranges competitions in music, debating, knitting, etc. The winning candidates are given attractive prizes. The *mandal* helped the war efforts at the time of the Indo-China and Indo-Pakistan wars.

The *mandal* possesses property worth Rs. 2,500. The income of the *mandal* consists of membership fees. The income and expenditure of the *mandal* amounted to Rs. 720 in 1968.

Yuvak Mandal, Jalamb.—The *Yuvak Mandal* was started on 9th November 1953 at Jalamb with the object of encouraging amongst the youth a liking for games and gymnastics as also wrestling.

The *yuvak mandal* is managed by a chairman and a secretary. It had a membership of 14 in 1968. The *mandal* undertakes imparting indoor training to its members and also encourages outdoor games. It participates in cultural programmes, such as, gatherings, gymnastic competitions, drama competitions, etc.

The *mandal* manages its finances from contributions received from its members, in addition to grant-in-aid from the Government.

Sampradayik Bhajani Mandal, Jalamb.—The *Sampradayik Bhajani Mandal* was started in 1953 at Jalamb with the object of developing mass education, social organisation and social awakening.

The *mandal* is governed by a president and a secretary. It had 11 members in 1968. The *mandal* celebrates days of national importance by arranging *bhajans*. It also participates in the *bhajan* competitions held under the auspices of the Maharashtra Government. The income of the *mandal* consists of subscriptions received from its members. It possesses instruments valued at Rs. 100.

Malkapur Education Society, Malkapur.—The Malkapur Education Society was established in 1933. The society aims to impart education to the people in rural areas by establishing schools and other institutions at different places and to render faithful service to the people in their quest for education.

The affairs of the society are managed by a governing body which consists of a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer and other members. There are at present 30 members in the society.

The society runs four high schools, viz., (i) M. E. S. High School, Malkapur, (ii) Hirabai Sancheti Kanga Shala, Malkapur, (iii) M. E. S. High School, Motala, and (iv) M. E. S. High School, Dhamangaon. The two institutions at Malkapur are housed in their own premises whereas the other two in rented buildings. The total assets of the society including the school buildings stand at Rs. 2,08,838-18. The Government of Maharashtra gave a subsidy of Rs. 3,600 for the school building at Malkapur. The income and the expenditure of the society amounted to Rs. 1,43,555-74 in 1968-69.

Nagar Seva Samiti, Malkapur.—The Nagar Seva Samiti was established in 1957 at Malkapur with the object of imparting education to those who cannot afford it and rendering social service to the poor and the needy.

The *samiti* is managed by an executive body of seven members consisting of chairman, deputy chairman, secretary and treasurer. The *samiti* had 15 members in 1968-69.

At present the *samiti* runs the Adarsha Vidyalaya which conducts classes up to S. S. C. standard. The *samiti* also conducts a *vyakhyanamala* every year in the month of December where prominent persons from Vidarbha deliver a series of lectures.

The total assets of the *samiti*, both moveable and immoveable, are valued at Rs. 30,947-48. The income of the *samiti* amounted to Rs. 58,928-34 in 1967-68 including grant-in-aid from Government of Maharashtra and donations from the public while the expenditure amounted to Rs. 51,917-17 in the same year.

Kala Vikas Mandal, Malkapur.—The Kala Vikas Mandal was started in 1952 at Malkapur with the object of popularising Indian classical music and to organise music programmes for the same.

The *mandal* is managed by the executive body of 11 members with president, secretary and a treasurer in charge of the *mandal*. There were 83 members of the *mandal* in 1968-69.

The *mandal* arranges musical concerts, runs classes in music, dance and dramaturgy, arranges seminars and lectures and celebrates anniversaries of great artists including poets and musicians. The income of the *mandal* which is composed of subscriptions from its members amounted to Rs. 1,400 in 1967-68.

Mahila Audyogik Utpadak Sanstha, Nandura.—The Mahila Audyogik Utpadak Sanstha was established at Nandura on 27th April 1964 with the object of rendering social service by conducting tailoring classes, running fair price shops, etc.

The day-to-day affairs of the institution are looked after by a managing body of 11 members consisting of president, vice-president, secretary and accountant. The institution had 80 members in 1968.

The institution conducts tailoring classes which were attended by 40 students in 1968. A fair price shop run by the institution is recognised by the Government.

The institution is housed in its own building. The institution received a donation of Rs. 2,500 from the Buldhana Zilla Parishad in 1968.

Shivaji Vidyalaya, Nandura.—The Shivaji Vidyalaya, a branch of the Shivaji Education Society, Amravati, was established at Nandura in 1949 with the object of imparting education to students in the rural area.

The institution is managed by a local education committee of 13 members consisting of Chairman, Deputy Chairman and Secretary.

The institution conducts classes from Vth up to Xth standard. Nearly 80 per cent of the students on the roll of the institution are from rural area. The institution is housed in its own spacious building. There is a separate building for its hostel. The institution also encourages physical training on the part of its students.

The institution receives annual grant-in-aid from the Maharashtra Government and also donations from public. The income of the institution amounted to Rs. 84,084 in 1967-68.

Youth League Recreation Centre, Buldhana.—The Youth League Recreation Centre was started by a group of teachers and parents in 1952 at Buldhana with the object of creating self-reliance, patriotism, and unity among the youth. This was to be achieved by establishing free libraries, reading rooms, boarding houses, residential and ordinary schools, etc.

At present the centre is conducting the following institutions:—

(1) *Bharata Vidyalaya*: This secondary school was started in 1954. The school is managed by an elected student ministry. The school conducts classes from VIII up to XIth standard.

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(2) *Vivekanand Gurukunj*: This experimental school for children of the age group of 4 to 9 was started in 1967-68. Education is imparted in three languages in various subjects such as general knowledge, religion, culture, science and world politics.

(3) *Sane Guruji Balak Mandir*: It was started in 1955 to conduct a free K. G. School in backward areas. It also carries child welfare work.

(4) *Deshlehara Balak Mandir*: It was started in 1965 and conducts a K. G. School and a child welfare centre.

(5) *Sanskar Kendra*: The aim of the *kendra* is to organise child welfare work in villages by providing such facilities as Free Balwadi, medical examination of children, recreation centre, baby shows, etc. It has received material worth Rs. 2,000 from the American women's club. The centre has four branches in the district.

(6) *Bharati Ashram*: The *ashram* is meant for students coming from backward communities. It was established in 1960 and provides free lodging and boarding facilities to the students. Government pays Rs. 25 per month per inmate as grant. In 1968, about 75 inmates were staying in the hostel. The *ashram* is housed in its own building built by the students and the staff, by *shramadan*.

(7) *Gurukul*: Established in 1957, the *gurukul* is a hostel where court committed students are admitted. In 1968 there were 25 such students in *gurukul*.

(8) *Poultry Farm*: The poultry farm was started in 1968. Poultry valued at Rs. 5,875 was donated by Oxfam and Huddersfield Famine Relief Committee. The farm is managed by the students of Bharati Ashram. Besides, there is also the pet animal section where rabbits, monkeys, pigeons and peacocks are kept.

Besides this the institution also conducts a kitchen garden and a flower garden, a toy centre, a *Sanskar Kendra* and a hobby work-shop. St. Gregory Grammar School in Huddersfield has donated a welding machine worth Rs. 3,000 to this *kendra*. Training facilities in carpentry, smithy and tin works are provided in the *kendra*. The institution also provides free medical aid to the inhabitants of 10 villages. The service league of this institution seeks blood donors to the hospital and provides help to people in distress. An Audio Visual Society established in 1967 received a donation of Rs. 7,000 from a group of students of Chembery-France. It has its own 16 mm. projector, a tape recorder, a film strip and slide projector with a slide and a film strip library for imparting education to young villagers and students.

Camps: The institution takes keen interest in organising annual camps. A camp in leprosy colony at Warora in Chandrapur district in May 1967 was organised where a building (500

sq.ft. plinth area) was built and 6 acres of land was brought under paddy cultivation. A camp was also organised in a leprosy rehabilitation centre in a forest in Chandrapur district where building work was undertaken. The institution has also undertaken some projects of construction work, like approach-roads or small earthen bunds.

The institution has established the Buldhana students union to conduct welfare activities and a forest labour contract co-operative society for Hanwatkhed village. It also undertook settlement work for a group of 20 nomadic families in Buldhana and helped them to cultivate 23 acres of land and established a backward class girls' hostel in Buldhana. The institution runs a school at Hanwatkhed.

CHAPTER 19—PLACES

AMDAPUR

Amdapur (Chikhli T., p. 6,187): THE VILLAGE 14 MILES TO THE WEST OF CHIKHLI, the tahsil headquarters has on the summit of a small hill about half a mile to the south of the village a fine temple dedicated to Bhavani known as Ballali Devi. There is an image of the Goddess bedaubed with red lead in the sanctuary which is curiously lit from above in such a way as to throw the full light upon the image; to the viewer seeing it only through the door panels, the *mandap* being nearly dark, the effect may be somewhat startling.

Near the aforementioned temple of Bhavani are some fragments of two colossal statues consisting of two pairs of feet, from which it appears that the statue must have stood about fifty feet high. Other fragments lying round the temple seem to point to the former existence of an older building, probably a *Hemad-panti* temple which is confirmed by local tradition.

From an inscription in another temple below the hill we learn that a person named Mangala, son of Bhaideva, built a *torana* for the temple constructed by Pedumanasethi, who was a resident of Ambadapura (modern Amdapur). The inscription is dated in the *Shaka* year 1133 (A.D. 1211-12) during the reign of the Yadava king Singhanadeva of Devagiri.*

BULDHANA

Buldhana (Dist. HQ.; 20°32' N., 76°14' E., p. 25,303): The headquarters town of the district bearing the same name is situated at a distance of 28 miles to the south of Malkapur railway station on the Central Railway. The town stands at an elevation of 2190 feet. The climate of the town is salubrious and it is perhaps the coolest place in Berar next only to Chikhaldara. The name of the town is derived from the corrupt form of Bhil-Thana i.e., the place of Bhils. No definite information is available about the early history of the town. However, it was the headquarters of the district of North Berar when Berar was divided into two districts in 1853 at the time it first passed under the British administration. Colonel Meadows Taylor who was appointed the Deputy Commissioner of North Berar in 1857, the year of mutiny, has referred to the beautiful wooded ravines and the picturesque morning ride in the town. The town lost its importance when after the mutiny the province was reconstituted and Akola became

* The inscription has been edited by Dr. Mirashi in *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXI, p. 127.

the headquarters of West Berar. In 1867 the place again came into prominence when it was selected as the headquarters of the district.

Public Institutions.—As the headquarters of the district, the town contains the usual executive and judicial offices with the exception of the tahsil headquarters and office which are located at Chikhli, 14 miles to the south. It has a civil hospital, a T. B. Sanatorium, Government womens' hospital, a veterinary dispensary, a jail, an observatory, a circuit house, a rest house, a municipal sarai, an officers' club, a library and a cemetery. Besides the primary schools, there are located in the town the Government Multipurpose High School, the Aided High School, the Bharat Vidyalaya and the Prabodhan Vidyalaya besides the *grama sevak* training school, agricultural school and the Government basic training college. The colleges with the faculties of Arts, Science and Education conducted by the Shivaji Education Society cater to the need for higher education. There is also a combined post and telegraph office and a telephone exchange. A weekly market is held on Sundays.

Municipality.—The municipal council was established at Buldhana in 1893. It covers an area of 12 square miles. The municipal council is composed of 18 councillors, two seats of which are reserved for women. The administration of the municipality is looked after by various committees such as the standing committee, the public works committee, the water-supply and drainage committee, the education committee, the planning committee and the sanitation and public health committee.

During the year 1968-69* the total income of the municipality excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 6,00,905.82 composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 3,20,821.83; realisations under the special act, Rs. 2,347.48; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 72,981.65; grants and contributions, Rs. 1,56,939.12 and income from miscellaneous sources, Rs. 47,815.64. During the same year the total expenditure of the municipality excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads came to Rs. 6,07,367.47 comprising general administration and collection charges, Rs. 1,59,644.59; public safety, Rs. 26,164.94; public health and convenience, Rs. 2,58,148.42; public instruction, Rs. 1,21,264.92; grants and contributions, Rs. 2,050.00 and miscellaneous expenditure, Rs. 40,094.60.

For the convenience of the public the municipality maintains a mutton market, a fruits and vegetables market, grain market and a weekly market. There is one Municipal Veterinary Dispensary. Primary education is compulsory in the town and is managed by the municipal council. Of the 12 miles of roads in the municipal areas two miles are asphalted, 2 miles and five furlongs are metalled and the remaining, i.e., 7 miles and three furlongs are un-

*During 1973-74 the income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 4,22,000 and Rs. 4,70,000.

metalled. The municipality maintains a cremation and a burial ground, besides those maintained by the respective communities.

The Harijan *mash* that conducts the Harijan hostel and the only church are the objects of interest in the town.

Water-supply.—"The town of Buldhana is supplied with drinking water from the Satrabar tank [so-called after the large *bar* (bayan tree) situated close to the north-western extremity of the tank] about a quarter of a mile east of the Buldhana Civil Station. The tank was constructed in 1891, and water began to be supplied in March 1892. The total outlay on the construction of the tank amounted to Rs. 98,902. The Satrabar tank has a catchment area of 410 acres, the tank itself having an approximate area of 7 acres. The water is pumped by means of two direct acting Duplex Cornish suction and force pumps into a reservoir which commands practically the whole of the Civil Station and town of Buldhana. The reservoir is divided into two compartments, each with a capacity of 55,000 gallons, and the water is passed down from those through 6" pipes and distributed to the Civil Station and the town by means of 30 stand-posts and 53 private connections. The daily authorized supply of water is 40,000 gallons at 10 gallons per head of population for 24 hours; but this supply could not at first be maintained on account of the weakness of the band puddle. The tank was over-hauled in 1908 and a fresh puddle laid up to 115 reduced level, and the waste weir level was raised from 110 to 112 which will enable an additional volume of water, representing about three months supply, to be impounded. The total capacity of the tank is now 4,338,701 cubic feet. With a view to reduction of expenditure which works out at 5 as. 8 pies per 1000 gallons, the question of substituting an up-to-date oil engine with suitable pumps for the present machinery is under consideration. This change is expected to reduce the expenditure to about 3 as. per 1000 gallons. The water-works are in charge of the Public Works Department, and are maintained at an average annual cost of Rs. 3,500, of which one-fourth is provided from Provincial Funds and the remainder from Municipal funds. Besides the Satrabar tank there are five other tanks, *viz.*, the 'Bullock tank' which supplies water to the public garden, the 'Chinch Talao,' the 'Dhobi Talao,' the 'Lendi Talao,' and the 'Tar Talao.' These tanks only hold water for about eight months and dry up in the hot weather."*

The present sources of water-supply to Buldhana town are described below :—

(i) *Sagwan headworks on Penganga river:* The headworks consist of an anicut, infiltration tunnel and a dry well with a pump-house. Water behind the anicut filtrates into the tunnel and is collected into a jack-well. A duplicate set of centrifugal pumps each capable of discharging 68,100 litres per hour

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, pp. 404-405.

against a head of 91.50 metres has been provided in the pump-house. The pumps are driven by electric motors of 40 B.H.P.

There is 200 mm dia stell rising main of 3119 metres in length from Sagwan to ground service reservoir near the town. The capacity of ground service reservoir is 4,81,250 litres with F.S.L. at R.L. 643.00 metres. The capacity of elevated service reservoir is 2,27,000 litres with F.S.L. at R.L. 654.50 metres. Both the reservoirs are having arrangements of inlet, outlet, washout and overflow etc. The distribution system consists of 180 mm to 40 mm dia stell C.I. and G.I. pipe lines of various lengths.

(ii) *Supplementary well at Sagwan*: This well is situated at a distance of 244 metres from Sagwan Headworks on the right bank of Penganga river. The well is of 9 metre diameter and 11 metres depth. The stemming of well is in B.B. masonry for 9 metres depth founded on soft reddish rock below. The well is further deepened to 16 metres (soft) depth after the bores were taken at the bottom of the well. There is a pump-house of 5.5 m. x 6.0 m. size over the well housing two sets of centrifugal pumps. Out of two pumps one pump is having a capacity of discharging 43,600 litres of water per hour against a head of 21.3 metres and driven by an electric motor of 7.5 B.H.P. Another pump is capable of discharging 43,860 litres of water per hour against a head of 21.3 metres and driven by an electric motor of 5 B.H.P. The water is pumped through 100 mm dia C.I. rising main to Sagwan headworks.

(iii) *Sheri Wells*: The third source of water-supply is the Sheri wells. This is about 1.5 km from the town and 100 metres towards North of Buldhana-Ajanta road. The dia of this well is 4 metres. A new well of 9 metre dia is constructed at a distance of 4 metres from this old one. There is a pump-house of 6 x 9 with centrifugal pump housed in it. The capacity of the pump is 40,860 litres per hour against a head of 84.14 and is driven by electric motor of 25.7 B.H.P. For stand by arrangements a diesel engine is also coupled to the same pump and is used in a case of failure of power. The water is pumped through 125 mm dia C.I. rising main 1890 m in length to carry water from Sheri wells to the ground service reservoir. The main source of supply is the Sagwan Headworks and is capable of supplying 1.2 ml. per day in fair season i.e., from September to March end and is just sufficient for the present population of the town. The water-supply however, comes down to 19,030 litres per hour i.e., 0.455 ml. per day in summer. The water-supply remains the same (as in hot season) till August end as the infiltration gallery does not work properly due to silting in the bed of river in monsoon. Under these circumstances the required additional quantity is supplied from the well to the Sagwan Headworks. The rate of supply from this well is 22,300 litres per hour. When the supply from both these sources falls short then the shortage is met from Sheri wells by pumping water directly into G.S.R.

CHANDOL

Chandol (Chikhli T., p. 4,747): A village in Chikhli tahsil is situated 14 miles to the west of Chikhli, the tahsil headquarters. It contains four old temples, one dedicated to Nrisimha, one to Mahalakshmi, and two to Mahadeva.

'The principal building of the temple of Nrisimha is octagonal in form; the hall in front is quadrangular. It is profusely sculptured. Repairs are sometimes carried out by subscription, and the top has been rebuilt of brick and mortar. It has an *inam* land of an annual rental of Rs. 6 for its support. The temple of Mahalakshmi is in good repair and is covered with sculpture. The temples of Mahadeva are octagonal in form, and the front hall or *mandapa* rectangular, most of which have fallen. The top of one of the temples has been rebuilt in brick and mortar.'*

CHIKHLI

Chikhli (Hq., 20°21' N., 76°18' E., P. 18,634): The headquarters town of the tahsil bearing the same name is situated at a distance of fourteen miles from Buldhana, the district headquarters. The old Gazetteer of Buldhana district has to say the following about this town: "There is a *dargah* or a tomb of Madan Shah Wali in whose honour an *urus* is held every year at which about 500 people assemble from the surrounding villages. The *dargah* has some *inam* land for its support. A temple of Mahadeva to the west of the town is of some archaeological importance. The top was rebuilt about 40 years ago, and other buildings have been added to it."

The municipal council was established at Chikhli in 1930 and administers an area of 14.29 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 17 members, two seats being reserved for women and one for scheduled tribes. The municipal administration is divided into various sections such as office, collection, octroi, sanitation, education and dispensary.

The total income of the municipality excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 5,37,245.92 during the year 1965-66¹ and was composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 2,18,443.73; realisations under special Acts, Rs. 1,973.61; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 7,986.00; grants and contributions for general and special purposes, Rs. 3,04,187.33 and income from miscellaneous sources Rs. 4,655.92. During the same year, the total expenditure of the municipality excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads came to Rs. 5,20,960.54, comprising general administration and collection charges, Rs. 1,32,788.89; public safety, Rs. 15,20,232; public health and convenience, Rs. 1,41,362.27; public instruction, Rs. 2,25,695.11; contributions, Rs. 200.00 and miscellaneous expenditure,

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, pp. 405-406.

¹During 1972-73 the income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 9,02,000 and Rs. 9,48,000.

Rs. 5,711-54. During the year under review the municipality had an income of Rs. 24,913-76 under extra-ordinary and debt heads and under the same head the expenditure was Rs. 36,803-83.

For the convenience of the public the municipality maintains a fruits and vegetables market as also fish and mutton markets. It also conducts a library. The municipality maintains two dispensaries, one general and one veterinary. Wells form the main source of water-supply to the town. Primary education has been made compulsory in the town and is managed by the municipality. Besides primary schools there are two colleges and four high schools in the town. The total length of roads maintained by the municipality is 7 km. of which a length of 2 km. is asphalted, of 1 km. metalled and the rest i.e., of 4 km. unmetalled. The municipality maintains four cremation grounds and five burial places. There is also a municipal garden and a meeting hall in the municipal office building.

Among the objects of interest in the town may be mentioned the *maths* of Udasi Maharaj and Mauni Maharaj, the Nazreen Mission Church and the temples of Mahadeva, Devi and Ganapati. A very big fair is held in honour of the Goddess Rayka Devi on *Chaitra* full moon day (April). More than 20,000 people attend the same.

DEULGAON RAJA

Deulgaon Raja (Chikhli T. ; 20° 1' N. ; 70° 5' E. ; p. 11,467) : The original name of the town situated on the Nagpur-Aurangabad road, 49 miles to the south of Buldhana was Dewalwadi, from a *wadi* or a hamlet close by. This hamlet is said to have been increased in extent and population by Rasoji, a natural son of a descendant of the Jadhav *Rajas* of Sindkhed some time in the seventeenth century. Rasoji invited people of all trades and professions to come and settle at the village the name of which was changed to Deulgaon as the place increased. The shape of the town is that of a gnomon. It was once fortified by a wall which had seven approaches, five large gates and two small ones. Of these gates, only three large ones are still in existence. Besides there is a *gadhi*, now in ruinous condition, about 60 feet high and spread over an area of four acres. There is a small range of hills close by on the northern side of the town, down which flow two tiny streams. A small rivulet called Amni forms the southern boundary of the town. There is on the east of the town a very pretty little domed tomb called the *Mothi samadhi* of Chimakabai Saheb, the daughter of Anandrav Maharaj of Deulgaon Raja. It is still in good condition. It is of cut stone in the Muhammedan style ; and is as chaste and well-proportioned a little building as it is possible to find. It is a square building with a minaret rising from each of the four corners of its roof with clusters of miniature minars around the base of each. Over the centre rises the well proportioned dome with other little minars around it and surmounted by a remarkably well designed finial. An ornamental open work parapet and deep cornice

surround the top of the room, and the whole building is set up on a very ornamental high basement of the same design as the beautiful green stone sarcophagus at Bijapur.

The town, formerly, was a centre of the cotton and silk trade which no more remains even though there are about 3,000 families belonging to the *Koshti* community of Salis. There are about 40 powerlooms and 150 handlooms products of which are mostly marketed in the district of Akola besides those of Buldhana and Bombay. There is a post and telegraph office, and a telephone exchange. There are two high schools, one conducted by the municipality and the other by a private institution. There is also a College of Arts and Commerce conducted by the Balaji Sansthan. The town has a cotton and grain market, two gins and presses and two oil mills. Besides, there is a police station, an office of the panchayat samiti and a rest-house.

The Census of India 1961, Volume X, Part VII-B, Fairs and Festivals in Maharashtra has given an interesting account of Shri Balaji Fair and description of Balaji temple at Deulgaon Raja which is reproduced below :—

“The old temple (which had an appearance of a grocery shop) was, it is said, built by Raje Jagdevrav, great grand-son of Lakhuji Jadhav, the grand-father of Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj about 300 years back. The temple costing about Rs. 1,42,000 was constructed in the year 1951. The present structure of the temple is a double-storeyed construction of cement concrete. It is 150' in length and 80' in width. In the shrine the image of Shri Balaji is installed on a throne made of gold and silver. To the left and right side of Shri Balaji are installed the images of Goddess Lakshmi. The doors of the shrine made of wood face the north and are silver plated. In front of the shrine a fencing of wooden bars is provided for facility of *darshan* without entering the shrine. The space provided in front of the shrine is used as an auditorium and programmes of '*kirtan*', '*bhajan*' '*pravachan*', etc., are held in it. The '*mahadwar*', main gate of the temple, is $\frac{3}{4}$ furlong away, at the north of the temple. The doors of the '*mahadwar*' are plated with iron plates and have iron spikes. From the '*mahadwar*' a road constructed in stones leads to the temple. At the top of the '*mahadwar*' there is a room used as '*nagarkhana*'. To enter the temple, one has to cross a door in the western wall. Outside the main temple, small temples of Shankar and Hanuman are seen. Images of Hanuman and 'Garud' (the conventional conveyance of Lord Vishnu) are also installed outside the main temple. The office of Shri Balaji Sansthan is situated at the west of the temple.

The following legends are told about the deity. Tirupati in Andhra Pradesh is believed to be the original seat of Balaji. Raje Jagdevrav, great grand-son of Lakhuji Jadhav used to go to Tirupati annually for the *darshan* of Balaji. Later on because of old age he could not go to Tirupati which he felt very much.

Balaji then appeared in his dream saying he could understand his difficulty and asked him to search for his image in the rice bag in his store-room, and worship it. Accordingly Jagdevrav found the image and installed it. To-day also those who cannot afford to go to Tirupati visit this temple and make the offerings promised to the deity in return of the fulfilment of their desires.

Shri Vakratund Kavishwar Maharaj, the devotee of Datta of Nrisinhavadi, has noted in his book, '*Devalaya Grammahatmya*' that the image of Shri Balaji was installed by a person named Dev Sharma, a Brahmin by caste in the period when *Purans* were written.

It is believed that Shri Balaji resides at Tirupati in Andhra Pradesh, takes his meals at Washim in Akola District and has his shop at Deulgaon Raja. The temple of Shri Balaji at Tirupati is closed from *Ashvina Sud.* 10 to *Ashvina Vad.* 4 (the important days of the fair at Deulgaon Raja) which is significant. During this period Shri Balaji it is believed comes to Deulgaon Raja from Tirupati.

The image of Shri Balaji made of five metals (*panchdhatu*) was installed, it is said, by Raje Jagdevrav, great-grand-son of Lakhuji Jadhav who had built the original temple. The image is very small about 2' in height. A *shakigram* is installed besides the Balaji image.

Behind the throne of Shri Balaji there is a *prabhaval* or an arch made of gold. The dress of the deity is generally of silk. It is changed on every Friday. Wristlets, ear-rings, a crown all made of gold, are the important ornaments of the deity. It has also a necklace made of '*mohors*' (coins) and pearls and other ornaments presented by Bajirav Peshwa and other persons. These are put on the deity on special occasions.

The hereditary priests of the deity worship the deity daily. There are two sections of hereditary priests who worship the deity by turns and share the income according to their respective rights.

The programme of daily worship in the temple comprises: (i) *Kakadarati* before sunrise, (ii) *Mahapuja* upto noon. This includes '*naivedya*'. On Friday the '*mahapuja*' lasts upto 1-00 p.m. The '*mahapuja*' is followed by an '*arati*', (iii) *Pushpa puja* at 8-00 p.m. and (iv) '*arati*' 10-00 p.m. followed by *shejarati*. On *Ekadashi* days the *arati* is performed at 11-00 p.m. and in *chaturmas* at 12 midnight followed by *shejarati*. After this programme the doors are closed.

The daily worship is not performed from *Ashvina Sud.* 11 to *Kartika Vad.* 30 and the '*shejarati*' from *Ashvina Sud.* 1 to *Kartika Vad.* 30.

Besides the worship as above an '*abhishek*' is performed over the deity on the days of Lunar and Solar eclipses and on *Chaitra Sud.* 1, *Chaitra Sud.* 9, first Friday in the dark half of the month of *Shravana*, *Ashvina Sud.* 1, *Ashvina Sud.* 10, *Ashvina Vad.* 5,

Ashvina Vad. 14, *Kartika Sud.* 1, '*dakshinayan parva kal*' and '*uttarayan parva kal*'. On Fridays, *Ekadashis*, full moon days and new moon days *abhishek* is performed on the '*shaligram*'. It is customary to offer a '*naivedya*' of cooked food to the deity daily. The cooked food is prepared in the kitchen (*bhandara*) of the Sansthan and offered in the noon.

It is believed that the deity is capable of fulfilling one's desires. Vows are therefore made to the deity and on their fulfilment an '*abhishek*' is performed. Some devotees offer to the deity coconuts, clothes, gold and silver ornaments whereas some release cows and bullocks in the name of the deity. Those who cannot afford to spend big amounts distribute sugar or *gur* as '*prasad*' and place coins before the deity.

The fair starts on *Ashvina Sud.* 1 and lasts for 19 days, i.e., upto *Ashvina Vad.* 4.

On *Ashvina Sud.* 1, the '*puja*' is performed upto 4 p.m. followed by '*ghata sthapana*' which comprises installing of a metal pot full of water with a coconut kept at its mouth over betel-leaves on a heap of rice on a '*chaurang*'. This is followed by an *arati* at 5 p.m. A new flag is hoisted on the temple building earlier, at 12 noon. On this day *Saptashati*, *Vishnu Sahasranam*, *Ganapati Atharvashirsha*, *Rudra*, *Devipath*, *Mahamrityunjaya*, *Upsarga* and *Sarvabadha*, etc., are recited by 19 to 21 Brahmins for the general well-being of the pilgrims.

There are no special programmes excepting the daily worship of the deity and *Japanusthan*, *Samhita Veda parayan*, *Bhagvat parayan* upto *Ashvina Sud.* 9 by Brahmins. On *Ashvina Sud.* 9 a pandal '*lata mandap*' (40' x 30') is erected in the open ground in front of the temple at about 2 p.m. The pandal is erected with the help of 21 wooden poles tied together by ropes.

Ashvina Sud. 10 (*Dasara* day) is the important day of the fair. The '*ghata*' installed in the temple is removed early in the morning and '*abhishek*' is performed at about 7 a.m. In the noon the '*chaughada*' and the temple flag are worshipped. *Arati* is then performed at about 5 p.m. The deity is kept in the palanquin on a specially erected altar called '*makhar*' at 12 mid-night and carried in procession from the temple to the border of the town for '*simollanghan*' to the accompaniment of music. Persons from all castes and creeds among Hindus attend the procession and everyone tries to touch the palanquin and utters the words "*Lakshmi Raman Govinda*". When the procession reaches the river Amna, fireworks are displayed. The palanquin procession then returns back to the temple early in the morning. Many *suvasinis*, married women with their husbands living worship the deity and the palanquin and wave *arati* at 12 mid-night. On *Ashvina Sud.* 11 *abhishek* is performed to the deity by the *pujaris* and programmes of '*kirtan*' and '*bhajan*' are arranged in the temple from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m. and 4 p.m. to 6 p.m.

On *Ashvina Vad.* 4 the programmes of *lahit*, '*Kirtan*', etc., are arranged. Curds and parched rice are sprinkled on the pilgrims.

in the morning. This is called '*dahi handi futane*'. Then the deity is placed in the shrine on its throne and the '*lata mandap*' is dismantled.

Mahaprasad (meals) is served to the pilgrims by the *Devasthan* for 8 days from *Ashvina Sud.* 10. This is called '*mahapangat*'. There is also a '*mahapangat*' on *Ashvina Vad.* 4 to all the pilgrims by the *Devasthan* and everybody tries to share in the meal as it is deemed to be the deity's '*prasad*'.

The pilgrims are accommodated in the '*dharmashalas*' built in front of the temple. Some, however, stay in private houses on payment of nominal rent. Some pass their nights in the open ground or in the sheds temporarily erected at the site of the fair.

Water from the wells in and around the town is used for drinking purposes. Water from river Amna is also made available to the pilgrims for drinking.

The main items of entertainment at the fair are touring talkies, '*tamasha*', cradles, swings, death-well, magic feats and exhibitions.

The fair is famous for the trade in wooden carts '*damani*'. Approximately 400 to 500 '*damanis*' are brought and sold in the fair. The selling price of a '*damani*' ranges from Rs. 350 to Rs. 400 and the total sale of '*damanis*' amounts to two lakh rupees approximately. Some stalls of brass and copper utensils are also opened at the site of the fair. In addition shops of materials required for worship, viz., flowers, *kumkum*, coconut, etc., sweetmeats, stationery, photographs, betel leaves, and '*kirana*' are also opened in the fair. It is said that the fair was famous in olden days for trade in '*Kathiavadi*' horses.

A fair committee for looking after the internal management of the fair is appointed under the supervision of Tahsildar by the orders of the Collector of the District. Police staff is also deputed during the fair for the maintenance of Law and Order."

Municipality.—The municipality was established at Deulgaon Raja in 1949 and it covers an area of 3.86 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 11 members.

During 1961-62 the total income and expenditure of the municipality amounted to Rs. 1,97,886 and Rs. 2,05,808, respectively.

During 1965-66, the total income* of the municipality was Rs. 2,62,966. It was composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 1,25,861; revenue derived from municipal properties, Rs. 193; grants and contributions from the Government, Rs. 1,20,215 and income from miscellaneous sources Rs. 16,697.

During the same year the total expenditure of the municipality came to Rs. 2,20,715 comprising general administration, Rs. 16,520; collection charges, Rs. 47,532; public safety Rs. 8,453; public health and convenience, Rs. 52,261; public works, Rs. 2,921; public instruction, Rs. 92,535 and miscellaneous expenditure, Rs. 493

*During 1973-74 total income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 6,98,000 and Rs. 6,63,000.

DEULGHAT

Deulghat (Chikhli T., 20° 31' N., 76° 10' 30" E., p. 6915): A village famous for ruined *Hemadpanti* temples is situated on the Penganga, 6 miles to the south-west of Buldhana, the district headquarters. It appears originally to have been a very small village though the place is of considerable antiquity. Its oldest name of Devli was probably derived from *Hemadpanti* temples, the ruins of which still remain. From the fact that such temples, for whatever object, have almost invariably been built in retired places, it is to be supposed that the present village is of a later date than these ruins, and possibly this village was first built during the troubled period of the Muhammedan invasions, which caused the people of the plains to disperse and seek shelter in secluded parts of the hilly country.

The weekly market is held at Deulghat on Friday.

In the time of the Emperor Aurangzeb the village was considerably augmented (about A.D. 1700). One of his chiefs, Nasar-ud-din, had been sent into the Deccan to quell disturbances. The seat of the *paragana* was Girda, on the hills, about 8 miles from Devli. Nasar-ud-din on his arrival found Girda quite unsuited for headquarters, and looking out for a better place, the extensive plains of Devli at once led to a decision in its favour; and he settled there with his whole army and retinue. The intolerant proselytizing spirit of the master was not absent in the deputy and Nasar-ud-din displayed his hatred of Hindu institutions by immediately pulling down the magnificent temples near his residence; the materials were utilised in constructing private buildings, and a small fort on the boundary of the village. The memory of the old boundary was preserved in the ceremony of killing a buffalo on the *Dasara* holiday every year. The place has been called Deulghat at the least from the end of the seventeenth century, as it is mentioned by Thevenot, who passed by it on his way from Golconda to Burhanpur. The pass up the hills just south of the town is evidently, of some antiquity, and was once much more frequented than it is now.

It was an able Tahsildar named Sakhanand who raised the rampart round the town to keep out marauders, who planted the numerous mango trees round the village, and who laid out most tasteful gardens. In the time of Sakhanand the population of the village was mostly of the Rajput caste, whom he enlisted as good soldiers. After the death of their patron the Rajputs were supplanted by Muhammedans, who had then great political preponderance.

DHALSAVANGI

Dhalsavangi (Chikhli T., p. 1,229): This is a village in Chikhli tahsil situated 15 miles to the south-west of Buldhana, the district headquarters. In the village, close by, is an old temple of Devi called Murdadi situated over a picturesque spot in the

midst of hills covered with forest. The temple was partly rebuilt in the beginning of this century and it consists of three shrines one fairly big in the middle and the other two, one on each side of it. The principal shrine holds the image of Murdadi which is very large, ferocious looking and is crimson coloured while the shrines on the two sides have images of Kalika and Mahadeva, respectively. Behind the temple is a square masonry cistern into which three separate springs flow through cowhead (*gomukh*) gargoyles. Two fairs are held each year in honour of the deity on the 15th day of the bright fortnights of the months of *Kartika* (November) and *Chaitra* (April). The assemblage at the fairs is, however, not considerable and ranges between 200 and 300 persons who come to make their offerings to the Goddess.

DHANORA

Dhanora (Jalgaon T., p. 1,828): A village in Jalgaon tahsil is situated four miles from the motorable road leading to Jalgaon. It lies four miles to the north of Asalgaon S. T. stop which is 13 miles from Nandura on Nandura-Jalgaon road and 5 miles to the west of Jalgaon tahsil headquarters. The village is approachable from Asalgaon by a cart road. The nearest bus stop to Dhanora is Asalgaon above referred to. The State Transport and private buses are run on this road during the period of the fair. The pilgrims from neighbouring areas, however, mostly come on foot or by bullock-carts.

The village is famous for an annual fair held in honour of a saint Mahasiddha Buva to whom a temple has been dedicated. According to a legend the saint came to this place in the train of two deities, who selected the spot and vanished, leaving him invested with full miraculous powers. The shrine is noted for its healing power over snake-bites and scrofulous symptoms. Cure from mad-dog bites are also ascribed to the shrine. As per the old Buldhana District Gazetteer published in 1910 the peculiarity of the ceremony was that persons favoured by the deity were required to bark like dogs in the temple and through the fair. After this ceremony a dinner consisting of bread and meat was partaken of by all those present on the occasion.

"The temple of Mahasiddha Buva is situated to the extreme north of the village *gaathan*. It is said the temple was built about 400 years back. It is built with bricks in lime mortar and measures 50' x 30'. The front wall of the temple has got three arches. The spire of the temple is approximately 50' high. The construction is an old one. The entrance to the shrine is through an eastern door at the left of which a replica of Mahasiddha Buva is installed for the Harijans to worship and pay homage to the Saint. An open space is provided on all the sides of the temple. A '*linga*' of Mahadeva and an image of Nandi are installed under a '*pimpal*' tree. At the north of the temple there is a well. The lamp-pillar in the temple compound is about 30' in height.

The image of Shri Mahasiddha Buva is 3½' in height and 2½' in width and is believed to be a self-existent one. It is made of stone and is besmeared with red lead.

The hereditary priests of the deity, four in number, are of Maratha caste. They worship the deity by yearly turns.

The deity is worshipped twice a day at about 5-30 a.m. which is followed by an "*arati*" and distribution of "*prasad*" amongst those present. In the evening at about 7 p.m. only an "*arati*" is performed. On every *Shravana* Sunday '*bel*' leaves are offered to the deity. On other Sundays the leaves of '*nilgul*' tree are offered.

On every Sunday in the month of *Shravana* as also on every '*ekadashi*' day a programme of '*bhajan*' is also performed by the villagers. Occasionally '*namasaptah*' for a day or for 7 days is celebrated at the temple and '*bhajan*' and '*harikirtan*' are performed during this period.

It is not customary to offer a '*naivedya*' of cooked food to the deity daily but it is offered occasionally and that also by the devotees. On *Magha Sud.* 15 (full moon day) '*naivedya*' of sweet dishes like *puran poli* is made to the deity by the priest.

Mahasiddha Buva is believed to be capable of fulfilling the desires of his devotees. People, therefore, make vows before the deity by applying red lead and offering coconut or 1¼ *seers*, or 5 *seers* or 5 *payahis* of grains. Some also release cows, bullocks or goats in the name of the deity. The images of the deity, horses, etc., of gold or silver are offered to the deity in return on fulfilment of the vows. The vows are made on Sundays. Before a vow is uttered the devotee applies red lead to the deity. He/She places the leaves of '*nilgul*' tree on the left and right side of the bosom of the deity, gives expression to his/her desires and the vow to be offered. It is believed that the desire is fulfilled if the leaves on the right side of the bosom of the deity fall on the ground. If the leaves from the left side of the bosom of deity fall, then it is believed, the desire will not be fulfilled.

On the first day of the fair, i.e., *Magha Sud.* 11, the priest worships a bamboo pole called '*kathi*' about 40' to 50' in height. Flags are wound around the pole and a turban is tied at its top. The pole is then carried to the temple in procession and is tied to the lamp-pillar. One stanza (ओवी) of a religious song in praise of the deity is recited at this time. Specific stanzas are for the different days of the fair which are recited on those days.

On the 5th day (*Magha Sud.* 15), which is the last and important day of the fair, the priest and his wife take bath early in the morning and put on new clothes. Materials of worship such as '*kumkum*', turmeric powder, red powder, grains of rice, coconut, flowers, camphor, incense sticks, etc., are placed in a plate. Jangling bells are tied at the ankles of the priest who takes a bunch of peacock feathers in his hand. The priest and his wife

then carry the materials of worship along with a ram and a goat both of the same colours, to the temple in a procession. The procession is headed by musicians. A large number of pilgrims participate in the procession.

On reaching the temple the couple pour cold water on the goat and the ram and they are made to run towards the deity. They are later released in the name of the deity.

An 'arati' is then performed before the deity. The programmes of releasing the goat and the ram lasts from 11-00 a.m. to 3-00 p.m.

On this day it is customary to cook the food offered to the deity in earthen pots. Hence the earthen pots required for cooking the food are carried in procession to the house of the priest from the house of the village potters—"manache kumbhar". The food cooked is called "bhandara". This programme takes place at about 7-00 p.m.

The priest and his wife then carry materials of worship and cooked food comprising five "chapatis", "puranpolis", "rodgas" of 1.25 payali gram, etc., to the temple in procession to worship the deity and offer cooked food at the gathering of the pilgrims. The food so sprinkled is called "mahaprasad" and every one is eager to get a bit of it. The programme is called "bhandara phutane".

After this all return to the house of the priest in procession and a dinner is given to all the pilgrims at about 9 p.m. It is believed that the cooked food is not exhausted until the last pilgrim has taken his meals.

The pilgrims then return to the temple and pay homage to the deity.

The pilgrims worship the deity with leaves of "bel" tree, flowers, incense sticks, etc., and offer coconuts and coins.

The pilgrims are mostly from Buldhana, Akola, Amravati, Yavatmal and Jalgaon districts and belong to Kunbi, Maratha, Leva Gujar castes. The Gonds, Korkus and Banjaras from Madhya Pradesh also attend the fair in large numbers. The aggregate congregation at the fair is approximately 30,000 to 40,000.

No "dharmashalas" or sheds are provided at the side of the fair or in the village to accommodate the pilgrims. They are accommodated in the village school and in private houses. Some pass the nights under the trees in the open. River and well water treated with chlorine, etc., is provided for drinking purposes. Three new wells are constructed by the Gram Panchayat for this purpose.

The main items of entertainment at the fair are "tamashas", cinema-shows, swings, merry-go-round, etc.

The Panchayat Samiti collects ground rent from the holders of the stalls erected by traders at the rate of 35 to 50 paise per square foot.

During the fair "damanis" are brought and sold at the fair. The price of a "damani" ranges from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 approximately. Brass utensils, toys, sweet-meats, flowers and other materials of worship are the other commodities sold at the fair.¹

DHOTRA NAIK

Dhotra Naik (Chikhli T., p. 1303): Dhotra Naik is a village located 18 miles to the south of Chikhli, the tahsil headquarters. During the reign of the Bhosales of Nagpur, many Maratha* families from the village left the place, went to Nagpur and rose to prominence under the Bhosales.

The village has three old temples. The one about a quarter of a mile south of the village, in the fields, is the most important. It is a temple of Shiva and faces the east. It consists of a shrine and closed *mandapa* (canopy) and has but one entrance on the east. Upon the south and north sides of the *mandapa* where other temples would have two other entrances with their porches, there are here two deep recesses off the *mandapa* like shallow shrines without door-ways. Four plain pillars support the ceiling of the *mandapa*. The pilasters are built in sections with the courses of the wall masonry and are not as in earlier work single shafts built into and against the wall; this is a sign of late work. The bracket capitals of the pillars have the cobra ornament upon them. In the shrine is a *linga*. The dedicatory blocks over the door-ways have been left plain, no image having been carved upon them. The exterior of the temple is fully moulded in ornamental bands, but there are no images whatever, not even the usual three niches round the walls of the shrine. There seems little doubt that these temples, more or less devoid of figure sculpture upon the exterior, represent the true *Hemadpanti* class if we believe that Hemadpant or Hemadri, minister to the Yadav kings of Devagiri, set a particular style and built a good deal himself. In this temple bands of chequered squares are used as ornament, i.e., the surface of the stone is marked out into niche squares and every alternate one is sunk. This was a favourite and often characteristic ornament in every early temples such as those of the Gupta period. This building is conserved by Government. On the west of the village is another old temple, but it is very much dilapidated. It consists of a shrine and *mandapa* with a porch and entrance on the east. The whole of the *mandapa* has fallen with the roofing of the porch. The exterior was severely plain. On the north-west of the village is another old ruined shrine with a closed *mandapa*, the outer casing of the walls having gone. The shrine is empty. The temple faces, the east. In a row over the shrine door-way are nine faces, the third from each end having carved tusks at the corners of the mouth; otherwise the faces are alike. These temples represent the true *Hemadpanti* class.

¹ *Fairs and Festivals, 1961*.
* *Varhadcho Itihas*—Yadav Madhav Kale, 1924.

The view that the temple was built some time during the age of the Guptas is not correct. It is now presumed that the temple was constructed during the period of the Later Chalukyas*.

ITKHED

Itkhed (Jalgaon T., p. 196).—It is a small village in Jalgaon tahsil situated 12 miles to the south-east of Jalgaon, the tahsil headquarters.

'The village owes its importance to the existence of a temple of Dattatreya which is visited every Thursday by numbers of people in search of relief from various ailments. Those afflicted with evil spirits are supposed to derive special benefit from a visit to the shrine. They burn camphor, burst into paroxysms of dancing and crying before the God, and then plunge three times into a deep pool of water, whence they emerge cleansed and freed from their afflictions. Three *dharmashalas* have been built for the accommodation of visitors. A religious fair is held here in the light fortnight of *Chaitra* (April), and the value of camphor then consumed is estimated at Rs. 500'.¹

JALGAON

Jalgaon (Tahsil HQ., 21° 3' N., 76° 35' E., p. 14,788).—The town is the headquarters of the Jalgaon tahsil and is situated 8 miles to the south of the Satpuda range of hills, and 16 miles from the Nandura railway station on the Central Railway. The town is called as Jalgaon-Jamod to distinguish it from Jalgaon, the headquarters of a district of the same name formerly known as East Khandesh. It is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as a *paragana* town in the *sarkar* of Narnala.

The town is famous for the temple dedicated to *Raja Bhartruhari* in the north-west quarter of the town. A fair is held in honour of the *Raja* on *Nagpanchami* day in every *Shravana* (August). There is a small *masjid* in the town which has an inscription partly in Arabic and partly in Persian.

The municipality was established at Jalgaon in 1931. The municipal council is composed of 10 members, one seat each being reserved for scheduled castes and women. During the year 1961-62 the total receipts of the municipality were Rs. 1,16,561 of which Rs. 48,352 accrued from municipal taxes, the *per capita* municipal tax being Rs. 4.00. During the year 1964-65² the total receipts of the Jalgaon municipality were Rs. 1,21,415 of which the receipts from municipal taxes were to the extent of Rs. 59,799, the *per capita* municipal tax being Rs. 4.93.

There are two primary health centres in the town besides one allopathic dispensary and one ayurvedic dispensary and one family planning centre. The Indian English Middle School conducted by the Government and the New Era High School cater to the

**Varhadcha Itihas*—Yadav Madhav Kale, 1924, p. 417.

¹ *Buldhana District Gazetteer*, 1910, p. 421.

² During 1972-73 the income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 4,35,000 and Rs. 4,36,000.

educational needs of the people. There is also a Government rest house. In the town is the branch of the District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd.

JAMBHORA

Jambhora (Chikhli T., p. 374) : A small village lying 18 miles south of Buldhana was formerly granted as an *inam* to Yelluji, a favourite deity of carpenters. Formerly the patils of the village belonged to that caste and held a *sanad* engraved on an iron plate bearing the seal of the Emperor Shah Jahan. 'The temple was said to have been built more than 200 years ago. Of about the same date are two large *baravs* (wells with steps) with a small tank in the centre; behind which flows a small stream called *Sita-nhani* or the bathing place of Sita, the wife of Rama'.*

JAMOD

Jamod (Jalgaon T., p. 6,052) : It is a village in Jalgaon tahsil situated 6 miles to the north-east of Jalgaon, the tahsil headquarters. It was once a place of considerable importance and famous for its vines. To the north of the village is a temple of Mahadeva with a reservoir to its south. There is a *dargah* or mausoleum of a Muhammedan saint Pir Pavalad Shah, said to have been built in the time of Ala-ud-din Ghorī, and also a *masjid*. The village is also known as Khel Lon Jamod.

A fort¹ was constructed at Jamod during the days of the *Navabs* of Elichpur most probably Ismail Khan. In 1841², a person named Mugut Rav who claimed descent from the Shindes, raised an army and defeating the Nizam's officers in the fort of Jamod, hoisted the Bhosles' flag on the fort. However, he was subsequently defeated and Nizam's rule was restored.

JANEPHAL

Janephal (Mehkar T., p. 4,600) : This village, is about 20 miles north of Mehkar, was for a year or two previous to 1867 the headquarters of the district. The weekly bazar is held here on Saturdays which is a large cattle market. The village is pleasantly situated with many fine trees in the neighbourhood, and here and there may be traced the foundations of old construction. The village *gadhi* is of an unusual size, but of no special interest. It formerly belonged to the Lakhuji Jadhav family of Deulgaon Raja. In the middle of the village is a small temple dedicated to Maruti. It stands on a masonry dias covered with a tin roof. In front of the temple are two *dipmals*. The one to the left of the temple is said to sway sideways when shaken from the top. Besides, there are temples dedicated to Maruti, Bhalachandreshvara, Mahadeva and Ghrushneshwara.

There is a *samadhi* of the saint Avadhutananda also known as Mukundaraja. By the side of the *samadhi* is the temple of

* *Buldhana District Gazetteer*, 1910, p. 427.

¹ *Varhadcha Itihas*, Yadav Madhav Kale, 1924, p. 128.

² *Ibid.*

Dattatreya constructed through public contributions. The *padukas* of this saint who was born in *Shaka* 1765 and who took *samadhi* in *Shaka* 1843, are kept there. By the side of the temple is a well with steps leading downwards. The well water is not used for drinking purposes.

Around the village are seven temples known as Saptarshi dedicated to Gomeshwara (Gautameshwara), Varaparna (Valmiki), Bagadal Svami, Delap, Vadali (Vashishtha), Isadi (Vishvamitra) and Vagdeva. There are waterfalls near the temples of Varaparna and Gomeshwara. All the temples are said to be of considerable antiquity.

Connected by motorable roads with Chikhli, Mehkar and Buldhana, the village has a police station, a school upto S.S.C. standard, a primary school upto the VIIth standard conducted by the Zilla Parishad, a primary health centre and a veterinary sub-centre also conducted by the Zilla Parishad and a branch post office. Jowar, cotton and wheat are the principal crops of the village mostly produced on well irrigation.

The *Navaratra* fair at Janephal is attended by more than 2,000 people.

KALAMBESHVAR

Kalambeshvar (Mehkar T., p. 2,113): This village 12 miles to the north of Mehkar, the tahsil headquarters, is famous for the temple of Padmavati. In the middle of the village is an old *kunda* or reservoir, square in shape. Steps leading down to the water surround its four sides with a platform half-way down and upon one side is a little shrine of Padmavati Devi.

KHAMGAON

Khamgaon (HQ., 20° 43' N., 76° 38' E., RS., p. 53,692): This is the headquarter of the tahsil of the same name. The town is connected by railway to Jalamb on the Bombay-Nagpur route of the Central Railway. It is also a headquarters of a sub-division.

The cotton trade at Khamgaon dates from about the year 1820, when a few merchants opened shops and began to trade in ghee, raw thread and a little cotton. The place is said to owe its start in commercial life to the good management of one Jetal Khan, a revenue collector, who invited and encouraged traders. But the settlement of capitalists here is ascribed to a characteristic accident. The great camps of Pendharis were followed by many merchants and brokers who made big gains by buying up the booty. In 1818 Colonel Doveton broke up a large horde of Pendharis at a village close to Khamgaon. They were forced to disband and scatter, so the honest prize agents of this camp settled at Khamgaon and their descendants became virtuous dealers of cotton in particular and other merchandise in general. In 1870, the town was said to be the largest cotton mart in India.

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However, it is no longer the case though the town still has a considerable trade in cotton. There are 22 ginning and pressing factories in the town. The weekly market is held on Thursdays and is very largely attended during the busy season. It is also a cattle market. A regulated market is also established in the town.

The general appearance of the town is picturesque. It is surrounded by low irregular hills, while in the hollow, in and about the town, trees are plentiful. Besides the courts of the Assistant and the Additional Sessions Judge and those of the Civil Judge (Senior Division) and Civil Judge (Junior Division), there are the offices of the Sub-Divisional Officer, Tahsildar and Panchayat Samiti. There is also a post and telegraph office. There are two hospitals in the town, one managed by the Government and the other managed by a private institution aided by the Government. The educational facilities are provided, by a number of primary schools and by seven high schools, viz., the Government Multipurpose High School, the Municipal High School, the New Era High School, the National High School, the Kela High School, the Anjuman Madhya Pradesh High School and the Government Girls' School. The G. S. College also provides facilities for higher education. There are two police stations. The municipal office was situated in a club building many years ago. It has now been shifted to its new premises.

The town proper is split in two by a large *nallah* which runs from east to west. To cross it, there is a large bridge on the Chikhli Road as also a large causeway in the heart of the town which has grown on all sides. There was a large fort, a *gadhi*, which is no more in existence. Near the place where the *gadhi* was located, is a large *vesa* or gateway which clearly belonged to the fortifications of the former village. There are a temple of Maruti which is possibly of some antiquity, a handsome temple of Balaji, two fine Jain temples, a few lesser temples and four small mosques. The Mukteshwara *Ashrama* is conducted by the Bharatiya Samarth Dharma Rashtra Dharma Pracharak Mission which has a few branches in Bombay and some other places in the State.

Municipality.—The municipality was established at Khamgaon in 1887. It is now governed under the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965. It covers an area of 13.36 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 30 members of whom 28 are elected and two co-opted. From amongst the elected members one seat is reserved for the scheduled castes and two for women.

The municipal administration is conducted by various committees such as the Standing Committee, the Public Health Committee, the Water Works and Drainage Committee, the Education Committee, the Public Works Committee and the Planning and Development Committee. The President of the municipality is the Chairman of the Standing Committee while for other committees the chairmen are elected from amongst the councillors.

During 1968-69, the total income * of the municipality including extraordinary and debt-heads amounted to Rs. 32,18,687-00 and consisted of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 16,40,265-00; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 1,2,158-00; grants and contributions, Rs. 5,72,250-00 and income from miscellaneous items, Rs. 4,65,063-00. Extraordinary and debt-heads accounted for Rs. 4,19,951-00.

During the same period the total expenditure of the municipality including extraordinary heads came to Rs. 30,46,269-00. It was composed of general administration and collection charges, Rs. 9,42,531-00; public safety, Rs. 71,690-00; public health and convenience, Rs. 9,76,415; public instruction, Rs. 4,94,540-00; grants and contributions, Rs. 550-00 and expenditure on miscellaneous items, Rs. 73,469. The expenditure on extraordinary heads was Rs. 4,87,074-00.

Primary education has been made compulsory in the town one high school. During 1968-69, the municipality spent since 1931. The municipality conducts 16 primary schools and Rs. 3,99,769 on primary education and Rs. 74,771 on higher education. Besides the municipal high school, there are many other schools conducted by private institutions.

In addition to the main hospital at Khamgaon, there is one Government Jubilee Memorial Hospital for women, one child welfare centre, one leprosy centre and one Ayurvedic dispensary. The veterinary dispensary is conducted by the municipality. The town is occasionally subject to the epidemics of cholera and small-pox and the municipal authorities take prompt measures to contain the incidence whenever these diseases break out in an epidemic form.

At present water is supplied to the town from the storage tank known as the Jamuna storage tank constructed for the purpose by the municipality. The municipality has also constructed water works at Sutala at the cost of Rs. 10 lakhs. The municipality has also prepared a scheme estimated to cost about Rs. 20 lakhs to augment the supply of water. For carrying of nightsoil, the municipality has constructed R.C.C. drainage. The municipality maintains two mutton markets and two vegetable markets. The municipality has under its jurisdiction roads 27 miles and 7 furlongs in length of which 4 miles 4 furlongs are asphalted, 13 miles 2 furlongs are metalled and 9 miles and 3 furlongs are unmetalled. The municipality maintains four gardens viz., the Jayastambha garden, the Nataraja garden, the Jamuna Tank garden and the Reservoir garden.

There are two crematoriums and eight burial grounds in the town. These are maintained by the respective communities.

The temple of Balaji is located in the Sarafa part of the town just by the side of the Jain *mandir*. It has a spacious *sabhamandapa* with three arched facades. It is a double-storeyed

*During 1973-74 the total income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 47,01,000 and Rs. 45,43,000.

structure, the upper storey being used by the *pujari* as his residence. The shrine measures only 10' x 10' and the entrance door is plated with silver with finely executed patterns. The side walls of the shrine are studded with coloured marble tiles also bearing flower patterns. Above the entrance door are painted two beautiful images of Lord Krishna. On the lintel is an image of Gana-pati also plated with silver. The studded tiles, besides bearing flower patterns, have images of peacocks and gods and goddesses like Lakshmi and Vishnu. Above the studded half to the right, in the wall is an illustration of Sheshashayi Bhagavan with Narada, Hanuman and Garuda in attendance. On the left is an illustration of dancing *gopis*. In front in a canopy is housed an image of Hanuman. The temple has been entirely rebuilt in recent years. On the door of the temple are the images of Dattatreya, Krishna, Mahadeva and other deities. Every year the festival of *Dasara* is celebrated at the temple.

KOTHALI

Kothali (Malkapur T., p. 2,395) : It is a village in Malkapur tahsil situated about 15 miles to the south of Malkapur and about 12 miles to the south-west of Pimpalgaon Raja, at the foot of the Ajanta hills on the Vishvaganga river. In the village are two temples, one dedicated to Mahadeva and the other dedicated to Chintamani Mahadeva.

'The largest, the temple of Mahadeva, is in the village on the bank of the Vishvaganga river and consists of three shrines with one central *mandapa*. It faces the east and has Ganesh over the shrine door-way. The door-ways are elaborately carved. On either side of the shrine door-way are five figures with Vishnu in the centre. In the main shrine is an old square *salunka* with a circular hole for a *linga*; but the latter has gone. In the side shrine on the north is a *linga* while the shrine on the south is empty. The *mandapa* has no pillars. The porch in front of the entrance has fallen, the platform only remaining. In front of this porch stand the ruins of what was once, perhaps, the Nandi pavilion, but it is ruined. Beyond this, again, are the remains of the main entrance to the temple courtyard with its steps. The *Shikhara* was probably built of brick work, since some brick masonry remains upon the roof and no carved *Shikhara* stones exist. The roof is carved with bushes and shrubs, and the building is surrounded by houses and is in a filthy state. The second temple is outside the village to the south-east. It is dedicated to Chintamani Mahadeva and faces west. It consists of a shrine and *Mandapa*, the latter being supported on four pillars; Ganesh is on the lintel. The shrine door-way is carved, but not so elaborately as in the first temple. On each side of the shrine door-way are three figures, Shiva being in the centre. Both side porches are closed with mud walls. The temples are now under Government conservation'.

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, p. 435.

LONAR

Lonar (Mehkar T. ; 19° 59' N, 76° 33' E. ; 9,030): This big village in Mehkar tahsil, situated at a distance of 12 miles south of Mehkar, the tahsil headquarters, is one of the oldest settlements in Berar, tradition ascribing its foundation to the *Krita Yuga*, the first of the Hindu ages. The story of the demon Lonasura which is given in the *Skanda-Purana* narrates that the demon lived in a subterranean abode from which he used to devastate the surrounding country, even aspiring to wage war against the gods themselves. They, becoming alarmed, petitioned Vishnu to destroy him(and he, assuming the form of a beautiful youth—Daityasudana—and having won by his beauty the assistance of the demon's two sisters, discovered his abode. With the touch of his toe he is said to have unearthed the giant, and having overcome him in a single combat, buried him in the pit which was his home.

The lake in the town is supposed to be the den of the demon, and a conical hill near the village Datephal, about 36 miles to the south-west, is said to be the lid of the giant's den which Vishnu removed with his toe. The lake surrounded by mountains on three sides presents an excellent view of the surrounding area. The water of the lake is supposed to be the blood, and the salts which it contains, the decomposed flesh of the demon.

However, the *Lonara Mahatmya* has a different version to give. It states that the sage Kashyapa among the seven sages married eighteen wives, of whom were born gods, *daityas*, etc. Lonasura was the son born to one of his wives. He was the first *daitya*. In place of the present Lonar was a mountain where Lonasura engrossed himself in appeasing Mahadeva by prayers. Pleased by his *tapasya* Mahadeva presenting himself in front of Lonasura asked him for a boon or *vara*. When Lonasura was just asking Mahadeva to bless him with immortality, the thirty-three crores of gods uttered in one voice that a boy of five years would kill Lonasura. On hearing this, Mahadeva retired to Kailasa, his permanent abode. Lonasura afterwards won all the three worlds and set himself on Indra's throne.

At the head of the path that leads down to the lake is a perennial spring locally supposed to issue out from the Ganga. This is said to have been proved by a sage who threw a stick into the Ganga at Benaras and running all the way to Lonar arrived just in time to see it issuing from the spring. A picturesquely situated group of temples, all masonry structures held in great veneration and visited by many pilgrims, surrounds the spring which issues from a *Gomukha* and falls into a small tank in which pilgrims bathe. There are numerous temples round the lake itself, most of which are in ruinous condition.

As one moves towards the groups of temples that surround the spring on the east there is the temple of Narasimha. It is a masonry construction, the door jambs of which are decorated

with human figures as also with the figures of an elephant. The *mandapa* has four open pillars decorated with carved designs. The lintel of the entrance to the inner shrine is decorated with three images of Narasimha attended by female figures, the middle one being flanked by two elephants. The shrine is small and contains a besmeared image of Narasimha.

By the side of the temple of Narasimha, is a small temple of Ganapati in nichelike structure.

There is also a temple dedicated to Renukadevi with two decorated pillars flanking the porch. The temple has four open pillars, more artistically decorated than those of the Narasimha temple. With no inner shrine, the idol is placed on a pedestal leaning against the back wall. The front entrance to the temple is very sparsely decorated.

By its side is a small temple in which is the *linga* of Mahadeva. Slightly ahead is a *ovari* and by its side a small shrine dedicated to Vishnu, to the right of which is a *linga* housed under a canopy. Under this *linga* is the *Gomukh* from which the abovementioned water issues forth. It has been the source of potable water-supply to the town populace. To the right of this, there is yet another temple crowned by a *shikhara*. In the temple is the *linga* of Mahadeva with Nandi in the traditional sitting position.

Down below this group, in the vicinity of the salty lake is a temple of Kumaresvara also built in masonry. It is in *Hemadpanti* style of architecture.

In the centre of the town is the temple of Daityasudana built in honour of Vishnu's victory over the demon Lonasura. The temple faces east and is 105' in length and 84.5' in width. Considered to be the finest specimen of early Hindu architecture in Berar, it is built in the *Hemadpanti* style in the form of an irregular star, the exterior walls being covered with carved figures, the profusion and inferior workmanship of which seem to point to a fairly late date of its construction. It stands on a plinth about four or five feet in height, and the unfinished roof seems intended to have been built in a pyramidal form.

Located on the western end of the village, is the temple of Maruti. From the remains of the walls it appears that there was an extensive compound wall around the temple. Of this only the gate remains in a good condition. It is a masonry structure. Within the compound, there are remains of old buildings in bricks. They are in bad repairs. The temple itself is surrounded by yet another wall. The temple is widely known because of the peculiarity of the idol contained in it being in a sleeping position. The original idol nearly eight feet in length is hardly visible due to repeated coatings of red lead. At the top are set the marble images of Rama, Lakshmana and Sita. The shrine is small and is crowned by a vaulted *shikhara*. It is said that after the war with Ravana, Maruti came here for rest. The idol is

reported to be quite antique. The outer *mandapa* of the temple is constructed in bricks and is supported by wooden pillars. There are clusters on one side and a *linga* symbol housed under a canopy on the other. The lintel of the gate to the outer wall has a Ganapati image carved on it.

The Dasara fair is held in the honour of Shri Rangabhogvati. It is attended by about 10,000 persons.

MADHA

Madha (Chikhli T., p. 1,250) : It is a village in Chikhli tahsil situated 14 miles to the west of Buldhana, the district headquarters. The river Penganga takes its rise from a small spring of water at the foot of a low hill near the village. 'There was a small tank in the village some portions of which held water. As the water was stagnant the tank silted with the passage of time. An old *Hemadpanti* temple of Mahadeva was previously standing though it was all in ruins.'*

MAKNER

Madha (Malkapur T.; p. 750): A village six miles from Malkapur by a cart road and eleven miles by a motorable road is famous for the temple of Vitthala Rakhumai and the *samadhi* of Shri Sadguru Maharaj Maknerkar. Both the temple and the *samadhi* are of recent construction.

The space occupied by the structure along with the open courtyard measures 80' x 40'. The main entrance is through a spacious courtyard. There are also two side entrances which flank the *mandapa* containing the besmeared image of Hanuman. Also in the *mandapa* are a *linga* and Nandi image of considerable antiquity. The main shrine containing the images of Vitthala and Rakhumai is located at the farthest end of the *mandapa* with a circumambient passage around. Near the entrance there is a canopy-like structure raised on four pillars. Its top portion is decorated with the images of Ekanatha, Jnyaneshwara and Tukarama. The *mandapa* has a narrow gallery above, supported by twelve pillars with arches. The portion of the *mandapa* supported by pillars is tiled. The *mandapa* walls below as also above the gallery are illustrated with the paintings of saints and gods as also that of Shivaji, the founder of the Maratha Kingdom. In the gallery to the left are depicted Vyasa with Narada on the bank of the river Saraswati followed by Damaji with his wife and Vithoba in the Mahar incarnation. Last comes Krishna in the traditional style. To the right saint Janabai is depicted as engaged in grinding and Vithoba collecting the flour. Then comes the painting of the saint Namadeva. The last painting shows the scene depicting Namadeva requesting God Vitthal to accept food.

The illustrations in the *mandapa* to the left depict Namadeva and Sandipani, the *guru* of Lord Krishna, Jnyaneshwara,

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, p. 437.

Ramapanchayatana and lastly Tukarama shown as refusing gifts of gold from Shivaji in this order. Illustrations on the right depict Mahadeva with Nandi, Hanuman in praise of Rama, Dattatreya, Shravana taking his parents on a pilgrimage in a *kavadi* and Tulsidasa with Rama in this order.

The temple containing the *samadhi* of Mauli Maharaja has been constructed at a cost of about Rs. 2 lakhs. The saint was born on *Ashvina Purnima* in *Shaka* 1789 and took *samadhi* on *Bhadrapada Vadya* 10 in *Shaka* 1870.

MALGI

Malgi (Chikhli T., p. 565) : It is a village situated 20 miles to the south of Buldhana, the district headquarters. 'Here is a temple dedicated to Mahadeva and a subterranean spring, the water of which collects in a large *barav* (well with steps). This water is reported to benefit the covered buffaloe and to cure persons of their lameness. A cure requires three successive visits, and the place is very popular during the Hindu month *Chaitra* (March-April).'*

MALKAPUR

Malkapur (Malkapur T.; 20°53' N, 76°15' E; RS.; p. 35,476): The headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, 28 miles to the north of Buldhana, the district headquarters, situated at an elevation of 900 feet is a railway station on the Bombay-Nagpur broad-gauge line of the Central Railway, 308 miles from Bombay and 213 from Nagpur.

History.—One of the old gates of the rampart of dressed stones had an inscription to the effect that it was erected in 1729 during the reign of Muhammad Malikkhan. Malkapur is mentioned in *Ain-i-Akbari* as the headquarters of a *paragana* in the *sarkar* of Narnala. The town is said to have been founded about five centuries back by a prince of the Faruqi house of Khandesh and is said to have been named by him after the princess, Malika, his daughter. But the story is improbable as no record of any journey in this direction by Miran Ghani Adil Khan, the Faruqi prince of the period has yet been traced. In 1761 the town was rich enough to pay Rs. 60,000 to the army of Raghunath Rav for exemption from plunder. The Nizams used to keep a force of about 20,000 men in this frontier district of their dominions. Daulatrav Shinde and Raghuji Bhosle were encamped near Malkapur when the British envoy Colonel Collins, after presenting General Wellesley's ultimatum, quitted Shinde's camp in 1803.

Malkapur was the scene of several petty battles between *zamin-dars*, rural *palukdars*, Rajputs and Musalmans, during the period between the beginning of the nineteenth century and the Assignment of Berar to the East India Company in 1853. The following extract taken from the Old Buldhana District Gazetteer published in 1910 gives an interesting account of one of these fights which took place in 1837.

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, pp. 437—438.

'..... In 1837 a Musalman shot dead a Rajput of Dattala who had insulted him at the Pimpalgaon fair. The act generated a blood feud, and twelve years later Lal Singh of Dattala, without warning or fresh provocation, assembled a band of nearly three thousand Hindus to avenge his relation's death. The fanatical Sikhs of Nanded on the Godavari sent a contingent of five hundred men and the first news of the impending attack came to the Musalmans of Malkapur from their friends at Patur, who sent hasty word that this formidable company was marching by. The Rajputs and Sikhs assaulted Malkapur. There was the usual street fighting, burning, sacking, and slaying, though not many lives were lost, and the Muhammedans were worsted. This was, however, only the first game of the rubber, for the Musalmans were flocking to the fray from neighbouring towns; from Burhanpur especially a strong body had set out. The police and the local militia under the *talukdar* were utterly powerless, but detachments of the Nizam's army¹ under Major Arthur Wyndham, then arrived, and found Malkapur empty and deserted. The Musalmans had been driven out and the Rajputs had retreated to Dattala, where they afterwards had a skirmish with the troops.'

General Description.—Malkapur is an important industrial centre in the district with a number of ginning and pressing and other factories. Being a tahsil headquarters it is a town of administrative importance with the Courts of Civil and Judicial magistrates, a telephone exchange, and offices of the tahsildars, panchayat samiti, post and telegraph, the Central Co-operative Bank, etc. With a regulated market the town is of commercial importance with considerable trade in cotton and jowar.

Municipality.—The municipality was established at Malkapur in 1906. It covers an area of 5.18 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 29 members.²

During 1961-62, the total income of the municipality was Rs. 6,26,374. The expenditure during the same year came to Rs. 6,73,763.

During 1965-66,³ the total income of the municipality was Rs. 10,84,278 composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 3,36,758; revenue derived from municipal properties, Rs. 35,557; grants and contributions from the Government, Rs. 3,80,715 and income from miscellaneous sources, Rs. 3,31,248.

During the same year the total expenditure of the municipality came to Rs. 10,89,585 comprising general administration, Rs. 52,719, collection charges, Rs. 1,07,462; public safety Rs. 24,182; public health and convenience, Rs. 2,55,613; public works, Rs. 31,611; public instructions, Rs. 3,17,647 and miscellaneous expenditure, Rs. 3,00,351.

¹ The Hyderabad contingent.

² *Buldhana District Census Handbook, 1961 Census.*

³ The total income of the municipality during 1970-71 including the opening balance was Rs. 21,72,000, while the total expenditure came to Rs. 21,68,000.

Objects.—Among the objects of interest in the town may be mentioned the *Jami Masjid*, the *Nagina Masjid*, the temple of Ramchandra, the temple of Dattatreya, Masumiya mosque and *dargah*, the temple of Gaurishankara and Nemivant *haveli*.

The *Jami masjid* is the oldest *masjid* in the town. Situated near the Kazi's house, this *masjid* is said to be older than the town. The *Nagina masjid* is situated in the heart of the town near the Gandhi Chaur. The Masumiya *masjid* near the Urdu High School is an insignificant structure. An *urus* is held in the *dargah* of Masumiya situated on the Burhanpur road for three days in December every year, and is attended by a large number of people.

The most interesting and modern of the objects is the Gaurishankar *mandir*. Constructed in 1952 by an industrialist of Malkapur on the Malkapur-Nandura road at a distance of about a mile from the railway station, it is a miniature replica of a peak of the Himalayas from where emerges the Ganga. It is built in stone and cement and shows signs of skilled craftsmanship. The small artificial hill thirty-five feet in height depicts the scene of *Gangavatharana* from the *puranas*. The story depicts Shankara bringing the Ganga to the earth after the marathon efforts done by Bhagiratha. At the top of the hill is a golden statue of the Ganga 5'—3" in height, with a pot (*kumbha*) in her hand pouring water. On the left of the statue of the Ganga, is the statue of Shankara with his hair dishevelled. To the right, are the statues of Parvati and Ganapati. Almost at the bottom of the hill is the statue of Nandi. The hill can be climbed up by a small passage with a flight of steps 2'—3" in width. Water is taken to the top of the hill in pipes and it juts out forcefully from the *kumbha* in the hands of the Ganga. The same then trickles down, again collected and taken to the top in a circular motion.

Besides these objects of interest, a number of public buildings have come up of late at Malkapur.

MEHKAR

Mehkar Town (Mehkar T., 20°10' N., 76°37' E., p. 16,196): The headquarters of the tahsil bearing the same name is situated 42 miles to the south-west of Buldhana, with which it is connected by road. The myth connected with the name of Mehkar is that many thousand years ago there lived a demon by name Meghankara, who, like the giant Lonasura, devastated the surrounding country and threatened even the gods themselves. Vishnu, appearing in the incarnation of Sharangadhara, put the demon to death, and the scene of the fight has since borne his name in the corrupted form of Mehkar. There are outside the town, traces of a *Hemadpanti* temple, which may be connected with the legend. A Muhammedan poet tells us that Mehkar is 795 years older than the *Hijra* era. Mehkar is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as the headquarters of a *sarkar* or revenue district. In 1769 the *Peshva* Madhav Rav accompanied by Rukn-ud-daula, the Nizam's minister, encamped at Mehkar while on his way to punish Janoji Bhosle for assisting in Raghunath Rav's insurrection.

General Doveton also encamped at Mehkar in 1817 on his march to Nagpur against Appa Saheb Bhosle who had violated the treaty of Devgaon. Formerly the town contained a thriving community of weavers and Momins, the latter being so rich that about 500 years ago they fortified the place and built up the fallen rampart on the gate which is still called by their name. An inscription on the gate fixes the date at 1488 A.D. The town was in a very prosperous state until the inroads of the Pendhars began, and these, together with the famine of 1803, completed its decline. It was formerly famous for the excellence of its dhotis. Mehkar at one time gave its name to the district. Of the *Hemadpanti* temple mentioned above nothing is now left except the retaining walls at the site on which the temple stood. Close by is a partly ruined *dharmashala* which was probably merely a subsidiary building to the temple. It was used during the late famine as a kitchen. Much of the building has now fallen. The *dharmashala* is about 72 feet square inside, and is formed by a deep covered colonnade with two rows of pillars surrounding a small central square courtyard 23 feet square. Twenty-five of the sixty pillars still stand and many others are scattered about the town. The marked absence of figure sculpture, and the confinement of the decoration on the pillars to geometrical and conventional leaf design, indicate a period later than the earliest inroads of the Muhammedans into Central India. On the high ground to the east of the town there is an old Muhammedan shrine called the *Panch Pir*, and about a mile to the north-east are the remains of a palace which are known as the *Kasbini-cha Mahal*. There are no other buildings of architectural merit in the town. The temple of Balaji finely situated in the centre of the town with a magnificent view of the surrounding country was built at a cost of a lakh and a half of rupees subscribed by the public to house an image of Vishnu which was found on the site in 1888 while some excavations were in progress. The image is of black marble, finely carved and is about ten and a half feet in height. Of its origin and date nothing is known. The temple has an extensive *sabhamandapa*, and close to it there is a big *dharmashala*. The town is situated on the Old Dak Line from Bombay to Nagpur on the slopes of a small hill at the foot of which flows the river Penganga, from which the main water-supply of the town is derived.

The following is the description of the archaeological remains at Mehkar given in the Old Buldhana District Gazetteer:—

'The *dharmashala* at Mehkar is about 72 feet square inside and is formed by a deep covered colonnade with two rows of pillars surrounding a small central square 23 feet square, which is open to the sky, and the pavement of which is sunk a few feet below the level of the colonnade. There were 60 pillars in all, of which 25 still stand. There is a marked absence of figure sculpture on this building, and the decoration on the pillars is almost entirely confined to geometric and conventional leaf designs, which, Mr. Cousens reasonably concludes indicates

a period later than the earliest inroads of the Muhammedans into Berar and the Deccan. The new temple of Balaji is of no antiquarian interest in itself, but it contains a broken Jain image, with the date *Samvat* 1272 (A.D. 1215) upon it, in a short inscription.

The gate known as the gate of the Momins in the walls of Mehkar bears an inscription consisting of a text from the twenty-sixth chapter of the *Koran*, which gives in a chronogram the date of the construction of the gate as A.H. 894 (A.D. 1488), which, it may be noticed, corresponds with that of the repair of Gavilgarh, and falls only two years before the time when Fatehullah Imad-ul-Mulk declared himself independent.'

Being the headquarters of the tahsil it has an office of the tahsildar, the headquarters of the Civil Judge (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrate, a police station, an office of the panchayat samiti and other administrative offices.

Besides the primary schools conducted by the municipality and others, educational facilities are provided in the town by the M.E.S. High School, the Janata High School, the Shivaji High School and the Jijamata Kanya Shala. In the town are the branches of the Buldhana District Central Co-operative Bank and the State Bank of India. There is also a telegraph office. Telephone facilities are also available in the town. The medical facilities to the town populace are provided by the municipal hospital with eight beds.

The cotton and agricultural produce market committee with cotton market established on January 18, 1928 and the agricultural produce market established on October 10, 1956 cover 328 villages of the tahsil, the commodities regulated being cotton, all kinds of food grains, oil seeds and gur.

Municipality.— The municipality was established at Mehkar in 1929. It covers an area of 5.28 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 11 members with two seats being reserved for the scheduled castes and one for women.

In 1961-62 the total income of the municipality was Rs. 2,34,348 as against the expenditure of Rs. 2,61,018. The *per capita* municipal tax was Rs. 12-98.

During the year 1965-66¹ the total income of the municipality was Rs. 3,17,849 and was composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 1,69,052; revenue derived from municipal properties, Rs. 5,113; grants and contributions from the Government Rs. 99,150 and income from miscellaneous sources, Rs. 44,534.

The expenditure during the same year came to Rs. 3,14,064 comprising general administration, Rs. 29,722; collection charges, Rs. 42,479; public safety, Rs. 15,244; public health and convenience Rs. 89,670; public works, Rs. 35,304; public instructions, Rs. 66,030 and miscellaneous expenditure, Rs. 35,615.

¹The total income of the municipality during 1970-71 including the opening balance was Rs. 5,37,000 while the expenditure was Rs. 5,35,000.

MEHUNA

Mehuna (Chikhli T.; p. 2124): This small village in Chikhli tahsil is famous as a place of abode of the saint Chokhamela. A legend¹ informs us that there was once a Patil at Koregaon. He was a devoted worshipper of Panduranga (Vithoba) of Pandharpur. He never used to eat anything unless a part of it was sent to Panduranga. One day he sent 125 mangoes to Pandharpur through a messenger. While the messenger and his wife were on their way to Pandharpur, Panduranga with a view to ascertaining the depth of his disciple's devotion, approached them in the form of a Brahmana and asked for a mango saying that he had not eaten anything for the past few days. But the messenger refused to oblige him and went on his course. He, however, explained to Panduranga that as he was faithfully bound to his owner he could not part with a single fruit. On being requested again his wife took pity upon the Brahmana and gave him one mango. The Brahmana found the fruit to be so sour that he returned it back to her. She, instead of keeping it along with other mangoes, placed the same in her lap. On reaching Pandharpur, the mangoes were given to the Badves. On counting, the messenger offered an explanation and narrated the entire story. When the messenger's wife was asked to produce the mango, she, surprisingly enough, found that instead of the mango, there was a small male child in her lap. The child later came to be known as the saint Chokhamela.

That the saint hailed from Mehuna was first brought to notice by one Narayan Kamble about 40 years back. He took *samadhi* at this place in 1965.

MOLA

Mola (Mehkar T., p. 1080): This small village in Mehkar tahsil is famous for the fair of Avalia Maharaj. The fair is held in November-December and is attended by about 10,000 persons.

NANDURA

Nandura (Malkapur T., 20° 49' N., 76° 31' E., RS., p. 20259): A town in the Malkapur tahsil is a railway station on the Bombay-Nagpur line of the Central railway and is 324 miles from Bombay. It is divided from a town of the same name (Nandura) by the river Dnyanganga. The town which previously was a small village was largely populated by dyers fleeing from the depredations of the Pendharis in the *paragana* of Pimpalgaon Raja towards the end of the eighteenth century. It attained, by the beginning of the 20th century, some commercial importance, as it had two cotton presses and three ginning factories. It was also famous for its dyeing industry and the *saris* woven here were of some repute. The potters of the place made a special kind of red *chatti* which is largely used at railway stations. The town was formerly noted for the cattle and carts brought for sale. The

¹ *Abhangachya Gatha* published by B. L. Pathak, Bombay.

carts known as *damnis* were sold for prices varying from Rs. 35 to Rs. 70, and people from long distances came to buy them. It was also a large market for the sale of cloth, timber and grains of all kinds. The estimated weekly sales amounted to Rs. 11,200. Now a weekly market is held on Monday.

Municipality.—The Municipality was established at Nandura in 1931. It covers an area of 5.67 square kilometres. The municipal council is composed of 16 members with one seat each being reserved for scheduled castes and women.

The total income of the municipality in 1961-62 was Rs. 2,65,884 and the expenditure during the same year came to Rs. 2,82,858. During 1965-66* the total income of the municipality was Rs. 3,56,306 composed of municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 1,62,371, revenue derived from municipal properties, Rs. 23,657; grants and contributions from the Government, Rs. 1,33,271 and income from miscellaneous sources, Rs. 37,007. During the same year the total expenditure of the municipality came to Rs. 3,60,388 and was composed of general administration, Rs. 16,713; collection charges, Rs. 66,998; public safety, Rs. 18,737; public health and convenience, Rs. 98,651; public works, Rs. 12,266; public instructions, Rs. 90,801 and miscellaneous expenditure, Rs. 57,222.

Besides the municipal primary schools, the C. S. Kothari Multipurpose school and Shri Shivaji High School, provide educational facilities in the town. There is a primary health centre in the town with 11 beds.

The cotton and agricultural produce market committee at Nandura with cotton market established on September 22, 1916 and the agricultural produce market established on October 1, 1959, cover villages within the radius of one mile. The commodities regulated are cotton, all kinds of grains, oil seeds, chillis and gur.

In the town are the offices of the District Central Co-operative Bank and the State Bank of India. It has a telegraph Office and a telephone exchange. There is a police station in the town as also a Government rest-house.

PAHURJIRA

Pahurjira (Khamgaon T., p. 3048): A village in Khamgaon tahsil situated 6 miles to the north of Khamgaon, the tahsil headquarters, is presumed to owe its name to the large colony of Jire Malis residing here.

A fair in honour of God Mahadeva is held here on *Chaitra Shuddha Chaturthi* (March-April) every year. More than four thousand people assemble at the time of the fair.

FATEHKHERDA (SAKHAR KHERDA)

Fatehkherda (Mehkar T.; 20° 13' N.; 76° 27' E.; p. 6533): Situated on the Bhogawati, an affluent of the Penganga, 12 miles

*Total income of the municipality during 1970-71 including the opening balance was Rs. 8,69,000 while the expenditure amounted to Rs. 8,43,000.

to the north-west of Mehkar the place was originally known as Sakharkherda, which, according to tradition, it had received from a well close by that yielded sugar. About the well it is said that some merchants transporting sugar threw it into the well on being attacked and hence the water from the well used to taste sugary for some time. The place is of considerable antiquity, and a local tradition says that a saint named Palasi Siddha settled in Sankhedi, a hamlet of the town. On being invited to come to live in the town he replied that he would not go to the town but that the town would come to him. The town gradually reached the hamlet. It was here, in 1724, that the battle which decided the Nizam's supremacy in the Deccan was fought between Nizam-ul-mulk Asaf Zah, the founder of the Nizam dynasty of Hyderabad and Mubariz Khan who represented the Moghal emperor. In memory of the victory the name of the town was changed to Fatchkhelda which now is known as Fatchkherda.

The old Gazetteer of Buldhana district has ascribed the cause of the decay of the village to the plunder of it by Shinde's troops on their way to Assaye in 1803 and the great famine of that year. The village has now extended to the vicinity of the *samadhi* of Palasi Siddha. Of the fortified wall around the village only one gate, viz., Mansing gate on the west still stands intact. Besides, a few bastions still exist here and there in a crippled condition. A weekly bazar is held on Fridays. There is a police station and a sub-post office. There are three primary schools one each for boys and girls and one with the Urdu medium conducted by the Zilla Parishad, one *Balak Mandir* also in a crippled condition. A weekly bazar is held on Fridays. There is conducted by private institutions. A civil and a veterinary dispensary are also conducted by the Zilla Parishad.

Mosque.—Among the objects of interest in the village, the significant one is a fine little mosque much resembling that at Rohankhed in the Malkapur tahsil, built by Khudavand Khan Mahdavi. Still in a good condition, the mosque is situated on an elevated place in the town with a Persian inscription showing the date of its construction as 1581 A.D. It has a three-arched facade and four free standing pillars. The latter have octagonal shafts with square caps and bases. Simple little rosettes decorate the cornice. A weekly bazar is held on Fridays. There is a central dome with stands upon an ornamental octagonal drum and four little lantern minars one at each corner. The mosque is a masonry work, only the top dome and the minar tops being of bricks and chunam. The mosque has a walled enclosure, the courtyard being cement-lined. It has an *inam* for its upkeep. The mosque is preserved under the Preservation of Monuments Act. At the back of the mosque is a small well-built water tank.

Palasi Siddha Math.—In memory of the saint, a large *math* has been constructed in which is installed a marble statue of Palasi Siddha in a sitting posture. Below it is a marble *linga* with a bust of Shankara. The door-frame of the room is plated

with silver. The lintel has an image of Ganapati, also plated with silver. From an inscription on the door panel, it appears that the saint took *samadhi* in *Shaka* 980. Outside the compound of the *math*, nearby, a tamarind tree marks the *samadhi* of the saint. It is believed by the devotees that in the vicinity there was a spot from where a cow used to emerge, and disappear after being milked by those present. This has now become legendary. The *math* is said to have been constructed about 500 years ago.

Besides, there is a temple of Ramananda Maharaja, a noted saint who is said to have taken *samadhi* about 35 years ago. Only the *padukas* of the Maharaja who hailed from Chandani village in Akola district are kept there and one of his disciples by name Pralhad Maharaja looks after the temple. Ramananda Maharaja took his *samadhi* at Gondavale in the district of Satara. A fair attended by about 5,000 people is held from *Magha Vadya Navami* to *Dwadashi*.

Ramananda Maharaja belonged to the Samartha *Sampradaya* and in the temple constructed in his memory a fine image of the Maharaja has been installed. Above the image in the background, is an idol of Balaji. Behind Balaji's idol, on the wall, is hung a picture frame of Gondavalekar Maharaja, the *Guru* of Ramananda Maharaja.

The Guikhedi *talav* about a mile distant to the west of the village irrigates about 100 acres of land through the water drawn by canals.

There is a tomb of Mubariz Khan, who was killed in the battle fought here in 1724, for the upkeep of which is granted an *inam* land.

PIMPALGAON DEVI

Pimpalgaon Devi (Malkapur T.; p. 1205): This village that owes its name to the existence of a temple of Devi in the village is situated 14 miles to the south-west of Malkapur, the tahsil headquarters. A big annual fair used to be held in the past here in honour of the Devi in the month of January (*Pausha Pournima*) which lasted for about 15 days and was attended by 25,000¹ people from Khandesh and other districts of Berar. Temporary shops for the sale of all kinds of goods used to be established and the value of sales was said to average Rs. 7,000. Carts of all description were largely brought from Khandesh and formed one of the principal articles of trade. As per 1961 census, about 10,000 people attend the fair.

PIMPALGAON NATH

Pimpalgaon Nath (Khamgaon T., p. 350): This small village, formerly in Malkapur tahsil lies about 18 miles to the south-east of Malkapur and 7 miles west by south of Pimpalgaon Raja. A great sage called Kambal Nath lived here in former day. He

¹ Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, p. 455

was one of the nine Nathas described in '*Nava Natha Grantha*' and was so famous that the villagers from the surrounding area affixed 'Natha' to their village name to distinguish it from villages of the same name located elsewhere. The village contains a large temple dedicated to the sage where a small annual fair is held.

PIMPALGAON RAJA

Pimpalgaon Raja (Khamgaon T., p. 6612): This village in Khamgaon tahsil, formerly in Malkapur tahsil, lying on the river Dnyanganga, 26 miles to the south-east of Malkapur and 10 miles from Nandura is said to have been founded about 900 years ago by a Raja or prince of the cowherd caste named Piratsingh. Another tradition is that a Raja and his family were buried alive in order to ensure the successful building of the fort. About 1619 A.D. there flourished a Hindu author of several works on theology by name Ganesh Devadnya. He is also mentioned as the author of treatises on the science of Astrology. In the 18th century this was an important town and the headquarters of a *paragana*; but it was harassed by the *Pendharis* about 1787 A.D. which forced a large colony of dyers to emigrate to Nandura and other places. Mahadji Shinde halted at the place when he passed through Berar on his way to Pune from the expedition against Ghulam Kadir Beg of Delhi.

Outside the village to the south, close to the river, is the subterranean rock-cut cell of Renuka Devi. The image there is only her face painted upon the rock in the cell at the bottom of a flight of steps.

PIMPALGAON SARAI

Pimpalgaon Sarai (Chikhli T., p. 3427): The village Pimpalgaon Sarai lies on Chikhli-Dhad road and is about 15 miles from Chikhli. The "*dargah*" where the "*urus*" is held is situated towards the west of Pimpalgaon Sarai at a distance of about one mile. Private buses ply regularly between Chikhli and Dhad and extra buses run during the period of the "*urus*". The nearest railway station is Malkapur on the Bombay-Calcutta main line of the Central Railway. Pilgrims from the neighbouring villages come by bullock-carts, or on foot. The *urus* is held in honour of Sharif Sailani Shah Miya from *Phalguna Shud. 15 to Phalguna Vad. 9* at village Pimpalgaon Sarai in Chikhli tahsil. Pilgrims from the districts in Vidarbha and Marathwada regions and from Jalgaon and Dhulia districts in Western Maharashtra attend the *urus*.

"Sharif Sailani Shah, it is said, hailed from northern India, most probably Delhi. On coming to Pimpalgaon Sarai he cured many persons possessed by evil elements. His fame thereby spread all over the neighbouring districts and devotees started coming in large numbers for getting rid of evil elements. The '*dargah*' is

said to have been built when the Saint left this material world in 1908 and since then the '*urus*' is held to perpetuate his memory.

The main entrance to the '*dargah*' faces the north with another door facing the south, which is used as exit. The '*dargah*' measures 60' x 20'. It has a sloped tin sheet roof. At the centre of the shrine there is the tomb of Sharif Sailani Shah Miya constructed in bricks and lime. There is another tomb a furlong away to the east of the '*dargah*' where Sharif Sailani Shah Miya died. This tomb is also covered with a tin shed.

The tomb is worshipped twice a day by burning '*lubhan*' and offering prayers. The tomb is washed with rose-water on every Friday and the water is distributed amongst the devotees. It is not customary to offer cooked food by way of '*nayaz*' though cooked food is sometimes offered by the devotees.

It is believed that the Saint is capable of showering blessings. Promises of offerings to the Saint are, therefore, made with various motives, and on fulfilment of the desires, the things promised, such as '*galaf*', sweets, etc., are offered.

Pilgrims of all castes and creeds attend the '*urus*' which is held from *Phalguna Shud. 15 to Phalguna Vad. 9*. The important days are *Phalguna Vad. 5 to Phalguna Vad. 9* during which period approximately 70,000 persons attend. There are no programmes except reciting of prayers, offerings of coconuts, incense sticks, flowers, etc., up to *Phalguna Vad 5*.

On *Phalguna Vad 5*, a camel or a horse is hired by the *Mujavar*. It is decorated with flowers, and a '*galaf*' is placed on its back. A pot full of sandal-wood paste is also kept on the back of the animal which is led in procession to the '*dargah*' from the house of Sheikh Karim Sheikh Husain at night to the accompaniment of music, a number of pilgrims and villagers reaching the '*dargah*' at about 4-00 a.m. At the '*dargah*' the *Mujavar* takes off the '*galaf*' and the pot of sandal-wood paste which is applied to the tomb and it is then covered with a new '*galaf*'. This programme is called "*sandal chadhavine*". From *Phalguna Vad. 6 to Vad. 8 'kawalis'* are sung by different persons and religious prayers are offered. On *Phalguna Vad. 9* the last day of the '*urus*' religious prayers called '*fatya*' are offered at about 8-00 a.m. Most of the pilgrims come in the morning, offer coconuts and other materials such as flowers, '*galaf*', etc., to the *dargah* and leave in the evening. Some, however, stay in the temporary sheds erected at the site of the '*urus*'. Some pass the night under a tree in the open ground, or fields.

The main items of entertainment are touring talkies, *tamashas*, swings, cradles, magic feats, exhibitions, etc.

The right to levy the market or fair fee during the period of the '*urus*' is auctioned by the village Panchayat. The persons successful at the auction set up '*nakas*' for collection of these fees. The rates of the fee charged are 12 paise per head-load, 25 paise per horse-load and 50 paise per cart-load. Touring talkies

and other establishments of entertainment are charged a fee of Rs. 5 per day. The Gram Panchayat meets the expenditure on lighting, repairing of roads, sanitation, water-supply, demarcation of plots, etc., from the amount collected in auction.

Stalls of flowers, coconut, parched rice, brass and copper utensils, are opened at the 'urus'. Grocery shops and shops of materials required for daily use are also opened."¹

RAJUR

Rajur (Malkapur T.; p. 2476): Rajur is a village in Malkapur tahsil about 20 miles to the south of Malkapur, the tahsil headquarters on Malkapur-Buldhana road. The village has recently come into limelight when an image of Gautam Buddha was excavated about ten years back while digging the foundation for a house in the village. The image is of polished black stone and still in good shape except a part of the leg which was damaged in the course of the digging. The pedestal on which the image is installed bears an inscription. The image is still in the custody of the owner of the house.

ROHINKHED

Rohinkhed (Malkapur T.; 20° 37' N., 76° 11' E.; p. 4474): This village in Malkapur tahsil is situated 20 miles to the south of Malkapur the tahsil headquarters. The village has been the scene of two battles. In 1437 Nasir Khan Faruqi, the Sultan of Khandesh, invaded Berar to avenge the ill-treatment of his daughter by Ala-ud-din Bahamani, to whom she had been married. Khalaf Hasan Basri, the Governor of Daulatabad, who had been sent against the invader, fell upon Nasir Khan Faruqi at Rohinkhed, routed him and pursued him to his capital, Burhanpur, which he sacked. In 1590 Burhan the son of Husain Nizam Shah and the brother of Murtaza Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar, who had taken refuge at the court of Emperor Akbar, invaded Berar in company with Raja Ali Khan, a Vassal ruler of Khandesh, to establish his claim to the kingdom of Ahmadnagar against his son Ismail Nizam Shah, who had been elevated to the throne by a faction headed by Jamalkhan. The invaders met the forces of Jamalkhan at Rohinkhed and utterly defeated them, Jamalkhan being slain and young Ismail being captured at Rohinkhed.

A mosque was built at Rohinkhed in 1582 by Khudavand Khan Mahdavi, a follower of Jamalkhan. It is now in a dilapidated condition. It bears an inscription of which only fragments are legible. It records the fact that the mosque was built in A.H. 990 (A.D. 1582) by Khudavand Khan whose generosity is praised. It is said to be second only to Kabah at Mecca in sanctity.

The area surrounding Rohinkhed was once famous as a hunting ground where different game birds and animals were found.

¹ *Pairs and Festivals*, 1961.

RUIKHED

Ruikhed (Chikhli T.; p. 1308): This village situated to the west of Chikhli, the tahsil headquarters is famous for a considerably large fair held here. It is held in honour of Mayamba (Gorakhanath samadhi) on *Paushya Amavasya* (December-January) every year. It is attended by about 18,000 persons.

SAKHARKHERDA

(See Fatehkherda on page 783)

SHAHAPUR

Shahapur (Khamgaon T.; p. 1407): This is a village in Khamgaon tahsil situated 20 miles to the south-east of Khamgaon the tahsil headquarters. The village is said to have been founded by Prince Murad, the son of Emperor Akbar. It was the residence of a famous saint Nipanishah, about whom it was said that he never drank water. The story goes that Murad entertained the saint at a feast, wherein the food burnt the latter's stomach. He, therefore, cursed Murad with the words, *mera duja aur tera tiya*, which was interpreted to mean: 'I will die tomorrow and you will die the next day'. He also laid a curse on all Muhammedans who took up their residence there. Murad died on the third day with his whole force, and no Muhammedan is said to have been brave enough to live in the village since.

Murad constructed a big palace here and his marriage with the daughter of the Sultan of Khandesh was celebrated in the palace with great pomp¹. The village contains the ruins of a *mahal* or palace built by Prince Murad². Prince Murad died here as a result of intemperate drinking. The *Akbarnama* of Abul Fazl says in this context:

'Alas, that wine should be burdened with suffering, and that its sweet nectar should be a deadly poison. * * On the 17th *Urdibihisht*, near Dihbari, on the banks of the Purta, twenty *kos* from Daulatabad, Prince Sultan Murad's fits took a grave character, and on the 22nd he became insensible and died³.'

SAKEGAON

Sakegaon (Chikhli T., p. 665): This is a village in Chikhli tahsil situated 14 miles to the south of Buldhana, the district headquarters and 6 miles to the west of Chikhli the tahsil headquarters.

'It has an old temple of Mahadeva of much the same style of work as the temple at Satgaon. It faces the east, and consists of a shrine, an ante-chamber and a *mandapa*, with a porch in front of the entrance door-way which is on the east. It was surrounded by a heavily-built wall enclosing a courtyard and having its entrance upon the north side. To the south of the main building

¹ *Varhadcha Itihas*, Yadav Madhav Kale, p. 129.

² *Ibid*, p. 464.

³ *History-Medieval Period*, p. 148, f.n.

is a small subsidiary temple facing the north, against which the surrounding wall abuts upon either side, *i.e.*, the temple stands athwart the wall and cuts through it. It is, therefore, evident that the wall was built after the shrine, and perhaps long after the big temple. The masonry of the walls and the pillars of the courtyard gateway are of the same style and age as those of the temple at Mehkar, and therefore, later than the temple itself. The walls of the *mandapa* and the shrine are quite free of images, save for those in two of the three niches round the shrine, and decorated with the usual basement mouldings and bands of geometric ornament. The back-wall of the shrine, or rather its outer casing, has fallen, carrying with it a great part of the spire upon the site. The back niche has gone with it. In the niche on the south side is a figure of the *Tandava* dance of Shiva, and in the niche on the north side is that of Mahakali. The front of the tower is decorated with the trifoliated *chaitya* arch; under it are the images of the dancing Shiva and Parvati, while on the sides of the same are those of Bhairava, Mahishasura-mardini, and Ganapati. Within the shrine is the *linga*. In the small temple, on the south side of the main building against the back wall, is a seat for an image; but it is now vacant, and it is not known to whom the shrine was dedicated. These *Hemadpanti* temples are under Government conservation*.

SATGAON

Satgaon (Chikhli T., p. 2185): This village in Chikhli tahsil situated 10 miles to the south of Buldhana, the district headquarters, is of some importance by reason of its antiquarian remains, showing the existence of Jainism side by side with Brahmanism in ancient times.

"There are ruins of temples and statuary which show that out of four temples now traceable, three were Hindu and one was Jain. They are all in a dilapidated state, one of them being a total wreck. The principal temple is that of Vishnu to the west of the village. It is somewhat peculiarly built in that it faces the west instead of the east as usual. The image of Vishnu is broken and lost, leaving only his feet above the figure of Garuda which is his conveyance, and which is still *in situ*. The temple is much dilapidated, but it is a fine structure. The ceilings of the *mandapa* and the exterior walls of the shrine are well decorated, and in style seem to stand half way between the later temples of the 13th and 14th centuries and those of the 11th. To prevent further decay, the Archaeological Department has taken it under its charge. At a short distance behind the Vishnu temple is a remnant of a small temple of Mahadeva, which is in a very ruined condition; the entrance to it is from the east side, local mud walls having recently been built in the verandah of the *mandira*. Inside the temple there is a *linga* and outside the Nandi; the door is elaborately carved and has Ganesh on the

*Buldhana district Gazetteer, 1910, pp. 460—61.

dedicatory block, above which there are niches with figures of Vaishnavi, Brahmi and Parvati. These are all goddesses, the wives of the gods constituting the Hindu Trinity. It is, however, noticeable that there are no figures of gods to be seen there. The third Hindu temple is to the north of the Vishnu temple and, as already stated, is a wreck. Of the fourth, which was apparently a Jain temple, all that now remains are four standing pillars. A short distance to the north-west of this is a large pipal tree with a high platform around its base on which are some fragments of old images. Among them is the lower portion of an image of the Jain god Parasnath with an inscription of two lines beneath, dated *Shaka* 1173 (A.D. 1251). It is *Digambara*, its nakedness being distinctly indicated. Apparently it was originally enshrined in the temple, of which the four pillars remain. Another noticeable image on the platform is that of a Devi which is broken, but above her head there is a wreath of flowers at the top of which is seated a little Jina, indicating that the Devi does not belong to the Hindu but to the Jain pantheon."*

These temples are supposed to have been constructed during the reign of the Later Chalukyas.

SHEGAON

Shegaon.—Located in 20°45' north latitude and 76°40' east longitude, Shegaon is a municipal town in Khamgaon tahsil. Situated at an altitude of 274 metres it receives an average annual rainfall of 789 millimetres. Shegaon is a railway station on the Bombay-Nagpur route of the Central Railway, 547 kilometres from Bombay and 291 km from Nagpur.

The town was of little importance prior to the opening of the railway in 1863, but it made rapid progress with the dawn of the present century. As per the Census of 1971, it has a total population of 25,993.

The town is very famous for the *Samadhi* of Shri Gajanan Maharaj. It attracts a large number of pilgrims from all over Vidarbha region as also from distant parts of Western Maharashtra and Marathwada.

It is also an important centre of trade in cotton with a number of ginning and pressing factories. Besides, there are a Roman Catholic Chapel, two mosques and a few temples. The office of the Christian and Missionary Alliance of U.S.A. is also located in the town.

Educational facilities to the town population are provided by seven primary schools, two middle schools and two high schools. G. B. Morarka College of Arts and Commerce caters to the need of higher education. Two hospitals including the Municipal Hospital and Sai Baba Mote Women's Hospital and twelve dispensaries provide medical facilities to the town populace. Besides, there is a veterinary dispensary also.

*Buldhana District Gazetteer, 1910, pp. 461—62.

Municipality : The Shegaon municipality was established in 1881. It covers an area of 5.83 square kilometres.

The total income of the municipality excluding the extraordinary and debt heads and opening balance during the year 1970-71 amounted to Rs. 9,24,000, while the total expenditure of the municipality during the same year excluding the extraordinary and debt heads came to Rs. 9,08,000. Scarcity of water was always felt in the town in the past and hence a tank with an area of 250 acres was constructed in 1877 at a cost of Rs. 30,000. However it used to dry up during the summer season. Hence, below its bend a supplementary tank was constructed at the time of the famine of 1899; but it also proved to be of little use except for watering cattle. Water-supply to the town at present is through pipe lines.

In 1970-71, the total length of roads in the town was 20 km of which a length of 4 km was asphalted, one km was metalled and the remaining length of 15 km was unmetalled. The town has two theatres and one public library.

Samadhi of Gajanan Maharaj.— The temple dedicated to Gajanan Maharaj is the principal object of interest in Shegaon which attracts lakhs of pilgrims from not only Vidarbha region but also from the distant parts of Western Maharashtra and Marathwada. Allegorically Shegaon can be described as the Pandharpur of Vidarbha. Thousands of devotees pay their respects to the Samadhi on every Thursday which is regarded as a special day for veneration to the Maharaj. It is on every Thursday that the *palkhi* of Shri Gajanan Maharaj is taken round in procession. A large class of devotees believe in and narrate the miracles performed by and the spiritual powers of the Maharaj which they say to have experienced themselves. Many of them also believe that veneration to the saint and vows are rewarded in the form of fulfilment of desires.

The origin of Shri Gajanan Maharaj is rather obscure though not legendary. He appeared at Shegaon on February 23, 1878. Of whom and when he was born and his family history is not known and as per the information given by the local residents no one has heard him speaking about his own self. When he appeared at Shegaon the local population saw in him the qualities of a saint or a prophet. Since no one has seen or heard as to the place from where the Maharaj came at Shegaon and since no one did have any talk with him about his origin his appearing at Shegaon was considered by many as a miracle. According to some sources Shri Gajanan Maharaj must have been either the descendant of the Peshwa Nana Sahib who led the war of Independence of 1857 and was living in obscurity after his defeat at the hands of the British or of those patriots who fought in the battle along with the Peshwa and who were putting up at Ppparkhedha in Vidarbha at the foot of the Satpuda range. Many people support this conjecture in view of the fact that he was not only present in the public meeting held at Akola in 1907 but was sitting on the dias by the side of Lokmanya Tilak who

addressed the same. After hearing about the life imprisonment of Lokmanya Tilak, the Maharaj blessed the great patriot of India, and prophesied that the cause for which Tilak was fighting would meet with success. He is also believed to have informed the Late Dadasaheb Khaparde that his imprisonment would bring some good to the country. Many miracles are attributed to Shri Gajanan Maharaj such as curing a leper by the mere touch of hands, commanding the train to a halt etc., which are described in a *pothi* known as '*Gajanan Vijay*'. Shri Gajanan Maharaj breathed his last on September 8, 1910 which was a fasting day for women known as *Rishi Panchami*.

The temple dedicated to the Maharaj is to the east of the town and occupies about a hectare of land, and faces the north. The gateway of the temple court-yard is magnificent and imposing. There is another gateway on the western side of the court-yard. There are many rooms alongside of the court-yard on the back side which are meant for pilgrims coming from distant places.

The main shrine of Shri Gajanan Maharaj has a *sabhamandap* supported by three rows of nine pillars each on both sides. The entire *sabhamandap* is covered with marble tiles. The gallery over-hanging the *sabhamandap* is adorned with picture frames depicting the life of Shri Gajanan Maharaj. At the entrance to the shrine, both the sides are flanked by the images of *dwarपालs*, viz., Jay and Vijay, besides those of Devi and Ganapati. The inner shrine contains the *padukas* and the facial plaque of Shri Gajanan Maharaj. In the inner shrine on the marble platform are the idols of Rama, Laxman and Sita, besides the *padukas* and the facial plaque of the Maharaj.

Exactly below the inner shrine containing the images of Rama, Laxman and Sita in a cellar which can be reached by descending down about 16 steps is the *Samadhi* of Shri Gajanan Maharaj. The way to the cellar is from both sides, one usually used for going down and another for climbing up.

In front of the inner shrine is an idol of Hanuman under a canopy. The temple has a pinnacle which could be seen from a distance. By the side of the inner shrine is a *shayanagar*, bed room. In the courtyard are the *Samadhis* of Balabhai Maharaj and Narayan Maharaj who rendered personal services to Shri Gajanan Maharaj. Towards the left of the main shrine in the courtyard is a double storied structure with 45 rooms which provides lodging facilities to the pilgrims.

The arch above the west entrance displays beautifully carved creeper designs. By the side of the road to the main entrance, i.e., north entrance, are a few buildings constructed recently which house the ayurvedic, homoeopathic and allopathic dispensaries conducted by the temple authorities. About 300 patients are treated daily at the homoeopathic dispensary. The allopathic dispensary is quite well-equipped with necessary amenities. The temple authorities serve daily *prasad* to all devotees attending the temple at lunch time. The *prasad* consists of jowar bread which

was a favourite dish of Shri Gajanan Maharaj along with some vegetable. The temple authorities conduct classes where discourses on religion are delivered. The celebrations observed at the temple every year are the death anniversary (*punyatithi*) of Shri Gajanan Maharaj; the day of the appearance of the Maharaj at Shegaon, viz., *Magh Vadya 7*, and *Rama Navami*.

The temple authorities have organised a trust which is registered under the Public Trusts Act. Handsome donations are received by the Trust from the devotees of Shri Gajanan Maharaj.

SHENDURJANA

Shendurjana (Mehkar T., p. 2742): Shendurjana, a big village in Mehkar tahsil, contains a *Hemadpanti* temple dedicated to Mahadeva. By its side is a small tank, whose water, though by no means deep, never loses its level or dries up. A few yards away is a spot known as 'Sita-Nhani' supposed to be the bathing place of Sita. Both the tank and the bathing place are held in great veneration.

SHRIKSHETRA NAGZARI

Shrikshetra Nagzari (Khamgaon T., RS., p. 844): The village Shrikshetra Nagzari is a station on the Bombay-Calcutta route of the Central Railway situated at a distance of about 555 km. from Bombay. The temple for which the village is famous is about one mile distant from the railway station. The village got its name from the existence there of the ancient temple of Shri Nageshwar and a number of springs flowing in the near proximity. Close by is the river Mohana flowing a bare distance of a mile emanating from one of the springs in the Nagzari and on the banks of which is the *math* of Gomaji Maharaj. The *math* contains a tunnel supposedly dug by Shri Gomaji Maharaj for the purpose of carrying on penance. The river Mohana flows eastwards and is met on the way by a number of streamlets in one of which is a pond known as *Ramkund*. There is another pond known as *Gopalkund* close by. The water running out from both the ponds flows eastwards to join the river Mohana. Further east is another pond known as *Gomukhhkund* containing excellent potable water. It is said that Shri Gomaji Maharaj used to perform *bhajan* by seating himself in knee-deep water in the *kund*. The water flowing out of *Gomukh kund* meets the river Mohana which turning eastwards joins the river Bardi.

There is a legend prevalent about the *Gomukhhkund*. It says that formerly Shri Gomaji Maharaj used to go for bath to the river Purna (Payoshni) but in his old age he was unable to do so. Even then with great physical forbearance he persisted in going to the Purna. The river Purna was pleased with the devotion of Shri Gomaji Maharaj and gave him a boon that she will appear in the *Gomukhhkund*. She also asked Shri Gomaji Maharaj to throw his walking stick in its flow. The truth or falsehood of this legend may be questioned but it is generally found that

whenever the river Purna is flooded a strong current of water emanates out of the Gomukhhkund.

The *samadhi* of Shri Gomaji Maharaj is erected on the *Panchlingi Mal* at Shrikshetra Nagazari. On all the four sides of the *samadhi-cum-temple*, specious *pathshalas* have been built. To the north of this *samadhi* is situated the *samadhi* of Sadanandgir Maharaj, one of the disciples of Shri Gomaji Maharaj. The *samadhi* was granted an *inam* land by the Ex-Nizam Government. At present the *devasthan* has an *inam* land admeasuring 415 acres. A fair in honour of Shri Gomaji Maharaj is held on *Chaitra Shud. 4* (March-April) which is attended by about 1,000 to 2,000, people.

SINDKHED RAJA

Sindkhed Raja (Mehkar T.; 19°57' N.; 76°10' E., p. 7105): situated 32 miles to the south-west of Mehkar, this village derived its name, it is said, from the king Sindurama who is said to have founded it. Another derivation of the name is from *Siddha Kshetra*, i.e., a village of saints. However, it appears that the village probably derived its name from the *sindi* trees in which it abounds.

The *paragana* of Sindkhed was granted as *jahagir* to the Kazi of the town in about 1450 A.D., and was after about a century made over by him to the Jadhav family, the most famous member of which was Lakhuji, the father of Jijabai and the grandfather of Shivaji, the Great. Lakhuji was, according to one account, a Rajput from Karauli. According to another, the family claimed descent from the Yadavas of Devagiri. Lakhuji obtained a command of 10,000 horse under the Ahmadnagar government. Afterwards, however, he espoused the Moghal cause, receiving a command of 15,000 horse in the imperial army. His daughter was married to Shahaji Bhosle, the father of Shivaji. Notwithstanding this connection throughout the wars between the Moghals and the Marathas, and held a high rank in the imperial army. The family enjoyed in *inam* the *paragana* of Sindkhed for nearly 100 years. In about 1650 an envoy of the Emperor, Murshid Ali Khan, being displeased with the reception given to him by the Jadhavs, restored the *jahagir* to the descendants of the Kazi to whom the *Jahagir* was originally granted. To the north-west of the town lies the half-finished fortress built by the Jadhav family, the construction of which was stopped by this envoy. The fort, still an incomplete structure, is of solid black stone cemented with lead, and has a look of immense strength. The fortress is situated right opposite to the office of the panchayat samiti and is a square of about one furlong and is fortified by four rounded bastions on each corner.

The family lost their possessions in 1851 owing to an act of rebellion by Arab troops under their command. Various buildings, tanks and palaces bear testimony to the ancient glories of

the house of Jadhavs. The temple of the god Nilakantheshvar to the south-west, supposed to have been built by Hemadpant, is the oldest structure in the village. It bears an inscription which, however, has become illegible, being some feet under water in the tank nearby the temple.

Sindkhed was held by the Shindes for nearly 60 years and was restored to the Nizam in 1803. It is described by Wellesley in 1804 as being a nest of thieves. The decline of the village was hastened by marauders whose names Mohan Singh, Rudlam Khan and Ghazi Khan were long remembered with apprehension. Bajirav II, the last of the *Peshvas*, while pursued by the English in 1818 encamped for some days near this village. It is surrounded by good mango groves.

There are two tanks to the west of the village, one of which has a lofty masonry embankment and supplied water for irrigation purposes to the fields below. It is known as *Moti Talav* and by its side now passes the Jalna-Sindkhed Raja road. The embankment is still in a good condition excepting that grass has grown extensively on the crevices. The irrigation canal is built in stone masonry. There is also a stepped passage going up to the water level. From the embankment also, there are steps leading up to the water level. From the passage and the canal top one can have an excellent view of the tank, the expanse of which is very wide, but it is getting silted up. At present, it is utilised for pisciculture by the Fisheries department. Arrangement prevails to let the water out when the water level falls. The Zilla Parishad had made arrangement for the clearance of the passage whenever it is blocked.

Lakhuji's Palace.—Lakhuji Jadhav's extensive palace, the birth-place of Jijabai, except for its massive gate of stone and bricks and underground chambers, lies in total ruins. Above the gate is a drum chamber (*nagarkhana*). The cells are reported to have been cleared of debris and silt about four to five years back. In the underground chambers, still in good condition was housed the basic training college for some time.

Ranga Mahal.—Situated to the west of the town is *Ranga Mahal*, a building neglected and practically in ruins. The hall where Jijabai and Shahaji Bhosale as children indulged in the game of *Rangpanchami*, when Lakhuji Jadhav pronounced them as an excellent match for each other is still in good condition. It is supported on wooden pillars. The front has four open and two embedded pillars. Besides those pillars that line the front, there are two double open pillars and two similar pilasters in the wall. The bases as well as the capitals of the pillars bear fine specimens of carved wood work. The ceiling is of wooden planks and has a terrace. It seems that the upper storey has collapsed. At present a primary school is housed in the hall.

Lakhuji Jadhav Memorial.—A memorial to Lakhuji Jadhav stands in the form of a masonry structure 40' x 40' with a brick dome crowning the *samadhi* of Lakhuji right below which is also

installed a *linga*. Two stairways on both the sides of the main entrance lead up to the terrace. Of these one is blocked. The main entrance is flanked by impressive statues of lions depicted in the pose of killing elephants. To the right of the main entrance, is an illegible inscription.

By the side of the tomb is a temple dedicated to Rameshvara with a ruined brick wall enclosure. The temple is said to have been built by Lakhuji Jadhav in response to his mother's wishes. It is a masonry construction with a brick *shikhara*. The upper portion of the temple is constructed in bricks. Facing the *linga* are two defaced Nandi statues. Some broken images of deities are scattered outside the enclosure.

SONALA

Sonala (Jalgaon T., p. 6015): This village in Jalgaon tahsil lying at the foot of the Satpudas, about 13 miles north-east of Jalgaon, the tahsil headquarters was once the headquarters of a *paragana*. The village is famous as the birthplace of a saint by name Sonaji Bova. The latter, by origin a cowherd, is said to have healed the sick and performed other miracles and was worshipped during his lifetime. His tomb is still visited by many people for regaining health, and a temple has lately been built to the saint's memory. In his honour a fair is held annually in November, during which in the night time a carriage procession is taken through the streets of the village and back to the temple.

SONATI

Sonati (Mehkar T., p. 1685): This village in Mehkar tahsil lying 6 miles to the east of Mehkar has an old *Hemadpanti* temple of Mahadeva which was repaired by the villagers about 1910. An annual fair is held on *Margashirsha Amavasya* (November-December) every year. It formerly used to last for about a month and was attended by about 12,000 persons. Temporary shops used to be opened for the sale of provisions and other articles such as cloth and utensils. During the festival a bazar cess was levied and about Rs. 200 were realised from it. The importance of the fair has gradually dwindled. At present about 5,000 persons assemble at the fair.

TARAPUR

Tarapur (Chikhli T., p. 283): This village in Chikhli tahsil which was formerly a deserted village was of some consequence in historical times. Its description as it appeared in the Old Buldhana District Gazetteer published in 1910 is reproduced below:—

“A deserted village in the Chikhli taluk, 8 miles north-east of Buldhana. Among the hills close to it is an old temple of Devi, which is much decayed and has partly fallen. It faces the north and is built of old bricks upon a stone foundation. It consists of a shrine and a *mandapa* with three door-ways, the

western one of which is now closed up with stone and mud. The walls are plain. Attached to the front entrance is a verandah in which are placed some odd stone statues, among which are three of the seven mothers, viz., Vaishnavi, Shaivi and Brahmi; one of Ganesh and one of a *jogi*. There are inscriptions each in three lines in five different places in this temple, but they are illegible. On some of the stones are roughly inscribed pilgrims' names. An annual fair is held at the *Navratra*."

WARAVAND

Waravand (Chikhli T., p. 2052): This village in Chikhli tahsil lying about 7 miles south-west of Buldhana, the tahsil headquarters, is a place in the neighbourhood of which good game is available. There is a forest rest house.

There is an old temple here dedicated to Eknath. Besides, there are two small *Hemadpanti* temples in ruins.

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. Abbreviations indicating tahsils :—

Chikhli—Ckl.	Malkapur—Mlk.
Jalgaon—Jlg.	Mehkar—Mhk.
Khamgaon—Kmg.	

Column (2).—(a) Direction; (b) Travelling distance of the village from the taluka headquarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from tahsil 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 *(Acres); (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) Distance of the bazar place from the village; (c) Bazar day.

Column (7).—(a) Nearest motor stand; (b) Its distance from the village.

Column (8).—Water indicates 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, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription :—

Sl—school.	pyt—panchayat.	(con)—consumers.
(pr)—primary.	Cs—co-operative society.	(mis)—miscellaneous.
(m)—middle.	(gr)—group.	(mp)—multi purpose.
(h)—high.	(c)—credit.	(sp)—sale and purchase.
(tr-clg)—training college.	(fmg)—farming.	(wvg)—weaving.
mun—municipality.	(i)—industrial.	Fr—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calendar :—

Ct—Chaitra; Vsk—Vaishakha; Jt—Jaishtha; Asd—Ashadha; Srn—Shravana; Bdp—Bhadrapada; An—Ashvina; Kt—Kartika; Mrg—Margashirsha; Ps—Pausha; Mg—Magha; Phg—Phalguna; Sud—Shudha (first fortnight of the month); Vad—Vadya (second fortnight of the month).

Other abbreviations used :—

tl—temple.	dh—dharamshala.	dp—dispensary.
m—math.	gym—gymnasium.	(vet)—Veterinary.
mq—mosque.	ch—chavadi.	Cch—Church.
dg—dargah.	lib—library.	ins—inscription.

N.B.—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) and (7) stand for miles and furlongs.
*—Area for the Urban Area in Km².

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Adagaon—Kmg.—अडगांव ..	SE; 18-0	2181; 1474; 285; 571	Local; ..
Adagaon Raja—Mhk.—आडगांव राजा	SW; 36-0	3906; 828; 139; 290	Local; ..
Adasul—Kmg.—अडसुल ..	NE; 18-0	1706; 978; 198; 404	Local; ..
Adavihir—Mlk.—आडविहीर ..	SE; 19-0	2217; 1883; 369; 623	Local; ..
Adol Bk.—Jlg.—अडोल बु. ..	SW; 14-0	1216; 1247; 244; 429	Local; ..
Adol Kh.—Jlg.—अडोल खु. ..	SW; 14-0	448; 336; 63; 98	Adol Bk.; 1-0
Agephal—Mhk.—आगेफळ ..	W; 25-0	2107; 450; 77; 266	Zotinga; 2-0
Ahamadapur—Mlk.—अहमदपूर ..		Included in Urban Area II.	
Ainakhed—Ckl.—ऐनखेड ..	NE; 12-0	260; 278; 54; 106	Amadapur; 2-0
Ajisapur—Ckl.—अजिसपूर ..	NW; 13-0	868; 701; 145; 111	Nandrakoli; 0-6
Ajisapur—Mhk.—अजीसपूर ..	S; 21-0	1657; 857; 155; 470	Pangradole; 2-0
Akola—Mhk.—आकोला ..	E; 6-0	1567; 542; 104; 263	Ukali; 3-0
Akola Kh.—Jlg.—आकोला खु. ..	S; 7-0	832; 678; 158; 315	Local; ..
Akoli—Kmg.—आकोली ..	S; 13-0	2519; 328; 56; 151	Lakhanwada 4-0 Bk.;
Akoli Bk.—Jlg.—आकोली बु. ..	E; 4-0	768; 550; 115; 318	Niwana; 1-0
Akoli Kh.—Jlg.—आकोली खु. ..	E; 4-0	256; 52; 12; 33	Niwana; 1-0
Alamapur—Mlk.—अलमपूर ..	E; 22-0	1266; 2035; 417; 1022	Local; ..
Aland—Ckl.—आळंद ..	S; 28-0	1866; 906; 146; 501	Pimpalgaon 2-0 Bk.;
Aland—Mlk.—आळंद ..	SW; 8-3	1134; 794; 143; 227	Dudhalgaon; 2-5
Alasana—Kmg.—आळसणा ..	N; 13-0	1254; 1387; 269; 471	Local; ..
Alevadi—Jlg.—आलेवाडी ..	NE; 14-0	1228; 871; 159; 350	Tunki Bk.; 2-0
Amadapur—Ckl.—आमडापूर ..	NE; 14-0	12565; 6187; 1097; 1849	Local; ..
Amakhed—Ckl.—आमखेड ..	SE; 10-0	1727; 773; 140; 420	Ambashi; 2-0
Amasasi—Kmg.—आमससी ..	NW; 11-0	1114; 587; 75; 140	Nandura; 3-0
Ambashi—Ckl.—अंबाशी ..	SE; 11-2	3258; 1293; 239; 455	Local; ..
Ambavarava—Jlg.—अंबावारवा ..	NE; 23-0	320; 194; 39; 26	Tunki Bk.; 12-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 18-0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; dg; 2 dp (Vet).
Jalna; 26-0	Sindkhed 8-0; Mon. Raja;	Sackhed 5-0 Fata;	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; ch.
Shegaon; 7-0	Shegaon; 7-0; Tue.	Kalkhed; 3-0	rv.	2 SI (pr, m); 3 tl; lib.
Nandura; 15-0	Motala; 5-0; Thu.	.. 0-3	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 3 tl; lib; dp.
Nandura; 16-0	Pimpal- 4-0; Fri. gaon Kale;	Palshi 1-4 Vaidya;	W.	SI (m); Cs; Vithoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 10; 4 tl; ch.
Nandura; 16-0	Pimpal- 4-0; Fri. gaon Kale;	Palshi 1-4 Vaidya;	W.	SI (pr).
Khamgaon; 46-0	Malkapur 2-0; Thu. Pargra;	Local; 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 26-0	Amadapur; 2-0; Wed.	Amadapur; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 20-0	Buldhana; 6-0; Sun.	Nandrakoli; 0-6	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; Devi Fr. Ct. Ponima; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 70-0	Lonar; 6-0; Mon.	Lonar; 6-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 55-0	Dongaon; 6-0; Wed.	Anjani Bk.; 1-4	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nandura; 12-0	Asalgaon; 2-0; Tue.	Khandvi; 2-0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 3 tl; m; ch.
Khamgaon; 13-0	Lakhan- 4-0; Tue. wada Bk.;	.. 5-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 22-0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 4 tl; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 22-0	Akoli Bk.; 1-0; Fri.	Changefal; 1-0	W.	2 tl.
Nandura; 5-0	Nandura; 5-0; Mon.	Nandura; 5-0	W;w.	SI (m); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 6 tl; 4 m; ch; dp.
Jalna; 24-0	Deulgaon 4-0; Sun. Mahi;	.. 1-4	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 8-3	Malkapur; 8-3; Sat.	Nipana; 3-0	W;w.	SI (m); tl; lib.
Shegaon; 2-0	Shegaon; 2-0; Tue.	Shegaon; 2-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); tl; mq; dg; lib.
Shegaon; 25-0	Tunki Bk.; 2-0; Wed.		..	SI (pr); mq.
Khamgaon; 24-0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; 0-1	W.	4 SI (3 pr, m); 3 Cs; 5 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; 5 dp.
Khamgaon; 36-0	Chikhali; 10-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 3-0	Nandura; 3-0; Mon.	Nandura; 3-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 35-0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 1-2	W;w.	4 SI (2 pr; m, h); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dg; lib.
Shegaon; 34-0	Tunki Bk.; 12-0; Wed.	Tunki; 12-0	W.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Ambetakali—Kmg.—आंबटाकळी..	SE; 17-0	2401; 1274; 255; 565	Shirala; 3-0
Ambevadi—Mhk.—आंबेवाडी ..	SW; 14-0	712; 370; 70; 168	Shendurjan; 2-0
Ambheda—Ckl.—अंबोडा ..	NW; 26-0	1772; 1357; 234; 740	Hatedi Bk.; 1-4
Ambhora—Ckl.—अंभोरा ..	S; 35-0	669; 332; 69; 155	Deulgaon 1-0 Raja;
Ambikapur—Kmg.—अंबिकपूर ..	SE; 14-3	1695; 687; 121; 272	Chitoda; 3-0
Amboda—Kmg.—अंबोडा ..	NW; 13-0	2404; 1239; 258; 456	Lanzood; 1-4
Amona—Ckl.—अमोणा ..	SW; 15-0	2747; 972; 193; 457	Shelgaon 2-0 Atol;
Anchali—Mhk.—अंचली ..	SW; 35-0	1066; 820; 134; 319	Sindkhed 8-0 Raja;
Ancharavadi—Ckl.—अंकरवाडी ..	S; 12-0	6159; 2086; 377; 1022	Local; ..
Andhai—Ckl.—आंधई ..	NE; 9-0	1101; 301; 62; 122	Savana; 1-0
Andhera—Ckl.—अंधेरा ..	S; 18-0	7454; 3064; 555; 958	Local; ..
Andhrud—Mhk.—अंधूड ..	NE; 10-0	3042; 1034; 177; 566	Loni Gaoli; 1-0
Anjani Bk.—Mhk.—अंजनी बु. ..	E; 6-0	6768; 2779; 524; 764	Local; ..
Anjani Kh.—Mhk.—अंजनी खु. ..	SW; 10-0	3512; 2114; 353; 806	Local; ..
Antraj—Kmg.—अंत्रज ..	S; 7-0	6743; 1791; 363; 889	Local; ..
Antri—Mhk.—अंत्री ..	S; 3-0	2947; 1485; 281; 432	Local; ..
Antri—Mlk.—अंत्री ..	S; 17-0	2607; 1097; 217; 337	Borakheda 1-0
Antri Khedekar—Ckl.—अंत्री खेडे- कर.	SE; 12-0	1504; 1766; 325; 907	Local; ..
Antrikoli—Ckl.—अंत्रीकोळी ..	W; 4-0	1141; 737; 140; 431	Sawargaon 2-0 Dukre;
Antriteli—Ckl.—अंत्रीतेली ..	N; 5-0	754; 330; 66; 100	Sav; 0-4
Anvi—Ckl.—अन्वी ..	E; 5-0	1091; 394; 58; 168	Peth; 2-0
Aphajalapur—Ckl.—अफजलपूर ..	NW; ..	171; 75; 12; 18	
Ardav—Mhk.—आर्डव ..	S; 8-0	1570; 647; 108; 374	Hirwad; 1-0
Aregaon—Mhk.—आरेगांव ..	E; 12-0	2436; 1545; 257; 655	Local; ..
Asa—Kmg.—आसा ..	SE; 21-0	1189; 482; 96; 215	Shirala; 2-0
Asalagaon—Jlg.—आसलगांव ..	SW; 4-0	4885; 3639; 785; 1549	Local; ..
Asola—Ckl.—असोला ..	NE; 18-0	1901; 394; 67; 174	Dhotra; 3-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 17-0	Adgaon; 3-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	SI (m); Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 4 tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Shendur- jan; 2-0; Fri.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib;
Malkapur; 40-0	Dudhe; 2-0; Sat.		W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Jalna; 17-0	Deulgaon 1-0; Sat.	Deulgaon 1-0	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 14-3	Balapur; 5-0; Sa.	.. 3-3	w;rv.	3 tl; dh; ch.
Nandura; 3-0	Nandura; 3-0; Mon.	Amsasi; 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; mq; dg.
Jalna; 45-0	Shelgaon 2-0; Wed.	.. 5-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
.. ..	Atol; Sindkhed 6-0; Mon.	Sindkhed 6-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 35-0	Raja; Shelgaon 3-0; Wed.	Raja; .. 1-6	w;rv.	SI (m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 25-0	Atol; Chikhali; 9-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 0-1	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; m; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Washim; 26-0	Dongaon; 4-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 55-0	Dongaon; 5-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2 tl; 2 mq; 14 dg; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 52-0	Mehekar; 10-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); tl.
Khamgaon; 7-0	Khamgaon; 7-0; Thu.	Khamgaon- Chikhali 1-0	W.	SI (m); Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 2 tl; dp.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Mehekar; 3-0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); tl.
Malkapur; 17-0	Motala; 2-0; Thu.	.. 2-0	W;w.	SI (m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Jalna; 42-0	Chikhali; 12-0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 42-0	Chikhali; 4-0; Mon.	.. 2-4	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 33-0	Buldhana; 5-0; Sat.	.. 0-4	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Chikhali; .. Mon.	Peth; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 50-0	Hirwad; 1-0; Sat.	.. 7-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Akola; 50-0	Dongaon; 3-0; Wed.	.. 3-0	W.	SI (m); Cs; 4 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 21-0	Shirala; 2-0; Thu.	Ambetakali; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 13-0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); pyt (gr); Cs; 12 tl; dh; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Undri; 4-0; Sun.	.. 4-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Asola Pr. Kherda—Ckl.—असोला प्र. खेडा.	S; 10.0	235 6; 715; 126; 402	Mera kh; 2.0
Asola Pr. Sindakhed—Ckl.—असोला प्र. सिंदखेड.	S; 30.0	1662; 1001; 172; 538	Borkhedi 2.4 Bavara;
Asvand—Jlg.—आस्वद	SE; 21.0	854; 193; 44; 93	Paturda; 3.0
Atakal—Ckl.—अटकळ	NW; ..	1157; 477; 91; 254	
Atali—Kmg.—अटाली	SE; 14.2	6367; 1931; 384; 771	Local; ..
Aurangapur—Mlk.—औरंगपूर	SE; 9.4	628; 65; 12; 39	Wadner; 1.7
Avadh Bk.—Mlk.—अवधा बु.	E; 22.4	1037; 429; 89; 176	Narkhed; 1.4
Avadha Kh.—Mlk.—अवधा खु.	E; 22.2	556; 289; 48; 115	Narkhed; 1.5
Avar—Jlg.—आवार	SE; 23.0	1526; 656; 146; 301	Paturda; 3.0
Avar—Kmg.—आवार	SE; 8.0	4005; 1437; 292; 739	Tembhurna; 3.0
Avhayunasapur—Mlk.—अव्हा-युनसपूर.	SW; 15.0	1931; 1086; 206; 503	Makodi; 2.0
Babhulagaon—Ckl.—बाभुळगांव	E; 18.0	814; 357; 70; 99	Mangrul; 10.0
Babhulakhed—Mhk.—बाभुळखेड.	NW; 4.4	901; 824; 146; 333	Chamgaon; 3.0
Badhanapur—Mhk.—बघनापूर	W; 5.0	849; 223; 46; 60	Chamagaon; 3.0
Bagulakhed—Mhk.—बागुळखेड.	S; 6.0	921; 432; 78; 198	Dabha; 1.0
Balasamudra—Mhk.—बाळसमुद्र	W; 22.0	1299; 607; 113; 310	Daregaon; 2.0
Balhadi—Jlg.—बल्हाडी	NE; 17.0	768; 17; 5; 4	Sonala; 2.0
Bamakhed—Ckl.—बामखेड	S; 32.0	1619; 345; 59; 145	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Bk.;
Bamhanda—Mlk.—बाम्हंदा	SW; 31.0	1113; 609; 105; 218	Dhaman 1.0 gaon Bade;
Banoda Ekalara—Jlg.—बानोदा एकलारा.	E; 12.0	1920; 1741; 388; 762	Local; ..
Baraphagaon—Kmg.—बरफगांव	W; 12.0	1707; 464; 85; 200	Borjawala; 3.0
Baratala—Mhk.—बरटाला	W; 3.0	828; 730; 132; 319	Chamgaon; 2.0
Barda—Mhk.—बार्डा	N; 15.0	395; 138; 26; 54	Uti; 2.0
Bardapur—Mhk.—बर्दापूर	NW; 20.0	1715; 567; 117; 279	Sarshiv; 10.4
Barhai—Mhk.—बार्हई	NW; 6.0	610; 362; 69; 154	
Barlinga—Mhk.—बालिंगा	SW; 31.0	609; 186; 29; 105	Hiwarkhed; 4.0
Bavan abir—Jlg.—बावनबीर	NE; 12.0	3200; 2905; 574; 1067	Local; ..
Bayagaon Pr. Kherda—Ckl.—बाय-गांव प्र. खेडा.	S; ..	1678; 822; 154; 259	Mendgaon; 1.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalna; 41.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	Mera kh; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Jalna; 24.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Asola; 2.4	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 14.0	Paturda; 3.0; Mon.	Paturda; 3.0	W;w.	Cs; tl.
.. ..				
Khamgaon; 14.0	Vihigaon; 4.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;Pl.	2 Sl (2 pr); Cs; 4 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Chandur; 5.3	Wadner; 1.7; Sat.	Wadner; 1.7	W.	tl.
Biswa;				
Nandura; 4.4	Nandura; 4.4; Mon.	Nimgaon; 4.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 4.2	Nandura; 4.2; Mon.	Nimgaon; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 16.0	Paturda; 3.0; Mon.	Paturda; 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 8.0	Khamgaon; 8.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Malkapur; 15.0	Shelgaon 3.0; Fri. Bazar;	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 31.0	Mangrul; 1.0; Thu.	Mangrul; 1.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 51.0	Mehekar; 4.4; Sun.	Mehekar; 4.4	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 47.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehekar; 6.0; Sun.	.. 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 43.0	Sakhar 3.0; Fri. Kherda;	.. 0.4	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Hiwarkhed; 5.0	Sonala; 2.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W.	tl.
Jalna; 25.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 3.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 31.0	Dhaman- 1.0; Wed. gaon;	.. 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 19.0	Local; .. Thu.	Tunki; 4.6	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 3 tl; dh; 2 lib.
Nandura; 8.0	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (m); tl; dg.
Khamgaon; 55.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Sarangpur; 2.4	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dh.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.		W.	
Khamgaon; 45.0	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.	.. 2.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Mehekar; 6.0; Sun.	Nagzari; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 71.0	Malkapur 5.0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 6.0	w;rv.	Barling Fr. Mg.; 2 tl.
Shegaon; 21.0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 1.4	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 5 tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 55.0	Malkapur 4.0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Fr. Ct. Pour- nima; tl; dh; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Bayagaon Pr. Malkapur Pargra— Ckl.—बायगांव प्र. मलकापूर पांग्रा	SW; 25.0	1857; 811; 148; 369	Deulgaon 3.0
Belad—Mlk.—बेलाड	E; 2.0	1639; 1538; 307; 678	Mahi; 1.0
Belad—Mlk.—बेलाड	NE; 27.0	1890; 468; 97; 161	Ghirni; 2.0
Belagaon—Mhk.—बेळगांव	E; 17.0	6653; 1998; 356; 878	Local; ..
Belura—Kmg.—बलुरा	N; 12.0	1879; 549; 116; 268	Jalamb; 2.0
Belura—Kmg.—बलुरा	W; 5.0	831; 115; 23; 50	Pimpalgaon 2.0
Belura—Mlk.—बेलुरा	SE; 15.0	731; 526; 98; 159	Raja; Mendhali; 1.4
Berala—Ckl.—बेराळ	S; 5.0	1191; 825; 143; 200	Palashkhed 3.0
Bhadageni—Mlk.—भाडगणी	S; 10.0	3005; 1374; 253; 690	Daulat; Umali; 3.0
Bhadagaon—Ckl.—भडगांव	W; 14.0	2892; 1392; 262; 604	Local; ..
Bhadola—Ckl.—भादोला	N; 21.0	4681; 2296; 450; 702	Local; ..
Bhalagaon—Ckl.—भालगांव	S; 5.0	2301; 1254; 229; 617	Kolara; 1.0
Bhalegaon—Kmg.—भालेगांव	W; 14.0	840; 1577; 330; 632	Local; ..
Bhalegaon—Mhk.—भालेगांव	N; 5.0	1242; 879; 155; 410	Naigaon; 2.0
Bhalegaon—Mlk.—भालेगांव	W; 3.0	1895; 1053; 196; 494	Local; ..
Bhanakhed—Ckl.—भानखेड	S; 3.0	750; 553; 101; 292	Palaskhed 3.0
Bhanapur—Mhk.—भानापुर	SW; 9.0	663; 160; 32; 68	Daulat; Sultanpur; 1.0
Bhandagura—Mlk.—भंडागुरा	NW; 8.0	1465; 529; 113; 250	Chikhali; 1.4
Bhandari—Kmg.—भंडारी	W; 14.0	1324; 620; 127; 266	Pimpalgaon 6.0
Bhandari—Mhk.—भंडारी	SW; 17.0	761; 558; 111; 302	Raja; Sendurjan; 4.0
Bharosa—Ckl.—भरोसा	S; 11.0	5901; 1894; 342; 476	Local; ..
Bhastan—Kmg.—भास्तान	N; 18.0	724; 490; 88; 212	Bhongaon; 3.0
Bhendavad Bk.—Jlg.—भेंडवाड बु.	SE; 7.7	2857; 1371; 288; 601	Local; ..
Bhendavad Kh.—Jlg.—भेंडवाड खु.	SE; 7.7	651; 401; 70; 167	Bhendwad 1.0
			Bk.;

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance/ (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalna; 31.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 3.0 Mahi;	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Ct. Pour- nima; 3 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 2.0	Malkapur; 2.0; Sat.	.. 0.6	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Nandura; 8.2	Nandura; 8.2; Mon.	Yerali; 2.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Jagdamba Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 60.0	Dongaon; 6.0; Wed.	Dongaon; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; lib.
Jalamb; 2.0	Matargaon; 1.0; Fri.	Matargaon; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 7.0	Pimpalgaon 2.0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 2.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Jawala 0.2; Tue. Bazar;		..	Sl (pr).
Khamgaon; 43.0	Chikhali; 5.0; Mon.	Stage; 0.3	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 10.0	Malkapur; 10.0; Sat.	Shelapur 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 47.0	Dhad; 6.0; Mon.	Dhad; 6.0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; dg; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 23.0	Buldhana; 5.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs; Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; 9 tl; m; mq; dg; lib; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Chikhali; 5.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 14.0	Local; .. Sun.	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym; 3 dp.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	Naigaon 1.0 Dattapur;	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamkhed; 2.0	Malkapur; 3.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; dh.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Chikhali; 4.0; Mon.	Stage; 0.2	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 51.0	Sultanpur; 1.0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 8.0	Malkapur; 8.0; Sat.	.. 1.4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Nandura; 12.0	Borjawala; 2.0; Fri.	Fuli; 7.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dh; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Sendurjan; 4.0; Fri.	Sendurjan; 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (gr); tl.
Jalna; 41.0	Chikhali; 11.0; Mon.	Mera kh; 1.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Devi Fr. Ct. Vad. 5; 7 tl; mq; 2 dg; ch; lib; dp (Vet).
Jalamb; 9.0	Matargaon; 5.0; Fri.		rv.	Sl (pr).
Jalamb; 10.0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 5.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Jalamb; 10.0	Bhendwad 1.0; Thu. Bk.;	.. 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Bhendi—Kmg.—भेंडी	SW; 15.0	1045; 68; 15; 38	Kalegaon; 2.0
Bhilakhed—Jlg.—भिलखेड	SE; 9.0	1024; 389; 79; 194	Bodkha; 1.0
Bhilavadi—Mlk.—भिलवडी	E; 13.0	819; 162; 3; 73	Khumgaon; 0.5
Bhivagaon Bk.—Ckl.—भिवगांव बु.	SW; 40.0	1476; 696; 130; 281	Deulgaon Raja; 4.0
Bhivapur—Mhk.—भिवपुर	NE; ..	834; 21; 5; 9	
Bhogavati—Ckl.—भोगावती	W; 1.0	581; 545; 82; 304	Sawargaon- Dukre; 1.4
Bhokar—Ckl.—भोकर	SW; 7.0	3250; 1305; 238; 721	Godri; 2.0
Bhon—Jlg.—भोन	SE; 12.0	1627; 926; 201; 406	Manasgaon; 3.0
Bhonagaon—Kmg.—भोनगांव	N; 23.0	3940; 1920; 364; 613	Local; ..
Bhoratek—Mlk.—भोरटेक	S; 11.0	825; 240; 45; 101	Nalgangapur; 0.6
Bhoravand—Mlk.—भोरवड	SE; 28.0	886; 221; 42; 70	Mendhali; 3.4
Bhorsa—Ckl.—भोर्सा	E; ..	562; 718; 130; 291	Ekalra; 3.0
Bhorsi—Ckl.—भोर्सी	E; 17.0	745; 187; 32; 95	Eklara; 3.0
Bhosa—Mhk.—भोसा	NE; 16.0	2216; 921; 181; 502	Loni Gaoli; 3.0
Bhosa—Mhk.—भोसा	SW; 37.0	2007; 278; 51; 98	Kingaon Raja; 9.0
Bhota—Kmg.—भोटा	NW; 18.0	1275; 953; 172; 383	Local; ..
Bhuising—Mlk.—भुईसिंग	E; 20.0	617; 243; 59; 95	Nandura; 2.0
Bhumarala—Mhk.—भुमराळा	SW; 20.0	4287; 986; 179; 412	Local; ..
Bibakhed—Mhk.—बिबखेड	SW; 23.0	2005; 457; 75; 161	Tambola; 3.0
Bibi—Mhk.—बिबी	SW; 20.0	3223; 1436; 418; 474	Local; ..
Birasingapur—Ckl.—बिरसिंगपूर	NW; 20.0	1481; 874; 126; 280	Deulghat; 2.0
Bodakha—Jlg.—बोडखा	SE; 10.0	1408; 937; 184; 339	Local; ..
Bodegaon—Ckl.—बोदेगांव	W; 31.0	871; 387; 76; 186	Mhasla Bk.; 1.4
Bondagaon—Kmg.—बोंडगांव	N; 22.0	947; 302; 52; 93	Bhongaon; 0.1
Boragaon Kakade—Ckl.—बोरगांव काकडे.	E; 7.0	2193; 1166; 227; 532	Dahigaon; 2.0
Boragaon Vasi—Ckl.—बोरगांव वसु	E; 4.0	1328; 448; 80; 154	Peth; 4.0
Borajavala—Kmg.—बोरजवळा	W; 14.0	2753; 838; 180; 267	Local; ..
Borakhed—Ckl.—बोरखेड	N; 21.0	6040; 207; 75; 191	

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 15.0	Kalegaon; 2.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 8.0 Raja;	n.	tl.
Shegaon; 18.0	Nirod; 1.0; Fri.	Sangrampur; 2.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khumgaon; 0.5	Dahigaon; 0.6; Thu.	Dahiwadi; 1.4 Fata;	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 12.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sat. Raja;	.. 0.2	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 3 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Chikhali; 1.0; Mon.	Chikhali; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 45.0	Chikhali; 7.0; Mon.	Chikhali; 7.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl.
Shegaon; 10.0	Manasgaon; 3.0; Sun.	Manasgaon; 3.0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Shegaon; 12.0	Local; .. Thu.		rv.	4 Sl (2pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 3 tl; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 11.0	Motala; 3.4; Thu.	.. 0.7	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 10.0	Jawala 4.4; Tue. Bazar;	Tarwadi; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 35.0	Amadapur; 6.0; Wed.	Ekalra; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; 2 dg.
Khamgaon; 35.0			..	..
Washim; 32.0	Amadapur; 2.0; Wed.	Ekalra; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dg.
Jalna; 21.0	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.	Warud; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 8.0	Sindkhed 8.0; Mon. Raja;	.. 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Nandura; 2.0	Matargaon 6.0; Fri. Bk.;	Yerali; 3.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Khamgaon; 62.0			..	..
Khamgaon; 65.0	Kingaon 3.0; Wed. Jattu;	.. 3.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Lonar; 9.0; Mon.	Lonar; 9.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 34.0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Shegaon; 17.0	Deulghat; 2.0; Fri.	Deulghat; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 51.0	Nirod; 2.0; Fri.		W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Shegaon; 11.0	Mhasla 1.4; Wed. Bk.;	Mhasla Bk.; 1.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 32.0	Bhongaon; 1.0; Thu.	Manasgaon; 3.0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 31.0	Chikhali; 8.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 10 tl.
Mandura; 12.0	Chikhali; 4.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 30.0	Local; .. Fri.	Nandura- Motala Road; 1	W.	Sl (m); 4 Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Borakhed—Jlg.—बोरखेड	NE; 160	704; 171; 24; 61	Sonala; 2.0
Borakhedi—Mhk.—बोरखेडी	S; 9.0	881; 431; 84; 131	Sultanpur; 2.0
Borakhedi Bk.—Mhk.—बोरखेडी बु.	SW; 26.0	677; 418; 85; 217	Changefal; 2.0
Borakhedi—Mlk.—बोरखेडी	S; 15.2	1194; 1458; 233; 381	Local; ..
Borakhedi Bavara—Ckl.—बोरखेडी बावरा.	S; 40.0	1326; 587; 90; 298	Local; ..
Borala—Ckl.—बोराळा	NE; 17.0	7852; 81; 14; 40	Dongarkhan- dala; 1.0
Borala—Ckl.—बोराळा	SW; ..	776; 6; 1; 5	
Borala Bk.—Jlg.—बोराळा बु.	SE; 4.0	960; 531; 118; 258	Jalgaon; 4.0
Borala Kh.—Jlg.—बोराळा खु.	SE; 4.0	576; 560; 90; 239	Jalgaon; 4.0
Bori—Kmg.—बोरी	SE; 18.0	889; 1065; 223; 447	Local; ..
Bori—Mhk.—बोरी	SE; 5.0	2352; 1370; 253; 670	Sonati; 2.0
Botha—Kmg.—बोथा	SW; 15.0	4107; 143; 30; 74	Kalegaon; 4.0
Botha—Mhk.—बोथा	N; 18.0	1381; 432; 93; 125	.. 5.0
Bothakajhi—Kmg.—बोथाकाजी	SE; 21.0	1827; 1030; 207; 452	Local; ..
Brahman vada—Kmg.—ब्राह्मण- वाडा	N; 11.0	969; 284; 66; 75	
Brahman Chikana—Mhk.—ब्राह्मण चिकना	SW; 14.0	1241; 362; 62; 173	Somthana; 3.0
Bramhapuri—Ckl.—ब्रह्मपुरी	N; 12.0	1887; 935; 178; 421	Kinhola; 0.4
Brahmapuri—Mhk.—ब्रह्मपुरी	N; 11.0	2008; 1456; 250; 577	Local; ..
Buldhana Rural Area—Ckl.— बुलढाणा ग्रामीण विभाग		3913; 1055; 207; 215	
Buldhana Urban Area I—Ckl.— बुलढाणा नागरी विभाग,	HQ; ..	396; 25303; 4778; 1977	
Burti—Mlk.—बुर्ती	SE; 9.4	825; 407; 58; 194	Wadner; 1.4
Burti Pr. Vadaner—Mlk.—बुर्ती प्र. वडनेर	E; 13.0	304; 74; 20; 32	Khumgaon; 0.3
Butta—Mhk.—बुट्टा	SW 2.0	900; 311; 55; 94	Changefal; 3.0
Chalathana Kh.—Jlg.—चालठाणा खु.	N; 5.4	838; 322; 53; 74	Sungaon; 2.0
Chamagaon—Mhk.—चामगांव	W; 5.0	2881 1494; 273; 613	Local; ..
Chambharavadi—Ckl.—चांभार- वाडी.	SE; 13.0	1123; 426; 86; 153	Antrikhedekar; 3.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Hiwarkhed; 8.0	Motala; .. Thu.	Bhadola; 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Sonala; 2.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W.	tl.
Jalna; 32.0	Sultanpur; 2.0; Tue.	Sultanpur; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Malkapur; 15.0	Kingaon 4.0; Wed.	Kingaon 4.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
	Jattu;	Jattu;		
Jalna; 20.0	Motala; 0.5; Thu.	.. 0.2	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; lib; dp
Khamgaon; 30.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
.. ..	Raja;			
	Chikhali; 17.0; Mon.	Dongar- khandala;	1.0 rv.	tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Wadshingi; 2.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Wadshingi; 2.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 18.0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 47.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Kalegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon Raja;	9.0 rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 29.0	Janefal; 7.0; Sat.		W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 21.0	Adgaon; 2.0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; dg; lib; ap.
.. ..			W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 56.0	Bibi; 4.0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 25.0	Chikhali; 12.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 11.0; Sun.	.. 1.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; m; dh; lib; dp.
.. ..			..	..
.. ..			..	..
Chandur Bisva;	Wadner; 1.4; Sat.	Wadner; 1.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Dahigaon; 0.1; Thu.	Wadi; 2.0	W;w.	tl.
Partud;	Sevali; 6.0; Tue.	.. 9.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 22.0	Sungaon; 2.0; Sat.	.. 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Jalna; 43.0	Chikhali; 13.0; Mon.	Merakh; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Chandhai—Ckl.—चांधई	N; 10.6	997; 225; 63; 105	Shelsur; 2.0
Chandhai Pr. Chikhali—Ckl.—चांधई प्र. चिकली.	SW; 1.4	1634; 1097; 193; 526	Palaskhed- Dault; 0.6
Chandol—Ckl.—चंडोल	W; 25.0	6463; 4747; 788; 1895	Local; ..
Chandur Bisva—Mlk.—चंदुर बिस्वा.	E; 9.0	3066; 4368; 791; 1154	Local; ..
Chargephal—Mhk.—चांगेफळ	SW; 25.0	3900; 1460; 258; 670	Local; ..
Chargephal Bk.—Jlg.—चांगेफळ बु.	E; 5.0	1024; 334; 68; 145	Niwana; 1.0
Chargephal Kh.—Jlg.—चांगेफळ खु.	E; ..	960; 426; 82; 181	Niwana; 1.0
Chautha—Ckl.—चौथा	NW; 26.0	1225; 955; 160; 481	Padali; 2.0
Chavarda—Jlg.—चावर्दा	SE; 7.2	1140; 744; 154; 358	Bhendwad Bk.; 1.6
Chavarda—Mlk.—चावर्दा	S; 18.4	945; 761; 124; 352	Pimprigavali; 0.4
Chikhala—Ckl.—चिखला	NW; 18.0	1697; 738; 116; 292	Hatedi Bk.; 2.0
Chikhala—Mhk.—चिखला	SW; 17.0	1804; 949; 178; 515	Bibi; 2.0
Chikhali—Mlk.—चिखली	NW; 10.0	780; 70; 15; 33	Local; ..
Chikhali Bk.—Kmg.—चिखली बु.	NW; 7.0	1112; 216; 53; 103	Lanzood; 1.0
Chikhali Kh.—Kmg.—चिखली खु.	NW; 8.0	582; 186; 41; 68	
Chikhali Rural Area—Ckl.— चिखली ग्रामीण विभाग.	.. 0.1½	4447; 1505; 313; 305	Chikhali; 0.1
Chikhali Urban Area II—Ckl.— चिखली नागरी विभाग २.	HQ; ..	1349; 18634; 3429; 1772	Local; ..
Chinchakhed—Ckl.—चिंचखेड	SW; 21.0	1991; 723; 122; 351	Isrul; 1.0
Chinchakhed Bk.—Mlk.—चिंचखेड बु.	NW; 9.2	1312; 84; 13; 43	Wadji; 3.0
Chinchakhed Kh.—Mlk.— चिंचखेड खु.	SW; 15.0	447; 249; 47; 82	Wadji; 2.0
Chinchakhedanath—Kmg.— चिंचखेडनाथ	SW; 16.0	731; 217; 40; 103	Pimpalgaon- Raja; 8.0
Chinchala—Mhk.—चिंचाला	NE; 21.0	1705; 198; 38; 108	

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 24.0	Chikhali; 10.6; Mon.	Dhodap; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Chikhali; 1.4; Mon.	Chikhali; 1.4	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); tl; ch.
Malkapur; 50.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Dharmadev Fr. Bdp. 1; 5 tl; 2 mq; 4 dg; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Wadner; 3.2	w;rv.	4 SI (3 m, h); Cs (mp); Shiv Jayanti Vsk. Sud. 2; 2 mq; 3 dg; dh; ch; lib; 5 dp (Vet).
Jalna; 30.0	Kingaon 3.0; Wed. Jattu;	Raheri; 6.0	w;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl.
Nandura; 22.0	Nirod; 3.0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 23.0	Nirod; 2.0; Fri.	Niwana; 1.0	W.	Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 40.0	Buldhana; 12.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl.
Jalamb; 12.6	Madakhed; 1.0; Sat.	Jalamb; 6.2	W.	SI (pr); pyt (gr); 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 18.4	Shelgaon 6.0; Fri. Bazar;	.. 7.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 37.0	Dudha; 2.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 59.0	Bibi; 2.0; Tue.	.. 2.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 10.0	Malkapur; 10.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 5.0	Nandura; 5.0; Mon.	Nandura; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Nandura; 4.0	Nandura; 4.0; Mon.		..	..
Khamgaon; 35.0	Chikhali; 0.1; Mon.	Chikhali; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); tl; dg; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 35.0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	11 SI (5 pr, 4 h, 2 clg); 3 Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Purnima; 9 tl; m; 4 mq; 3 dg; 2 dh; gym; ch; lib; 13 dp.
Jalna; 30.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 5.0	W;rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 9.2	Malkapur; 9.2; Sat.	Malkapur; 9.2	W.	tl.
Nandgaon; 6.0	Urankhed; 3.0; Thu.	.. 4.0	W;w.	SI (pr); tl.
Nandura; 13.0	Motala; 8.0; Thu.	Fuli; 4.0	W.	tl; ch.
Akola; 65.0	Wishvi; 2.0; Tue.	Dongaon; 10.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Chinchapur—Kmg.—चिचपूर	S; 25.0	1888; 1694; 369; 765	Local; ..
Chinchapur—Mlk.—चिचपूर	S; 13.0	1518; 652; 119; 167	Nalgangapur; 0.4
Chinchol—Mlk.—चिचोल	N; 11.0	875; 159; 25; 56	Dasarkhed; 4.0
Chincholi—Kmg.—चिचोली	NE; 8.0	2039; 1245; 274; 697	Local; ..
Chincholi—Mhk.—चिचोली	SW; 4.0	1663; 804; 138; 430	Sultanpur; 2.0
Chincholi—Mhk.—चिचोली	SW; 35.0	2383; 786; 149; 331	Kingaon Raja; 9.0
Chincholi—Mhk.—चिचोली	S; 22.0	1887; 843; 149; 428	Deulgaon- Kundapal; 1.0
Chincholi Burakul—Ckl.—चिचोली बुरकुल.	S; 32.0	1520; 326; 60; 197	Pimpalgaon Bk.; 3.0
Chitode—Kmg.—चितोडा	SE; 13.3	2459; 1116; 208; 377	Local; ..
Chondhi—Jlg.—चोंढी	SE; 10.4	1804; 537; 100; 197	Rudhana; 2.0
Chondhi—Mhk.—चोंढी	SW; 9.0	598; 172; 27; 41	Sultanpur; 4.0
Chorapangra—Mhk.—चोरपांग्रा	SW; 22.0	1557; 1088; 188; 549	Bibi; 2.0
Chunakhedi—Jlg.—चुनखेडी	NE; 27.0	256; 78; 14; 12	Tunki Bk.; 13.0
Dabha—Mhk.—दाभा	S; 8.0	2663; 831; 146; 435	Local; ..
Dabha—Mlk.—दाभा	S; 27.0	2796; 676; 125; 202	Rohinkhed; 4.4
Dabhadi—Mlk.—दाभाडी	S; 7.0	1865; 1801; 333; 829	Local; ..
Dadagaon—Kmg.—दादगांव	N; 18.0	1582; 693; 134; 339	Bhota; 1.0
Dadulagaon—Jlg.—दादुलगांव	SW; 12.0	924; 795; 154; 349	Local; ..
Dadulagavhan—Mhk.—दादुल गव्हाण	S; 4.0	1167; 584; 97; 269	Sultanpur; 1.0
Dahid Bk.—Ckl.—दहिद बु.	NW; 24.0	2761; 1710; 320; 640	Local; ..
Dahid Kh.—Ckl.—दहिद ख.	NW; 26.0	1074; 538; 98; 264	Dahid Bk.; 2.0
Dahigaon—Ckl.—दहिगांव	E; 8.0	1232; 1188; 223; 594	Local; ..
Dahigaon—Mlk.—दहिगांव	E; 14.0	1260; 262; 42; 139	Local; ..
Dahigaon—Mlk.—दहिगांव	SW; 14.0	595; 1627; 333; 521	Vadji; 2.0
Dahivadi—Mlk.—दहिवडी	E; 15.0	972; 432; 132; 188	Khumgaon; 2.0
Dalasavangi—Ckl.—दालसावंगी	NW; 21.0	3703; 1229; 288; 694	Dhad; 2.0
Danapur—Jlg.—दानापूर	E; 21.0	384; 73; 13; 42	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 25.0	Mahar- khed; 6.0; Fri.	Maharkhed; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 2 tl; m; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 13.0	Motala; 2.0; Thu.	.. 0.3	t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 11.0	Malkapur; 11.0; Sat.	.. 4.0	W.	Sl (pr).
Shegaon; 3.0	Shegaon; 3.0; Tue.	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Mehekar; 4.0; Sun.	.. 0.6	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 21.0	Sevali; 5.0; Tue.	Sindkhed Raja; 10.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Urus Ps. Vad. 3; 2 tl; dg; ch.
.. ..	Lonar; 6.0; Mon.	Lonar; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Jalna; 24.0	Sindkhed Raja; 3.4; Mon.	Asola Pr. Sindkhed; 2.0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 13.3	Balapur; 6.0; Sat.	Khamgaon- Balapur Road; 3.3	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Shegaon; 15.0	Nirod; .. Fri.	Warwat Bakal; 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl
Khamgaon; 51.0	Sultanpur; 4.0; Tue.	.. 3.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 64.0	Bibi; 2.0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. 23.0	Tunki Bk.; 13.0; Wed.	Tunki; 13.0	W.	..
Khamgaon; 50.0	Mehekar; 8.0; Sun.	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 27.0	Rohinkhed 4.0; Sun.	.. 5.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 7.0	Malkapur; 7.0 Sat.	.. 1.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Devi Fr. Phg. Vad. 10; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Jalamb; 5.0	Nandura; 6.0; Mon.	Yerali; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Nandura; 11.0	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Fri.		W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Kale; Sultanpur; 1.0; Tue.	Sultanpur; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
.. ..	Deulghat; 5.0; Fri.		W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Bdp. Sud. 1; 3 tl; gym; lib; 3 dp.
Malkapur; 40.0	Dudha; 2.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Chikhali; 8.0; Mon.	Local; 0.2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; dg; lib.
Khumgaon; 0.6	Local; .. Thu.	Wadi; 1.4	W;w.	2 Sl (m, h); 6 tl; dp.
Nandgaon; 7.0	Jamati; 7.0; Sat.	.. 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khumgaon; 2.0	Dahigaon; 1.4; Thu.	Kolasar; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 43.0	Dhad; 2.0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; ch.
Hiwarkhed; 6.0	Malegaon; 4.0; Fri.	Sonala; 1.0	W.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Daregaon—Mhk.—दरेगांव	SW; ..	593; 54; 13; 3	
Daregaon—Mhk.—दरेगांव	W; 16.0	2728; 1049; 196; 450	Local; ..
Dasala—Ckl.—डासाळा	NE; 20.0	1561; 607; 120; 295	Undri; 1.0
Dasalavadi—Ckl.—डासाळवाडी	NW; ..	647; 505; 77; 183	
Dasarakhed—Mlk.—दसरखेड	NW; 7.0	2047; 997; 210; 469	Local; ..
Dastapur—Kmg.—दस्तापूर	SE; 22.0	1946; 93; 19; 49	Loni; 1.0
Datala—Mlk.—दाताळा	S; 5.2	4756; 4293; 906; 1588	Local; ..
Dattapur—Ckl.—दत्त पुर	NW; ..	1053; 345; 63; 133	
Davaragaon—Mhk.—डावरगांव	SW; ..	2092; 1040; 163; 542	Local; ..
Deulagaon—Jlg.—देऊळगांव	SE; 19.2	450; 107; 20; 42	Peturda; 2.0
Deulagaon Dharagar—Ckl.— देऊळगांव धनगर	S; 10.0	4152; 1738; 358; 807	Local; ..
Deulagaon Kol—Mhk.— देऊळगांव कोळ	SW; 17.0	3297; 1675; 280; 692	Khalegaon; 2.0
Deulagaon Kundapal—Mhk.— देऊळगांव कुंडपाळ	S; 18.0	2672; 1360; 253; 629	Local; ..
Deulagaon Mahi—Ckl.— देऊळगांव मही	SW; 23.0	4563; 3317; 620; 1241	Local; ..
Deulagaon Mali—Mhk.—देऊळगांव माळी	NW; 7.0	3051; 2828; 506; 1309	Local; ..
Deulagaon Raja I—Ckl.—देऊळगांव राजा		.. 69; 15; 26	
Deulagaon Raja Urban Area III— Ckl.—देऊळगांव राजा-३ नागरी विभाग	SW; 36.0	3.86; 11467; 2013; 869	Local; ..
Deulagaon Sakarasha—Mhk.— देऊळगांव साकरशा	NE; 24.0	935; 3055; 485; 1172	Local; ..
Deulagaon Vayasa—Mhk.— देऊळगांव वायसा	S; 22.0	1978; 942; 183; 506	Jambhul; 2.0
Deulaghat—Ckl.—देऊळघाट	NW; 20.0	3499; 6915; 1154; 1548	Local; ..
Deulakhed—Kmg.—देऊळखेड	SE; 22.3	961; 189; 42; 98	Shahapur; 1.0
Devadari—Ckl.—देवदरी	E; 18.0	850; 26; 6; 13	Dongar- khandala; Loc I; ..
Devadhaba—Mlk.—देवधाबा	W; 7.0	2779; 2532; 506; 981	
Devakhed—Mhk.—देवखेड	SW; 25.0	1103; 1046; 202; 410	Changefal; 3.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
.. ..				
Khamgaon; 45.0	Shendur- jan; 2.0; Fri.	.. 3.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 31.0	Undri; 1.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
.. ..				
Malkapur; 7.0	Malkapur; 7.0; Sat.	.. 0.1	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 5 tl; ch.
Paras; 14.0	Balapur; 8.0; Sat.	Balapur; 8.0	W.	tl.
Malkapur; 5.2	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	w,rv.	3 SI (2 pr, h); Cs; 7 tl; mq; gym; ch; 3 lib; dp.
.. ..				
.. ..	Sindkhed Raja; 5.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W.	2 SI (pr, h); Cs; dg.
Shegaon; 12.0	Paturda; 2.0; Mon.	Paturda; 2.0	W.	SI (pr).
Jalna; 44.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	Mera kh; 4.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 5 tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Malkapur Pangra; 5.0; Thu.	Malkapur Pangra; 5.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl.
Khamgaon; 68.0	Lonar; 3.0; Mon.	Lonar; 3.0	W.	SI (m); Cs; Devi Fr. An. Sud. 9; 2 tl; ch.
Jalna; 28.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	4 SI (2 pr, m, h); Cs; 6 tl; m; mq; ch; dp.
Khamgaon; 50.0		Nagzari; 1.4	rv.	2 SI (pr, h); Fr. Asd. Vad. 1; 4 tl; gym; ch; lib; dp.
.. ..				
Jalna; 16.0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;Pl.	7 SI (pr, 3 m, 2 h, clg); 7 Cs; Shri Balaji Fr. As. Vad. 4; 50 tl; m; 2 mq; dg; 3 dh; ch; 2 lib; 10 dp.
Khamgaon; 20.0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 10 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; lib; 3 dp.
.. ..	Loni; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 34.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	w,rv.	2 SI (pr, h); 2 Cs; 5 tl; m; 6 mq; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Paras; 18.0	Adgaon; 5.0; Wed.	Shahapur; 0.1	w,rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 28.0	Buldhana; 8.0; Sun.	.. 4.0	W.	tl.
Khamkhed; 1.3	Malkapur; 7.0; Sat.	Malkapur; 7.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; lib; 2 dp (Vet).
Jalna; 34.0	Kingaon Jattu; 4.0; Wed.	.. 4.0	rv.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Devapur—Ckl.—देवपूर	NW; 21.0	2682; 1049; 193; 362	Dudha; 2.0
Dhad—Ckl.—घाड	W; 26.0	5377; 5178; 865; 1530	Local; ..
Dhad—Mhk.—घाड	S; 25.0	2588; 508; 96; 273	Nandra; 4.0
Dhadam—Kmg.—धदम	S; 22.0	2428; 256; 51; 139	Lakhanwada; 2.0
Dhadi—Mlk.—घाडी	E; 15.0	1052; 385; 72; 156	Mamulwadi; 2.0
Dhamanagaon—Ckl.—धामणांव.	W; 31.0	1594; 1256; 221; 452	Local; ..
Dhamanagaon—Jlg.—धामणांव.	E; 5.0	1344; 568; 109; 256	Palshi Zashi; 1.4
Dhamangaon Badhe—Mlk.— धामणांव बढे.	SW; 30.0	5786; 5774; 1042; 1973	Local; ..
Dhamanagaon Deshamukh—Mlk. धामणांव देशमुख.	SE; 23.0	1605; 483; 89; 193	Jaipur; 2.0
Dhanduravadi—Mhk.—धांदुरवाडी.	SW; 38.0	2992; 1161; 185; 479	Davargaon; 3.0
Dhanora—Jlg.—धानोरा	W; 5.0	3200; 1828; 345; 944	Local; ..
Dhanora—Mhk.—धानोरा	SW; 8.0	787; 473; 97; 284	Khalegaon; 2.0
Dhanora—Mhk.—धानोरा	SW; 25.0	1444; 685; 116; 340	Changefal; 3.0
Dhanora—Mlk.—धानोरा	SE; 7.0	896; 679; 139; 212	Local; ..
Dhanora Bk.—Mlk.—धानोरा बु.	E; 22.0	522; 203; 35; 96	Nandura; 4.0
Dhanora Kh.—Mlk.—धानोरा खु.	SE; 22.0	354; 151; 25; 54	Nandura; 4.0
Dhanori—Ckl.—धानोरी	E; 22.0	1600; 470; 80; 188	Isoli; 2.0
Dhapati—Kmg.—धापटी	SW; 4.0	1160; 77; 17; 31	Gendhanapur; 1.0
Dharanagaon—Mlk.—धरणगांव	N; 3.0	2167; 2975; 529; 1224	Local; ..
Dhayaphal—Mhk.—धायफळ	S; 20.0	1534; 607; 110; 317	Tambola; 3.0
Dhodap—Ckl.—धोडप	N; 12.0	1278; 765; 140; 181	
Dhondakhed—Mlk.—धोंडखेड	SW; 10.0	944; 332; 66; 207	Pophali; 2.0
Dhorapagaon—Kmg.—ढोरपगांव	SW; 13.0	2793; 1423; 292; 606	Local; ..
Dhoravi—Mhk.—ढोरवी	W; 25.0	1640; 606; 93; 287	Malkapur 2.0
Dhotra—Kmg.—धोत्रा	S; 4.0	1236; 37; 9; 20	pangra; Gondhanapur; 4.0
Dhotra Bhanagoji—Ckl.—धोत्रा भनगोजी.	NE; 8.0	1453; 1390; 270; 556	Shelsur; 1.3

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 41.0	Dudha; 2.0; Sat.	Dudha; 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; gym; lib.
Malkapur; 45.0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); 2 Cs; 4 tl; 2 mq; dg; dp.
Khamgaon; 67.0	Lonar; 10.0; Mon.	.. 15.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 22.0	Lakhan- wada; 2.0; Tue.	Lokhanda; 13.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khumgaon; 1.4	Nandura; 6.0; Mon.	Nandura; 6.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 49.0	Masrul; 1.0; Tue.	Local; ..	rv.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Shegaon; 22.0	Tamgaon; 3.0; Tue.	Niwana; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 30.0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); 4 Cs; 7 tl; 2 mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 3 dp (Vet).
Malkapur; 23.0		.. 5.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; dp.
Jalna; 20.0	Sindkhed 6.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 6.0 Raja;	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Urus Ps. Sud. 15; 2 tl; dg; ch; dp.
Nandura; 16.0	Asalgaon; 3.0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 3.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; dp.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Sultanpur; 4.0; Tue.	.. 4.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 33.0	Sevali; 6.0; Tue.	Raheri; 7.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Chandur 4.0	Wadner; 2.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Bisva;				
Nandura; 4.0	Nandura; 4.0; Mon.	Nandura; 4.0	W;w.	2 tl.
Nandura; 4.0	Nandura; 4.0; Mon.	Nandura; 4.0	W;w.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 5.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 4.0	Khamgaon; 4.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 4.0	W.	tl.
Malkapur; 3.0	Malkapur; 3.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 70.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	Lonar; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 28.0	Chikhali; 12.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Malkapur; 19.0	Motala; 8.0; Thu.	.. 8.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 13.0	Kalegaon; 1.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 4.0 Raja;	W.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Malkapur 2.0; Thu. Pangra;	Malkapur 2.0 Pangra;	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 4.0	Khamgaon; 4.0; Thu.	Khamgaon- Chikhali; Road;	W.	..
Khamgaon; 33.0	Chikhali; 8.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Dhotra Naik—Ckl.—धोत्रा नाईक..	NE; 26.0	1239; 1303; 278; 676	Local; ..
Dhotra Pr. Malakapur Pangra— Ckl.—धोत्रा प्र. मलकापुर पांग्रा.	S; 20.0	3480; 897; 166; 477	Saramba; 2.0
Didola Bk.—Mlk.—डिडोला बु.	S; 12.0	1610; 815; 150; 239	Nalgangapur; 1.0
Didola Kh.—Mlk.—डिडोला खु.	S; 12.2	642; 362; 64; 109	Nalgangapur; 1.2
Dighi—Mlk.—डिघी	E; 10.4	1942; 1322; 238; 576	Chandur 1.4 Bisva;
Digras Bk.—Mhk.—डिग्रस बु.	SW; 25.0	2259; 147; 198; 556	Local; ..
Digras Kh.—Mhk.—डिग्रस खु.	SW; 26.0	763; 228; 44; 68	Digras Bk.; 0.2
Divathana—Ckl.—दिवठाणा	NE; 5.0	964; 788; 150; 318	Peth; ..
Divathana—Kmg.—दिवठाणा	SW; 12.0	1477; 301; 58; 145	Rohana; 1.0
Dodra—Ckl.—दोद्रा	S; 20.0	3525; 810; 149; 309	Ancharwadi; 3.0
Dolakhed—Mlk.—डोलखेड	S; 18.0	1340; 113; 23; 30	Takarkhed; 2.0
Dolarakhed—Kmg.—डोलरखेड	N; 16.0	644; 559; 110; 227	Matargaon; 3.0
Domarul—Ckl.—डोमरुळ	NW; 30.0	1290; 983; 160; 445	Dhamangaon; 1.0
Donagaon—Mhk.—डोणगांव	E; 10.6	10810; 6983; 1257; 1931	Local; ..
Dondavada—Kmg.—दोंदवाडा	N; 12.0	466; 184; 32; 44	
Dongaragaon—Ckl.—डोंगरगांव	E; 23.0	1170; 415; 81; 261	Local; ..
Dongarakhandala—Ckl.—डोंगर- खंडाला.	N; 16.0	2485; 3148; 566; 1434	Local; ..
Dongarashevali—Ckl.—डोंगर- शेवली.	N; 14.0	5376; 1717; 334; 839	Local; ..
Drugabori—Mhk.—द्रुग बोरी	NE; 16.0	2054; 685; 130; 505	Ghatbori; 2.0
Dudha—Ckl.—दुधा	NW; 19.0	1491; 944; 172; 409	Local; ..
Dudha—Kmg.—दुधा	SE; 21.0	1140; 38; 8; 22	Lakhanwada 2.0 Bk.;
Dudha—Mhk.—दुधा	NW; 10.0	1541; 358; 65; 176	
Dudhalagaon—Mlk.—दुधलगांव	SW; 7.0	2471; 1588; 302; 750	Local; ..
Dudhalagaon Kh.—Mlk.—दुधल- गांव खु.	N; 12.0	841; 266; 59; 107	Chikhali; 2.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 26.0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 6.0	W.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; lib.
Jalna; 34.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sun. Mahi;	.. 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Malkapur; 12.0	Motala; 3.0; Thu.	.. 0.4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch; dp.
Malkapur; 12.2	Motala; 3.0; Thu.	Nalganga- pur; 0.6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Chandur 1.4	Chandur 1.4; Sun. Bisva;	.. 2.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Jalna; 38.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sun. Mahi;		W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 4 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 46.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon; 5.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 29.0	Chikhali; 5.0; Mon.	.. 0.4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 12.0	Warna; 1.0; Fri.	Antraj; 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Jalna; 30.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Nandura; 17.1	Motala; 6.0; Thu.	Shemba Bk.; 4.0	W;w.	tl.
Jalamb; 8.0	Matargaon; 3.0; Fri.		w;rv.	Sl (m); tl; lib.
Malkapur; 47.0	Dhad; 1.0; Mon.	Dhad; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; lib; dp.
Washim; 31.0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 3 Cs; Urus Ct. Vad. 4; 8 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; lib; 4 dp.
Jalamb; 3.0			W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 32.0	Janefal; 8.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 34.0	Chikhali; 16.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 2 tl; m; gym; ch; lib; 2 dp; Cch.
Khamgaon; 32.0	Buldhana; 12.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Somanath Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 4 tl; mq; lib.
Khamgaon; 29.0	Dongaon; 7.0; Wed.	Ghatbori; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 39.0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Fr. Ct. Purnima; 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 21.0	Lakhan- wada Bk.; 2.0; Tue.	Ambetakali; 3.0	w;rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Mehekar; 10.0; Sun.	Brahmapuri; 1.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 7.0	Malkapur; 7.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 12.0	Chikhali; 2.0; Tue.		rv.	Sl (pr); Cs.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Durgadaitya—Jlg.—दुर्गादेव	SE; 14.0	1557; 654; 123; 237	Wankhed; 0.4
Dusarabid—Mhk.—दुसरबीड	SW; 25.0	4244; 2432; 445; 959	Local; ..
Ekalara—Ckl.—एकलारा	E; 12.0	3098; 1824; 354; 807	Local; ..
Ekaphal—Kmg.—एकफळ	NE; 11.0	967; 248; 40; 47	
Gadegaon—Mlk.—गाडेगांव	S; 1.4	349; 20; 4; 9	Malkapur; 1.4
Gadegaon Bk.—Jlg.—गाडेगांव बु.	S; 7.0	1360; 563; 128; 268	Gadegaon 2.0
Gadegaon Kh.—Jlg.—गाडेगांव खु.	S; 7.0	1088; 1011; 199; 424	Kh.; ..
Gajarakhed—Mhk.—गजरखेड	NW; 12.0	1017; 423; 82; 254	Gunj; 1.0
Ganapur—Mhk.—गणपूर	S; 3.0	860; 723; 124; 345	Sultanpur; 3.0
Gandhari—Mhk.—गंधारी	S; 26.0	248; 909; 158; 493	Nandra; 2.0
Gangalagaon—Ckl.—गांगलगांव	SE; 10.0	2105; 1591; 278; 574	Local; ..
Garadagaon—Kmg.—गारडगांव	S; 4.4	1435; 807; 270; 275	Gondhanapur; 1.4
Garakhed—Ckl.—गारखेड	SW; 23.0	849; 441; 72; 120	Deulgaon 2.0
Garakhed—Mhk.—गारखेड	SW; 34.0	605; 439; 83; 138	Mahi; ..
Gaulakhed—Kmg.—गौलखेड	N; 8.0	918; 794; 160; 326	Adgaon Raja; 4.0
Gaulakhed—Mlk.—गौलखेड	W; 8.0	342; 220; 41; 78	Talkaliviro; 1.0
Gavandhala—Kmg.—गावंढाळा	SE; 16.0	2510; 1259; 244; 573	
Gavandhala—Mhk.—गवंढाळा	N; 5.0	573; 212; 36; 51	Lakhanwada 2.0
Gavhan—Kmg.—गवहाण	E; 10.0	1580; 851; 165; 320	Bk.; ..
Gayagaon Bk.—Kmg.—गायगांव बु.	E; 8.0	1647; 701; 140; 310	Mehekar; 5.0
Gayagaon Kh.—Kmg.—गायगांव खु.	E; 8.0	996; 396; 81; 162	Jawala Bk.; 2.0
Gayakhed—Mhk.—गायखेड	S; 13.0	2239; 723; 126; 324	Chincholi; 2.0
Geru—Kmg.—गेरु	SW; 18.0	1985; 71; 17; 35	Shara; 2.0
Ghanamod—Ckl.—घानमोड	E; 12.0	378; 77; 16; 29	Undri; 11.0
Ghanegaon—Kmg.—घाणेगांव	W; 11.0	626; 674; 127; 309	Karatwadi; 1.0
Gharud—Kmg.—घारुड	S; 16.0	5887; 1447; 292; 724	Local; ..
			Lokhanda; 2.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Shegaon; 16.0	Wankhed; 0.4; Wed.	Manardi; 2.0	w;rv.	SI (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 25.0	Malkapur 5.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; mq; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Pangra; Chikhali; 12.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 2 tl; 2 dg; ch; lib; 2 dp.
.. ..			W.	SI (pr); tl; dg.
Malkapur; 1.4	Malkapur; 1.4; Sat.	Malkapur; 1.4	rv.	tl.
Nandura; 10.0	Bhendwad; .. Thu.	.. 3.0	W;w.	SI (pr); tl; lib.
Nandura; 12.0	Asalgaon; 2.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 1.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl; m; lib.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 12.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	.. 1.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Washim; 40.0	Loni; 3.0; Mon.	.. 3.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 52.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	Mungsari; 3.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Fr. An. Sud. 15; 6 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 4.4	Khamgaon; 4.0; Thu.	Khamgaon-Chikhali Road; ..	w;rv.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Jalna; 26.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sun.	Deulgaon 2.0	w;rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl; gym.
Jalna; 23.0		Mahi; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Shegaon; 4.0	Shegaon; 4.0; Tue.	Sindkhed 8.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamkhed; 2.0	Malkapur; 8.0; Sat.	Raja; ..	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 16.0	Lakhanwada; 2.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	Malkapur; 8.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Shegaon; 8.0	Jawala Bk.; 2.0; Fri.	.. 1.4	rv.	tl; ch.
Shegaon; 7.0	Shegaon; 7.0; Tue.	Mehekar; 5.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl.
Shegaon; 7.0	Shegaon; 7.0; Tue.	Kolori; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	Chincholi; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 18.0	Undri; 11.0; Sun.	Shegaon; 7.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 29.0	Amdapur; 4.0; Wed.	.. 5.0	W.	..
Nandura; 8.0	Pimpalgaon 1.0; Wed.	Matargaon 2.0	rv;w.	..
Khamgaon; 16.0	Raja; Lakhanwada Bk.; 4.0; Tue.	Geru; ..	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
		Amdapur; 4.0	W.	SI (m); 2 tl; mq; dg; ch.
		Pimpalgaon 1.0	W.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; lib; dp (Vet).
		Raja; ..		
		Lokhanda; 4.0	W.	

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Ghatabori—Mhk.—घाटबोरी	NE; 16.0	4730; 2693; 528; 1288	Local; ..
Ghatanandra—Mhk.—घाटनांदा	N; 17.0	3392; 494; 101; 209	Uti; 3.0
Ghatapuri—Kmg.—घाटपुरी	W; 2.0	2116; 846; 180; 357	Khamgaon; 2.0
Ghirani—Mlk.—घिरणी	SE; 3.4	2204; 1830; 371; 860	Local; ..
Ghoradada—Mhk.—घोरदडा	E; 3.0	590; 41; 8; 28	Ukali; 0.1
Ghui—Kmg.—घुई	NE; 16.0	1105; 312; 59; 115	Shrikshetra Nagzari; 2.0
Ghussar Bk.—Mlk.—घुस्सर बु.	S; 8.0	1087; 411; 73; 184	Dabhadi; 1.4
Ghussar Kh.—Mlk.—घुस्सर खु.	S; 8.0	537; 154; 30; 81	Dabhadi; 1.4
Ghuti—Mhk.—घुटी	N; 13.0	1261; 468; 87; 184	Hiwara Kh.; 1.0
Girda—Ckl.—गिर्डा	NW; 12.0	3341; 500; 93; 233	Padali; 2.0
Girola—Ckl.—गिरोळा	N; 10.0	1790; 263; 47; 79	Kelwad; 2.0
Giroli—Kmg.—गिरोली	SW; 19.0	3284; 438; 81; 237	Pimpalgaon Raja; 9.0
Giroli Bk.—Ckl.—गिरोली बु.	SW; 40.0	2415; 830; 147; 385	Deulgaon Raja; 3.0
Giroli Kh.—Ckl.—गिरोली खु.	SW; 39.0	2575; 811; 139; 467	Deulgaon Raja; 3.0
Godri—Ckl.—गोद्री	SW; 5.0	3267; 1632; 308; 613	Local; ..
Gohogaon—Mhk.—गोहोगांव	E; 14.0	2280; 1579; 282; 805	Pangarkhed; 2.0
Golegaon—Ckl.—गोळेगांव	SW; 41.0	1345; 668; 108; 311	Deulgaon Raja; 5.0
Golegaon Bk.—Jlg.—गोळेगांव बु.	S; 9.0	704; 262; 56; 130	Khandvi; 2.0
Golegaon Bk.—Kmg.—गोळेगांव बु.	NE; 21.0	1287; 561; 115; 234	Manasgaon; 2.0
Golegaon Kh.—Jlg.—गोळेगांव खु.	S; 9.0	448; 412; 81; 135	Khandvi; 4.0
Golegaon Kh.—Kmg.—गोळेगांव खु.	NE; 18.0	493; 193; 38; 86	
Gomedhar—Mhk.—गोमेधर	N; 13.0	1185; 562; 113; 249	Uti; 1.0
Gondhanakhed—Ckl.—गोंधनखेड	NW; ..	751; 133; 24; 51	
Gondhanakhed—Ckl.—गोंधनखेड.	NE; 13.0	393; 56; 11; 18	Kavhala; 1.0
Gondhanakhed Pr. Sindakhed— Ckl.—गोंधनखेड प्र. सिंदखेड.	S; 32.0	654; 449; 74; 125	Pimpalgaon Bk.; 1.4
Gondhanapur—Kmg.—गोंधणापुर.	SW; 5.0	495; 1716; 340; 724	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 40.0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.	SI (m); Cs (fr); 3 tl; m; mq; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 28.0	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Malkapur; 3.4	Malkapur; 3.4; Sat.	.. 1.4	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 5 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	tl.
Shrikshetra Nagzari; 2.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5.0	rv.	SI (pr); tl; lib.
Malkapur; 8.0	Shelapur 1.4; Sun. Kh.;	.. 0.4	w;rv.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 8.0	Shelapur 1.4; Sun. Kh.;	.. 0.4	rv.	..
Khamgaon; 34.0	Janefal; 2.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 40.0	Buldhana; 12.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 5 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 30.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Motala; 8.0; Thu.	.. 4.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Jalna; 15.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 3.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; Cch.
Jalna; 15.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 3.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Gugabai Fr. Ct. Pournima; 6 tl; m; ch.
Khamgaon; 43.0	Chikhali; 5.0; Mon.	Chikhali; 5.0	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); 3 tl; mq; dh; ch; lib.
Akola; 60.0	Dongaon; 3.0; Wed.	.. 3.0	O.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 14.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sat. Raja;	.. 3.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 6 tl; 2 m; ch; lib.
Nandura; 9.0	Asalgaon; 4.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 2.0	w;rv.	SI (pr); tl; lib.
Shegaon; 10.0	Manasgaon; 2.0; Sun.	Manasgaon; 2.0	rv.	SI (pr); tl; lib.
Nandura; 14.0	Asalgaon; 4.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 4.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 8.0	Shegaon; 8.0; Tue.		w;rv.	SI (pr); pyt; dg.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janetal; 3.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 27.0	Arndapur; 1.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 24.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Asola; 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 5.0	Khamgaon; 5.0; Thu.	Garadgaon 1.4 Fata;	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; mq; dg; lib; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Gorad—Mlk.—गोराड ..	W; 8-0	830; 157; 33; 71	Deodhaba, 1-0
Goregaon—Mhk.—गोरेगांव ..	W; 20-0	1613; 776; 128; 370	Sakharkherda; 2-0
Gosing—Mlk.—गोसिंग ..	SE; 22-0	1871; 208; 38; 73	Motala; 7-0
Gotamara—Mlk.—गोतमारा ..	SW; 33-0	974; 637; 112; 287	Korhala; 2-0
Gotra—Mhk.—गोत्रा ..	S; 25-0	2432; 543; 104; 276	Nandra; 2-0
Gugali—Mlk.—गुगली ..	W; 20-0	1339; 451; 99; 167	Lihā Bk.; 3-0
Gulabheli—Mlk.—गुलभेली ..	S; 25-0	1301; 681; 139; 292	Rohinkhed; 2-0
Gummi—Ckl.—गुम्मी ..	NW; 29-0	3972; 1435; 278; 759	Local; ..
Gundha—Mhk.—गुंधा ..	S; 8-0	3381; 1080; 191; 499	Hirado; 2-0
Gunj—Mhk.—गुंज ..	NW; 16-0	1612; 923; 187; 412	Local; ..
Gunjakhed—Mhk.—गुंजखेड ..	SE; 10-0	1574; 861; 166; 436	Dabha; 4-0
Gunjala—Ckl.—गुंजाला ..	SE; 14-0	2656; 407; 74; 245	Mera Bk.; 2-0
Gunjapur—Mhk.—गुंजापूर ..	SW; ..	966; 10; 1; 84	
Hanawatakhed—Ckl.—हनवतखेड ..	N; 17-0	1140; 106; 20; 49	Buldhana; ..
Hanavatakhed—Mhk.—हनवतखेड ..	W; 16-0	865; 335; 60; 127	Waghala; 1-0
Hanavatakhed—Mhk.—हनवतखेड ..	SW; 32-0	854; 584; 115; 236	Adgaon Raja; 2-0
Hanavatakhed—Mlk.—हनवतखेड ..	SW; 33-0	399; 332; 64; 187	Korhala; 3-0
Hanavatakhed—Mlk.—हनवतखेड ..	S; 18-0	200; 106; 18; 48	Pimpri 2-0
Haralakhed—Ckl.—हरालखेड ..	E; 18-0	1443; 422; 80; 175	Gawali; 2-0
Haranakhed—Mlk.—हरणखेड ..	W; 10-0	674; 1487; 304; 551	Amdapur; 2-0
Harani—Ckl.—हरणी ..	NE; 20-0	2371; 896; 172; 469	Wadji; 2-0
Harasoda—Mlk.—हरसोडा ..	NE; 3-0	5112; 3214; 624; 1488	Undri; 2-0
Hashamapur—Jlg.—हाशमपूर ..	W; 8-0	1216; 725; 147; 239	Local; ..
Hatani—Ckl.—हातणी ..	N; 3-4	1077; 903; 167; 302	Dhanora; 2-0
Hatedi Bk.—Ckl.—हतेडी बु. ..	NW; 11-0	2028; 1532; 276; 688	Local; ..
Hatedi Kh.—Ckl.—हतेडी खु. ..	NW; 11-0	1007; 649; 110; 184	Hatedi Bk.; 0-2
Hatta—Mhk.—हत्ता ..	SW; 16-0	1978; 571; 110; 235	Tambola; 2-0
Hingna—Mlk.—हिंगणा ..	E; ..	742; 1; 1; ..	
Hingana Bhota—Kmg.—हिंगणा भोटा.	N; 18-0	447; 381; 64; 202	Bhota; 1-0
Hingana Dadagaon—Kmg.— हिंगणा दादागांव.	N; 16-0	529; 78; 13; 21	Bhota; 2-0

Railway Station/ Distance	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day	Motor Stand/ Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Khamkhed; 1-0	Undri; 8-4; Sun.	Matargaon 0-4 Geru;	w;rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 42-0	Sakhar 2-0; Fri. Kherda;	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 15-0	Motala; 7-0; Thu.	Phuli; 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 33-0	Korhala; 2-0; Mon.	.. 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
.. ..	Loni; 3-0; Mon.		rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 20-0	Pophali; 2-0; Sun.	Liha Bk.; 3-0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 25-0	Rohin- 2-0; Sun. khed;	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Malkapur; 46-0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 50-0	Hirado; 2-0; Sat.	.. 8-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Sakhar 3-0; Sun. Kherda;		W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 42-0	Hirwad; 5-0; Sat.	Sonati; 4-0	w;rv.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Jalna; 42-0	Mera Bk.; 2-0; Sat.	Mera Kh.; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
.. ..			..	..
Malkapur; 28-0	Buldhana; 3-0; Sun.	Buldhana; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 44-0	Malkapur 5-0; Thu. Pangra;	Shendurjan; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jalna; 22-0	Sindkhed 4-0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 4-0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Malkapur; 33-0	Korhala; 3-0; Mon.		W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 18-0	Motala; 7-0; Thu.	.. 7-0	W;w.	tl.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Amdapur; 2-0; Wed.	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 10-0	Malkapur; 10-0; Sat.	Malkapur; 10-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Undri; 2-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 3-0	Malkapur; 3-0; Sat.	Dharangaon; 1-4	W;w.	2Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; lib.
Nandura; 21-0	Asalgaon; 5-0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 5-0	W; Spr.	Sl (pr); Cs; mq.
Malkapur; 38-0	Chikhali; 3-4; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Ganesh Utsav; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 35-0	Dudha; 4-0; Sat.	Local; 0-1	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); tl; lib; Cch.
Malkapur; 35-0	Dudha; 4-0; Sat.	Hatedi Bk.; 0-2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); ch.
.. ..	Lonar; 7-0; Mon.	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
.. ..			..	..
Jalamb; 10-0	Matargaon 6-0; Fri. Bk.;	Matargaon; 6-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Mari Ai Fr. Ct. Vad. 15; 2 tl.
Nandura; 8-0	Nandura; 8-0; Mon.	Nandura; 8-0	rv.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Hingana Gavhan—Mlk.—हिंगणा गवहाण.	NE; 9.0	1452; 288; 197; 298	Mamulwadi; 1.4
Hingana Isapur—Kmg.—हिंगणा इसापूर.	N; 16.0	676; 222; 41; 86	Bhota; 1.4
Hingana Kaji—Mlk.—हिंगणा काजी	W; 5.0	1382; 819; 154; 377	Bhalegaon; 1.4
Hingana Kavathal—Jlg.—हिंगणा कवठळ.	SE; 12.0	535; 290; 64; 92	Jastgaon; 1.0
Hingana Nagapur—Mlk.—हिंगणा नागापूर.	N; 8.0	777; 283; 5; 16	Narwel; 2.0
Hingana Pr. Balapur—Jlg.—हिंगणा प्र. बाळापूर.	S; 11.0	1055; 471; 89; 286	Dadulgaon; 1.0
Hingana Vajinath—Kmg.—हिंगणा वैजिनाथ.	NE; 16.0	1681; 369; 90; 67	Shrikshetra Nagzari; 2.0
Hingane Karegaon—Kmg.—हिंगणे कारेगांव.	SE; 12.0	2826; 1399; 244; 578	Local; ..
Hingane Umara—Kmg.—हिंगणे उमरा	E; 14.0	508; 266; 49; 134	Chitoda; 2.0
Hiradav—Mhk.—हिरडव	S; 7.0	2908; 1469; 289; 558	Local; ..
Hivara—Mhk.—हिवरा	SW; 17.0	999; 350; 59; 131	Shara; 3.0
Hivara Bk.—Kmg.—हिवरा बु.	W; 9.6	2371; 578; 124; 240	Pimpalgaon Raja; 3.0
Hivara Bk.—Mhk.—हिवरा बु.	NW; 11.0	1284; 477; 99; 277	Brahmapuri; 2.0
Hivara Bk.—Mhk.—हिवरा बु.	E; 8.0	1478; 570; 110; 324	Aregaan; 3.0
Hivara Gadeling—Mhk.—हिवरा गडलिंग.	W; 17.0	1925; 758; 129; 261	Waghala; 1.0
Hivara Kh.—Kmg.—हिवरा खु.	W; 11.0	650; 392; 75; 176	Nipana; 1.0
Hivara Kh.—Mhk.—हिवरा खु.	N; 14.0	5892; 2113; 401; 1145	Local; ..
Hivarakhed—Kmg.—हिवरखेड	S; 8.0	7149; 1381; 314; 591	Local; ..
Hivarakhed—Mhk.—हिवरखेड	SW; 23.0	1157; 1289; 228; 657	Local; ..
Hivarakhed—Mhk.—हिवरखेड	NW; 20.0	917; 343; 60; 119	Mohadi; 2.0
Hivaraaik—Ckl.—हिवरानाईक	NE; 26.0	1684; 253; 43; 157	Dhotraaik; 0.4
Ibrahimapur—Mlk.—इब्राहिमपूर	E; 21.0	877; 614; 133; 236	Kothali; 0.4
Ijalapur—Ckl.—इजलापूर	NW; ..	909; 425; 72; 187	
Illora—Jlg.—इल्लोरा	SE; 7.0	446; 246; 48; 89	Bhendwad Bk.; 1.7
Irala—Ckl.—इरला	W; 15.0	1367; 685; 125; 391	Chandol; 2.0
Isabapur—Mlk.—इसाबपूर	E; 15.0	986; 447; 82; 189	Khumgaon; 1.4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Chandur 2.0	Chandur 2.0; Sun.	Wadner; 5.4	W.	Sl (m); Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 2 tl; lib.
Bisva;	Bisva;			
Nandura; 7.0	Nandura; 7.0; Mon.	Nandura; 7.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamkhed; 0.5	Deodhaba; 2.0; Tue.	Malkapur; 5.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; mq; lib.
Shegaon; 12.0	Paturda; .. Mon.	Paturda; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 8.0		Narwel; 2.0	rv.	tl; dh.
Nandura; 10.0	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Fri. Kale;		rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Shrikshetra 1.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nagzari;				
Khamgaon; 12.0	Vihigaon; 3.0; Sun.	Kolori; 4.0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; dp.
Paras; 8.0	Balapur; 3.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 5.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 59.0	Lonar; 3.0; Mon.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 9.6	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Wed. Raja;	Jalaka 3.0 Bhadang;	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 11.0; Sun.	.. 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; dh.
Akola; 70.0	Dongaon; 4.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Malkapur 5.0; Thu. Pangra;	Shendurjan; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; dp.
Khamgaon; 11.0	Kham- 11.0; Wed.	Pimpalgaon 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 32.0	Janefal; 3.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (m); pyt; Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 8.0	Kham- 8.0; Thu.	Khamgaon 1.2	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl.
Jalna; 40.0	Malkapur 5.0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 3.0	rv.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Kherda; 3.0; Sun.	Lavhala; 4.0	rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 26.0	.. 0.4; ..	.. 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 21.0	Kothali; 0.4; Sun.	Motala; 5.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..			..	..
Jalamb; 12.6	Madakhed 1.0; Wed. Bk.;	Jalgaon; 7.0	W.	Sl (pr); Fr. Mg. Sud. 5; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 52.0	Chandol; 2.0; Sun.	Chandol; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khumgaon; 1.4	Dahigaon; 0.6; Thu.	.. 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Isapur—Kmg.—इसापुर	N; 15.0	896; 306; 71; 134	Narkhed; 2.0
Isarakhed—Mlk.—इसरखेड	NE; 14.0	550; 252; 51; 118	Mominabad; 2.0
Isarul—Ckl.—इसरुळ	SW; 18.0	2191; 1337; 261; 609	Local; ..
Islamapur—Jlg.—इस्लामपूर	W; 10.0	2624; 349; 66; 110	Palshi Supo; 2.0
Isoli—Ckl.—इसोली	E; 20.0	4741; 2734; 548; 669	Local; ..
Itakhed—Jlg.—इटखेड	SE; 12.0	484; 196; 49; 88	Bhendwad; 4.0
Jagadari—Mhk.—जागदरी	W; 12.0	1683; 719; 135; 317	Shendurjan; 2.0
Jahagirapur—Mlk.—जहागीरपूर	SW; 9.0	992; 1119; 202; 536	Makodji; 1.0
Jaitala—Mlk.—जैताळा	W; 3.0	835; 368; 69; 221	Chamgaon; 2.0
Jalagaon—Mhk.—जळगांव	SW; 36.0	1588; 786; 141; 235	Deulgaon 5.0 Mahi;
Jalagaon Urban Area I—Jlg.— जळगांव नागरी विभाग १.	HQ; ..	262; 14788; 2798; 3837	
Jalaka Bhadang—Kmg.—जळका भडंग.	W; 6.0	3126; 1208; 261; 529	
Jalaka Teli—Kmg.—जळका तेली	S; 6.0	2504; 554; 106; 193	Kinhi; 1.0
Jalamb—Kmg.—जलंब	N; 8.0	7178; 4880; 836; 1314	Local; ..
Jamagaon—Mhk.—जामगांव	NE; 3.0	624; 135; 25; 38	Anjani Bk.; 3.0
Jamathi—Ckl.—जामठी	NW; 22.0	3240; 1000; 220; 511	Dhad; 4.0
Jamb—Ckl.—जंब	W; 36.0	2847; 1242; 238; 656	Mhasla Bk.; 2.4
Jambharun—Ckl.—जाम्बरुण	NW; ..	1904; 77; 18; 43	
Jambhora—Ckl.—जाम्होरा	S; 5.0	1312; 374; 61; 205	Palaskhed 2.0 Dault;
Jambhora—Ckl.—जाम्होरा	S; 36.0	887; 194; 35; 97	Deulgaon 1.0 Raja;
Jambhora—Mhk.—जाम्होरा	SW; 28.0	3451; 1445; 223; 702	Local; ..
Jambhul—Mhk.—जाम्बुळ	S; 16.0	2908; 953; 180; 425	Local; ..
Jambhuladhaba—Mlk.— जाम्बुळधाबा.	W; 5.2	2559; 1569; 267; 426	Local; ..
Janephal—Mhk.—जानेफळ	N; 11.0	5559; 4600; 819; 1468	Local; ..
Jonori—Kmg.—जानोरी	N; 15.0	2135; 1472; 304; 589	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nandura; 7.0	Matargaon 4.0; Fri. Bk.;		W.	Sl (pr).
Chandur 5.0	Chandur 5.0; Sun. Bisva;	Wadner; 8.0	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Jalna; 30.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 4.0 Mahi;	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Ct. 9; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 16.0	Asalgaon; 7.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 4.0 Kale;	W; Spr.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 8.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	4 Sl (2pr, m, h); Khandoba Fr. Ps. V ad. 15; 7 tl; mq; dg; lib.
Jalamb; 10.0	Kavthal; .. Wed.		W.	Fr. Ct. 15; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 44.0	Shendurjan; 2.0; Fri.	Shendurjan; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 9.0	Shelgaon 1.0; Fri. Bazar;	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib
Khamgaon; 52.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 25.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 5.0 Mahi;	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 6.0	Kham- gaon; 6.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; 4 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 6.0	Khamgaon; 6.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Local; 0.6	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;Pl.	4 Sl (2pr, 2m); pyt; m; dg; dh; 2 gym; 2 lib; 4 dp.
Khamgaon; 52.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3.0	W.	..
Malkapur; 46.0	Dhad; 4.0; Mon.	Dhad; 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Malkapur; 53.0	Mhasla Bk; 2.4; Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 37.0	Chikhali; 5.0; Mon.	Berala; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Jalna; 17.0	Deulgaon 1.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 1.0 Raja;	rv.	tl.
Jalna; 30.0	Kingaon 3.0; Fri. Raja;	.. 3.0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (gr); tl; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Washim; 48.0	Hirado; 4.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl;
Malkapur; 5.2	Malkapur; 5.2; Sat.	Malkapur; 5.2	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (m, h); Cs (mp); 8 tl; m; mq; 3 lib; 4 dp.
Shegaon; 5.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Kalkhed; 2.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; mq; lib; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Januna—Ckl.—जनुना	NW; 31.0	2386; 691; 139; 332	Gummi; 2.0
Jañuna—Kmg.—जनुना	SE; 2.0	3478; 1154; 245; 477	Khamgaon; 2.0
Januna—Mhk.—जनुना	NE; 19.0	1904; 524; 103; 262	Wishvi; 2.0
Januna—Mlk.—जनुना	SE; 23.0	714; 168; 33; 63	Jaipur; 1.0
Januna N. Shendala—Mhk.— जनुना न. शेंदाला.	NE; ..	840; 70; 15; 14	
Japhrabad—Mhk.—जाफाबाद	SE; 10.0	1145; 184; 33; 95	Hirado; 3.0
Jastagaon—Jlg.—जस्तगांव	SE; 13.0	859; 618; 113; 258	Local; ..
Jaulaka—Mhk.—जऊळका	SW; 25.0	1361; 869; 155; 487	Dusarbid; 2.0
Javala—Mhk.—जवळा	E; 10.0	1382; 502; 95; 222	Aregaon; 2.0
Javala Bajar—Mlk.—जवळा बाजार	SE; 15.0	1416; 896; 175; 284	Mendhali; 1.4
Javala Bk.—Kmg.—जवळा बु.	E; 10.0	1754; 2070; 425; 931	Local; ..
Javalakhed—Ckl.—जवलखेड	S; 36.0	3499; 1054; 171; 496	Borkhedi 1.4 Bavara;
Javala Palasakhed—Kmg.—जवळा पळसखेड.	E; 10.0	1895; 1085; 228; 409	Jawala Bk.; 0.1
Jayapur—Kmg.—जयपूर	N; 3.0	2639; 808; 171; 407	Khamgaon; 3.0
Jayapur—Mlk.—जयपूर	SE; 22.0	4081; 1500; 292; 631	Local; ..
Jhadegaon—Jlg.—झाडेगांव	S; 8.0	1223; 763; 155; 279	Khandvi; 1.0
Jhadegaon—Kmg.—झाडेगांव	NE; 16.0	3305; 847; 178; 391	Local; ..
Jhari—Ckl.—झरी	NW; ..	1393; 198; 38; 94	
Jhashi—Jlg.—झाशी	NE; 5.0	1216; 359; 63; 166	Palashi 0.3 Zashi;
Jhodaga—Kmg.—झोडगा	S; 18.0	2648; 389; 76; 194	Maharkhed; 3.0
Jhotinga—Mhk.—झोटिंगा	SW; 23.0	2587; 1405; 236; 710	Local; ..
Jigaon—Mlk.—जिगांव	NE; 10.4	2565; 1154; 252; 392	Local; ..
Jumada—Ckl.—जुमडा	SW; 42.0	1311; 462; 80; 289	Deulgaon 6.0 Rajao;
Kabarakhed—Mlk.—काबरखेड	S; 18.0	1800; 647; 138; 293	Pimpri 2.0 Gawali;
Kadamapur—Kmg.—कदमापूर	SE; 21.0	3111; 1206; 283; 560	Palashi Bk.; 1.4
Kajegaon—Jlg.—काजेगांव	SE; 5.0	964; 898; 181; 378	Madakhed 1.0 Bk.,

Railway Station/ Distance	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day	Motor Stand/ Distance	Water	Institutions and other information	
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	
Malkapur; 48.0	Masrul; 5.0; Tue.	Gummi; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.	
Khamgaon; 2.0	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.	
Akola; 62.0	Wishvi; 8.0; Tue.	Dongaon; 8.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.	
Nandura; 16.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	Shemba; 3.0	W.	tl.	
.. ..			..	..	
Khamgaon; 52.0	Hirado; 3.0; Sat.	.. 7.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.	
Shegaon; 13.0	Paturda; 4.0; Mon.	.. 1.4	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; lib.	
Jalna; 30.0	Kingaon 5.0; Wed. Jattu;	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.	
Akola; 52.0	Dongaon; 4.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m.	
Nandura; 14.0	Local; .. Tue.	Khaira; 2.0	W;w.	2 Sl (m, h); Dhule Buva Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl; ch; lib; 2 dp (Vet).	
Shegaon; 7.0	Local; .. Fri.	Kolori; 3.4	W.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; lib; dp.	
Jalna; 20.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sat. Raja;	.. 1.4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.	
Shegaon; 6.0	Local; .. Fri.	Shegaon; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib; dp.	
Khamgaon; 3.0	Khamgaon; 3.0; Thu.	Local; 1.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; ch.	
Nandura; 15.0	Local; .. Sun.	Shemba; 2.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 6 tl; 2 dp.	
Nandura; 9.0	Asalgaon; 3.0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt (gr); tl; lib.	
Shegaon; 5.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5.0	rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.	
.. ..			..	..	
Shegaon; 21.0	Palashi- zashi;	3.0; Fri.	Tamgaon; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 18.0	Mahar- khed;	3.0; Fri.	Maharkhed; 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Malkapur 2.0; Thu. Pangra;	Malkapur 2.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl.	
Chandur 4.4	Chandur 4.4; Sun. Biswa;	.. 8.0	rv.	Sl (m); 3 tl; lib; dp.	
Jalna; 14.0	Deulgaon; 6.0; Sat. Raja;	.. 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch.	
Malkapur; 18.0	Motala; 7.0; Thu.	Motala; 5.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.	
Paras; 12.0	Balapur; 7.0; Sat.	Balapur; 7.0	W.	Sl (m); Fr. Bdp. Vad. 11; 6 tl; lib.	
Nandura; 19.0	Madakhed; 1.0; Sat.	.. 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.	

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Kakanavada Bk.—Jlg.—काकणवाडा बु.	E; 13.2	1024; 726; 141; 234	Local; ..
Kakanavada Kh.—Jlg.—काकण- वाडा खु.	E; 13.4	832; 625; 147; 302	Kakanavada 1.0
Kakoda—Jlg.—काकोडा	SE; 10.0	968; 477; 106; 193	Bodakha; 2.0
Kalabai—Kmg.—काळबाई	W; 12.0	794; 269; 54; 108	Pimpalgaon 2.0
Kalakhed—Kmg.—कालखेड	NE; 16.0	935; 578; 115; 209	Raja; ..
Kalamakhed—Jlg.—कळमखेड	SE; 11.6	860; 460; 90; 119	Jastgaon; 0.2
Kalambeshvar—Mhk.—कळंबेश्वर.	N; 18.0	9395; 2113; 416; 849	Local; ..
Kalapavihir—Mhk.—कळपविहीर.	W; 6.0	1916; 872; 184; 336	Wadgaon 2.0
Kalavad—Kmg.—कालवाड	N; 18.0	869; 275; 61; 157	Mali; 2.0
Kalegaon—Kmg.—कालेगांव	SW; 12.0	2302; 1216; 362; 405	Bhota; ..
Kalegaon—Mlk.—कालेगांव	NE; 8.0	526; 444; 89; 152	Local; ..
Kalegaon—Mlk.—कालेगांव	S; 31.0	1131; 452; 94; 248	Mominabad; 2.0
Kalyana—Mhk.—कल्याणा	NW; 5.0	682; 1037; 178; 573	Sarola 1.0
Kamalajapur—Mhk.—कमळजापूर	S; ..	345; 10; .. 6	Maroti; ..
Kambarakhed—Mhk.—कंबरखेड	N; 5.0	625; 453; 78; 187	Local; ..
Kanaka Bk.—Mhk.—कनका बु.	NE; 15.0	1229; 854; 162; 360	Kalyana; 1.0
Kanarakhed—Kmg.—कनारखेड	E; 8.0	528; 230; 41; 115	Wishvi; 2.0
Kanarakhed—Kmg.—कनारखेड	SE; 20.0	1980; 919; 198; 427	Chincholi; 1.4
Kandari—Mhk.—कंडारी	SW; 16.0	684; 418; 84; 189	Shirala; 3.0
Kandari Bk.—Mlk.—कंडारी बु.	SE; 23.4	1100; 280; 59; 86	Khalegaon; 3.0
Kanjhara—Kmg.—कंझारा	SW; 6.0	2982; 1456; 244; 519	Takarkhed; 4.0
Karadi—Ckl.—करडी	W; ..	1348; 412; 63; 150	Gondhana- pur; 1.4
Karakhed—Ckl.—कारखेड	E; 16.0	734; 300; 61; 87	
Karamoda—Jlg.—करमोडा	NE; 5.0	2112; 680; 142; 326	Isola; 3.0
Karanakhed—Ckl.—करणखेड	NE; 12.0	1944; 662; 119; 311	Khel Lon 1.0
Karanavadi—Jlg.—करणवाडी	SW; 11.0	1538; 169; 35; 72	Jamod; 2.0
			Kavahala; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Shegaon; 20.0	Malegaon; 4.0; Fri.	Telhara; 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 21.0	Malegaon; 4.0; Fri.	Kakanwada Bk.; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 15.0	Nirod; 3.0; Fri.		W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 6.0	Nandura; 6.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr).
Shegaon; 6.0	Shegaon; 6.0; Tue.	Local; ..	O.	Sl (pr); tl; 2 mq; ch.
Shegaon; 13.2	Paturda 4.2; Mon.	Paturda; 1.2	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Bk.; Janefal; 5.0; Sat.	Hiwara Kh. 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Shankar Fr. 15th Dec.; 3 tl; m; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehekar; 6.0; Sun.	.. 3.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Jalamb; 10.0	Matargaon; 6.0; Fri.		rv.	
Khamgaon; 12.0	Local; .. Tue.	Pimpalgaon 5.0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Chandur; 6.0	Chandur 5.0; Sun.	Raja; Wadner; 9.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Dattatrya Fr. Mrg. 15; 2 tl; m; lib.
Bisva; Malkapur; 31.0	Bisva; Motala; 16.0; Thu.	.. 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	.. 5.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	Mehekar; 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 34.0	Dongaon; 6.0; Wed.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 7.0	Shegaon; 7.0; Tue.	Shegaon 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 20.0	Adgaon; 2.0; Wed.	Road; Bothakazi; 2.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Shendurjan; 4.0; Fri.	Shendurjan; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 13.4	Jawala 2.6; Tue.	Khaira; 1.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Khamgaon; 6.0	Bazar; Khamgaon; 6.0; Thu.	Khamgaon 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Maroti Fr. Bdp. Vad. 1; tl; mq; lib.
Khamgaon; 27.0		Chikhali Road; ..	..	
Shegaon; 26.0	Amdapur; 3.0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 25.0	Khel Lon 1.0; Wed.	Khel Lon 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Nandura; 17.0	Jamod; Amdapur; 3.0; Wed.	Jamod; ..	0.1	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
		Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Karatavadi—Ckl.—करतवाडी ..	E; 12-0	734; 443; 86; 141	Amdapur; 4-0
Karavand—Ckl.—करवंड ..	NE; 20-0	10456; 1626; 320; 750	Local; ..
Karegaon—Mhk.—कारेगांव ..	SW; 12-0	1424; 832; 138; 444	Somthana; 1-0
Karegaon Bk.—Kmg.—कारेगांव बु.	SE; 10-0	1880; 655; 112; 287	Hingana; 1-0
Kasarakhed—Kmg.—कासारखेड ..	W; 12-0	570; 88; 21; 31	Pimpalgaon 1-0
Kasarakhed—Mhk.—कासारखेड ..	N; 18-0	772; 522; 99; 188	Raja; Local; ..
Kasari—Mhk.—कासारी ..	SW; 22-0	1276; 84; 18; 62	Kingaon 4-0
Kated—Jlg.—काटेड ..	E; 14-2	960; 506; 91; 206	Jattu; Kakanwada 2-0
Katharagaon—Jlg.—काथरगांव ..	SE; 13-0	1088; 260; 51; 68	Bk.; Sangrampur; 2-4
Kathora—Kmg.—कठोरा ..	N; 18-0	1442; 650; 143; 336	Bhota; 3-0
Kati—Mlk.—काटी ..	SE; 9-0	1466; 897; 162; 322	Dhanora; 2-0
Katoda—Ckl.—काटोडा ..	SE; 14-0	1570; 908; 163; 376	Gangalgaon; 2-0
Kaulakhed—Mhk.—कौलखेड ..	SE; 24-0	1112; 250; 39; 123	Jambhul; 4-0
Kavadagaon—Kmg.—कवडगांव ..	SW; 17-0	5769; 363; 65; 183	Kalegaon; 4-0
Kavathal—Ckl.—कवठळ ..	SE; 12-0	2088; 613; 118; 239	Antrikhede- 2-0
Kavathal—Jlg.—कवठळ ..	SE; 10-2	3700; 1995; 373; 683	kar; Local; ..
Kavhala—Ckl.—कव्हाळा ..	NE; 13-0	1636; 1452; 281; 584	Local; ..
Kedar—Mlk.—केदार ..	E; 16-0	583; 162; 35; 66	Dahigaon; 1-0
Kelavad—Ckl.—केळवड ..	N; 7-0	2752; 1754; 349; 715	Local; ..
Kesapur—Ckl.—केसापूर ..	NW; ..	1718; 1159; 222; 585	
Keshav Shivani—Mhk.—केशव शिवणी	SW; 30-0	1678; 741; 134; 424	Hiwarkhed; 3-0
Khadadagaon—Kmg.—खडदगांव ..	W; 14-0	2039; 767; 164; 307	Pimpalgaon 4-0
Khadaki—Mlk.—खडकी ..	W; 7-0	549; 50; 9; 23	Raja; Deodhaba; 0-4
Khadaki—Mlk.—खडकी ..	S; 23-0	437; 495; 89; 139	Rajur; 2-0
Khaira—Mlk.—खैरा ..	SE; 22-0	2129; 962; 181; 339	Takarkhed; 3-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 24-0	Amdapur; 4-0; Wed.	.. 3-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 26-0	Undri; 6-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; lib; dp (Vet).
Khamgaon; 54-0	Lonar; 6-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); tl.
Khamgaon; 10-0	Kham- 10-0; Thu. gaon;	Kolori; 3-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 12-0	Pimpalgaon 1-0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 1-0 Raja;	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 46-0	Janefal; 5-0; Sat.	Hiwara Kh.; 3-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; Shankar Fr. 15th Dec.; 3 tl; m; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 64-0	Kingaon 4-0; Wed. Jattu;	Kingaon 4-0 Jattu;	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 22-0	Malegaon; 3-0; Fri.	.. 2-0	w;rv.	SI (pr); Fr. Mg. Vad. 12; 4 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 15-0	Sangram- 2-4; Tue. pur;	Manardi; 1-2	W.	tl.
Jalamb; 10-0	Matargaon; 6-0; Fri.		rv.	tl.
Chandur 6-0	Malkapur; 9-0; Sat.	Dhanora; 2-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Bisva;				
Malkapur; 56-0	Chikhali; 14-0; Mon.	.. 4-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch; lib.
Washim; 41-0	Loni Bk.; 5-0; Mon.	Lonar; 9-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 17-0	Kalegaon; 4-0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 9-0 Raja;	n.	tl.
Jalna; 42-0	Chikhali; 12-0; Mon.	Mera Kh.; 2-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 12-0	Local; .. Wed.	Warwat 4-0 Khanderao;	w;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); ch; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Amdapur; 3-0; Wed.	Takarkhed; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.; Cch.
Khuragaon; 1-0	Dahigaon; 1-0; Thu.	Dahiwadi; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 45-0	Chikhali; 7-0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;pl.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3 tl; m; ch; lib.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 70-0	Malkapur 4-0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 5-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 6-0	Pimpalgaon 4-0; Wed. Raja;	.. 2-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Mahadeo Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 3 tl.
Khamkhed; 1-0	Deodhaba; 0-4; Tue.	Malkapur; 7-0	W.	tl.
Malkapur; 24-0	Buldhana; 5-0; Sun.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; m.
Nandura; 11-4	Jawala Bk.; 1-4; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; m.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Khairakhed—Mhk.—खैरखेड	SW; 28-0	920; 370; 70; 111	Sonoshi; 2-0
Khairakhed—Mlk.—खैरखेड	S; 24-0	233; 205; 63; 67	Rajur; 3-0
Khairav—Ckl.—खैरव	SE; 8-0	1918; 1148; 209; 400	Gangalgaon; 2-0
Khairav—Mhk.—खैरव	SW; 32-0	1160; 664; 123; 286	Digras Bk.; 2-0
Khalad Bk.—Jlg.—खलद बु.	E; 14-0	710; 56; 9; 28	Bawanbir; 2-0
Khalad Kh.—Jlg.—खलद खु.	E; 14-0	576; 45; 8; 27	Bawanbir; 3-0
Khalegaon—Mhk.—खलेगांव	SW; 13-0	2079; 1659; 324; 832	Local; ..
Khallal Gavhan—Ckl.—खल्लाल गव्हाण	SW; 30-0	1982; 1193; 192; 545	Mehun.; 4-0
Khamagaon—Kmg.—खामगांव		.. 37; 12; 12	
Khamagaon—Mhk.—खामगांव	SW; 30-0	1564; 550; 94; 209	Sindkhed 6-0 Raja; ..
Khamagaon (Urban Area II)— Kmg.—खामगांव नागरी विभाग.	HQ ..	13-36; 53692; 10080; 2946	
Khamakhed—Ckl.—खामखेड	NE; 13-0	829; 259; 43; 97	Kavhala; 1-0
Khamakhed—Mhk.—खामखेड	E; 3-0	1397; 275; 49; 127	Ukali; 3-0
Khamakhed—Mlk.—खामखेड	W; 6-0	1605; 721; 142; 314	Local; ..
Khamakhed—Mlk.—खामखेड	S; 24-0	752; 452; 85; 193	Rajur; 1-4
Khanapur—Mhk.—खानापूर	E; 3-0	693; 129; 20; 35	Anjani Bk.; 3-0
Khandala—Mhk.—खंडाला	E; 3-0	1534; 685; 125; 376	Anjani Bk.; 3-0
Khandala—Mhk.—खंडाला	SW; 20-0	720; 233; 41; 141	Bibi; 1-0
Khandala—Mlk.—खंडाला	SE; 16-0	1558; 147; 35; 40	Wadi; 2-0
Khandala Makaradhvaj—Ckl.— खंडाला मकरध्वज	E; ..	3467; 1317; 248; 585	
Khandava—Mlk.—खांडवा	SW; 33-0	1790; 315; 72; 158	
Khandavi—Jlg.—खांडवी	S; 6-0	1433; 913; 197; 432	Local; ..
Khaparakhed—Mhk.—खापरखेड	SW; 12-0	737; 377; 63; 247	Somthana; 1-0
Kharabadi—Mlk.—खरबडी	S; 17-0	1566; 1981; 356; 813	Local; ..
Kharakundi—Mlk.—खरकुंडी	NE; 28-0	479; 163; 25; 51	Yereli; 4-0
Khatakhed—Kmg.—खातखेड	N; 21-0	774; 365; 70; 145	Bhonagaon; 2-0
Khatakhed—Mlk.—खातखेड	E; 21-0	671; 282; 51; 151	Nandura; 3-0
Khedagaon—Mlk.—खेडगांव	NE; 8-0	959; 340; 80; 139	Mominabad; 2-4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalna; 28-0	Kingaon 6-0; Fri. Raja;	Kingaon 6-0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 24-0	Buldhana; 7-0; Sun.	.. 3-0	w;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 36-0	Chikhali; 8-0; Mon.	.. 2-0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; lib.
Jalna; 42-0	Malkapur 8-0; Thu. Pangra;	Deulgaon 6-0 Mahi;	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Shegaon; 23-0	Malegaon; 5-0; Fri.	Banoda 3-0 Eklara;	w;rv.	tl.
Shegaon; 23-0	Malegaon; 3-0; Fri.	Banoda 3-0 Eklara;	rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 55-0	Sultanpur; 5-0; Tue.	.. 1-0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 23-0	Deulgaon 5-0; Sun. Mahi;	Singaon 3-0 Jahagir;	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); lib.
.. ..			..	..
Jalna; 25-0	Sindkhed 6-0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 6-0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 27-0	Amdapur; 4-0; Wed.	Karankhed; 2-1	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 52-0	Mehekar; 3-0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3-0	W.	tl.
Local; ..	Deodhaba; 2-0; Tue.	Malkapur; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 24-0	Motala; 8-0; Thu.	Rajur; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 52-0	Mehekar; 3-0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3-0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 52-0	Mehekar; 3-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 62-0	Bibi; 1-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khumgaon; 6-0	Nandura; 6-0; Mon.	Lonwadi; 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
.. ..			..	..
Malkapur; 33-0	Dhaman- 3-0; Wed. gaon Bade;	.. 3-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 10-0	Asalgaon; 2-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Gandhi Mela 26th Jan.; 8 tl; m; dh; lib; 2 dp (Vet).
Khamgaon; 54-0	Lonar; 6-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 17-0	Motala; 2-0; Thu.	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; dp.
Nandura; 9-2	Nandura; 9-2; Mon.	Yerali; 3-0	w;rv.	tl.
Shegaon; 10-0	Manasgaon; 2-0; Sun.	.. 2-0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Nandura; 3-0	Nandura; 3-0; Mon.	Nandura; 3-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur Bisva;	Momina- 2-4; Thu. bad;	.. 7-4	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Khedi—Mlk.—खेडी ..	SW; 30.0	1288; 498; 97; 294	Panhera; 1.0
Khel Anamat Jalagaon—Jlg.— खेल अनामत जलगांव		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Bari Jalagaon—Jlg.—खेल बारी जलगांव		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Chatari Bk.—Jlg.—खेल चतारी बु.		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Chatari Kh.—Jlg.—खेल चतारी खु.		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Gobaji—Jlg.—खेल गोबजी ..		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Jalagaon Kh.—Jlg.—खेल जलगांव खु.		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Khasa Bk.—Jlg.—खेल खासा बु.		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Khasa Kh.—Jlg.—खेल खासा खु.		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Lon Jamod—Jlg.—खेल लोण- जामोद	NE; 7.2	2449; 6052; 1257; 2587	Local; ..
Khel Mali Jalagaon—Jlg.—खेल माळी जलगांव		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Murtijapur—Jlg.—खेल मूर्तिजापूर		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Phut Jalagaon—Jlg.—खेल फूट जलगांव		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Sonaji—Jlg.—खेल सोनजी ..		Included in Urban Area I.	
Khel Thorat Paturda—Jlg.—खेल थोराट पातुर्डा		1395; 5441; 1019; 1767	
Kherda—Kmg.—खेर्डा ..	N; 8.0	1744; 961; 196; 427	Takaliviro; 0.4
Kherda—Mlk.—खेर्डा ..	E; 10.0	562; 349; 64; 199	Chandur 1.0
Kherda Bk.—Jlg.—खेर्डा बु.	.. E; 4.0	1344; 2006; 399; 724	Bisva; Local; ..
Kherda Kh.—Jlg.—खेर्डा खु.	.. E; 4.0	1344; 968; 198; 460	Local; ..
Kherdi—Ckl.—खेर्डी ..	N; 8.0	643; 202; 38; 95	Varvant; 4.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 30.0	Korhala; 1.4; Mon.	.. 1.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cc; tl; ch.
Nandura; 24.0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); pyt (gr); Cs; Narayaneswar Fr. Ps. Vad. 13; 3 tl; m; mg; dg; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
.. ..	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h); Cs; Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 7 tl; mq; ch; lib; 5 dp.
Shegaon; 4.0	Shegaon; 4.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; m.
Chandur Bisva; Shegaon; 21.0	Chandur 1.0; Sun. Bisva; Local; .. Thu.	Wadner; 5.0 Local; ..	w;rv. W.	Sl (pr); tl. 2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 21.0	Kherda 1.0; Thu. Bk.;	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 38.0	Buldhana; 8.0; Sun.	Dongar- khandola;	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Kherdi—Kmg.—खेडी ..	S; 9.0	973; 167; 35; 67	Kinhi; 2.0
Khiroda—Jlg.—खिरोडा ..	SE; 21.0	1651; 731; 158; 274	Manasgaon; 2.0
Kholakhed—Kmg.—खोलखेड ..	N; 11.0	920; 571; 99; 260	Matargaon 3.0 Bk.;
Khor—Ckl.—खोर ..	SW; 7.6	1949; 754; 118; 302	Godri; 3.0
Khudanapur—Mhk.—खुदनापूर ..	NW; 21.0	700; 112; 23; 42	Sarshiv; 1.0
Khudavantapur—Mlk.—खुदावंतपूर ..		Included in Urban Area II.	
Khumagaon—Mlk.—खुमगांव ..	E; 13.6	906; 1491; 294; 501	Local; ..
Khupagaon—Ckl.—खुपगांव ..	N; 9.0	881; 719; 145; 373	Sav; 2.0
Khuramapur—Mhk.—खुरमपूर ..	S; 22.0	3026; 907; 157; 364	Pangradole; 2.0
Khutapuri—Kmg.—खुटपुरी ..	W; 5.0	1463; 364; 73; 163	Khamgaon; 5.0
Kinagaon Jattu—Mhk.—किनगांव जट्टू ..	SW; 23.0	7358; 2702; 484; 986	Local; ..
Kinagaon Raja—Mhk.—किनगांव राजा ..	SW; 27.0	3959; 2558; 505; 747	Local; ..
Kinhi—Kmg.—किन्ही ..	S; 11.4	330; 987; 216; 389	Local; ..
Kinhi—Mhk.—किन्ही ..	SW; 18.0	1493; 619; 98; 268	Deulgaon 2.0
Kinhi Naik—Ckl.—किन्ही नाईक ..	E; 28.0	4849; 883; 185; 487	Kundpal; .. 2.0
Kinhi Pr. Sindakhed—Ckl.—किन्ही प्र. सिंदखेड ..	SW; 40.0	772; 559; 94; 278	Singaon 2.0
Kinhi Savadad—Ckl.—किन्ही सवदड ..	NE; 19.0	1538; 714; 161; 395	Jahagir; Toranwada; 1.0
Kinhola—Ckl.—किन्होळा ..	N; 12.0	3644; 4391; 501; 849	Local; ..
Kinhola—Mlk.—किन्होळा ..	SW; 29.0	1029; 850; 162; 397	Panhera; 1.0
Kodarakhed—Mlk.—कोदरखेड ..	NE; 25.0	543; 89; 20; 35	Alampur; 1.4
Kodri—Jlg.—कोद्री ..	SE; 23.0	1208; 693; 138; 293	Ukali; 3.0
Kokala adi—Mlk.—कोकलवाडी ..	SE; 11.0	766; 317; 68; 156	Warkhed; 2.0
Kokatta—Kmg.—कोकता ..	N; 3.0	969; 178; 38; 92	Khamgaon; 3.0
Kolara—Ckl.—कोलारा ..	S; 7.0	3404; 1824; 355; 774	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 9.0	Khamgaon; 9.0; Thu.	Hiwarkhed; 3.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 9.5	Manasgaon;	Matargaon; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Jalamb; 5.0		Matargaon; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 47.0	Chikhali; 7.6; Mon.	Raipur; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; dg; lib.
Khamgaon; 44.0	Janefal; 7.0; Sat.	Hiwra; 2.0	W.	tl.
Local; ..	Dahigaon; 0.6; Thu.	Wadi; 2.0	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; 2 dp.
Malkapur; 34.0	Buldhana; 5.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); tl.
Khamgaon; 72.0	Lonar; 7.0; Mon.	Lonar; 7.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 5.0	Khamgaon; 5.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 65.0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl; mq; lib; 3 dp.
Jalna; 24.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); 3 Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 5 tl; dg; dh; gym; ch; 3 lib; 3 dp.
Khamgaon; 11.4	Vihigaon; 3.0; Sun.	Hiwarkhed; 3.0	W.	SI (m); Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 2 tl; lib; dp.
.. ..	Lonar; 2.0; Mon.	Lonar; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
.. 28.0	.. 2.0; ..	.. 8.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Jalna; 21.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sat.	Pangri; 1.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Fr. Ct. last Sunday; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 20.0	Raja; Undri; 1.0; Sun.	Undri; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; Vitthal Fr. Kt. Sud. Pournima; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Chikhali; 12.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; mq; 2 dg; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 29.0	Bhaman- gaon Badhe;	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 7.0	Nandura; 7.0; Mon.	Yerali; 4.0	w;rv.	tl.
Shegaon; 16.0	Paturda 3.0; Mon.	Paturda Bk.; 3.0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Chandur 6.3	Jawala 2.0; Tue.	Wadner; 3.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Biswa;	Bazar;			
Khamgaon; 3.0	Khamgaon; 3.0; Thu.	Local; 0.1	rv.	Pyt; tl.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Chikhali; 7.0; Mon.	.. 1.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Shri Siddeshawar Fr. Kt. Sud. 13; 5 tl; m; dh; lib; 2 dp (Vet).

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres): Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Kolari—Ckl.—कोलारी	N; ..	754; 211; 36; 48	
Kolasar—Mlk.—कोलासर	E; 13.0	710; 276; 61; 121	Shelgaon 2.0
Kolat—Jlg.—कोलत	E; 14.2	1088; 696; 105; 344	Mukund; Kakanwada 2.0
Kolavad—Ckl.—कोलवड	NW; 20.0	2397; 2381; 388; 990	Bk.; Local; ..
Kolhigavali—Mlk.—कोल्हीगवळी	SW; 12.0	2201; 746; 149; 359	.. 3.0
Kolhigolar—Mlk.—कोल्हीगोलर	SW; 15.0	1362; 464; 92; 106	Liha Bk.; 1.0
Kolori—Kmg.—कोलोरी	E; 9.0	3182; 790; 188; 339	Jawala; 4.0
Konad—Ckl.—कोनड	SW; 10.0	2747; 468; 89; 110	Deulgaon 2.0
Konati—Mhk.—कोनाटी	SW; 15.0	1023; 343; 73; 206	Dhangar; Khalegaon; 2.0
Konti—Kmg.—कोंटी	SW; 15.0	2704; 188; 36; 94	Rohana; 4.0
Korhala—Mlk.—कोरहाळा	SW; 29.0	2204; 1628; 318; 767	Local; ..
Kothali—Mlk.—कोथळी	SE; 21.0	4508; 2395; 479; 827	Local; ..
Koyali—Mhk.—कोयाळी	NW; 4.0	738; 261; 48; 125	Chamgaon; 2.0
Koyali—Mhk.—कोयाळी	S; 10.0	1475; 602; 96; 255	Somthana; 2.0
Kulamakhed—Ckl.—कुलमखेड	W; 30.0	540; 780; 139; 408	Satgaon; 2.1
Kumbharkhed—Jlg.—कुंभारखेड	SE; 13.0	1013; 223; 40; 87	Kaothal; 1.0
Kumbhari—Ckl.—कुंभारी	S; 35.0	1267; 304; 55; 139	Deulgaon 1.0
Kumbhephal—Ckl.—कुंभेफळ	W; 30.0	1073; 701; 125; 242	Raja; Satgaon; 1.0
Kumbhephal—Kmg.—कुंभेफळ	W; 10.0	3206; 1061; 209; 403	Bhalegaon; 1.0
Kumbhephal—Mhk.—कुंभेफळ	SW; 19.0	1422; 662; 112; 377	Bibi; 2.0
Kundalas—Mhk.—कुंडलस	S; 17.0	1074; 161; 26; 90	Jambhul; 4.0
Kund Bk.—Mlk.—कुंड बु.	N; 1.4	1151; 983; 163; 408	Dhangar; 1.0
Kundhegaon—Jlg.—कुंधेगांव	SE; 20.0	684; 198; 36; 83	Paturda Bk.; 3.4
Kund Kh.—Mlk.—कुंड खु.	N; 2.0	1156; 933; 176; 440	Dhangar; 1.0
Kurakhed—Kmg.—कुरखेड	N; 9.0	1030; 646; 118; 339	Jalamb; 1.0
Kuranagad Bk.—Jlg.—कुरणगाड बु.	S; 7.0	1099; 374; 84; 162	Wadshingi; 2.0
Kuranagad Kh.—Jlg.—कुरणगाड खु.	SE; 6.4	487; 479; 89; 145	Wadshingi; 2.4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
.. ..				
Khumgaon; 3.0	Dahigaon; 2.4; Thu.	.. 0.2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Shegaon; 22.0	Malegaon; 3.0; Fri.	.. 2.0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; dg; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 31.0	Buldhana; 3.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Mahashiv- gratra; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 12.0	Shelgaon 3.0; Fri. Bazar;	.. 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; ch.
Malkapur; 15.0	Liha Bk.; 1.0; Thu.	Liha Bk.; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 mq.
Khamgaon; 9.0	Balapur; 8.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); 2 Cs; tl; lib; dp (Vet).
Jalna; 44.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	Mera Kh.; 6.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Bibi; 3.0; Tue.	Bibi; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Warna; 3.0; Fri.	Khamgaon- Chikhali Road;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 29.4	Local; .. Mon.	.. 3.4	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 21.0	Local; .. Wed.	Motala; 5.4	rv.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; tl; 2 m; mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 54.0	Mehekar; 4.0; Sun.	Bakulkhed; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Washim; 50.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	.. 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 50.0	Mhasla 3.0; Wed. Bk.;	Mhasla 3.0 Bk.;	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Shegaon; 12.0	Paturda; .. Mon.	Warwat 3.0 Khanderao;	W.	tl.
Jalna; 17.0	Deulgaon 1.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 1.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 50.0	Mhasla 2.0; Wed. Bk.;		W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 13.0	Bhalegaon; 1.0; Sun.	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	w;rv.	Sl (m); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 55.0	Bibi; 2.0; Tue.	Bibi; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
.. ..	Lonar; .. Mon.		W.	tl.
Malkapur; 1.4	Malkapur; 1.4; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Shegaon; 13.0	Paturda; 3.0; Mon.	Paturda; 3.0	w.	tl.
Malkapur; 2.0	Malkapur; 2.0; Sat.	.. 0.4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Jalamb; 1.6	Jalamb; 1.0; Sat.	Jalamb; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 14.0	Wadshingi; 2.0; Wed.	Asalgaon; 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt (gr); tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Wadshingi; 2.4; Wed.	Asalgaon; 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Kurha—Kmg.—कुहा	NW; 9-0	709; 160; 37; 31	Pimpri 2-0 Deshmukh;
Kurha—Mlk.—कुहा	SW; 30-4	2225; 799; 134; 374;	Korhala; 2-5
Kuvaradev—Jlg.—कुवरदेव	N; 9-2	580; 235; 39; 119	Jamod; 2-0
Ladanapur—Jlg.—लाडणापूर	NE; 11-0	5248; 1397; 272; 519	Tunki Bk.; 1-0
Lakhanavada Bk.—Kmg.— लखनवाडा बु.	SE; 20-0	3325; 2915; 569; 1088	Local; ..
Lakhanavada Kh.—Kmg.— लखनवाडा खु.	SE; 20-0	1980; 578; 116; 279	Local; ..
Lanjhud—Kmg.—लान्हूड	NW; 8-0	5060; 1923; 388; 669	Local; ..
Lapali—Mlk.—लपाली	SW; 22-0	2226; 590; 127; 284	Sindkhed; 0-4
Lasura—Mlk.—लासूरा	SE; 10-4	1241; 647; 125; 184	Warkhed; 0-4
Lasura Bk.—Kmg.—लासूरा बु.	NE; 5-0	1339; 507; 110; 210	Takaliviro; 2-0
Lasura Jahagir—Kmg.—लासूरा जहागीर	E; 15-0	1151; 267; 48; 140	
Lasura Kh.—Kmg.—लासूरा खु.	NE; 6-0	1921; 620; 122; 174	Takaliviro; 1-4
Lavana—Mhk.—लावणा	N; 8-0	1452; 631; 116; 176	Mola; 2-0
Lavhala—Mhk.—लव्हाळा	NW; 14-0	1211; 636; 129; 253	Local; ..
Liha Bk.—Mlk.—लिहा बु.	SW; 14-0	2162; 1585; 318; 550	Local; ..
Linga—Mhk.—लिंगा	SW; 30-0	1123; 465; 82; 226	Kingaon 3-0 Jattu;
Linga—Mhk.—लिंगा	W; 24-0	912; 406; 69; 212	Rajegaon; 2-0
Lohogaon Bk.—Jlg.—लोहोगांव बु.	NE; 4-0	576; 92; 22; 31	Khel Lon 3-0 Jamod;
Lokhanda—Kmg.—लोखंडा	S; 12-0	5793; 2017; 433; 875	Local; ..
Lonar—Mhk.—लोणार	S; 15-0	8780; 9030; 1690; 1824	Local; ..
Lonavadi—Mlk.—लोनवडी	SW; 2-6	1764; 948; 157; 444	Malkapur; 2-6
Lonavadi—Mlk.—लोनवडी	SE; 24-0	1111; 754; 153; 307	Malegaon; 1-0
Loni—Kmg.—लोणी	SE; 22-0	2020; 887; 219; 467	Local; ..
Loni—Mhk.—लोणी	NW; 16-0	2636; 1124; 199; 580	Lavhala; 2-0
Loni Gavali—Mhk.—लोणी गवळी	NE; 12-0	5879; 2977; 560; 1090	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
.. ..			W.	SI (pr).
Malkapur; 30-4	Korhala; 2-5; Mon.	.. 6-0	W.	SI (pr); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2 tl.
Nandura; 26-0	Jamod; 2-0; Wed.	Jamod; 2-0	W.	..
Shegaon; 24-0	Tunki Bk.; 1-0; Wed.	Tunki Bk.; 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Local; .. Tue.	Ambetakali; 5-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; dg; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Lakhan- 0-1; Tue. wada Bk.;	Ambetakali; 5-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Jalemb; 3-0	Nandura; 5-0; Mon.	Chikhali; 3-0	W.	SI (pr, m); 4 tl; dh; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 22-0	Jamthi; 4-4; Sat.	Liha Bk.; 2-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Chandur 5-4 Biswa;	Jawala 2-4; Tue. Bazar;	.. 3-4	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 6-0	Khamgaon; 5-0; Thu.		W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Paras; 8-0	Balapur; 2-0; Sat.	Balapur; 2-0	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 5-0	Shegaon; 5-0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5-0	W.	2 SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dh; ch.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Janefal; 4-0; Sat.	Naigaon; 3-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 36-0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 14-0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; 0-1	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl; 4 mq; dg; lib; dp.
Jalna; 35-0	Kingaon 3-0; Wed. Jattu;	Kingaon 3-0 Juttu;	rv.	SI (pr); tl; m; ch.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Sakhar 4-0; Fri. Kherda;	.. 4-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 27-0	Khel Lon 3-0; Wed. Jamod;	Khel Lon 3-0 Jamod;	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 12-0	Mahar- 2-0; Fri. khed;	.. 1-0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 65-0	Local; .. Mon.		W.	4 SI (2 pr, m, h); 3 Cs; Dashahara Fr. Jt. Sud. 10; 4 tl; 4 m; 2 mq; 2 dg; ch; 3 lib; 5 dp.
Malkapur; 2-6	Malkapur; 2-6; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nandura; 5-0	Nandura; 5-0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Paras; 14-0	Balapur; 8-0; Sat.	Balapur; 8-0	W.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; 2 lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 35-0	Lavhala; 2-0; Sun.	.. 0-4	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Washim; 28-0	Dongaon; 6-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 3; 2 tl; 2 m; ch; lib; 2 dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Loni Kale—Mhk.—लोणी काळे ..	N; 15.0	1858; 620; 122; 332	Janefal; 4.0
Macchindrakhed—Kmg.— मच्छिन्द्रखेड	N; 15.0	1749; 584; 110; 146	Jalamb; 3.0
Madakhed Bk.—Jlg.—मडाखेड बु.	SE; 6.0	1034; 1085; 217; 422	Local; ..
Madakhed Kh.—Jlg.—मडाखेड खु.	SE; 6.0	805; 451; 92; 177	Madakhed Bk.; 0.2
Madani—Mhk.—मादणी ..	E; 13.6	3344; 1363; 254; 559	Dongaon; 3.0
Madha—Ckl.—मढ ..	NW; 30.0	2594; 1250; 241; 508	Local; ..
Madhi—Mhk.—मढी ..	S; 28.0	2563; 58; 11; 31	Loni; 5.0
Mahagaon—Kmg.—महागांव ..	E; 8.0	405; 194; 40; 100	Jawala Bk.; 0.3
Mahalapimpri—Mlk.—महालपिंप्री ..	S; 12.0	1458; 110; 24; 51	Talkhed; 2.0
Mahalungi—Mlk.—महालुंगी ..	SE; 26.0	1753; 729; 138; 256	Wadi; 0.6
Mahalungi Jahagir—Mlk.— महालुंगी जहागीर	SW; 20.0	1132; 1013; 216; 439	Pimpalgaon 2.0 Devi;
Mahamadapur—Mlk.—महमदपूर ..		Included in Urban Area II.	
Maharakhed—Kmg.—महाराखेड ..	S; 15.0	2944; 1342; 227; 581	Local; ..
Maharakhed—Mhk.—महाराखेड ..	SW; 33.0	1191; 570; 101; 255	Adgaon 4.0 Raja;
Mahar Chikana—Mhk.—महार चिकना	SW; 13.0	997; 538; 106; 240	
Mahattamakhed—Ckl.— महात्तमखेड	NE; 13.0	227; 68; 13; 31	Kavhala; 1.6
Mahimal—Ckl.—महिमल ..	E; 10.0	1095; 385; 75; 131	Dahigaon; 1.0
Mahuli—Jlg.—माहुली ..	S; 10.0	1024; 422; 75; 130	Bhendwad 2.4 Bk.;
Makaner—Mlk.—माकनेर ..	SE; 8.2	1243; 750; 151; 348	Urali; 1.0
Makodi—Mlk.—माकोडी ..	SW; 10.0	1163; 2147; 391; 984	Local; ..
Makta—Kmg.—माक्ता ..	N; 3.0	889; 497; 95; 202	Khamgaon; 3.0
Malagani—Ckl.—मालगणी ..	N; 2.0	1242; 781; 162; 410	Hatni; 1.2
Malagi—Ckl.—मलगी ..	S; 6.0	1842; 565; 196; 289	Bharosa; 4.0
Malakapur Pangra—Mhk.— मलकापूर पांग्रा	SW; 23.0	5311; 2728; 472; 1155	Local; ..
Malakapur (Urban Area I)— मलकापूर नागरी विभाग	HQ; ..	155; 35476; 6172; 4324	
Malakhed—Mhk.—माळखेड ..	NW; 16.0	538; 329; 62; 126	Mohadi; 2.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 4.0; Sat.	Janefal; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr).
Jalamb; 3.0	Matargaon 2.4; Fri. Bk.;	Matargaon; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Fr. Ct. Sud. I; 3 tl.
Jalamb; 13.6	Local; .. Sat.	Jalgaon; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; lib; dp.
Jalamb; 13.6	Madakhed; 0.2; Sat. Bk.;	Jalgaon; 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Washim; 34.0	Dongaon; 3.0; Wed.	Dongaon; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; mq; dg; ch.
Malkapur; 44.0	Buldhana; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; ch.
Washim; 45.0	Loni; 5.0; Mon.	.. 5.0	W;w.	..
Shegaon; 6.0	Jawala; 0.3; Fri.	Kolori; 4.0	W.	..
Malkapur; 12.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	Talkhed; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Nandura; 8.0	Jawala 3.0; Tue. Bazar;	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; lib; dp.
Nandgaon; 6.0	Jamthi; 4.0; Sat.		W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; mq; dp.
Jalna; 22.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl; ch.
Khemgaon; 55.0	Sultanpur; 5.0; Tue.	.. 0.3	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 27.0	Amdapur; 4.0; Wed.	.. 2.1	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 25.0	Chikhali; 10.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Nandura; 16.0	Asalgaon; 6.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 6.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Malkapur; 8.2	Urali; 1.0; Wed.	Urali; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh.
Malkapur; 10.0	Shelgaon 2.0; Fri. Bazar;	.. 2.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dh; lib.
Khamgaon; 3.0	Khamgaon; 3.0; Thu.	.. 0.2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 39.0	Chikhali; 2.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr) Fr. Mahashivaratra; tl; dh; lib.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Chikhali; 6.0; Mon.	Stage; 0.5	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; 2 mq; 3 dg; ch; 4 dp (Vet).
.. ..			..	..
Kherda; 33.0	Lavhala; 3.0; Sun.	Lavhala; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Malashemba—Ckl.—मालशेबा	W; 8-0	1579; 767; 147; 403	Raipur; 2-4
Malavandi—Ckl.—मालवंडी	NW; 21-0	1957; 1070; 213; 327	Dudha; 1-4
Malavihir—Ckl.—मालविहीर	N; 17-0	1877; 480; 99; 268	Buldhana; ..
Malegaon—Mhk.—मालेगांव	NE; 15-0	2167; 588; 119; 334	Janefal; 3-0
Malegaon—Mlk.—मालेगांव	SE; 23-0	1432; 1302; 227; 444	Local; ..
Malegaon—Mlk.—मालेगांव	SW; 14-0	2999; 1356; 274; 421	Vadji; 1-0
Mamulavadi—Mlk.—मामुलवाडी	E; 15-0	1359; 1173; 200; 458	Local; ..
Manamod—Ckl.—मानमोड	E; 13-0	140; 127; 25; 69	Amdapur; 4-0
Manardi—Jlg.—मनार्डी	SE; 12-0	896; 541; 113; 171	Jastgaon; 1-0
Manasagaon—Kmg.—मनसगांव	N; 19-0	2109; 1102; 221; 401	Local; ..
Mandaka—Kmg.—मांडका	W; 4-0	1458; 771; 156; 427	Gondhana- pur; 1-0
Mandani—Kmg.—मांडणी	SW; 13-0	1969; 210; 38; 132	Kalegaon; 5-0
Mandapagaon—Ckl.—मंडपगांव	SW; 27-0	2271; 876; 162; 415	Deulgaon 3-0
Mandava—Jlg.—मांडवा	SW; 16-0	640; 256; 52; 98	Mahi; Adol Bk.; 2-0
Mandava—Mhk.—मांडवा	SW; 22-0	2997; 1399; 261; 564	Bibi; 2-0
Mandava Samet Dongar—Mhk. मांडवा समेत डोंगर	N; 21-0	9013; 745; 138; 448	Lakhanwada; 3-0
Manegaon—Jlg.—मानेगांव	S; 9-0	2262; 558; 105; 214	Dadulgaon; 2-0
Manegaon—Kmg.—मानेगांव	NE; 15-0	882; 183; 34; 86	Zadegaon; 1-0
Mangarul Navaghare—Ckl.— मंगरुळ नवघरे	E; 18-0	2884; 2350; 440; 876	Lccal; ..
Mangarul Pr. Kherda—Ckl.— मंगरुळ प्र. खेर्डा.	SW; 14-0	2457; 972; 180; 447	Isrul; 2-0
Manubai—Ckl.—मनुबाई	SE; 17-0	1062; 617; 127; 224	Mera Bk.; 2-0
Marod—Jlg.—मारोड	NE; 6-0	1344; 246; 50; 115	Palashi 2-0
Marutipeth—Mhk.—मारुतीपेठ	N; 13-0	2041; 559; 98; 246	Zasi; Janefal; 2-0
Masarul—Ckl.—मासरुळ	NW; 32-0	2866; 2364; 426; 1058	Local; ..
Matala—Ckl.—मातला	W; ..	1555; 770; 144; 405	
Matamal—Mhk.—मातमळ	SW; ..	2167; 572; 111; 348	
Mataragaon—Kmg.—माटरगांव	S; ..	2938; 1067; 246; 148	Undri; 8-0
Mataragaon Bk.—Kmg.— माटरगांव बु.	N; 11-0	4457; 4475; 896; 1426	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 44-0	Chikhali; 8-0; Mon.	Raipur; 2-4	W.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 41-0	Dudha; 1-4; Sat.	Dudha; 1-4	W;w.	SI (pr); 3 tl; m; lib; Cch.
Malkapur; 39-0	Buldhana; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 39-0	Janefal; 3-0; Sat.	.. 3-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 5-0	Nandura; 5-0; Mon.	.. 1-2	W;w.	SI (m); Mahadeo Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Khamkhed; 8-0	Shelgaon; 3-0; Fri.	.. 3-0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl; m; dp.
Khumgaon; 2-0	Nandura; 6-0; Mon.	Nandura; 6-0	W;w.	SI (pr); 3 tl; 2 dp (Vet).
Khamgaon; 24-0	Amdapur; 4-0; Wed.	Amdapur; 4-0	W;rv.	tl.
Shegaon; 14-0	Paturda 4-0; Mon. Bk.;	Manardi 0-6 Fata;	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 8-0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	rv.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 tl; mq; lib; 3 dp.
Khamgaon; 4-0	Khamgaon; 4-0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 4-0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; m.
Khamgaon; 13-0	Kalegaon; 5-0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 8-0 Raja;	rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Jalna; 29-0	Deulgaon 3-0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 3-0 Mahi;	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; m; mq; 2 dg; ch; lib.
Nandura; 18-0	Pimpalgaon 6-0; Fri. Kale;	Palshivaidya; 3-4	W,n.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 50-0	Bibi; 2-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Janefal; 2-0; Sat.	Parkhed 4-0 Fata;	w;rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Nandura; 2-0	Asalgaon; 5-0; Tue.	.. 0-2	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 5-0	Shegaon; 5-0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5-0	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 25-0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 5 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; lib; dp.
Jalna; 28-0	Shelgaon 2-0; Wed. Atol;	Deulgaon 7-0 Mahi;	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Jalna; 40-0	Mera Bk.; 2-0; Wed.	.. 2-6	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; m; ch; Cch.
Shegaon; 23-0	Khel Lon 2-0; Wed. Jamod;	Niwana; 3-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 38-0	Janefal; 2-0; Sat.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 48-0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl; gym; ch; lib.
.. ..			..	..
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; ..	Undri; 8-0; Sun.	Local; ..	w;rv.	SI (pr); tl; dp.
Jalamb; 3-0	Local;		W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; 10 tl; mq; dg; dh; lib; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Mataragaon Kh.—Kmg.— माटरगांव खु.	N; 11.0	496; 421; 84; 155	
Matarakhed—Mhk.—माटरखेड	S; 6.0	346; 142; 24; 79	Veni; 1.0
Mathani—Kmg.—माथणी	S; 3.4	568; 319; 54; 79	Gondhana- pur; 1.0
Matoda—Mlk.—माटोडा	E; 16.0	1098; 512; 108; 219	Dahigaon; 0.1
Medasing—Ckl.—मेडसिंग	E; 18.0	1614; 77; 11; 34	Isola; 3.0
Mehekar (Phardapur and Nema- tapur) Rural Area—Mhk.— मेहेकर (फर्दापुर व नेमतापूर) ग्रामीण विभाग.	E; 1.0	4061; 477; 84; 210	Mehekar; 1.0
Mehekar (2) Urban Area—Mhk. मेहेकर नागरी विभाग	HQ; ..	7.23; 16196; 3018; 2485	Local; ..
Mehuna—Ckl.—मेहुणा	SW; 30.0	6119; 2124; 382; 897	Local; ..
Melakhed—Ckl.—मेलखेड	NW; ..	525; 35; 7; 15	
Mel Janori—Mhk.—मेल जानोरी	N; 18.0	1797; 184; 32; 72	Janefal; 4.0
Mendagaon—Ckl.—मडगांव	SE; 21.0	2636; 1492; 238; 715	Local; ..
Mendhali—Mlk.—मेंढळी	SE; 14.0	1862; 856; 176; 352	Local; ..
Mera Bk.—Ckl.—मेरा बु.	SE; 15.0	6671; 3746; 633; 1465	Local; ..
Mera Kh.—Ckl.—मेरा खु.	S; 10.6	2711; 1811; 322; 681	Local; ..
Mhaisavadi—Mlk.—म्हैसवाडी	N; 6.0	1562; 1643; 302; 775	Narwel; 0.2
Mhasala Bk.—Ckl.—म्हसला बु.	W; 33.0	1771; 1006; 176; 440	Local; ..
Mhasala Kh.—Ckl.—म्हसला खु.	N; 32.0	1049; 422; 69; 247	Mhasla Bk.; 0.4
Misalavadi—Ckl.—मिसालवाडी	S; 15.0	1688; 640; 106; 351	Shelgaon 1.0
Mohadi—Mhk.—मोहाडी	NW; 18.0	1762; 838; 140; 418	Atol; Local; ..
Mohana Bk.—Mhk.—मोहना बु.	N; 24.0	2585; 715; 132; 361	Lakhan- wada; 5.0
Mohana Kh.—Mhk.—मोहना खु.	N; 9.4	820; 288; 55; 146	Naigaon; 1.4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalamb; 3.0			W.	Sl (pr); tl; 2 mq; 2 dg; lib.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehekar; 6.0; Sun.	.. 3.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 3.4	Khamgaon; 3.4; Thu.	Khamgaon- Chikhali Road; 0.4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; mq.
Khumgaon; 0.4	Dahigaon; 0.1; Thu.	Wadi; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Datta Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Khamgaon; 35.0	Amdapur; 4.0; Wed.	.. 3.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Mehekar; 1.0; Sun.	Local; ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 52.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	Pl;W; rv.	10 Sl (4 pr, m, 4 h, clg); 22 Cs; Panch Paricha Ustav April Hanuman Jayanti Ct. Sud. 15; Chandan Shesh Darbar Sm. Sud. 5; 15 tl; 4 m; 6 mq; 10 dg; 2 dh, 2 gym; ch; 3 lib; 10 dp; Cch.
Jalna; 25.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sun. Mahi;	Rohana; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 4.0; Sat.	Janefal; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr).
Khamgaon; 45.0	Malkapur .. Thu. Pangra;	.. 5.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 13.0	Jawala 1.4; Tue. Bazar;	Tarwadi; 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mariai Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dp.
Jalna; 44.0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 0.6	W;Pl.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 5 tl; mq; 2 dg; ch; lib; 2 dp (Vet).
Jalna; 40.0	Chikhali; 10.6; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; mq; ch.
Malkapur; 6.0	Malkapur; 6.0; Sat.	Narwel; 0.2	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; dh; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 50.0	Local; .. Wed.	Nearby; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, h); 2 Cs; 3 tl; 2 lib; dp (Vet).
Malkapur; 49.4	Mhasla 0.4; Wed. Bk.;	Mhasla Bk.; 0.4	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl.
Jalna; 35.0	Shelgaon 1.0; Wed. Atol;	.. 4.6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 39.0	S. Kherda; 3.0; Sun.	.. 0.6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 28.0	Lakhan- wada; 5.0; Tue.	Deulgaon 10.0 Sakarasha;	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Janefal; 3.0; Sat.	Naigaon; 1.4	W.	Sl (m); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Mohidipur—Jlg.—मोहीदीपूर	.. SW; 10-0	1613; 138; 28; 39	Palshi Supo; 0-4
Mohodari—Ckl.—मोहोदरी	.. E; 17-0	1301; 688; 140; 184	Amdapur; 4-0
Mohodari—Mhk.—मोहोदरी	.. NW; 7-0	1569; 458; 84; 240	Wadgaon 1-0 Mali;
Mohoj—Ckl.—मोहोज	.. W; ..	2149; 84; 12; 36	
Mohokhed—Mhk.—मोहोखेड	.. NW; 14-0	1123; 210; 45; 63	Lavhala; 1-0
Mohotakhed—Mhk.—मोहोतखेड	.. S; 6-0	1909; 405; 76; 228	Veni; 3-0
Mola—Mhk.—मोला	.. NE; 7-0	1793; 1080; 212; 376	Local; ..
Moli—Mhk.—मोली	.. NE; 7-4	1008; 472; 96; 201	Mola; 0-4
Mominabad—Jlg.—मोमिनाबाद	.. E; 14-0	942; 244; 47; 114	Kakanwada 2-0 Bk.;
Mominabad—Mlk.—मोमिनाबाद	.. NE; 8-0	2390; 1076; 225; 484	Local; ..
Mondhala—Ckl.—मोन्ढाला	.. W; 30-0	1399; 740; 122; 377	Mhasla Bk.; 1-4
Moragaon Digra—Kmg.— मोरगांव डिग्रस	.. N; 9-0	1769; 731; 163; 341	Jalamb; 2-0
Morakhed Bk.—Mlk.—मोरखेड बु.	.. S; 6-0	1424; 804; 148; 372	Dudhalgaon 2-0 Bk.;
Morakhed Kh.—Mlk.—मोरखेड खु.	.. S; 6-0	900; 252; 33; 134	Dudhalgaon 2-0 Bk.;
Motala—Mlk.—मोताला	.. S; 15-0	2573; 2378; 468; 496	Local; ..
Moyegaon—Mlk.—मोयेगांव	.. S; 21-0	327; 356; 59; 99	Rajur; 0-3
Mudephal—Mhk.—मुदेफळ	.. N; 13-0	2181; 1158; 202; 432	Hiwara Kh.; 1-0
Mungasari—Ckl.—मुंगसरी	.. SE; 8-0	769; 522; 96; 300	Khandala; 2-0
Mungi—Ckl.—मुंगी	.. E; 20-0	1841; 41; 2; 1	Isoli; 1-0
Muradapur—Ckl.—मुरादपूर	.. S; 8-0	1309; 541; 86; 266	Bharosa; 4-0
Muramba—Kmg.—मुरबा	.. W; 12-0	939; 368; 83; 158	Nipana; 1-4
Murti—Mlk.—मूर्ति	.. S; 19-4	1411; 659; 131; 316	Rohinkhed; 1-0
Nagajhari Bk.—Mhk.—नागझरी बु.	.. NW; 5-0	336; 406; 73; 168	Deulgaon; 2-0 Mali;
Nagajhari Kh.—Kmg.—नागझरी खु.	.. S; 18-0	978; 251; 46; 83	Maharkhed; 3-0
Nagajhari Kh.—Mhk.—नागझरी खु.	.. NW; 5-0	1792; 85; 11; 51	Deulgaon 2-0 Mali;
Nagajhari Najik Sendurjan—Mhk. नागझरी नजीक शेंदुर्जन.	.. W; 15-0	1198; 350; 66; 95	Daregaon; 1-0
Nagapur—Kmg.—नागापूर	.. S; 7-0	1874; 613; 138; 290	Kinhi; 1-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nandura; 14-0	Pimpalgaon 2-0; Fri. Kale;	Pimpalgaon 2-0 Kale;	w;rv.	Sl (pr).
Khamgaon; 30-0	Amdapur; 4-0; Wed.	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 38-0	Mehekar; 7-0; Sun.	.. 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 35-0	Lavhala; 1-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 48-0	Mehekar; 6-0; Sun.	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 47-0	Mehekar; 7-0; Sun.	Mehekar; 7-0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; m; dg; lib.
Khamgaon; 47-4	Mehekar; 7-4; Sun.	Mehekar; 7-4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 20-0	Malegaon; 2-0; Fri.	Warwat 2-0 Bakal;	W.	tl.
Chandur 3-0	Malkapur; 8-0; Sat.	Wadner; 6-4	W;w.	Sl (m); 2 tl; dp.
Bisva;	..	..	..	..
Malkapur; 50-0	Mhasla 1-4; Wed. Bk.;	Mhasla; 1-4	W;w.	Sl (m); 4 tl; ch.
Jalamb; 1-0	Jalamb; 2-0; Sat.	Jalamb; 1-0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; dg.
Malkapur; 6-0	Malkapur; 6-0; Sat.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Malkapur; 6-0	Malkapur; 6-0; Sat.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Malkapur; 15-0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 2 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 21-0	Motala; 7-0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 34-0	Janefal; 1-4; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch.
.. 40-0	Chikhali; .. Mon.	.. 0-2	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Janefal; 7-0; Sat.	Isoli; 1-0	W.	3 tl.
Khamgaon; 51-0	Chikhali; 8-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (m); tl; ch.
Nandura; 10-0	Pimpalgaon 3-0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 3-0 Raja;	W.	Sl (m); tl.
Malkapur; 19-4	Rohinkhed; 1-0; Sun.	.. 1-1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 50-0	Mehekar; 5-0; Sun.	Local; ..	rv.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 18-0	Mahar- 3-0; Fri. khed;	Maharkhed; 3-0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 50-0	Mehekar; 5-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Shendur- 2-0; Fri. jan;	Shendurjan; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 5-0	Vihigaon; 1-4; Sun.	Awar; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Nagapur—Mhk.—नागापूर	E; 8-0	726; 552; 97; 218	Dongaon; 2-0
Nalagangapur—Mlk.—नळगंगापूर	S; ..	.. 150; 37; 23	
Nanaj—Mhk.—नानज	SW; ..	582; 78; 11; 31	
Nandra—Mhk.—नांद्रा	NW; 12-0	1151; 388; 79; 181	Kalyana; 1-0
Nandra—Mhk.—नांद्रा	S; 25-0	1290; 339; 148; 355	Local; ..
Nandraghat—Ckl.—नांद्राघाट	NW; 17-0	1525; 828; 145; 399	Dudha; 2-0
Nandrakoli—Ckl.—नांद्राकोळी	NW; 19-0	3279; 2399; 405; 1051	Local; ..
Nandra Najik Chayagaon—Mhk.—नांद्रा नजीक चायगांव	W; 7-0	949; 185; 31; 72	Chamgaon; 2-0
Nandri—Kmg.—नांद्री	SW; 14-0	732; 239; 50; 124	Kalegaon; 1-0
Nandura Kh.—Mlk.—नांदुरा खु.		Included in Urban Area II.	
Nandura Urban Area II—Mlk.—नांदुरा नगरी विभाग II		5-67; 20259; 3559; 3413	
Nanganagaon—Ckl.—नांगणगांव	S; 26-0	1745; 789; 139; 463	Saramba; 2-0
Narakhed—Mlk.—नारखेड	E; 24-0	2403; 1242; 242; 545	Local; ..
Naravel—Mlk.—नरवेल	N; 6-3	4331; 3260; 650; 1605	Local; ..
Narayanakhed—Ckl.—नारायणखेड.	S; 25-0	1218; 516; 90; 215	Deulgaon 2-0
Narayanapur—Mlk.—नारायणपूर	E; 21-7	501; 94; 19; 37	Mahi; Nimgaon; 0-7
Nasirabad—Mhk.—नसीराबाद	SW; ..	926; 480; 75; 204	
Nav Kh.—Jlg.—नाव खु.	W; 9-0	998; 87; 13; 56	Palshi Supo; 1-0
Nayadevi—Kmg.—नायदेवी	S; 11-0	2217; 623; 128; 292	Kinhi; 2-0
Nayagaon Bk.—Ckl.—नायगांव बु.	E; 21-0	1239; 753; 145; 326	Mangrul 3-0
Nayagaon Kh.—Ckl.—नायगांव खु.	E; 23-0	1052; 358; 76; 96	Navghare; 4-0
Nayagaon Pr. Ghatabori—Mhk.—नायगांव प्र. घाटबोरी	N; 7-0	1501; 1104; 192; 459	Mangrul; ..
Nayagaon Pr. Mehekar—Mhk.—नायगांव प्र. मेहेकर	NE; 25-0	2133; 1568; 273; 575	Umara; 2-0
Nayagaon—Mlk.—नायगांव	SE; 11-7	987; 853; 177; 389	Shelgaon 2-0
Nekanamapur—Jlg.—नेकनामपूर	SE; 16-2	537; 210; 36; 72	Mukund; 2-0
Nhavi—Mlk.—न्हावी	SW; 11-0	431; 70; 11; 33	Paturda; 1-0
Nijhamapur—Mhk.—निजामपूर	S; 6-0	445; 157; 25; 78	Makodi; 2-0
			Veni; 2-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Akola; 60-0	Dongaon; 2-0; Wed.	.. 0-2	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
.. ..			..	..
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 50-0	Mehekar; 6-0; Sun.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 67-0	Lonar; 10-0; Mon.	.. 4-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Malkapur; 41-0	Dudha; 2-0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 33-0	Buldhana; 5-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 49-0	Mehekar; 7-0; Sun.	.. 5-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 14-0	Kalegaon; 1-0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 6-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
.. ..		Raja; ..	..	..
.. ..			..	..
Jalna; 40-0	Deulgaon 4-0; Sun.	Deulgaon 4-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
.. ..	Mahi;	Mahi;	..	..
Nandura; 6-0	Nandura; 6-0; Mon.	Dahiwadi; 2-0	W.	SI (m); tl.
Malkapur; 6-3	Malkapur; 6-3; Sat.	Local; ..	rv.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl; 3 dh; ch; lib; dp
Jalna; 23-0	Deulgaon 2-0; Sun.	Deulgaon 2-0	rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl; 2 m; ch.
.. ..	Mahi;	Mahi;	..	..
Nandura; 3-7	Nandura; 3-7; Mon.	Nimgaon; 1-5	W.	tl.
Jalna; 15-0	Sindkhed 4-0; Mon.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl; gym; ch; lib.
.. ..	Raja;	..	..	..
Nandura; 14-0	Asalgaon; 5-0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 2-0	W.	tl.
.. ..		Kale;	..	..
Khamgaon; 11-0	Khamgaon; 11-0; Thu.	Hiwarkhed 3-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
.. ..	Janefal; 8-0; Sat.	Fata;	..	..
Khamgaon; 30-0	Janefal; 8-0; Sat.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Janefal; 8-0; Sat.	.. 2-0	W.	2 tl.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Janefal; 4-0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 3tl; ch; 2 lib.
Khamgaon; 25-0	Deulgaon 3-0; Thu.	Deulgaon 3-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
.. ..	Sakarsha;	Sakarsha;	..	..
Nandura; 6-3	Nandura; 6-3; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Shegaon; 15-0	Paturda; 2-0; Mon.		..	tl.
Malkapur; 11-0	Shelgaon 3-0; Fri.	.. 5-0	W;w.	tl.
.. ..	Bazar;	..	..	..
Khamgaon; 48-0	Mehekar; 6-0; Sun.	.. 3-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Nilegaon—Kmg.—निळेगांव	SE; 11.0	1110; 144; 33; 84	Vihigaon; 1.4
Nimagaon Guru—Ckl.—निमगांव गुरु	S; 26.0	1726; 756; 251; 422	Savangi; 1.0
Nimagaon—Mlk.—निमगांव	E; 21.0	4391; 4945; 996; 1844	Local; ..
Nimagaon Vayal—Mhk.—निमगांव वायाळ	SW; 24.0	1142; 691; 121; 193	Hiwarkhed; 2.0
Nimakavala—Kmg.—निमकवळा	SW; 10.0	1279; 771; 166; 354	Kalegaon; 1.4
Nimakhed—Ckl.—निमखेड	SW; 41.0	1246; 518; 77; 113	Deulgaon 5.0 Raja;
Nimakhed—Jlg.—निमखेड	NE; 11.0	384; 115; 33; 28	Palshi Zasi; 1.0
Nimakhed—Kmg.—निमखेड	S; 17.0	1009; 61; 13; 29	Maharkhed; 2.0
Nimakhed—Mhk.—निमखेड	SW; 26.0	766; 295; 49; 138	Sonoli; 4.0
Nimakhed—Mlk.—निमखेड	SE; 13.0	869; 843; 165; 340	Local; ..
Nimakhed—Mlk.—निमखेड	SE; 26.0	997; 173; 40; 54	Kothali; 3.0
Nimba—Mhk.—निंबा	N; 13.0	1082; 231; 41; 56	Janfai; 2.0
Nimbari—Mlk.—निंबारी	S; 2.0	2060; 756; 144; 358	Ghirni; 2.0
Nimbhora Bk.—Jlg.—निभोरा बु.	E; 3.0	1088; 593; 116; 277	Jalgaon; 3.0
Nimbhora Kh.—Jlg.—निभोरा खु.	SE; 7.7	829; 369; 84; 170	Bhendwad 0.1 Bk.;
Nimbi—Kmg.—निंबी	N; 10.0	483; 221; 40; 137	Matargaon 1.0 Bk.;
Nimboli—Mlk.—निंबोली	NW; 3.0	581; 69; 14; 36	Bhalegaon; 1.0
Nipana—Kmg.—निपाण	W; 14.0	2080; 873; 195; 322	Local; ..
Nipana—Mlk.—निपाणा	SW; 8.0	2189; 1004; 184; 416	
Nirod—Jlg.—निरोड	E; 8.0	2112; 290; 116; 235	Niwana; 2.0
Nirod—Kmg.—निरोड	S; 14.0	385; 465; 104; 189	Lokhanda; 2.0
Nivana—Jlg.—निवाणा	E; 6.2	576; 939; 201; 354	Local; ..
Pachala—Mhk.—पाचला	N; 7.0	1181; 451; 85; 248	
Padali—Ckl.—पाडली	NW; 10.0	2353; 1518; 277; 568	Local; ..
Padali Pr. Malakapur Pangra— Ckl.—पाडली प्र. मलकापूर पांग्रा.	SE; 25.0	2197; 927; 172; 330	Saokhed; 1.0
Padasul—Kmg.—पाडसुळ	NE; 17.0	1122; 585; 120; 241	Adsul; 1.0
Pahur—Mhk.—पहूर	S; 13.0	1388; 392; 73; 185	Dabha; 1.4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 11.0	Vihigaon; 1.4; Sun.	Vihigaon; 0.6	rv.	SI (pr); Fr. Bdp. Vad. 1; tl.
Jalna; 27.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sun. Mahi;	Takarkhed; 2.0	rv.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 3.0	Nandura; 3.0; Mon.	.. 0.6	W;w.	6 SI (3 pr, 2 m, h); 2 Cs; 7 tl; mq; 4 dp.
Jalna; 42.0	Malkapur 6.0; Thu. Pangra;	Kingaon; 4.0	rv.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 10.0	Kalegaon; 1.4; Tue.	Tandulwadi; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 2 tl.
Jalna; 13.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 5.0 Raja;	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 24.4	Palshi Zasi; 1.0; Fri.	.. 2.3	W;w.	tl.
Khamgaon; 17.0	Mahar- 2.0; Fri. khed;	Maharkhed; 2.0	W;rv.	tl.
Partur; 24.0	Sevali; 5.0; Tue.	.. 10.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
.. ..	Jawala 2.0; Tue. Bazar;	Shelapur; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Nandura; 23.0	Kothali; 3.0; Wed.	Motala; 7.0	W;w.	tl.
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal; 2.0; Sat.	Janefal; 2.0	W.	SI (pr).
Malkapur; 2.0	Malkapur; 2.0; Sat.	.. 0.2	W.	tl.
Nandura; 21.0	Jalgaon; 3.0; Sun.	.. 0.3	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Jalamb; 10.0	Bhendwad 0.1; Thu. Bk.;	.. 5.0	W;w.	tl; lib.
Jalamb; 2.0	Matargaon 1.0; Fri. Bk.;	Matargaon 1.0 Bk.;	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 3.0	Malkapur; 3.0; Sat.	Kund Bk.; 2.0	rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 11.0	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	W.	Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 8.0	Shelgaon; 3.0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 19.0	Local; .. Fri.	Niwana; 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 14.0	Mahar- 2.0; Fri. khed;	.. 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 23.0	Nirod; 2.0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 41.0	Janefal; 4.0; Sat.	Naigaon; 2.0	W;rv.	3 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 38.0	Buldhana; 10.0; Sun.	.. 0.1	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); Cs; 2 tl; dh; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Malkapur Thu. Pangra;	.. 5.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Shegaon; 7.0	Shegaon; 7.0; Tue.	Kalkhed; 2.4	rv.	2 SI (pr, m); tl.
Washim; 40.0	Hirawad; 5.0; Fri.	Lonar; 10.0	Spr.	SI (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Pahurajira—Kmg.—पहूरजिरा ..	N; 5.0	6455; 3048; 653; 1335	Local; ..
Pahurapurna—Kmg.—पहूरपूरणा ..	N; 20.0	1815; 816; 162; 297	Marasgaon; 0.4
Palasakhed—Jlg.—पळसखेड ..	SE; 6.0	461; 395; 90; 178	Madakhed 0.1 Bk.;
Palasakhed Bhat—Ckl.—पळसखेड भट	NW; 12.0	1713; 664; 131; 358	Raipur; 1.2
Palasakhed Cakha—Mhk.— पळसखेड चक्का	SW; 29.0	2304; 566; 99; 286	Kirgaon 2.0 Raja;
Palasakhed Daulat—Ckl.—पळसखेड दौलत	SW; 2.2	1136; 1045; 184; 471	Local; ..
Palasakhed Jahagir—Mhk.— पळसखेड जहागीर	S; 17.0	785; 739; 124; 442	Hirwad; 2.0
Palasakhed Jaiti—Ckl.—पळसखेड जैती	N; 2.0	699; 415; 81; 108	Hatni; 2.0
Palasakhed Jhalata—Ckl.— पळसखेड झालटा	S; ..	2415; 501; 78; 304	Borkhedi 1.0 Bavara;
Palasakhed Malakadev—Ckl.— पळसखेड मलकादेव	SW; 40.0	1223; 280; 49; 157	Borkhedi 1.0 Bavara;
Palasakhed Nago—Ckl.—पळसखेड नागो	NW; 22.0	2333; 618; 106; 271	Padali; 2.0
Palasakhed Sapakal—Ckl.— पळसखेड सपकळ	NE; 13.0	505; 384; 103; 162	Dongarsheoli; 2.0
Palashi Bk.—Kmg.—पळशी बु. ..	SE; 17.0	3101; 2056; 439; 894	Local; ..
Palashighat—Jlg.—पळशीघाट ..	SW; 10.0	732; 91; 21; 44	
Palashi Jhashi—Jlg.—पळशी झाशी	E; 10.0	1984; 1980; 396; 805	Local; ..
Palashi Kh.—Kmg.—पळशी खु. ..	SE; 18.0	1439; 688; 141; 330	Palasi Bk.; 1.0
Palashi Supo—Jlg.—पळशी सुपो ..	W; 8.0	2449; 1508; 311; 381	Local; ..
Palashi Vaidya—Jlg.—पळशी वैद्य ..	SW; 10.0	320; 309; 60; 122	
Palasoda—Jlg.—पळसोडा ..	NE; 13.4	960; 746; 170; 309	Bawanbir; 1.4
Palasoda—Mik.—पळसोडा ..	NE; 25.0	1747; 928; 188; 375	Alampur; 3.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalamb; 3.0	Khamgaon; 5.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Fr. Ch. Vad. 4; 4 tl; 2 mq; dh; lib; 4 dp; 4 C ch.
Shegaon; 9.0	Manas- 0.4; Sun. gaon;	Manasgaon; 0.4	rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Jalamb; 13.6	Madakhed 0.1; Sat. Bk.;	Jalgaon; 6.0	W.	SI (pr); dp (Vet).
Malkapur; 42.0	Chikhali; 12.0; Mon.	.. 0.2	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 20.0	Sindkhed 5.0; Mon. Raja;	.. 0.1	W.	SI (pr); Cs (gr); 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 41.2	Chikhali; 2.2; Mon.	Chikhali; 2.2	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 59.0	Lonar; 3.0; Mon.	Lonar; 3.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Chikhali; 2.0; Mon.	Malgani; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; dh; ch.
Jalna; 20.0	Deulgaon 5.0; Sat. Raja;	Borkhedi 1.0 Bavara;	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch.
Jalna; 20.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sat. Raja;	Borkhedi 1.0 Bavara;	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Malkapur; 38.0	Buldhana; 8.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); pyt; tl.
Khamgaon; 27.0	Chikhali; 13.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Khamgaon; 17.0	Balapur; 6.0; Sat.	Khamgaon 6.0 Balapur Road;	W.	SI (m); Cs; Mahadeo Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 2 tl; m; ch; 2 dp (Vet).
Nandura; 16.0		.. 1.0	W.	Cs; tl; 4 tl; m.
Shegaon; 18.0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 1.4	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Shankar Swarup Baba Fr. Phg. Vad. 12; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 18.0	Balapur; 4.0; Sat.	.. 4.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Asalgaon; 4.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 2.0 Kale;	W.	SI (pr); Cs; Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; ch; lib.
Nandura; 16.0	Pimpalgaon 2.0; Fri. Kale;	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Shegaon; 22.0	Bawanbir; 1.4; Mon.	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 2 tl; lib.
Khumgaon; 4.0	Pimpalgaon 5.0; Fri. Kale;	Nandura; 8.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Palodi—Kmg.—पाळोदी ..	NE; 16.0	1340; 719; 111; 144	Zadegaon; 1.4
Panchadevala—Mhk.—पांचदेवळा ..	N; ..	2206; 17; 5; 8	
Panchala Pr. Bavanabir—Jlg.— पंचाला प्र. बावनबीर	E; 10.0	640; 127; 23; 40	Bawanbir; 1.0
Panchala Pr. Jamod—Jlg.—पंचाल प्र. जामोद	E; 10.0	640; 32; 6; 14	Bawanbir; 1.4
Pandharadev—Ckl.—पांढरदेव ..	E; 12.0	1365; 576; 104; 256	Eklara; 3.0
Pangarakhed—Ckl.—पांगरखेड ..	NW; ..	761; 305; 66; 126	
Pangarakhed—Mhk.—पांगरखेड ..	NE; 17.0	1333; 1080; 212; 347	Local; ..
Pangarakhed—Mhk.—पांगरखेड ..	SW; 33.0	561; 236; 38; 60	Sindkhed 3.0
Pangari Kate—Mhk.—पांगरी काटे	W; 23.0	1333; 413; 86; 159	Raja; Wadgaon 2.0
Pangradole—Mhk.—पांग्राडोले ..	S; 21.0	2498; 1756; 337; 796	Local; ..
Pangri—Mhk.—पांग्री ..	SW; 27.0	2069; 813; 124; 389	Kingaon 2.0
Pangri Pr. Deulaghat—Ckl.—पांग्री प्र. देऊळघाट	NW; ..	1893; 1742; 306; 719	Raja;
Pangri Pr. Japharabad—Ckl.— पांग्री प्र. जाफराबाद	SW; 40.0	2956; 1318; 242; 614	Singaon 1.4
Panhera—Mik.—पन्हेरा ..	E; 4.4	4665; 2563; 530; 1233	Local; ..
Panhera—Mik.—पन्हेरा ..	SW; 29.0	2456; 1567; 327; 652	Local; ..
Paradha—Mik.—परढा ..	S; 18.2	687; 348; 68; 165	Kharbadi; 2.0
Parakhed—Kmg.—पारखेड ..	NW; 6.0	4921; 1120; 227; 512	Local; ..
Parakhed—Mhk.—पारखेड ..	N; 23.0	2534; 599; 183; 307	Deulgaon 3.0
Parasharamapur—Jlg.— परशरामपुर	SE; 4.0	640; 159; 30; 75	Sakarsha;
Paratapur—Mhk.—परतापुर ..	SE; 2.0	686; 694; 121; 394	Ukali; 1.0
Parda—Mhk.—पार्डा ..	SW; 6.0	1290; 752; 137; 271	Sultanpur; 2.0
Parda—Mhk.—पार्डा ..	S; 20.0	1418; 722; 144; 335	Lonar; 5.0
Pardi—Mhk.—पार्डी ..	N; 14.0	1557; 422; 84; 207	Hiwara Kh.; 2.0
Pardi—Mhk.—पार्डी ..	S; 9.0	1197; 700; 114; 364	Sultanpur; 1.0
Patan—Jlg.—पाटण ..	S; 2.0	576; 102; 23; 60	
Pathra—Mhk.—पाथरा ..	S; 24.0	721; 76; 18; 38	Nandura; 3.0
Patoda—Ckl.—पाटोदा ..	E; 16.0	1693; 529; 94; 229	Eklara; 1.0
Patonda—Kmg.—पातोंडा ..	SE; 11.0	1089; 289; 63; 153	Vihigaon; 1.0
Patonda—Mik.—पातोंडा ..	NE; 25.0	1495; 600; 116; 302	Alampur; 1.4
Paturda Kh.—Jlg.—पातुर्डा खु ..	SE; 19.3	1890; 997; 186; 486	Paturda Bk.; 0.2

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Shegaon; 5.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 5.0	rv.	SI (pr); tl.
.. ..				
Shegaon; ..	Bawanbir; 1.0; Mon.	Tunki Bk.; 2.0	W.	tl.
Shegaon; 23.0	Bawanbir; 1.4; Mon.		W.	
Khamgaon; 30.0	Amdapur; 5.0; Wed.		2.0 W.	SI (pr); tl.
.. ..				
Khamgaon; 60.0	Dongaon; 6.0; Wed.	Dongaon; 6.0	W; o.	SI (pr); 2 Cs; tl; lib; dp (Vet).
Jalna; 20.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 3.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 43.0	Sakhar 4.0; Fri. Kherda;	Sakhar 4.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
.. ..	Lonar; 5.4; Mon.		4.0 W; w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 25.0	Kingaon 2.0; Fri. Raja;		2.0 W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
.. ..				
Jalna; 21.0	Deulgaon 6.0; Sat. Raja;	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (2 pr, m); Cs; Nath Fr; Ct. Last Sunday; 5 tl.
Malkapur; 4.4	Malkapur; 4.4; Sat.	Malkapur; 4.4	W; w.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Malkapur; 29.0	Korhala; 2.4; Mon.		0.6 W; w.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 18.2	Motala; 4.0; Thu.		W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; ..	Nandura; .. Mon.	Chikhali; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); ch.
Khamgaon; 22.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Thu. Sakarsha;	Deulgaon 3.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 19.4			W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 44.0	Mehekar; 2.0; Sun.		0.3 W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Sultanpur; 2.0; Tue.		2.0 W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 70.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	Lonar; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 34.0	Janefal; 3.0; Sat.		3.0 W; w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 51.0	Sultanpur; 1.0; Tue.	Sultanpur; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 17.0	Wadshingi; 1.4; Wed.		2.0 W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 66.0	Lonar; 9.0; Mon.		4.0 W; w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 36.0		Eklara; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; Fr. Ps. Sud. 4; 3 tl; dh; ch.
Khamgaon; 11.0	Vihigaon; 1.0; Sun.	Vihigaon; 1.0	w; rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Khumgaon; 4.0	Nandura; 7.0; Mon.	Yerali; 4.0	W; rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 14.0	Paturda; 0.2; Mon.	Paturda; 0.2	W; rv.	SI (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Pedaka—Kmg.—पेडका	SE; 13-0	1367; 122; 28; 64	Atali; 2-0
Penatakali—Mhk.—पेनटाकळी	NW; 13-0	1969; 714; 130; 398	
Pesoda—Jlg.—पेसोडा	SE; 12-0	1657; 754; 149; 327	Kaothal; 3-0
Peth—Ckl.—पेठ	E; 6-0	1091; 1086; 214; 437	Local; ..
Phardapur—Mlk.—फर्दापूर	SW; 21-0	709; 254; 44; 119	Sarola 2-0
Phattepur—Kmg.—फत्तेपूर	SE; 23-0	2085; 204; 40; 90	Maroti; 2-0
Phuli—Mlk.—फुली	SE; 20-0	1578; 903; 172; 383	Lakhan- wada Bk.; 2-0
Pimpalgaon Bk.—Ckl.— पिंपळगांव बु.	S; 28-0	1491; 863; 143; 252	Takarkhed; 2-0
Pimpalgaon Devi—Mlk.— पिंपळगांव देवी	SW; 18-0	3806; 1205; 232; 335	Local; ..
Pimpalgaon Kale—Jlg.— पिंपळगांव काळे	SW; 10-0	56046; 6211; 1216; 2389	Local; ..
Pimpalgaon Kuda—Mhk.— पिंपळगांव कुडा	SW; 25-0	1047; 447; 90; 183	Dusarbid; 3-0
Pimpalgaon Lendi—Mhk.— पिंपळगांव लेंडी	SW; 27-0	1093; 560; 96; 195	Kingaon 2-0
Pimpalgaon Nath—Kmg.— पिंपळगांव नाथ	SW; 17-0	975; 350; 69; 177	Raja; 8-0
Pimpalgaon Pr. Japharabad— Ckl.—पिंपळगांव प्र. जाफराबाद	SW; 38-0	3263; 743; 137; 413	Pimpalgaon 2-0
Pimpalgaon Raja—Kmg.— पिंपळगांव राजा	W; 10-0	5259; 6612; 1181; 1639	Raja; 2-0
Pimpalgaon Sarai—Ckl.— पिंपळगांव सराई	W; ..	3756; 3427; 559; 1176	Local; ..
Pimpalgaon Sonara—Mhk.— पिंपळगांव सोनारा	W; 22-0	1288; 776; 132; 329	
Pimpalgaon Unda—Mhk.— पिंपळगांव उन्डा	NW; 13-0	1713; 863; 179; 398	Darggaon; 2-0
Pimpalakhuta—Mhk.—पिंपळखुटा	SW; 19-0	1103; 597; 111; 323	Lavhala; 2-0
Pimpalakhuta—Mhk.—पिंपळखुटा	SW; 30-0	1075; 422; 69; 225	Somthana; 1-0
Pimpalakhuta—Mlk.—पिंपळखुटा	W; 6-0	485; 490; 99; 168	Sindkhed 4-0
Pimpalakhuta—Mlk.—पिंपळखुटा	SE; 16-4	1048; 656; 115; 331	Raja; 1-4
			Jambhul- dhaba; 1-0
			Shelgaon 1-0
			Mukund;

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 13-0	Vihigaon; 2-0; Sun.	Vihigaon; 2-0	W.	tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Mehekar; 13-0; Sun.	Gajarkhed; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Shegaon; 15-0	Kao hal; 3-0; Wed.		W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Utrada; 0-1; Tue.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; 2 dg; lib.
Malkapur; 21-0	Rohinkhed; 3-0; Mon.	R-hinkhed; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 20-0	Lakhan- wada Bk.; 2-0; Wed.	Ambetakali; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 13-4	Jawala Bazar; 3-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Jalna; 27-0	Deulgaon 4-0; Sun.	Aland Fata; 3-0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; 2 dg; gym; ch; lib.
Nandgaon; 7-0	Jamthi; 3-0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 3 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Nandura; 12-0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	5 Sl (4 pr, h); Cs; 5 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; 5 dp.
.. ..	Kingaon 3-0; Wed.	.. 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Jalna; 22-0	Jattu; Sindkhed 6-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 14-0	Raja; Motala; 4-0; Thu.	Fuli; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Jalna; 18-0	Deulgaon 2-0; Sat.	Deulgaon 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch; Cch.
Khamgaon; 10-0	Raja; Local; .. Wed.	Lncal; ..	W;rv.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 3 Cs; 5 tl; 7 mq; 2 dg; dh; ch; 2 lib dp.
.. ..			..	..
Khamgaon; 42-0	Sakhar 3-0; Fri.	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; ch.
Khamgaon; 38-0	Kherda; Lavhala; 2-0; Sun.	.. 1-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
.. ..	Lonar; 3-0; Mon.	Lonar; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl
Jalna; 30-0	Sindkhed 4-0; Mon.	Sindkhed 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamkhed; 1-0	Raja; Deodhaba; 2-0; Tue.	Raja; Malkapur; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Nandura; 4-0	Nandura; 4-0; Mon.	Malegaon; 1-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/ Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Pimpalakhuta Bk.—Mlk.— पिंपळखुटा बु.	SE; 17-0	1227; 633; 106; 227	Nimkhed; 1-0
Pimpalakhuta Kh.—Mlk.— पिंपळखुटा खु.	SE; 13-0	734; 235; 45; 90	Nimkhed; 1-4
Pimpalaner—Ckl.—पिंपळनेर ..	SW; 37-0	1426; 99; 23; 41	Deulgaon 2-0 Raja;
Pimpalaner—Mhk.—पिंपळनेर ..	S; 16-0	3817; 1164; 216; 578	Jambhul; 1-0
Pimpalapati—Mlk.—पिंपळपाटी ..	S; 10-0	949; 276; 44; 98	Nalganga- pur; 0-4
Pimparakhed Bk.—Mhk.— पिंपरखेड बु.	SW; 32-0	1185; 487; 74; 199	Adgaon 2-0 Raja;
Pimparakhed Pr. Amadapur—Ckl. पिंपरखेड प्र. आमडापूर	E; 17-0	803; 565; 110; 275	Isola; 1-0
Pimpri Deshamukh—Kmg.— पिंपरी देशमुख	NW; 10-0	1887; 739; 155; 288	Lanzood; 3-0
Pimprala—Kmg.—पिंप्राळा ..	E; 6-5	2982; 624; 147; 196	Pimpri 1-0 Gaoli;
Pimpri—Ckl.—पिंप्री ..	S; 18-0	2025; 957; 162; 487	Ancharwadi; 2-0
Pimpri—Mhk.—पिंप्री ..	SW; 16-0	1682; 615; 108; 323	Bibi; 2-0
Pimpri Adhav—Mlk.—पिंप्री अढाव	SE; 12-0	1269; 590; 132; 163	Waadi; 2-0
Pimpri Dhanagar—Kmg.—पिंप्री धनगर	SE; 25-0	1963; 767; 127; 313	Shirala; 2-0
Pimpri Gaudi—Kmg.—पिंप्री गौडी	E; 8-0	3988; 1382; 322; 644	Local; ..
Pimprigavali—Mlk.—पिंप्रीगवळी	S; 18-0	2220; 2132; 422; 862	Local; ..
Pimpri Kavathal—Jlg.—पिंप्री कवठळ	SE; 13-0	448; 330; 68; 82	Sangrampur; 2-4
Pimpri Kodri—Jlg.—पिंप्री कोद्री ..	SW; 6-0	1448; 534; 98; 212	Pimpalgaon 1-0 Kale;
Pimprikoli—Mlk.—पिंप्रीकोळी ..	NE; 10-0	984; 222; 43; 112	Mominabad; 2-0
Pimpri Korade—Kmg.—पिंप्री कोरडे	S; 24-0	2135; 725; 161; 382	Chinchpur; 1-0
Pimpri Mali—Mhk.—पिंप्री माळी	NE; 4-0	806; 1624; 255; 569	Mola; 2-0
Pimpri Pr. Adaganv—Jlg.— पिंप्री प्र. अडगांव	E; 19-0	1879; 991; 175; 404	Paturda; 4-0
Pingali Bk.—Jlg.—पिंगळी बु. ..	NE; 16-0	1280; 124; 24; 78	Sonala; 1-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 11-0	Jawala 2-0; Tue. Bazar;	Shelapur 8-0 Bk.;	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 13-0	Jawala 1-4; Tue. Bazar;	Khaira; 3-4	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Jalna; 16-0	Deulgaon 2-0; Sat. Raja;	Local; ..	rv.	2 tl; m.
.. ..	Lonar; 4-0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl; 2 mq; ch.
Malkapur; 10-0	Motala; 4-0; Thu.	.. 1-0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Jalna; 24-0	Kingaon 4-0; Fri. Raja;	Kingaon 4-0 Raja;	W.	SI (pr).
Khamgaon; 25-0	Amdapur; 4-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Nandura; 5-0	Nandura; 5-0; Mon.	Nandura; 5-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Khamgaon; 6-5	Khamgaon; 6-5; Thu.	Local; 0-5	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 34-0	Deulgaon 7-0; Sun. Mahi;	.. 0-6	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 58-0	Bibi; 2-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur 3-0	Jawala 3-0; Tue. Bazar;	Wadner; 3-5	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 25-0	Shirala; 2-0; Thu.	Shirala; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib;
Khamgaon; 8-0	Khamgaon; 8-0; Thu.	Khamgaon 2-0 Belapur Road;	W.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; dg; lib; 2 dp.
Malkapur; 18-0	Shelgaon 5-0; Fri. Bazar;	.. 6-0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq.
Shegaon; 15-0	Sangram- pur; 2-4; Tue.	Manardi; 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 12-0	Asalgaon; 2-0; Tue.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Chandur; 5-0	Malkapur; 10-0; Sat.	Wadner; 8-0	rv.	SI (pr); Devi Fr. Ct. Sud, 15; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 24-0	Mahar- khed; 6-0; Fri.	Maharkhed; 6-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 54-0	Mehekar; 4-0; Sun.	Mehekar; 4-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Shegaon; 26-0	Malegaon; 2-0; Fri.	Telhara; 3-0	W.	SI (m); tl.
Shegaon; 31-0	Sonala; 1-0; Sun.		..	SI (pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Pingali Kh.—Jlg.—पिंगळी खु.	NE; 20-0	1280; 110; 22; 52	Sonala; 1-0
Pokhari—Ckl.—पोखरी	N; 4-0	760; 453; 85; 227	Sav; 1-6
Pokhari—Mhk.—पोखरी	NW; 12-0	901; 253; 56; 132	Brahmpuri; 1-0
Pokhari—Mlk.—पोखरी	SW; 32-0	1594; 317; 71; 136	Sarola 2-0
Pophali—Mlk.—पोफळी	SW; 16-0	3350; 1617; 317; 637	(Maroti); Local; ..
Pophali Shivarani—Mhk.— पोफळी शिवणी.	W; 22-0	2216; 437; 124; 104	Malkapur 2-0
Poraj—Kmg.—पोरज	W; 9-0	1685; 565; 119; 142	Pargra; Bhalegaon; 2-0
Pot—Mlk.—पोट	SE; 28-0	978; 361; 74; 187	Wadi; 1-0
Potali—Mlk.—पोटली	SE; 14-0	1425; 984; 191; 477	Wadi; 1-0
Punhai—Mlk.—पुन्हई	S; 18-0	2075; 736; 134; 317	Motala; 3-0
Rahera—Mlk.—राहेरा	S; 19-0	845; 371; 60; 163	Rohinkhed; 3-0
Raheri Bk.—Mhk.—राहेरी बु.	SW; 25-0	2724; 1361; 241; 495	Kingaon 2-0
Raheri Kh.—Mhk.—राहेरी खु.	SW; 21-0	1193; 297; 47; 115	Raja; Kingaon 2-0
Rahud—Kmg.—राहूड	W; 7-0	2211; 706; 136; 313	Raja; Pimpalgaon 2-0
Rajagad—Mhk.—राजगड	NE; 23-0	.. 361; 60; 202	Raja; Wishvi; 3-0
Rajani—Mhk.—राजणी	SW; 10-0	955; 264; 38; 124	Sultanpur; 2-0
Rajapur—Jlg.—राजपूर	E; 4-0	320; 86; 19; 40	Niwana; 1-0
Rajegaon—Mhk.—राजेगांव	W; 11-0	2069; 1097; 204; 492	Local; ..
Rajur—Mlk.—राजूर	S; 20-2	2350; 2476; 418; 807	Local; ..
Rajura Kh.—Jlg.—राजुरा खु.	NW; 3-0	704; 27; 8; 12	
Ramapur—Mlk.—रामपूर	E; 21-0	625; 557; 97; 234	Nimgaon; 0-3
Ranagaon—Mlk.—रणगांव	NW; 4-0	2053; 294; 60; 177	Bhalegaon; 0-6
Ranantri—Ckl.—रानअंत्री	SE; 13-0	781; 436; 87; 176	Ambashi; 2-0
Ranatham—Mlk.—रणथम	NW; 10-0	651; 500; 112; 230	Local; ..
Rastapur—Mlk.—रास्तापूर	S; 3-0	366; 4; 1; 2	Ghirni; 2-0
Rasulapur—Jlg.—रसूलपूर	W; 2-0	832; 690; 128; 253	Jalgaon; 2-0
Rasulapur—Mlk.—रसूलपूर	SE; 18-6	885; 616; 120; 213	Malegaon; 4-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Wari Hiwar- 5-0	Sonala; 1-0; Sun.	Sonala; 1-0	W.	tl.
khed;				
Malkapur; 32-0	Buldhana; 4-0; Sun.	Bhadola; 1-6	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Khamgaon; 45-0	Mehekar; 11-0; Sun.	Shelgaon 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
		Road;		
Malkapur; 32-0	Motala; 17-0; Thu.	.. 3-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 16-0	Local; .. Sun.	.. 6-0	W;rv.	2 Sl (m, h); Cs (mp); 3 tl; lib; 2 dp.
Khamgaon; 50-0	Malkapur 2-0; Thu.	Malkapur 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
	Pangra;	Pangra;		
Khamgaon; 8-0	Bhalegaon; 2-0; Sun.	Jalaka 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; gym.
		Bhadang;		
Nandura; 10-0	Jawal; 3-0; Tue.	Tarawadi; 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 7-0	Nandura; 7-0; Mon.	Lonwadi; 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 18-0	Motala; 3-0; Thu	.. 3-0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; dh; ch.
Malkapur; 19-0	Rohin- 3-0; Sun.	Rohinkhed; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
	khed;			
Jalna; 26-0	Kingaon 2-0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp; Cch.
Jalna; 40-0	Kingaon 2-0; Tue.	Raheri Bk.; 0-3	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 7-0	Pimpalgaon 2-0; Wed.	Pimpalgaon 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dh.
	Raja;	Raja;		
Khamgaon; 45-0	Dongaon; 11-0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 52-0	Sultanpur; 2-0; Tue.	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 22-0		Changefal; 0-1	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 43-0	Local; .. Wed.	Shendurjan; 3-0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 20-0	Buldhana; 7-0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	3 Sl (pr, 2 m); pyt (gr); Cs; 6 tl; mq; 7 dg; dp (Vet).
Nandura; 18-0		Asalgaon; 5-0	W.	tl.
Nandura; 3-0	Nandura; 3-0; Mon.	Nimgaon; 0-6	W;w.	2 tl.
Malkapur; 4-0	Malkapur; 4-0; Sat.	Malkapur; 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 44-0	Chikhali; 13-0; Mon.	.. 3-0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Fr. Krt. Vad. 12; 6 tl; 2 m; dh; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 10-0	Malkapur; 10-0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 3-0	Malkapur; 3-0; Sat.	Malkapur; 3-0	W.	tl.
Nandura; 18-0	Asalgaon; 4-0; Tue.	Jalgaon; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq.
Nandura; 1-0	Nandura; 1-0; Mon.	Nandura; 1-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Ratali—Mhk.—राताली	NW; 22.0	1821; 637; 134; 321	Mohadi; 2.0
Ratnapur—Mhk.—रत्नापुर	NE; 9.0	702; 245; 44; 133	Mola; 3.0
Ratnapur—Mhk.—रत्नापुर	E; 8.0	1301; 473; 93; 248	Ukali; 4.0
Rayagaon—Mhk.—रायगांव	S; 29.0	2080; 965; 173; 446	Local; ..
Rayapur—Ckl.—रायपुर	W; ..	6615; 3845; 688; 1654	
Rayapur—Jlg.—रायपुर	NW; 7.0	2240; 147; 27; 59	Dhanora; 4.0
Rayapur—Mhk.—रायपुर	N; 11.0	621; 331; 52; 178	Brahmapuri; 1.0
Ridhora—Mlk.—रिधोरा	SW; 25.0	2106; 780; 140; 299	Dhamangaon 4.0 Badhe;
Ridhora—Mlk.—रिधोरा	S; 17.0	957; 407; 80; 211	Motala; 2.0
Ringanavadi—Jlg.—रिंगणवाडी	E; 14.0	768; 387; 68; 119	Kakanwada 2.0 Bk.;
Rohana—Ckl.—रोहणा	S; 25.0	1675; 421; 84; 116	Savangi; 3.0
Rohana—Kmg.—रोहना	SW; 11.0	4613; 1090; 243; 559	Local; ..
Rohinakhed—Mlk.—रोहिणखेड	S; 23.0	8191; 4474; 819; 1647	Local; ..
Rohin Khidaki—Jlg.—रोहिण खिडकी	NE; 22.0	6974; 323; 62; 196	Sonala; 5.0
Rohoda—Ckl.—रोहोडा	S; 8.2	4096; 866; 147; 376	Gangalgaon; 2.0
Roti—Kmg.—रोटी	NW; 18.0	862; 164; 31; 48	Bhota; 1.0
Rudhana—Jlg.—रुधाना	SE; 6.4	832; 1223; 248; 470	Local; ..
Ruikhed—Ckl.—रुईखेड	W; 14.0	2408; 1498; 268; 750	Bhadgaon; 2.0
Ruikhed—Ckl.—रुईखेड	N; 6.0	1164; 1018; 214; 435	Sav; 1.5
Rumhana—Mhk.—रुम्हणा	SW; 27.0	774; 599; 112; 278	Changefal; 3.0
Sabra—Mhk.—साब्रा	N; 3.0	892; 564; 96; 128	Mehekar; 3.0
Sagavan—Ckl.—सागवन	NW; 19.0	1842; 1928; 352; 561	Buldhana; 2.0
Sagoda—Kmg.—सगोडा	N; 18.0	2287; 1642; 328; 693	Bhongaon; 2.0
Shahapur—Kmg.—शहापुर	SE; 22.3	2582; 1407; 294; 551	Local; ..
Shahapur—Mhk.—शहापुर	NE; 7.0	1482; 524; 78; 269	Anjani Bk; 4.0
Shahapur—Mlk.—शहापुर	S; ..	1105; 5; 1; 4	
Sahasramuli—Mlk.—सहस्रमुली	SE; 21.0	1959; 457; 60; 135	Kharbadi; 4.0
Sajanapuri—Kmg.—सजनपुरी	S; 2.0	603; 598; 114; 239	Khamgaon; 2.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 41.0	Sakhar 3.0; Sun. Kherda;	Sakhar 3.0 Kherda;	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Janefal; 5.0; Sat.	Naigaon; 5.0	W;n.	SI (pr); tl.
Akola; 65.0	Dongaon; 6.0; Wed.	.. 3.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Washim; 43.0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 6.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp (Vet).
.. ..			..	..
Nandura; 21.0	Asalgaon; 7.0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 7.0	W.	SI (pr).
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 11.0; Sun.	Brahmapuri; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; dp.
Malkapur; 20.0	Dhaman- 4.0; Wed. gaon Badhe;	.. 4.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 17.0	Motala; 2.0; Thu.	.. 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Shegaon; 20.0	Malegaon; 3.0; Fri.	Warwat 2.0 Bakal;	W;rv.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 26.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun. Mahi;	.. 1.4	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 11.0	Warna; 1.4; Fri.	Antraj; 5.0	W.	SI (m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; dg; 2 lib.
Malkapur; 23.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 7 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; lib; 3 dp.
.. ..	Sonala; 5.0; Sun.	Sonala; 5.0	W.	..
Jalna; 42.0	Chikhali; 8.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Devi Fr. Ct. Pour- nima; 3 tl; mq; ch.
Nandura; 8.0	Nandura; 8.0; Mon.	Nandura; 8.0	rv.	tl.
Nandura; 22.0	Local; .. Sat.	Changefal; 2.2	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Malkapur; 49.0	Chandol; 2.4; Sun.	Savali; 1.4	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; 2 m. ch; lib.
Malkapur; 34.0	Buldhana; 6.0; Sun.	Sav; 1.6	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 30.0	Kingaon 4.0; Wed. Jattu;	.. 4.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Mehekar; 3.0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 30.0	Buldhana; 2.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Jalamb; 8.0	Bhongaon; 2.0; Thu.		rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Paras; 18.0	Adgaon; 5.0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;rv.	SI (m); 2 Cs; Fr. Pa. Vad. 14; 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Washim; 24.0	Mehekar; 7.0; Sun.	Anjani; 4.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
.. ..			..	..
Malkapur; 21.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	.. 4.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.	Local; 0.4	W.	SI (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Traveling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Sakegaon—Ckl.—साकेगांव	W; 4.2	1720; 665; 126; 276	Godri; 2.4
Sakhali Bk.—Ckl.—साखळी बु.	SW; 10.0	3768; 3323; 806; 858	Local; ..
Sakhali Kh.—Ckl.—साखळी खु.	NW; ..	2135; 88; 157; 148	
Sakharakherda—Mhk.— साखरखेडा	NW; 19.0	6857; 6533; 1067; 1607	Local; ..
Salavan—Jlg.—सालवण	NE; 25.0	6976; 128; 22; 79	Sorala; 5.0
Sambhapur—Kmg.—संभ.पूर	E; 14.0	419; 298; 51; 140	Balapur; 2.0
Sanapudi—Mlk.—सानपुडी	E; 11.0	686; 78; 17; 30	Chandur Bisva; 2.0
Sangalad—Mlk.—सांगलद	S; ..	1113; 256; 69; 56	
Sangalad Pr. Malakapur—Mlk.— सांगलद प्र. मलकापूर	S; 16.0	8500; 55; .. 21	Motala; 1.0
Sangav—Mlk.—सांगव	E; 14.0	498; 121; 37; 50	Shelgaon Mukund; 2.0
Sangava—Kmg.—सांगवा	NE; 12.0	1179; 449; 116; 140	Alasana; 1.0
Sangramapur—Jlg.—संग्रामपूर	E; 8.4	1408; 3252; 642; 963	Local; ..
Shara—Mhk.—शारा	S; 13.0	2054; 1432; 260; 619	Local; ..
Saramba—Ckl.—सारंबा	S; 20.0	1948; 1148; 205; 494	Local; ..
Sarangapur—Mhk.—सारंगपूर	SW; 0.4	1169; 529; 110; 254	Mehekar; 0.4
Sarashiv—Mhk.—सारशीव	NW; 22.0	1034; 567; 103; 242	Local; ..
Sarola—Kmg.—सारोळा	W; 3.0	132; 8; 3; 5	Khamgaon; 3.0
Sarola (Maroti)—Mlk.— सारोळा (मारोती)	S; 20.0	2154; 1265; 268; 694	Local; ..
Sarola Pir—Mlk.—सारोळा पीर	SW; 21.0	2012; 643; 135; 285	Sarola Maroti; 2.0
Sarasvati—Mhk.—सरस्वती	S; 18.0	1147; 1004; 182; 421	Lonar; 2.0
Satagaon—Ckl.—सातगांव	W; 28.0	1972; 1533; 273; 401	Local; ..
Satagaon Bhusari—Ckl.—सातगांव भुसारी	N; 6.0	5684; 2185; 430; 947	Hatni; 1.4
Satali—Jlg.—सातली	S; 7.0	1356; 570; 115; 282	Khandvi; 1.0
Sathegaon—Mhk.—साठेगांव	SW; 27.0	1297; 902; 154; 457	Digras Bk.; 1.4

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 47.0	Chikhali; 4.2; Mon.	Chikhali; 4.2	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 35.0	Buldhana; 7.0; Sun.	.. 2.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); Cs; Khandoba Fr. Ps. Pournima; 2 tl; mq; dg; dh.
.. ..				
Khamgaon; 40.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv.	5 SI (3 pr, 2h); Cs; Khan- doba Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 17 tl; 3 mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; 5 dp.
.. ..	Sonala; 5.0; Sun.	Sonala; 5.0	rv.	tl.
Paras; 8.0	Balapur; 2.0; Sat.	Taroda Kasaba; 2.0	W;rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Chandura 2.0	Chandura 2.0; Sun.	Wadner; 2.0	W;w.	tl.
Bisva; ..	Bisva; ..			
Malkapur; 16.0	Motala; 1.0; Thu.	Motala; 1.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 3.0	Dahigaon; 2.4; Thu.	Local; 0.2	W;w.	2 tl.
Alasana; 1.0	Shegaon; 3.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 3.0	W.	2 SI (pr); pyt; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 17.0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); 3 Cs; 6 tl; mq; dg; gym; ch; 4 lib; dp.
Washim; 56.0		Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Jalna; 21.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun.	Deulgaon 3.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; dg; ch.
Khamgaon; 53.0	Mehekar; 0.4; Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	SI (pr); tl; dg; ch.
Khamgaon; 43.0	Janefal; 8.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 3.0	Khamgaon; 3.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 3.0	W.	tl.
Malkapur; 33.0	Motala; 9.0; Thu.	.. 3.0	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 21.0	Motala; 6.0; Thu.	Motala; 6.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; mq; ch.
.. ..	Lonar; 2.0; Mon.	Lonar; 2.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Malkapur; 28.4	Mhasla 1.0; Wed.	.. 0.5	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; m; ch; dp.
.. ..	Bk.;	Local; ..	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; mq; lib.
.. ..	Chikhali; 6.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; mq; lib.
Nandura; 11.0	Asalgaon; 3.0; Fri.	Khandvi; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 30.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun.		W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch.
.. ..	Mahi;			

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Sav—Ckl.—सव	.. N; 10.0	1565; 1260; 251; 526	Local; ..
Savadad—Mhk.—सवडद	.. NW; 16.0	2637; 1457; 287; 577	Mohadi; 2.0
Savakhed—Ckl.—सावखेड	.. SE; 25.0	1415; 1024; 197; 290	Local; ..
Savakhed—Mhk.—सावखेड	.. SW; 33.0	2367; 1501; 274; 642	Local; ..
Savakhed Bhoi—Ckl.—सावखेड भोई.	SW; 39.0	2206; 1176; 217; 642	Deulgaon 2.0 Raja;
Savala—Ckl.—सावळा	.. N; 19.0	1612; 275; 47; 113	Buldhana; ..
Savala—Jlg.—सावळा	.. NE; 3.0	1216; 246; 48; 164	Niwana; 2.0
Savali—Ckl.—सावळी	.. W; 28.0	1900; 850; 157; 275	Satgaon; 2.0
Savali—Jlg.—सावळी	.. SE; 12.0	938; 492; 105; 252	Paturda; 3.0
Savali—Mlk.—सावळी	.. SE; 10.2	624; 85; 17; 32	Warkhed; 0.2
Savana—Ckl.—सवणा	.. S; 7.0	5215; 3158; 616; 1335	Local; ..
Savangi—Mhk.—सावंगी	.. SW; 30.0	2503; 1175; 218; 345	Local; ..
Savangi Bhagat—Mhk.—सावंगी भगत.	W; 19.0	824; 135; 47; 78	Sakhar 2.0 Kherda;
Savangi Gavali—Ckl.—सावंगी गवळी.	E; 21.0	2518; 615; 115; 279	Mangrul 2.0 Navghare;
Savangi Mali—Mhk.—सावंगी माळी.	W; 9.0	823; 242; 42; 128	Wadgaon 1.0 Mali;
Savangi Vir—Mhk.—सावंगी वीर..	NW; 9.0	1036; 486; 90; 253	Wadgaon 2.0 Mali;
Savaragaon—Jlg.—सावरगांव	.. S; 5.0	1600; 1175; 238; 496	Local; ..
Savaragaon Chahu—Mlk.— सावरगांव चाहू.	NE; 8.0	930; 201; 38; 69	Mominabad; 1.0
Savaragaon Dukare—Ckl.— सावरगांव डुकरे.	NW; 3.0	1044; 1602; 280; 614	Local; ..
Savaragaon Jahagir—Mlk.— सावरगांव जहागीर.	SW; 11.0	1734; 1162; 213; 458	Shelgaon 0.1 Bazar;
Savaragaon Mal—Mhk.— सावरगांव माळ.	.. SW; 36.0	2245; 530; 106; 289	
Savaragaon Mundhe—Mhk.— सावरगांव मुढे.	S; 28.0	2737; 960; 169; 492	Raigaon; 2.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 33.0	Buldhana; 4.0; Sun.	.. 0.2	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 39.0	Sakhar 3.0; Sun. Kherda;	.. 0.6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Malkapur 3.0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 5.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dh.
Jalna; 22.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	.. 1.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; ch; lib.
Jalna; 15.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 2.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 33.0	Buldhana; .. Sun.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Shegaon; 23.0	Khel Lon 2.0; Wed. Jamod;	Niwana; 2.0	W.	tl; dg.
Malkapur; 48.0	Dhad; 2.0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; 3 tl; m.
Shegaon; 10.0	Manas- gaon; 2.0; Sun.	Khiroda; 2.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur 3.0	Jawala 3.0; Tue. Bisva;	.. 3.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 24.0	Chikhali; 7.0; Mon.	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Jalna; 28.0	Deulgaon 4.0; Sun. Mahi;		W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Sakhar 2.0; Fri. Kherda;	Sakhar 2.0 Kherda;	W.	tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 31.0	Mangrul 2.0; Thu. Navghare;	.. 0.6	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 70.0	Sakhar 3.0; Fri. Kherda;	Sakhar 3.0 Kherda;	W.	2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 35.0	Mehekar; 9.0; Sun.	.. 5.0	W.	Cs; tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Asalgaon; 2.0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl; dg; dh; lib; dp.
Chandur 3.0	Malkapur; 8.0; Sat.	Wadner; 6.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Bisva; Khamgaon; 40.0	Chikhli; 3.0; Mon.	.. 1.2	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 3 Cs; 2 tl; dh; gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Malkapur; 11.0	Shelgaon 0.1; Fri. Bazar;	Savargaon; 1.2	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Jawala; 15.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon. Raja;	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Washim; 42.0	Loni; 5.0; Mon.	.. 5.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)* / Pop. / Households / Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Savaragaon Nehu—Mlk.— सावरगांव नेहू.	NE; 8-0	806; 852; 156; 383	Mominabad; 0-1
Savaragaon Teli—Mhk.— सावरगांव तेली.	SW; 23-0	987; 668; 105; 292	Kingaon 1-0 Jattu;
Savarakhed Bk.—Ckl.—सावरखेड बु.	E; 22-0	1352; 334; 69; 175	Mangrul; 2-0
Savarakhed Kh.—Ckl.—सावरखेड खु.	E; 22-0	444; 131; 33; 63	Isoli; 2-0
Savarakhed Najik—Ckl.—सावरखेड नजीक.	E; 13-0	748; 331; 64; 171	Kavhala; 0-2
Savarna—Kmg.—सवर्णा	NE; 8-0	1036; 412; 77; 194	Chincholi; 1-0
Savatra—Mhk.—सावत्रा	N; 9-0	1391; 988; 185; 419	Naigaon; 2-0
Sayakhed—Jlg.—सायखेड	NE; 14-0	4992; 572; 111; 230	Sonala; 1-0
Sayala—Mhk.—सायाळा	W; 26-0	1165; 600; 104; 170	Rajegaon; 2-0
Shegaon—Kmg.—शेगांव		.. 193; 44; 59	
Shegaon (Urban Area I)—Kmg.— शेगांव (नागरी विभाग १)		5-83*; 25993; 4948; 5702	
Shekapur—Ckl.—शेकापूर		1292; 92; 16; 47	
Shelagaon—Kmg.—शेलगांव	N; 5-0	569; 40; 40; 22	
Shelagaon Atol—Ckl.—शेलगांव अटोल.	SW; 15-0	3270; 1877; 339; 890	Local; ..
Shelagaon Bajar—Mlk.—शेलगांव बाजार.	SW; 9-0	931; 209; 373; 581	Local; ..
Shelagaon Deshmukh—Mhk.— शेलगांव देशमुख.	NW; 17-0	4693; 2896; 554; 1293	Local; ..
Shelagaon Jahagir—Ckl.—शेलगांव जहागीर.	E; 6-0	1738; 722; 123; 338	Khandala 2-0 Makardhvaj;
Shelagaon Kakade—Mhk.— शेलगांव काकडे.	NW; 10-0	1765; 337; 135; 312	Brahmapuri; 2-0
Shelagaon Mukund—Mlk.— शेलगांव मुकुंद.	SE; 14-0	1302; 1242; 247; 393	Local; ..
Shelagaon Raut—Mhk.—शेलगांव राऊत.	SW; 27-0	1297; 339; 65; 167	Kingaon 2-0 Raja;
Shelapur Bk.—Mlk.—शेलापूर बु.	S; 9-0	1883; 1521; 274; 547	Local; ..
Shelapur Kh.—Mlk.—शेलापूर खु.	S; 9-0	856; 1521; 270; 577	Shelapur 0-2 Bk.;
Shelsur—Ckl.—शेलसूर	NE; 9-4	2511; 1450; 283; 541	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Chandur 3-0	Malkapur; 8-0; Sat.	Wadner; 6-0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Bisva;				
Khamgaon; 65-0	Kingaon 1-0; Wed.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Jattu;				
Khamgaon; 30-0	Amdapur; 6-0; Wed.	.. 1-6	W.	SI (pr).
Khamgaon; 28-0	Amdapur; 8-0; Wed.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 27-0	Amdapur; 3-0; Wed.	Takarkhed; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 3-0	Shegaon; 3-0; Tue.	.. 0-3	rv.	SI (pr); Cs.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Janefal; 2-0; Sat.	Naigaon; 2-0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
.. ..	Sonala; 1-0; Sun.		W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 47-0	Sakhar 7-0; Fri.	Sakhar 7-0	W.	SI (pr); 3 tl; ch.
.. ..	Kherda;	Kherda;		
.. ..				
.. ..				
Jalna; 38-0	Local; .. Wed.	Mera Kh.; 4-6	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 6 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 9-0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 2-0	W;w.	3 SI (2 pr, h); 2 Cs; 3 tl; m; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 64-0	Dongaon; 5-0; Wed.	Dongaon; 5-0	W.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; ch; lib; 2 dp (vet).
Khamgaon; 40-0	Chikhli; 6-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 40-0	Mehekar; 10-0; Sun.	.. 1-0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 6-0	Nandura; 6-0; Mon.	Lonwadi; 1-0	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl.
Jalna; 30-0	Sindkhed 7-0; Mon.	.. 2-0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 9-0	Raja;			
Malkapur; 9-0	Shelapur 0-2; Sun.	Local; ..	rv.	3 SI (2 pr, h); 2 Cs; tl; dh; 2 dp.
Malkapur; 9-0	Kh.;			
Malkapur; 9-0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 0-2	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Fr. Asd. Sud. 11; tl; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 24-0	Chikhli; 9-0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 4 tl. m; mq; dg; dh.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Shelodi—Ckl.—शेलोडी	NE; 9.0	1944; 824; 164; 394	Shelsur; 1.0
Shelodi—Kmg.—शेलोडी	E; 4.0	4639; 779; 176; 373	Khamgaon; 4.0
Shelu—Mhk.—शेलु	SW; 36.0	1068; 323; 55; 132	Kingaon 10.0
Shelud—Ckl.—शेलुद	NE; 1.6	1325; 1001; 307; 456	Raja; 4.0
Shemba Bk.—Mlk.—शेबा बु.	SE; 20.4	924; 1665; 321; 395	Sawana; 4.0
Shemba Kh.—Mlk.—शेबा खु.	S; 20.3	766; 313; 53; 119	Local; ..
Shendala—Mhk.—शेंदळा	N; 7.0	2261; 1376; 257; 362	Shemba Bk.; 0.1
Shendri—Kmg.—शेंद्री	E; 14.0	319; 117; 23; 63	Naigaon 1.4
Shendurjan—Mhk.—शेंदुर्जन	W; 14.0	5600; 2742; 536; 1167	Dattapur; 3.0
Shevaga Bk.—Jlg.—शेवगा बु.	NE; 4.0	320; 84; 16; 27	Balapur; 3.0
Shevaga Jahagir—Mhk.—शेवगा जहागीर.	NW; 9.0	548; 309; 65; 176	Local; ..
Shevaga Kh.—Jlg.—शेवगा खु.	NE; 4.0	256; 50; 10; 25	Khel Lon 1.0
Sinagaon Jahagir—Ckl.—सिनगांव जहागीर.	SW; 40.0	4503; 2827; 543; 1227	Jamod; 2.0
Sindakhed—Ckl.—सिंदखेड		1281; 424; 84; 213	Mali; 1.0
Sindakhed—Mlk.—सिंदखेड	SW; 22.0	1005; 1181; 252; 537	Khel Lon 1.0
Sindakhed Raja—Mhk.—सिंदखेड राजा.	SW; 35.0	9755; 7105; 1334; 1703	Jamod; ..
Sindi—Mhk.—सिंदी	W; 21.0	2120; 1431; 241; 477	Local; ..
Sindi—Mhk.—सिंदी	SW; 14.0	1529; 270; 45; 105	Sakhar 2.0
Shindi Harali—Ckl.—शिंदी हराळी	E; 2.0	1325; 480; 87; 245	Kherda; 2.0
Shiradhon—Mlk.—शिराढोण	S; 5.0	819; 1120; 204; 484	Somthana; 2.0
Shirala—Kmg.—शिराळा	S; 15.0	5528; 638; 91; 240	Khandala 2.0
Shirala—Kmg.—शिराळा	SE; 23.0	2410; 1614; 304; 747	Makardhwaj; 1.4
			Datala; 1.4
			Maharkhed; 1.0
			Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 25.0	Chikhli; 9.0; Mon.	Shelsur; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Khamgaon; 4.0	Khamgaon; 4.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 4.0	W.	Cs; 2 tl.
Jalna; 20.0	Sindkhed 8.0; Mon.	Sindkhed 8.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
	Raja;	Raja;		
Khamgaon; 36.0	Chikhli; 1.6; Mon.	Chikhli; 0.6	W.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dh; ch.
Nandura; 15.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, h); 2 Cs (mp); 2 tl; lib.
Nandura; 15.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	Shemba Bk.; 0.1	W;w.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Janefal; 5.0; Sat.	Naigaon; 1.4	W.	SI (m); Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Paras; 9.0	Balapur; 3.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	rv.	tl.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; mq. dg; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Shegaon; 24.0	Khel Lon 1.0; Wed.	Khel Lon 1.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
	Jamod;	Jamod;		
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehekar; 9.0; Sun.	.. 0.6	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 24.0	Khel Lon 1.0; Wed.	Khel Lon 1.0	W.	2 tl.
	Jamod;	Jamod;		
Jalna; 23.0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 SI (2 pr, m); Cs; Devi Fr. Ct. first Saturday; 11 tl; dg; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
.. ..				
Malkapur; 22.0	Jamthi; 4.0; Sat.	Pimpalgaon 2.0	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
	Devi;	Devi;		
Jalna; 20.0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	4 SI (2 pr, m, h); 4 Cs; Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 25 tl; m; 3 mq; 2 dg; ch; 2 lib; 6 dp; Cch.
Khamgaon; 41.0	Sakhar 2.0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	SI (pr); tl; lib.
	Kherda;	.. 6.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 56.0	Lonar; 6.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; m; dh; ch.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Chikhali; 2.0; Mon.	Chikhali; 2.0	W.	
Malkapur; 5.0	Malkapur; 5.0; Sat.	.. 1.4	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Mahar-khed; 1.0; Fri.	Maharkhed; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 23.0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;rv.	SI (m); Veleshvar Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 3 tl; lib; 2 dp (vet).

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Shirapur—Ckl.—शिरपुर	NW; 9.3	3005; 2318; 415; 1179	Local; ..
Shirasgaon Deshmukh—Kmg.— शिरसगांव देशमुख.	SW; 3.0	1164; 650; 135; 256	Gondhana- pur; 1.4
Shirasgaon Nile—Kmg.— शिरसगांव निले.	E; 5.0	1135; 272; 61; 146	Chincholi; 2.0
Sirasodi—Mlk.—सिरसोडी	E; 10.0	1338; 783; 149; 354	Chandur 1.4 Bisva;
Shirava—Mlk.—शिरवा	SE; 20.0	1576; 516; 112; 156	Kharbadi; 2.0
Shivani—Mhk.—शिवणी	S; 27.0	1428; 318; 67; 170	Lonar; ..
Shivani—Mlk.—शिवणी	NW; 4.0	521; 74; 11; 20	Bhalegaon; 1.4
Shivani (Aramal)—Ckl.—शिवणी (आरमाल).	S; 24.0	3051; 772; 132; 360	Mandgaon; 2.0
Shivani Pisa—Mhk.—शिवणी पिसा	SW; 12.0	1335; 1088; 210; 445	Local; ..
Shivani Taka—Mhk.—शिवणी टाका.	SW; 34.0	2688; 958; 158; 279	Shindkhed 4.0 Raja;
Shivapuri—Mhk.—शिवपुरी	W; 4.0	833; 273; 47; 130	Chamgaon; 1.0
Sogoda—Jlg.—सोगोडा	NE; 16.0	1024; 1065; 198; 378	Sonala; 2.0
Somathana—Ckl.—सोमठाणा	NE; 2.2	564; 576; 109; 288	Peth; 3.0
Somathana—Mhk.—सोमठाणा	SW; 12.0	859; 485; 110; 216	Local; ..
Sonabarad Pr. Rohinakhed—Mlk. सोनबरड प्र. रोहिनखेड.		593; 36; 8; 16	
Sonala—Jlg.—सोनाळा	NE; 15.0	3312; 6015; 1181; 2173	Local; ..
Sonar Gavhan—Mhk.— सोनार गव्हाण.	N; 10.0	1810; 450; 74; 169	Janefal; 2.0
Sonati—Mhk.—सोनाटी	SE; 6.0	3131; 1685; 292; 658	Local; ..
Sonosih—Mhk.—सोनोशी	SW; 28.0	2384; 1759; 325; 592	Local; ..
Sonuna—Mhk.—सोनूना	S; 25.0	1764; 480; 88; 257	Jambhul; 4.0
Soyagaon—Ckl.—सोयगांव		780; 455; 89; 230	
Soyandev—Mhk.—सोयंदेव	SW; 28.0	1588; 921; 193; 472	Sonoshi; 2.0
Shrikshetra Nagajhari—Kmg.— श्रीक्षेत्र नागझरी.	E; 15.0	1432; 844; 160; 318	Local; ..
Subhanapur—Mhk.—सुभानपूर	NW; 7.0	677; 117; 22; 74	Wadgaon 3.0 Mali;
Sujatapur—Kmg.—सुजातपूर	NW; 10.0	1055; 151; 27; 48	Nandura; 3.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 37.0	Kinhola; 8.0; Wed.	Kelwad; 2.3	W.	Sl (pr); Devi Fr. Ct. Vad 5 3 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 3.0	Khamgaon; 3.0; Thu.	Khamgaon 1.0 Chikhali Road;	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; dh.
Shegaon; 5.0	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Lasura; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur 1.4	Chandur 1.4; Sun.	Dhanora; 1.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bisva;	Bisva;	.. 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 20.0	Motala; 4.0; Thu.	.. 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Washim; 28.0	Lonar; .. Mon.		rv.	tl.
Malkapur; 4.0	Malkapur; 4.0; Sat.	Malkapur; 4.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Malkapur 4.0; Thu. Pangra;	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 54.0	Sultanpur; 6.0; Tue.	.. 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); m.
.. ..	Sindkhed 4.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 4.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 56.0	Mehkar; 4.0; Sun.	.. 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Hiwarkhed; 8.0	Sonala; 2.0; Sun.	Sonala; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Chikhli; 2.2; Mon.	Chikhli; 2.2	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 54.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	.. 2.0	W.	..
.. ..			..	..
Vari (Hiwar- khed); 7.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Khamgaon; 39.0	Janefal; 2.0; Sat.	Janefal; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 48.0	Mehkar; 6.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; ch.
Jalna; 28.0	Kingaon 5.0; Fri. Raja;	.. 5.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dg; 2 gym; lib; dp.
.. ..	Loni; 1.0; Mon.		W.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..			..	..
Jalna; 28.0	Kingaon 5.0; Fri. Raja;	Kingaon 5.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Local; ..	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Local; ..	rsr.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; dh; 2 lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 40.0	Mehkar; 7.0; Sun.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 3.0	Nandura; 3.0; Mon.	Nandura; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/ Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Sukalakhed—Ckl.—सुकळखेड	N; 15.0	670; 618; 118; 333	Buldhana; 1.0
Sukali—Jlg.—सुकळी	S; 7.0	1024; 232; 43; 96	Gadegaon 2.0
Sukali—Mhk.—सुकळी	SE; 3.0	1053; 746; 133; 324	Kh.;
Sula—Mhk.—सुळा	NW; 12.0	1342; 187; 32; 65	Local; ..
Sulaj—Jlg.—सुळज	SW; 6.1	1024; 758; 166; 375	Kalambesh- 1.0
Sulajagaon—Mhk.—सुलजगांव	SW; 33.0	1462; 554; 105; 321	war;
Sulatanapur—Ckl.—सुलतानपूर	SW; 30.0	950; 137; 26; 61	Palshi Supo; 2.0
Sulatanapur—Mhk.—सुलतानपूर	SW; 7.0	4515; 3926; 997; 1668	Adgaon; 3.0
Sulatanapur—Mlk.—सुलतानपूर	SE; 23.0	553; 30; 7; 13	Raja;
Sunagaon—Jlg.—सुनगांव	N; 3.4	5766; 4018; 836; 1967	Mehuna; 4.0
Sura—Ckl.—सुरा	S; 21.0	1212; 543; 86; 296	Local; ..
Sutala Bk.—Kmg.—सुटाला बु.	NW; 2.0	.. 1804; 409; 655	Kothali; 1.0
Sutala Kh.—Kmg.—सुटाला खु.	N; 2.0	462; 729; 169; 279	Local; ..
Tadashivani—Mhk.—ताडशिवणी	SW; 27.0	2231; 751; 121; 460	Deulgaon 3.0
Tadhegaon—Mhk.—तडेगांव	SW; 28.0	2051; 740; 157; 354	Mahi;
Tak—Mlk.—ताक	E; 16.0	832; 1; 1; ..	Khamgaon; 2.0
Takaleshvar—Jlg.—टाकलेश्वर	SE; 19.0	910; 330; 68; 157	Jambhora; 2.0
Takali—Ckl.—टाकळी	W; ..	863; 470; 70; 234	Hiwarkhed; 1.0
Takali—Kmg.—टाकळी	SW; 14.4	875; 187; 38; 93	
Takali—Mlk.—टाकळी	SW; 10.0	843; 480; 78; 135	Kaothal; 1.0
Takali—Mlk.—टाकळी	S; 19.0	2273; 612; 112; 237	
Takali Dharav—Kmg.—टाकळी धारव.	N; 10.0	1090; 700; 136; 320	Pimpalgaon 3.4
Takalihit—Kmg.—टाकळीहट	N; 8.0	1202; 281; 60; 142	Raja;
			Makodi; 2.0
			Motala; 4.0
			Janori; 1.0
			Takaliviro; 0.2

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Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 29.0	Buldhana; 1.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 10.0	Bhendwad 2.0; Thu.	.. 3.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Bk;	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehkar; 3.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	tl.
	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.	Janefal; 6.0	W.	
Nandura; 15.0	Asalgaon; 2.0; Tue.	.. 2.1	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; lib.
Jalna; 22.0	Sindkhed 6.0; Mon.	Sindkhed 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl; ch.
Jalna; 30.0	Raja;	Raja;	W.	tl.
	Deulgaon 5.0; Sun.	Deulgaon; 5.0	W.	
	Mahi;	Mahi;	W;w.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h); Cs; Fr.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Asd. Sud. 11; 5 tl; 2 dg
Malkapur; 23.0	Kothali; 1.0; Wed.	Motala; 5.0	W;w.	m; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Nandura; 20.4	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W.	tl.
Jalna; 32.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun.	Deulgaon 3.0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt (gr); 2 Cs;
Khamgaon; 2.0	Mahi;	Mahi;	W;w.	Avaji Maharaj Fr. Mg.
	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.		W;w.	Sud. 6; 8 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib;
Khamgaon; 2.0	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 2.0	W.	2 dp.
Jalna; 32.0	Kingaon 5.0; Fri.	.. 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 68.0	Raja;		W.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; Mahadev
	Malkapur 2.0; Thu.	Dusarbid; 3.0	rv.	Fr. Ct. Sud. 12; 2 tl;
	Pangra;		..	gym; lib.
Khumgaon; 3.0	Nandura; 7.0; Mon.	Nandura; 7.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Shegaon; 15.0	Nirod; .. Fri.	Warwat 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
		Khanderao;	..	
Khamgaon; 14.0	Kham- 14.4; Thu.	Pimpalgaon 3.4	W;	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 10.0	gaon;	Raja;	str.	
	Shelgaon 2.0; Fri.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
	Bazar;	.. 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 19.0	Motala; 4.0; Thu.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (m); pyt; Cs; tl; gym.
Shegaon; 4.0	Shegaon; 4.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4.0	W.	ch.
Shegaon; 4.0	Shegaon; 4.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Takali Khasa—Jlg.—टाकली खासा.	S; 8.5	512; 168; 31; 82	Gadegaon; 2.4
Takali Khati—Jlg.—टाकली खाती.	S; 5.0	3312; 134; 28; 63	Asalgaon; 1.0
Takali Nagajhari—Kmg.—टाकली नागझरी.	E; 16.0	1099; 323; 51; 127	Shrikshatra 1.0 Nagzari;
Takali Panchagavhan—Jlg.— टाकली पंचगव्हाण.	SE; 20.0	725; 326; 76; 156	Paturda; 3.0
Takali Paraskar—Jlg.—टाकली पारस्कर.	S; 8.5	640; 317; 63; 157	Gadegaon 2.4 Kh.;
Takali Vatapal—Mlk.—टाकली वतपाळ.	NE; 9.0	1172; 960; 190; 300	Jeegaon; 1.4
Takali Viro—Kmg.—टाकली विरो.	NE; 8.0	886; 1030; 212; 321	Local; ..
Takarakhed—Mhk.—टाकरखेड ..	SW; 29.0	1136; 520; 102; 187	Digras Bk.; 2.0
Takarakhed—Mlk.—टाकरखेड ..	SE; 22.2	2594; 2197; 410; 636	Local; ..
Takarakhed Helaga—Ckl.— टाकरखेड हेलगा.	NE; 21.0	2298; 1205; 241; 505	Karvand; 2.0
Takarakhed Pr. Amadapur—Ckl. टाकरखेड प्र. आमडापूर.	E; 11.0	1312; 703; 118; 343	Kavhala; 2.0
Takarakhed Pr. Sindakhed—Ckl. टाकरखेड प्र. सिदखेड.	S; 23.5	1085; 594; 105; 282	Savangi; 4.0
Talakhed—Mlk.—तालखेड ..	S; 10.0	2826; 1599; 304; 656	Local; ..
Talani—Mlk.—तळणी ..	S; 10.0	2703; 2195; 424; 949	Local; ..
Talasavada—Mlk.—तलसवाडा ..	N; 5.0	1925; 1147; 202; 430	Dharangaon; 2.0
Tamagaon—Jlg.—तामगांव ..	E; 8.4	1024; 641; 126; 277	Sangram- 1.0 pur;
Tambola—Mhk.—तांबोळा ..	SW; 20.0	2263; 1192; 211; 588	Local; ..
Tambulavadi—Ckl.—तांबुळवाडी ..	W; ..	701; 256; 41; 100	
Tandulavadi—Ckl.—तांदुळवाडी ..	NW; 22.0	1569; 1113; 238; 466	Kolwad; 2.0
Tandulavadi—Kmg.—तांदुळवाडी ..	W; 8.0	501; 214; 49; 92	Bhalegaon; 2.4
Tandulavadi—Mhk.—तांदुळवाडी ..	W; 21.0	1509; 500; 96; 143	Daregaon; 2.0
Tandulavadi—Mhk.—तांदुळवाडी ..	SW; 34.0	1452; 27; 5; 6	Sindkhed 3.0 Raja;
Tandulavadi—Mlk.—तांदुळवाडी ..	N; 4.4	466; 1156; 231; 435	Dharangaon; 1.4
Tandulavadi—Mlk.—तांदुळवाडी ..	SE; 20.3	542; 316; 59; 146	Shemba Bk.; 0.2
Tapovan—Mlk.—तापोवन ..	SW; 31.0	1340; 455; 92; 214	Sarola 2.0 (Maroti);

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nandura; 15.0	Asalgaon; 5.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 5.0	W.	Cs; tl.
Nandura; 14.0	Asalgaon; 1.0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 1.0	W.	tl.
Shrikshttra 1.0	Shegaon; 6.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nagzari;				
Shegaon; 13.0	Paturda; 3.0; Mon.	Paturda; 3.0	W;rv.	3 tl.
Nandura; 15.0	Asalgaon; 5.0; Tue.	Khandvi; 5.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Chandur 3.0	Chandur 3.0; Sun.	Wadner; 6.0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Bisva;	Bisva;			
Shegaon; 4.0	Shegaon; 4.0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch; lib.
Jalna; 40.0	Malkapur 6.0; Thu.	.. 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
	Pangra;			
Nandura; 16.6	Motala; 7.0; Thu.	Shemba 1.6	W;w.	2 Sl (m, h); 2 Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib; dp.
		Bk.;		
Khamgaon; 24.0	Undri; 3.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 27.0	Amdapur; 3.0; Wed.	.. 0.2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jalna; 26.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
	Mahi;			
Malkapur; 10.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	.. 1.0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Malkapur; 10.0	Malkapur; 10.0; Sat.	.. 1.0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Devi Fr. Flg. Vad. 9; 6 tl; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 5.0	Malkapur; 5.0; Sat.	.. 0.1	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Shegaon; 17.0	Sangram- 1.0; Tue.	.. 0.2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
	pur;			
Khamgaon; 62.0	Lonar; 6.0; Mon.	Lonar; 6.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
.. ..				
Malkapur; 33.0	Deulghat; 2.0; Fri.	.. 0.5	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 8.0	Bhalegaon; 2.4; Sun.	Local; ..	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Sakhar 2.0; Fri.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
	Kherda;			
Jalna; 21.0	Sindkhed 3.0; Mon.	Sindkhed 3.0	W.	tl.
	Raja;			
Malkapur; 4.4	Malkapur; 4.4; Sat.	Local; ..	rv.	Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; lib.
Nandura; 15.2	Motala; 4.6; Thu.	Shemba 0.2	W;w.	tl; ch.
		Bk.;		
Malkapur; 31.0	Motala; 17.0; Thu.	.. 1.0	Pl.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl; ch; lib; dp (vet).

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Taradakhed—Ckl.—तराडखेड	NW; 28-0	1137; 1077; 194; 459	Gummi; 2-0
Tarapur—Ckl.—तारापूर	N; 23-0	2225; 283; 51; 125	Taroda; 1-0
Taravadi—Mlk.—तरवाडी	SE; 22-0	2157; 502; 97; 202	Mendhali; 3-0
Taroda—Mlk.—तरोडा	SE; 26-0	2455; 1684; 296; 698	Local; ..
Taroda Bk.—Jlg.—तरोडा बु.	S; 7-0	576; 151; 24; 52	Wadshingi; 2-0
Taroda Kasaba—Kmg.—तरोडा कसबा.	E; 12-0	2752; 805; 158; 415	Balapur; 2-0
Taroda Kh.—Jlg.—तरोडा खु.	S; 7-0	384; 88; 19; 41	Wadshingi; 2-0
Taroda Tarodi—Kmg.—तरोडा तरोडी.	N; 14-0	2887; 905; 175; 430	Jalamb; 4-0
Telahara—Ckl.—तेलहारा	E; 8-0	2944; 723; 151; 285	Borgaon- Kakade. 1-0
Telakhed—Mlk.—तेलखेड	N; 5-0	963; 112; 25; 66	Narwel; 1-0
Tembhi—Mlk.—टेभी	SW; 10-0	825; 268; 47; 132	Makodi; 1-0
Tembhurakhed—Mhk.—टेभुरखेड	NE; 18-0	1812; 468; 85; 276	Ghatbori; 1-0
Tembhurna—Kmg.—टेभूर्णा	E; 3-3	4045; 1827; 371; 739	Local; ..
Tighra—Mlk.—तिघ्रा	NW; 10-0	1670; 506; 103; 208	Dasarkhed; 4-0
Tighra—Mlk.—तिघ्रा	S; 20-0	414; 508; 91; 188	Advihir; 1-0
Tikodi—Mlk.—तिकोडी	SE; 15-0	1185; 575; 97; 223	Shelgaon 1-0
Tintrav—Kmg.—तित्रव	E; 8-0	2228; 1042; 220; 311	Mukund; Jawala Bk.; 1-4
Tivadi Ajampur—Jlg.—तिवडी आजमपूर.	SW; 12-0	955; 727; 132; 308	Dadulgaon; 1-0
Tivati—Mhk.—टिवटिवी	S; 23-0	3610; 1105; 209; 511	Pangradole; 3-0
Tivhan Bk.—Kmg.—तिव्हाण बु.	N; 10-0	741; 199; 40; 96	Alasana; 1-4
Tivhan Kh.—Kmg.—तिव्हाण खु.	N; 10-0	578; 210; 39; 54	Alasana; 0-4
Toravada—Ckl.—तोरणावाडा	NE; 21-0	1352; 893; 184; 403	Local; ..
Tulajapur—Ckl.—तुळजापूर	SW; 41-0	1866; 1091; 192; 509	Borkhedi 2-0
Tunaki Bk.—Jlg.—टुनकी बु.	NE; 12-0	1984; 2286; 454; 841	Bavara; Local; ..
Tunaki Kh.—Jlg.—टुनकी खु.	NE; 12-0	512; 234; 51; 100	Tunki Bk.; 0-3
Ubalakhed—Mlk.—उबालखेड	S; 26-0	2012; 544; 98; 283	Rohinkhed; 3-0
Udanapur—Mhk.—उदनापूर	S; 9-0	1103; 485; 89; 277	Anjani Kh.; 2-0
Udepur—Mlk.—उदेपूर	E; 21-0	1450; 1; 1; ..	
Udhava—Mhk.—उधावा	NE; 17-0	1902; 931; 150; 514	Pangarkhed; 1-0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Malkapur; 48-0	Masrul; 2-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (2 pr); tl; ch.
Malkapur; 28-0	Motala; 10-0; Thu.	Motala; 10-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 10-0	Jawala; 3-0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Malkapur; 26-0	Kothali; 2-0; Sun.	Motala; 7-0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch; 2 dp.
Nandura; 14-0	Wadshingi; 2-0; Wed.	.. 4-0	W.	tl.
Paras; 7-0	Balapur; 2-0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Nandura; 14-0	Wadshingi; 2-0; Wed.	.. 4-0	W;w.	tl.
Jalamb; 5-0	Matargaon; 4-0; Fri.	Kalakhed; 5-0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 tl; lib.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Chikhali; 8-0; Mon.	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkapur; 5-0	Malkapur; 5-0; Sat.	Narwel; 1-0	rv.	tl; dh.
Malkapur; 10-0	Shelgaon 1-0; Fri.	.. 3-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 30-0	Ghatbori; 1-0; Mon.	Ghatbori; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 3-3	Khamgaon; 3-3; Thu.	Local; 0-1	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Vitthal Fr. Asd. vad. 1; 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 10-0	Malkapur; 10-0; Sat.	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 20-0	Motala; 3-0; Thu.	.. 1-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 5-0	Nandura; 8-0; Mon.	Naigaon; 2-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Shegaon; 6-0	Jawala 1-4; Fri.	Shegaon; 6-0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl.
Nandura; 12-0	Pimpalgaon 3-0; Fri.		W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 65-0	Lonar; 8-0; Mon.	.. 6-0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Shegaon; 4-0	Shegaon; 4-0; Tue.	Shegaon; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt (gr); Cs; tl.
Shegaon; 3-0	Shegaon; 3-0; Tue.		W.	pyt; Cs; 4 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 23-0	Undri; 3-0; Sun.	Undri; 3-0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Jalna; 21-0	Deulgaon 5-0; Sat.	Borkhedi 2-0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Shegaon; 23-0	Raja; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; mq; 2 lib; dp.
Shegaon; 23-0	Tunki Bk. 0-3; Wed.	Tunki Bk.; 0-3	W.	dp.
Malkapur; 26-0	Rohinkhed; 3-0; Sun.	Rohinkhed; 3-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Washim; 56-0	Lonar; 7-0; Mon.	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Nandura; 4-0	Nandura; 4-0; Mon.	Nandura; 4-0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 60-0	Dongaon; 6-0; Wed.	Dongaon; 6-0	O.	Sl (m); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Ugala—Mhk.—उगला	.. SW; 30.0	1538; 321; 46; 171	Sindkhed 4.0
Ukadagaon—Jlg.—उकडगाव	.. SE; 11.6	578; 247; 50; 60	Raja; Jastgaon; 1.2
Ukali—Jlg.—उकली	.. SE; 24.0	793; 759; 145; 359	Ukali; 0.4
Ukali—Mhk.—उकली	.. SE; 3.0	2421; 1363; 250; 708	Local; ..
Umala—Ckl.—उमाला	.. NW; 21.0	1363; 543; 89; 145	Deulghat; 2.0
Umali—Mlk.—उमाली	.. S; 7.0	3149; 2306; 461; 658	Local; ..
Umanagaon—Mhk.—उमणगांव	.. W; 21.0	1161; 282; 97; 163	Wadgaon 2.0
Umapur—Jlg.—उमापूर	.. NW; 4.0	3008; 334; 54; 106	Mali; Jalgaon; 4.0
Umara—Jlg.—उमरा	.. E; 11.0	1280; 462; 92; 200	Bawanbir; 1.0
Umara—Mhk.—उमरा	.. NE; 10.0	1343; 588; 103; 243	Loni 1.0
Umara Atali—Kmg.—उमरा अटाली.	S; 12.6	2504; 829; 173; 361	Gaoli; Kinhi; 3.0
Umarad—Mhk.—उमरद	.. SW; 27.0	2846; 1419; 252; 582	Kingaon 3.0
Umarakhed—Ckl.—उमरखेड	.. NW; ..	1067; 105; 18; 62	Raja; ..
Umara Lasura—Kmg.—उमरा लासुरा.	E; 14.0	1170; 191; 34; 94	Balapur; 2.0
Umara (Nagajhoi)—Kmg.— उमरा (नागजोई).	W; 16.0	1882; 208; 39; 101	Pimpalgaon 3.0
Umbarakhed Pr. Sindakhed—Ckl. उंबरखेड प्र. सिंदखेड.	S; 36.0	942; 755; 130; 432	Raja; Deulgaon 2.0
Undri—Ckl.—उंद्री	.. NE; 18.0	2344; 3063; 621; 1122	Raja; Local; ..
Unhalakhed—Kmg.—उन्हाळखेड	E; 11.0	454; 50; 7; 7	Shrikhetra 0.4
Urha—Mlk.—उर्हा	.. SW; 18.0	710; 721; 134; 275	Nagzari; Liha Bk.; 1.6
Usara Bk.—Jlg.—उसरा बु.	.. NE; 3.0	922; 134; 25; 63	Sungaon; 1.4
Usara Kh.—Jlg.—उसरा खु.	.. NE; 3.0	740; 42; 9; 23	Sungaon; 1.4
Usaran—Mhk.—उसरण	.. NW; 5.0	362; 377; 63; 137	Kalyana; 3.0
Uti—Mhk.—उटी	.. N; 15.0	2900; 1312; 240; 586	Local; ..
Uti Bk.—Jlg.—उटी बु.	.. S; 4.0	640; 124; 29; 75	Wadshingi; 1.0
Uti Kh.—Jlg.—उटी खु.	.. S; 3.0	960; 143; 28; 49	Wadshingi; 1.0
Utrada—Ckl.—उत्रादा	.. NE; 6.0	1763; 735; 128; 310	Peth; 0.2

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jalna; 29.0	Sindkhed 4.0; Mon. Raja;	Saokhed 2.0 Fata;	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 14.0	Paturda 4.0; Mon. Bk.;	Manardi; 1.0	W.	tl.
Shegaon; 16.0	Paturda; 5.0; Mon.	Paturda; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 45.0	Mehekar; 3.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Malkapur; 35.0	Deulghat; 2.0; Fri.	Deulghat; 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Malkapur; 7.0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; dg; lib; 2 dp (vet).
Khamgaon; 42.0	Sakhar 2.0; Fri. Kherda;	.. 2.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 20.0	Asalgaon; 5.0; Tue.	Jalgaon; 4.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 21.0	Bawanbir; 1.0; Mon.	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Washim; 27.0	Dongaon; 5.0; Wed.	Andhrud; 1.0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 12.0	Vihigaon; 3.0; Sun.	Chikhali 3.0 Khamgaon Road;	W.	SI (pr); tl; dp.
Jalna; 26.0	Sindkhed 6.0; Mon. Raja;	.. 2.0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl.
.. ..			..	..
Paras; 8.0	Balapur; 2.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	W.	..
Khamgaon; 12.0	Pimpalgaon 3.0; Wed. Raja;	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	W.	Cs; tl; dp.
Jalna; 18.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sat. Raja;	Deulgaon 2.0 Raja;	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 20.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	3 SI (pr, m, h); Cs; Devi Fr. Kt. sud. 9; 4 tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; 4 dp.
Shrikhetra 0.4 Nagzari;	Shegaon; 5.0; Tue.	Shrikhetra 0.4 Nagzari;	rv.	..
Khamkhed; 10.0	Liha Bk.; 2.0; Thu.	.. 2.0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Sungaon; 1.4; Sat.	.. 1.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Sungaon; 1.4; Sat.	.. 1.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 51.0	Mehkar; 5.0; Sun.	Mehkar; 5.0	W.	SI (pr); tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Janefal; 3.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W;w.	SI (m); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Wadshingi; 1.0; Wed.	.. 3.0	W.	Cs; tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Wadshingi; 1.0; Wed.	.. 3.0	W.	SI (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 32.0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;rv.	SI (pr); Cs; Vitthal Rakhu- mai Fr. Asd. and Kt. sud. 11; 3 tl; 2 lib.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Vadagaon—Mlk.—वडगांव ..	SE; 22.0	364; 116; 26; 64	Nandura; 4.0
Vadagaon Dighi—Mlk.—वडगांव डिघी.	NE; 7.0	337; 514; 89; 192	Mominabad; 0.1
Vadagaon Gad—Jlg.—वडगांव गड.	W; 8.0	1344; 1128; 209; 324	Dhanora; 2.0
Vadagaon (Mahalungi)—Mlk.— वडगांव (महालुंगी).	SW; 20.0	835; 316; 64; 123	Pimpalgaon 1.0
Vadagaon Mali—Mhk.—वडगांव माळी.	W; 7.0	1268; 833; 140; 189	Devi; Local; ..
Vadagaon Patan—Jlg.—वडगांव पाटण.	S; 1.4	576; 568; 116; 246	Jalgaon; 1.4
Vadagaon Pr. Adagaon—Jlg.— वडगांव प्र. अडगांव.	E; 18.2	704; 803; 164; 341	Paturda 8.0
Vadagaon Pr. Rohinakhed—Mlk. वडगांव प्र. रोहिनखेड	SW; 19.0	1419; 690; 118; 302	Kh.; Motala; 4.0
Vadagaon Tejan—Mhk.—वडगांव तेजन.	S; 9.0	1943; 1275; 203; 435	Sultanpur; 3.0
Vadaji—Kmg.—वडजी ..	W; 15.0	1062; 185; 28; 131	Kalegaon; 2.0
Vadaji—Mlk.—वडजी ..	SW; 9.5	2024; 1290; 233; 310	Local; ..
Vadali—Mhk.—वडाळी ..	N; 20.0	3573; 843; 176; 485	Dhotra Naik; 4.0
Vadali—Mhk.—वडाळी ..	SW; 32.0	883; 621; 101; 191	Adgaon 2.0
Vadali—Mlk.—वडाळी ..	E; 21.0	1477; 824; 144; 309	Raja; Nandura; 3.0
Vadaner—Mlk.—वडनेर ..	E; 8.3	6583; 4562; 799; 1517	Local; ..
Vadashingi—Jlg.—वडशिगी ..	SE; 4.0	1664; 2012; 380; 865	Local; ..
Vadhav—Mhk.—वढव ..	S; 23.0	3849; 1685; 309; 813	Jambhul; 3.0
Vadi—Kmg.—वाडी ..	N; 2.0	907; 405; 94; 58	Khamgaon; 2.0
Vadi—Mlk.—वाडी ..	SE; 15.0	1780; 1160; 201; 531	Local; ..
Vadi—Mlk.—वाडी ..	E; 14.0	1379; 486; 100; 226	Khumgaon; 2.0
Vadi—Mlk.—वाडी ..	SW; 17.0	1446; 342; 63; 172	Pophali; 4.0
Vadoda—Mlk.—वडोदा ..	E; 5.0	4206; 1721; 369; 750	Panhera; 0.3
Vaghajal—Mlk.—वाघजाल ..	S; 20.0	862; 293; 59; 125	Motale; 5.0
Vaghala—Mhk.—वाघाळा ..	SW; 19.0	1716; 1062; 207; 371	Local; ..

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nandura; 4.0	Nandura; 4.0; Mon.	Nandura; 4.0	W;w.	tl.
Chandur 3.0	Malkapur; 7.0; Sat.	Dhanora; 6.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Bisva;				
Nandura; 21.0	Asalgaon; 5.0; Tue.	Asalgaon; 5.0	W; spr.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Nandgaon; 4.0	Jamthi; 4.0; Wed.	..	O.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Mehekar; 7.0; Sun.	..	4.0 W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 14.0	Jalgaon; 1.4; Sun.	Jalgaon; 1.4	W.	Sl (pr); pyt (gr); tl; lib.
Shegaon; 23.0	Malegaon; 3.0; Fri.	Banoda 3.0	W.	Sl (m); 2 tl.
		Eklara;		
Malkapur; 19.0	Motala; 4.0; Thu.	..	4.0 W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch.
Washim; 56.0	Lonar; 5.0; Mon.	..	0.6 W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Kalegaon; 2.0; Tue.	Pimpalgaon 7.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
		Raja;		
Malkapur; 9.5	Malkapur; 9.5; Sat.	Nipana; 4.0	W;w.	2 Sl (m, h); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib; 2 dp (vet).
Khamgaon; 30.0	Janefal 8.0; Sat.	..	8.0 W;w.	tl; dh.
Jalna; 23.0	Sindkhed 6.0; Mon.	Sindkhed 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
	Raja;	Raja;		
Nandura; 3.0	Nandura; 3.0; Mon.	Nandura; 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur 3.4	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (2 m); 2 Cs; Ram Fr. Ct. sud. 9; 5 tl; 3 mq; dg; ch; lib; 3 dp (vet).
Bisva;				
Nandura; 17.0	Local; .. Wed.	..	4.0 W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl; m; 2 dg; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 68.0	Hirwad; 4.0; Sat.	Lonar; 8.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; dg.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Khamgaon; 2.0; Thu.	Local; 0.4	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Nandura; 9.0	Nandura; 9.0; Mon.	Mahalungi; 0.6	W;w.	Sl (m); 3 tl; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 2.0	Dahigaon; 2.0; Thu.	Local; 0.1	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkapur; 17.0	Pophali; 1.0; Sun.	..	6.0 W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp).
Malkapur; 5.0	Malkapur; 5.0; Sat.	Malkapur; 5.0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib; 2 dp (vet).
Malkapur; 20.0	Motala; 5.0; Thu.	..	1.0 W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khamgaon; 49.0	Malkapur 4.0; Thu.	Malkapur 4.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; gym; ch; lib.
	Pangra;	Pangra;		

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Vaghapur—Ckl.—वाघापुर	E; ..	1428; 449; 102; 146	
Vaghola—Mlk.—वाघोळा	N; 10.0	4013; 901; 169; 488	Chikhli; 2.0
Vaghora—Mhk.—वाघोरा	SW; 30.0	1832; 513; 88; 195	Savarkhed; 4.0
Vaghrul—Mhk.—वाघ्रुल	SW; ..	1083; 20; 5; 6	
Vaghud—Mlk.—वाघुड	E; 4.0	1403; 977; 209; 436	Local; ..
Vahala Kh.—Kmg.—वाहाळा खु.	SE; 21.5	1069; 164; 36; 83	Bothakazi; 0.4
Vairagad—Ckl.—वैरागड	NE; 19.0	2049; 1209; 260; 414	Undri; 1.6
Vajhar—Kmg.—वज्रर	S; 17.0	5265; 1007; 189; 496	Maharkhed; 2.0
Vajhar—Mhk.—वज्रर	SW; 24.0	1192; 1242; 245; 582	Bhumrala; 2.0
Vajirabad—Mlk.—वजिराबाद	W; 3.0	763; 167; 31; 91	Khamkhed; 2.0
Vakad—Mhk.—वाकद	SW; 32.0	1050; 425; 75; 188	Malkapur 3.0
Vakadev—Mhk.—वाकदेव	NE; 25.0	3392; 299; 59; 154	Pangra; 4.0
Vakana—Jlg.—वाकाणा	SE; 6.4	1088; 921; 208; 500	Rudhana; 0.1
Vaki Bk.—Ckl.—वाकी बु.	S; 20.0	1352; 503; 90; 253	Deulgaon 3.0
Vaki Kh.—Ckl.—वाकी खु.	S; 22.0	1318; 314; 50; 78	Mahi; 2.0
Vakodi—Mlk.—वाकोडी	S; 2.4	881; 531; 103; 279	Mahi; 2.4
Vakud—Kmg.—वाकुड	NW; 9.0	761; 386; 84; 166	Malkapur; 5.0
Valati—Ckl.—वळती	N; 4.0	1504; 1109; 202; 388	Khamgaon; 4.0
Valati Bk.—Kmg.—वळती बु.	NW; ..	912; 245; 50; 127	
Valati Kh.—Kmg.—वळती खु.	W; 12.0	629; 162; 32; 87	Pimpalgaon 3.0
Vanakhed—Jlg.—वानखड	SE; 14.2	5208; 3438; 748; 1368	Raja; ..
Varadada—Mhk.—वरदाडा	NW; 15.0	1003; 287; 64; 76	Local; ..
Varadadi—Mhk.—वरदडी	W; 5.0	856; 662; 131; 241	Lavhala; 2.0
Varadadi Bk.—Mhk.—वरदडी बु.	SW; 19.0	3273; 1581; 280; 645	Chamgaon; 1.0
Varadh—Kmg.—वरध	N; 15.0	909; 209; 38; 73	Sonoshi; 2.0
Varakhed—Ckl.—वरखेड	E; 14.0	8141; 648; 124; 285	
Varakhed—Jlg.—वारखेड	NE; 17.0	1152; 14; 2; 11	Mangrul 1.6
Varakhed—Mlk.—वरखेड	SE; 10.0	3108; 1867; 357; 796	Navghare; 2.0
Varakhed Bk.—Kmg.—वरखेड बु.	E; 15.0	1737; 902; 161; 317	Sonala; ..
			Local; ..
			Jawala Bk.; 1.0

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
.. ..				
Malkapur; 10.0	Chikhli; 2.0; Tue.	.. 3.0	W.	Mari Bi Fr. Ct. sud. 1; 2 tl.
Jalna; 20.0	Sindkhed 5.0; Mon. Raja;	Sindkhed 5.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..				
Malkapur; 4.0	Malkapur; 4.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 21.0	Adgaon; 2.4; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 19.0	Undri; 1.6; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Khamgaon; 17.0	Maharkhed 2.0; Fri.	Maharkhed; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 66.0	Kingaon 5.0; Wed. Jattu;	.. 5.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Khamkhed; 2.0	Malkapur; 3.0; Sat.	Malkapur; 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 72.0	Malkapur 6.0; Thu. Pangra;	Malkapur 6.0 Pangra;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 25.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Thu. Sakarsha;	Deulgaon 3.0 Sakarsha;	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 22.0	Rudhan; 0.1; Sat.	Changefal; 2.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Jalna; 32.0	Deulgaon 3.0; Sun. Mahi;	Dhotra; 2.0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Jalna; 32.0	Deulgaon 2.0; Sun. Mahi;	Deulgaon 2.0 Mahi;	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 2.4	Malkapur; 2.4; Sat.	.. 0.4	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 5.0	Khamgaon; 5.0; Thu.		W.	Sl (pr).
Khamgaon; 32.0	Chikhli; 4.0; Mon.	Chikhli; 3.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; dg; ch.
.. ..				
Nandura; 5.0	Nandura; 5.0; Mon.	Pimpalgaon 3.0 Raja;	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Shegaon; 18.0	Local; .. Wed.	Tunki Bk.; 9.0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 6 tl; mq; 2 dg; ch; lib; dp.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Kherda; 6.0; Sun.	Lavhala; 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 38.0	Mehekar; 5.0; Sun.	.. 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Jalna; 28.0	Kingaon 6.0; Fri. Raja;	Kingaon 6.0 Raja;	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Fr. Ct. vad. 6; tl; m; 2 gym; lib.
Jalamb; 8.0	Matargaon; .. Fri.		W.	Sl (pr).
Khamgaon; 28.0	Mangrul 1.6; Thu. Navghare;	Mangrul 1.6 Navghare;	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; ch.
Hiwarkhed; 8.0	Sonala; 2.0; Sun.	Sonala; 2.0	W.	tl.
Chandur 5.0	Jawala; 3.0; Tue.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (m); 4 tl; lib.
Bisva;				
Shirkashtra 3.4	Jawala 1.0; Fri.	Shegaon; 6.0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; lib.
Nagzari;	Bk.;			

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Varakhed Kh.—Kmg.—वरखेड खु.	E; 4.0	1128; 294; 58; 166	Khamgaon; 4.0
Varavand—Ckl.—वरवंड	N; 16.0	5038; 2052; 387; 1008	Local; ..
Varavand—Mhk.—वरवंड	N; 16.0	2120; 1218; 271; 548	.. 3.0
Varvat Bakal—Jlg.—वरवट बकाळ	E; 12.2	2688; 2680; 485; 1005	Local; ..
Varavat Khandarav—Jlg.—वरवट खंडेराव	SE; 9.4	1509; 925; 178; 411	Jastgaon; 2.0
Varna—Kmg.—वर्णा	SW; 15.0	2911; 1082; 168; 548	Rohana; 3.0
Varud—Ckl.—वरुड	W; 20.0	963; 1153; 201; 485	Dhad; 2.0
Varud—Kmg.—वरुड	E; 9.0	1874; 574; 119; 203	Jawala Bk.; 3.0
Varud—Mhk.—वरुड	NE; 13.0	2476; 724; 127; 412	Ghatbori; 2.0
Varud—Mlk.—वरुड	SE; 20.0	1947; 624; 144; 262	Advihir; 2.0
Varudi—Mhk.—वरुडी	NW; 16.0	1236; 421; 84; 215	Gunj; 1.0
Varuli—Mlk.—वारुली	S; 19.0	2127; 474; 67; 262	Kharbadi; 2.0
Vasadi Bk.—Kmg.—वसाडी बु.	NW; 11.0	790; 1065; 219; 382	Local; ..
Vasadi Kh.—Kmg.—वसाडी खु.	NW; 12.0	771; 371; 70; 115	Nandura; 6.0
Vasali—Jlg.—वसाली	NW; 13.0	3228; 717; 148; 445	Tunki Bk.; 3.0
Vayal—Jlg.—वायाळ	N; 2.3	3091; 683; 33; 207	Asalgaon; 4.0
Veni—Mhk.—वेणी	S; 8.0	4342; 1759; 334; 935	Local; ..
Valhur—Mhk.—वाल्हुर	S; 11.0	646; 985; 13; 50	Somthana; 2.0
Vihigaon—Kmg.—विहीगांव	S; 10.0	2981; 1238; 264; 506	Local; ..
Vijhora—Mhk.—विजोरा	SW; 25.0	2056; 394; 66; 175	Hiwarkhed; 2.0
Vishvi—Mhk.—विश्वी	NE; 18.0	4914; 2062; 416; 925	Local; ..
Vitali—Mlk.—विटाळी	E; 7.0	1094; 629; 123; 298	Dhanora; 0.3
Vivara—Mlk.—विवरा	NW; 8.0	2272; 1254; 235; 510	Dasarkhed; 2.0
Yakatapur—Mlk.—याकतपूर	S; 9.0	432; 9; 1; 1	
Yelagaon—Ckl.—येळगांव	NW; 10.0	2843; 1648; 223; 786	Sakhali Bk.; 2.0
Yenagaon—Jlg.—येनगांव	SE; 6.0	873; 391; 80; 159	Wadshingi; 1.0
Yerali—Mlk.—येरळी	NE; 25.0	1985; 1194; 236; 427	Local; ..
Yesapur—Mhk.—येसापूर	SW; 9.0	765; 202; 35; 76	Sultanpur; 1.0
Yeulakhed—Kmg.—येऊलखेड	N; 17.0	2414; 730; 151; 320	
Yevata—Ckl.—येवता	SW; 8.0	4303; 973; 189; 481	Palaskhed 3.0 Daulat;

Railway Station/ Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar/ Distance/ Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand/ Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khamgaon; 4.0	Khamgaon; 4.0; Thu.	Khamgaon; 4.0	W;o.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkapur; 35.0	Buldhana; 7.0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Phg. Sud. 4; 2 tl; mq; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 28.0	Janefal; 6.0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (m); Fr. Ps. Vad. 11; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Shegaon; 18.0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 0.4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Fr. Mg. Sud. 12; 5 tl; lib; 2 dp.
Shegaon; 12.0	Paturda; .. Mon.	.. 0.3	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khamgaon; 15.0	Local; .. Fri.	Antraj; 5.0	W.	Sl (m); 2 Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Malkapur; 44.0	Dhad; 2.0; Mon.	Dhad; 3.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Shegaon; 9.0	Balapur; 5.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; dp.
Khamgaon; 36.0	Dongaon; 7.0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nandura; 17.0	Motala; 4.0; Thu.	Advihir; 2.0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Khamgaon; 42.0	Sakhar 4.0; Sun.	Sakhar 4.0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
	Kherda;	Kherda;		
Malkapur; 19.0	Motala; 4.0; Thu.	.. 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandura; 5.0	Nandura; 5.0; Mon.	Nandura; 5.0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Nandura; 6.0	Nandura; 6.0; Mon.	Nandura; 6.0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m; dg; ch.
Shegaon; 28.0	Tunki Bk.; 3.0; Wed.		W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandura; 20.0	Asalgaon; 4.0; Tue.	Jalgaon; 4.0	W.	tl.
Khamgaon; 50.0	Hirdav; 3.0; Sat.	.. 3.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; dg; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 53.0	Sultanpur; 4.0; Tue.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khamgaon; 10.0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs; 4 tl; lib; dp.
Jalna; 45.0	Kingaon 3.0; Fri.	Kingaon 3.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; m; ch.
	Raja;	Raja;		
Akola; 65.0	Dongaon 9.0; Wed.	Dongaon; 9.0	W.	Sl (m); 3 tl; dp.
Chandur 3.4	Malkapur; 7.0; Sat.	Dhanora; 0.3	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
	Bisva;			
Malkapur; 8.0	Malkapur; 8.0; Sat.	.. 2.0	W.	Sl (m); tl; lib.
.. ..			..	..
Malkapur 26.0	Buldhana; 3.2; Sun.	.. 0.2	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (fish); 2 tl; ch.
Nandura; 18.0	Madakhed 1.0; Sat.	.. 6.0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
	Bk.;			
Nandura; 6.2	Nandura; 6.2; Mon.	.. 0.2	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib.
Khamgaon; 51.0	Sultanpur; 1.0; Tue.	Sultanpur; 1.0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Shegaon; 8.0		Kalkhed; 2.0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); dg.
Khamgaon; 46.0	Chikhli; 8.0; Mon.	.. 3.0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl; lib; Cch.

Village Name (1)	Direction/ Travelling distance (2)	Area (acres)/Pop./ Households/Agriculturists (3)	Post Office/ Distance (4)
Yevati—Mhk.—येवती	SW; 24.0	2220; 918; 172; 489	Deulgaon 3.0 Kundpal;
Bhingara*—Jlg.—भिगारा	N; ..	1127; 151; 33; 55	
Chinchkhed Bk.—Jlg.—चिंचखेड बु.	S; ..	884; 2; 1; 1	
Chinchkhed Nath—Kmg.— चिंचखेडनाथ	SW; ..	704; 224; 42; 121	
Delap—Mhk.—देळप	N; ..	1321; 4; 2; ..	
Dongarkhed—Kmg.—डोंगरखेड	N; ..	553; 9; 2; ..	
Garpeth—Jlg.—गारपेठ	NW; ..	1088; 2; 2; ..	
Gaulkhed—Jlg.—गऊळखेड	SW; ..	555; 99; 14; 45	
Gondhankhed—Ckl.—गोंधनखेड	N; ..	1389; 77; 8; 42	
Hanwatkhed—Jlg.—हनवतखेड	W; ..	2496; 59; 10; 20	
Jamati—Mlk.—जामटी	S; ..	499; 19; 4; 12	
Khokodi—Mlk.—खोकोडी	S; ..	780; 1; 2; ..	
Kusumbi—Ckl.—कुसुंबी	NE; ..	462; 11; .. 11	
Malakapur (Rural)—Mlk.— मलकापूर ग्रामीण विभाग		677; 30; 7; 8	
Nalakunda—Mlk.—नळकुंड	S; ..	857; 470; 84; 267	
Nandura (Rural)—Mlk.—नांदुरा ग्रामीण विभाग		.. 106; 23; 2	
Nimkarad—Jlg.—निमकराड	SW; ..	1024; 234; 36; 88	
Nimkhed N. Kasaba—Mhk.— निमखेड न. कसबा	SW; ..	853; 7; 4; 7	
Pambulwadi—Ckl.—पांबुलवाडी	S; ..	399; 5; 2; 4	
Pathardi (Ghatbori)—Mhk.— पायर्डी (घाटबोरी)	N; ..	.. 351; 60; 88	
Pimpri Mohodari—Kmg.—पिंप्री मोहोदरी	SE; ..	1588; 34; 7; 14	
Rasulpur—Mlk.—रसुलपूर	E; ..	716; 47;	
Salabad—Jlg.—साळाबाद	E; ..	448; 55; 13; 40	
Shirner—Mhk.—शिरनेर	SW; ..	813; 8; .. 2	
Sirmil—Mlk.—सिरमील	SW; ..	822; 1; 1; ..	

*The villages from Bhingara onwards were

[illegible]

uninhabited as per the 1961 census.

**LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES, INCLUDING FOREST VILLAGES
BULDHANA DISTRICT**

Name of the village	Name of the village
Ahamadapur—Jlg.—अहमदपुर	Dongarkhel (Fv)—Jlg.—डोंगरखेळ (व.ग्रा.)
Ajadarad—Mlk.—अजदरड	Dudhamal—Mlk.—दुधमाल
Amadari—Mlk.—आमदारी	Ekamba—Mhk.—एकांबा
Ambabori—(Fv)—Jlg.—आंबाबोरी (व.ग्रा.)	Gahukhed—Mlk.—गाहूखेड
Ambhora—Mhk.—आंभोरा	Garakhed—Mhk.—गारखेड
Andhrudi—Mhk.—अंधूडी	Garapeth—Kmg.—गारपेठ
Anyar—Jlg.—अन्यार	Ghatabori—Mhk.—घाटबोरी
Asaderi—(Fv)—Jlg.—आसादेरी (व.ग्रा.)	Ghodi—Mlk.—घोडी
Atakal—Jlg.—अटकळ	Ghonsar—Mhk.—घोणसर
Banda—Mhk.—बांडा	Ghoradhadi—Mlk.—घोरघाडी
Banoda Bk.—Jlg.—बानोदा बु.	Gondhanakhed—Mlk.—गोंधनखेड
Bardapur—Mhk.—बर्दापुर	Gondhanakhed Pr. Kherda—Ckl.—गोंधनखेड प्र. खेर्डा.
Beharadad—Mlk.—बेहरदद	Gopalakhed—Jlg.—गोपाळखेड
Beladari—Ckl.—बेलदारी	Gorad Pr. Jalagaon—Jlg.—गोराड प्र. जळगांव
Belakhed—Ckl.—बेलखेड	Gorad Pr. Jamod—Jlg.—गोराड प्र. जामोद
Bhivgaon Kh.—Ckl.—भिवगांव खु.	Goradi—Kmg.—गोराडी
Bhivapur—Mhk.—भिवापुर	Gulpura (Fv)—Jlg.—गुलपुरा (व.ग्रा.)
Bhogalvadi—Mlk.—भोगलवाडी	Gunjamatha—Mhk.—गुंजमाथा
Bhuikhed—Jlg.—भुईखेड	Hanavatakhed—Mhk.—हनवतखेड
Bhumara—Mhk.—भुमरा	Haramod—Mlk.—हरमोड
Bhurakhed—Jlg.—भुरखेड	Hingana Dharanagaon—Mlk.—हिंगणा धरणगांव
Borakhedi—Ckl.—बोरखेडी	Irakhed—Kmg.—इरखेड
Borakhedi Jalal—Mhk.—बोरखेडी जलाल	Isalavadi—Kmg.—इसालवाडी
Borekhedi Kh.—Mhk.—बोरखेडी खु.	Ismailapur—Ckl.—इस्माईलपुर
Chalathana Bk.—Jlg.—चालठाणा बु.	Ivara—Kmg.—इवरा
Chalathana Ciyam—Jlg.—चालठाणा सियाम	Jalalabad (Fv)—Mlk.—जलालाबाद (व.ग्रा.)
Chinchkhed—Mlk.—चिंचखेड	Jamadara—Ckl.—जामदरा
Chinchkhed Band—Kmg.—चिंचखेड बंड	Jamalapur—Mlk.—जमालपुर
Chinchkhed Kh.—Jlg.—चिंचखेड खु.	Jambharun—Mhk.—जाम्बरुण
Chun (Pimpri)—Mlk.—चुन (पिंप्री)	Jambharun Pr. Amadapur—Ckl.—जाम्बरुण प्र. आमडापुर.
Dautapur—Jlg.—दाऊतपुर	Kabra—Mhk.—काब्रा
Degaon—Mhk.—देगांव	Kahupatta—Jlg.—काहपट्टा
Devari (Fv)—Ckl.—देवरी (व.ग्रा.)	Kajamapur—Mlk.—काजमापुर
Devhari—Jlg.—देवहारी	Kamardipur—Mlk.—कर्मदिपुर
Dhormala—(Fv)—Jlg.—डोरमळा (व.ग्रा.)	Kamod—Jlg.—कामोद
Dhormaria—(Fv)—Jlg.—डोरमारोया (व.ग्रा.)	Kanak Kh.—Mhk.—कनका खु.
Dhulaghat (Fv)—Jlg.—धुलघाट (व.ग्रा.)	Kandari Kh.—Mlk.—कंडारी खु.
Dhuma—Ckl.—डुमा	Karegaon Kh.—Kmg.—कारेगांव खु.
Dipakhed—Mhk.—दिपखेड	

**LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES, INCLUDING FOREST VILLAGES
BULDHANA DISTRICT—cont.**

Name of the village	Name of the village
Kathmal (Fv)—Jlg.—काथमाल (व.ग्रा.)	Nagajhari Bk.—Kmg.—नागझरी बु.
Khadaka—Ckl.—खडका	Narasapur—Mhk.—नरसापुर
Khamakhed—Jlg.—खामखेड	Nihalwadi (Fv)—Jlg.—निहालवाडी (व.ग्रा.)
Khaparakhed—Mlk.—खापरखेड	Nimakhalli—Mlk.—निमखल्ली
Khel Mali Jamod—Jlg.—खेळ माळी जामोद	Paladhag (Fv)—Ckl.—पलगढ (व.ग्रा.)
Khel Mali Paturda—Jlg.—खेळ माळी पार्तुर्डा	Palasi—Mhk.—पळशी
Khel Paraskar Jamod—Jlg.—खेळ पारस्कार जामोद.	Palaskhed—Mhk.—पळसखेड
Khel Shivapur Jamod—Jlg.—खेळ शिवापुर जामोद.	Pangarkhed (Fv)—Mlk.—पांगरखेड
Khel Vardhe Jamod—Jlg.—खेळ वर्धे जामोद	Palaspani—Jlg.—पळसपानी (व.ग्रा.)
Kherdi—Kmg.—खेर्डी	Pardi—Mhk.—पार्डी
Kille Pimpaladol (Fv)—Jlg.—किल्ले पिंपळडोल (व.ग्रा.)	Pathardi—Mhk.—पाथर्डी
Khilmapur (Fv)—Jlg.—खिलमापुर (व.ग्रा.)	Patharjani (Fv)—Jlg.—पाथरजनी (व.ग्रा.)
Kolakhed Pr. Jalagaon—Jlg.—कोळखेड प्र. जळगांव.	Pathorpani (Fv)—Jlg.—पाथरपानी (व.ग्रा.)
Kolakhed Pr. Jamod—Jlg.—कोळखेड प्र. जामोद.	Pimpalachos—Kmg.—पिंपळचोस
Koravad—Mlk.—कोरवाड	Pimparakhed—Ckl.—पिंपळखेड
Kotakhed—Ckl.—कोटखेड	Pimpalakhed Kh.—Mhk.—पिंपळखेड खु.
Kusumba—Ckl.—कुसुंबा	Rajura Bk.—Jlg.—राजुरा बु.
Lakatu (Fv)—Jlg.—लकातू (व.ग्रा.)	Sajanapuri—Jlg.—सजनपुरी
Liha Kh.—Mlk.—लिहा खु.	Sangramapur Pr. Sonala—Jlg.—संग्रामपुर प्र. सोनाळा.
Lingai (Fv)—Jlg.—लिंगाई (व.ग्रा.)	Sangumali (Fv)—Jlg.—सांगुमाळी (व.ग्रा.)
Lohogaon Kh.—Jlg.—लोहोगांव खु.	Sarakhed—Mhk.—सारखेड
Lonaghat—Mlk.—लोनघाट	Satgaon Bhusari—Ckl.—सातगांव भुसारी
Lonatek—Kmg.—लोनटेक	Sarola—Kmg.—सारोळा
Majalapur—Kmg.—मजलापुर	Savandan—Jlg.—सावंदण
Malakhed—Mhk.—माळखेड	Savaragaon Bk.—Kmg.—सावरगांव बु.
Malathana Bk.—Jlg.—माळठाणा बु.	Savaragaon Kh.—Kmg.—सावरगांव खु.
Malathana Kh.—Jlg.—माळठाणा खु.	Savarakhed—Kmg.—सावरखेड
Manarakhed—Kmg.—मनारखेड	Shendri—Kmg.—शेंद्री
Mandava (Fv)—Mhk.—मांडवा (व.ग्रा.)	Shivani Kankal—Mhk.—शिवणी कंकाल
Mangeri (Fv)—Jlg.—मांगेरी (व.ग्रा.)	Sonabarad Pr. Malkapur—Mlk.—सोनाबरड प्र. मलकापुर.
Mehen—Kmg.—मेहण	Sonabardi (Fv)—Jlg.—सोनबर्डी (व.ग्रा.)
Modha—Mlk.—मोढा	Sulatanapur—Jlg.—सुलतानपुर
Mohakot (Fv)—Jlg.—मोहकोट (व.ग्रा.)	Suryapur—Mhk.—सूर्यापुर
Mohamadapur—Jlg.—मोहमदपुर	Takarakhed—Mhk.—टाकरखेड
Moyakhed—Kmg.—मोयखेड	Tandulavadi—Mhk.—तांदुलवाडी
Muradabad—Jlg.—मुरादाबाद	Tandulwadi—Mhk.—तांदूळवाडी
	Taroda Jamod—Jlg.—तरोडा जामोद
	Taroda Nath—Kmg.—तरोडा नाथ

**LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES, INCLUDING FOREST VILLAGES
BULDHANA DISTRICT—contd.**

Name of the village	Name of the village
Taroda Tulaja—Jlg.—तरोडा तुलजा	Vaki—Kmg.—वाकी
Tatarpur—Jlg.—ततारपूर	Vanur—Jlg.—वनूर
Thar—Kmg.—थार	Varadada—Ckl.—वरदडा
Ujar (Fv)—Jlg.—उजार (व. ग्रा.)	Varadadi Kh.—Mhk.—वरदडी खु.
Turakhed—Mhk.—तुरखेड	Varakhed—Kmg.—वरखेड
Vadagaon Jamalapur—Mlk.—वडगांव जमालपूर	Vastagaon—Jlg.—वस्तगांव
Vadavanal (Fv)—Jlg.—वडवानळ (व. ग्रा.)	Vavadi Hardo—Jlg.—वावडी हर्दो
Vadi Bk.—Jlg.—वाडी बु.	Vitakhed—Mhk.—विटखेड
Vadi Kh.—Jlg.—वाडी खु.	Yerandoli—Mlk.—येरंडोली

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APPENDIX I

A KEY TO DIACRITICAL MARKS

ā-आ; ī-ई; ū-ऊ; r-ऋ; c-ॠ; ch-छ; t-ट; th-ठ; d-ड; dh-ढ; n-न;
ñ-ॢ; m-म; p-प; s-स; ś-श; ṣ-ष; l-ळ;

Current spelling	Diacritical spelling	Current spelling	Diacritical spelling
<i>Abhishek</i>	<i>Abhiṣek</i>	<i>Janephal</i>	<i>Jānephāl</i>
<i>Akshat</i>	<i>Akṣat</i>	<i>Javal</i>	<i>Jāval</i>
<i>Akshayatriya</i>	<i>Akṣayatṛiyā</i>	<i>Jyeshtha</i>	<i>Jyeshṭha</i>
<i>Annaprashana</i>	<i>Annaprāṣana</i>	<i>Kalachuris</i>	<i>Kalacurīs</i>
<i>Ashadh</i>	<i>Aśādh</i>	<i>Kalameshvar</i>	<i>Kalameśvar</i>
<i>Ashoka</i>	<i>Aśoka</i>	<i>Kalvan</i>	<i>Kālvān</i>
<i>Ashvina</i>	<i>Aśvina</i>	<i>Kartik</i>	<i>Kārtik</i>
<i>Bhadrapad</i>	<i>Bhādrapad</i>	<i>Khamgaon</i>	<i>Khāmgañv</i>
<i>Buldhana</i>	<i>Buldhāṇā</i>	<i>Khandesh</i>	<i>Khāndesh</i>
<i>Chaula</i>	<i>Caula</i>	<i>Khandoba</i>	<i>Khāṇḍobā</i>
<i>Chaitra</i>	<i>Caitra</i>	<i>Konkan</i>	<i>Konkan</i>
<i>Chalukyas</i>	<i>Cālukyas</i>	<i>Kothali</i>	<i>Kothālī</i>
<i>Chandol</i>	<i>Caṇḍol</i>	<i>Krishnaraja</i>	<i>Kṛṣṇarāja</i>
<i>Chaughada</i>	<i>Caughadhā</i>	<i>Kunbi</i>	<i>Kuṇbī</i>
<i>Chikhali</i>	<i>Cikhalī</i>	<i>Lonar</i>	<i>Loṇār</i>
<i>Choli</i>	<i>Colī</i>	<i>Magh</i>	<i>Māgh</i>
<i>Dakshinayan</i>	<i>Dakṣiṇāyan</i>	<i>Maharashtra</i>	<i>Mahārāṣṭra</i>
<i>Deulgaon Raja</i>	<i>Deulgāñv Rājā</i>	<i>Malgi</i>	<i>Mālgī</i>
<i>Deulghat</i>	<i>Deulghāt</i>	<i>Mali</i>	<i>Mālī</i>
<i>Dhalsawangi</i>	<i>Dhalsāvaṅgī</i>	<i>Malkapur</i>	<i>Malkāpūr</i>
<i>Dhanora</i>	<i>Dhānorā</i>	<i>Mangalashtaka</i>	<i>Maṅgalāṣṭaka</i>
<i>Dhotra Naik</i>	<i>Dhotrā Nāik</i>	<i>Mangalesh</i>	<i>Maṅgaleśa</i>
<i>Divali</i>	<i>Divālī</i>	<i>Marathas</i>	<i>Marāṭhās</i>
<i>Fatekhherda</i>	<i>Fatekhherdā</i>	<i>Margashirsh</i>	<i>Mārgaśīrṣa</i>
<i>Ganapati</i>	<i>Gaṇapatī</i>	<i>Matrikapujana</i>	<i>Māṭṛkāpūjana</i>
<i>Ganga</i>	<i>Gaṅgā</i>	<i>Mehuna</i>	<i>Mehuṇā</i>
<i>Gokulashtami</i>	<i>Gokuḷaṣṭamī</i>	<i>Mungi Shevgaon</i>	<i>Muṅgī Śevgāñv</i>
<i>Gorakshan Sabha</i>	<i>Gorakṣaṇ Sabhā</i>	<i>Naga Panchami</i>	<i>Nāga Pañcamī</i>
<i>Gudhi Padva</i>	<i>Guḍhī Pādvā</i>	<i>Nandura</i>	<i>Nāndurā</i>
<i>Harishena</i>	<i>Hariṣeṇa</i>	<i>Naneghat</i>	<i>Nāneghāt</i>
<i>Hemadpant</i>	<i>Hemāḍpant</i>	<i>Narnala</i>	<i>Narnālā</i>
<i>Holi</i>	<i>Hoḷī</i>	<i>Panchal</i>	<i>Pāñcāl</i>
<i>Holkar</i>	<i>Hoḷkar</i>	<i>Panchavati</i>	<i>Pañcavatī</i>
<i>Hoshang Shah</i>	<i>Hośaṅg Śāh</i>	<i>Panchdhatu</i>	<i>Pañcadhātu</i>
<i>Ikshvaku</i>	<i>Ikṣvākū</i>	<i>Pandharpur</i>	<i>Paṇḍharpūr</i>
<i>Jalgaon</i>	<i>Jalgāñv</i>	<i>Pausha</i>	<i>Paūṣa</i>
<i>Jambhora</i>	<i>Jāmbhorā</i>	<i>Peshva</i>	<i>Peśvā</i>
		<i>Phalguna</i>	<i>Phālguna</i>

Current spelling	Diacritical spelling	Current spelling	Diacritical spelling
Pimpalgaon Devi	Pimpalgañv Devī	Sanskrit	Sanskṛt
Pola	Polā	Satakarni	Sātakarṇī
Prakrit	Prākṛt	Shahapur	Śahāpūr
Pratishthana	Pratiṣṭhāṇa	Shah Jahan	Śah Jahān
Prithivishena	Prṭhiviṣeṇa	Shraddha	Śrāddha
Pulakeshin	Pulakeśin	Shravana	Śrāvāṇa
Punyahavachan	Puṇyāhavācana	Shegaon	Śegāñv
Puranas	Purāṇas	Shendurjana	Śendūrjanā
Rakshasa	Rākṣasa	Shivaji	Śivājī
Ramayana	Rāmāyaṇa	Vagnishchaya	Vāgnishcaya
Rashtrakuta	Rāṣṭrakūṭa	Vaishakh	Vaitākh
Rohinkheda	Rohiṅkheḍā	Vakatakas	Vākātakas
		Vishnukundin	Viṣṇukunḍin

APPENDIX II

TABLE No. 1

NO. OF RAINY DAYS AND TOTAL RAINFALL AT SELECTED CENTRES
IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

(Rainfall in mm.)

Centres	No. of rainy days	Normal rainfall	Rainfall
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Chikhli	58	754.00	736.4
2. Malkapur	35	715.00	699.5
3. Jalgaon	66	570.00	896.6
4. Mehkar	50	814.00	554.2

TABLE No. 2

STATISTICS OF LAND UTILIZATION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Total geographical area	Area under forests	Area not available for cultivation			Other uncultivated land excluding fallow land			
		Land put to agricultural uses	Barren and unculturable land	Total of col. (3) and (4)	Cultivable waste	Permanent pastures and other grazing land	Land under misc. tree crops not included in area sown	Total of col. (6), (7) and (8)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
9,77,185	1,18,091	24,717	24,467	49,184	12,780	47,017	1,734	61,531

Fallow land			Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Gross cropped area
Current fallows	Other fallows	Total of col. (10) and (11)			
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
17,501	45,727	63,228	6,85,151	40,894	4,26,045

TABLE No. 3

AREA UNDER CEREALS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Rice (1)	Wheat (2)	Jowar (3)	Bajra (4)	Other Cereals (5)	Total Cereals (6)
2,887	31,211	2,48,555	11,509	1,330	2,95,492

TABLE No. 4

AREA UNDER PULSES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Gram (1)	Tur (2)	Green-Gram (3)	Black-Gram (4)	Other Pulses (5)	Total Pulses (6)
4,503	23,533	27,578	31,382	18,444	1,05,440

TABLE No. 5

AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES, DRUGS AND NARCOTICS AND FRUITS AND VEGETABLES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Total Condiments and Spices (1)	Total Drugs and Narcotics (2)	Total fruits and vegetables (3)
2,980	31	2,900

TABLE No. 6

AREA UNDER FIBRES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Cotton (1)	Other Fibres (2)	Total Fibres (3)
2,49,122	3,093	2,52,215

TABLE No. 7

AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Groundnut (1)	Safflower (2)	Other Oil-seeds (3)	Total Oil-seeds (4)
29,646	31,496	4,420	65,562

TABLE No. 8

AREA AND OUT-TURN OF SUGARCANE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

Area (in hectares) (1)	Out-turn (in M. tonnes in terms of Gur) (2)
1,403	7,800

TABLE No. 9

OUT-TURN OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In M. tonnes)

Rice (1)	Wheat (2)	Jowar (3)	Bajra (4)	Maize (5)	Gram (6)	Tur (7)	Mug (8)	Udid (9)
1,300	11,700	99,100	2,100	300	800	8,100	1,930	3,251

Chillies (10)	Cotton (in terms of bales) (11)	Groundnut (12)	Sesamum (13)	Rape and Mustard (14)	Linseed (15)
1,600	93,400	8,700	400	100	300

TABLE No. 10

AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In hectares)

Canals (1)	Tanks (2)	Wells (3)	Other Sources (4)	Total net area irrigated (5)	Total gross area irrigated (6)
1,274	296	15,961	645	18,176	22,557

TABLE No. 11

VETERINARY STATISTICS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

No. of Veterinary					Total animals treated	No. of artificial insemination centres	Animals inseminated
Hospitals	Dispensaries	Aid-centres	Doctors	Stockmen			
2	15	55	31	61	1,38,672	24	2,585

TABLE No. 12

FOREST AREA IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

(Area in hectares)				
Department (1)	Reserved (2)	Protected (3)	Unclassed (4)	Total (5)
Forests	1,05,780	9,261	..	1,15,041
Revenue	..	2,471	38,381	40,852
Total	1,05,780	11,732	38,381	1,55,893

TABLE No. 13

VALUE OF MAJOR AND MINOR FOREST PRODUCE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

(In Rs.)						
Timber (1)	Fuel (2)	Sandalwood (3)	Bamboo (4)	Grass grazing (5)	Other products (6)	Total (7)
4,03,003	1,09,126	4,875	16,610	63,964	2,64,229	11,63,807

TABLE No. 14

INFORMATION ABOUT FAMINE, SCARCITY AND AKIN TO SCARCITY IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Items (1)	District total (2)
<i>Famine and Chronic Scarcity—</i>	
(1) No. of villages affected	948
(2) Population affected	9,45,938
(3) No. of villages to which full-suspension in land revenue granted	178
(4) Estimated loss (in Rs.)	Nil.
(5) No. of relief works undertaken	879
(6) No. of persons employed	27,806
(7) Expenditure incurred (in Rs.)	2,03,30,492
(8) Tagai loans distributed under Agriculturists Loans Act (Rs.)	25,07,259
<i>Akin to Scarcity—</i>	
Floods—	
(1) No. of villages affected	73
(2) Population affected	1,253
(3) No. of villages to which full suspension in land revenue granted	Nil.
(4) Estimated loss (in Rs.)	10,06,287
(5) No. of relief works undertaken	Nil.
(6) Tagai loans distributed	Nil.

TABLE No. 15

AVERAGE DAILY EMPLOYMENT IN FACTORIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972.

Industry (1)	No. of registered factories (2)	No. of closed factories (3)	No. of working factories (4)	Total workers in col.(4) (5)	Total No. of mandays worked (6)	No. of working factories not submitting returns (7)	No. of workers in col. (7) (8)
1. Gins and presses ..	58	13	29	1,976	2,25,179	16	853
2. Manufacture of miscellaneous food preparations.	9	..	5	432	1,09,039	4	53
3. Tobacco manufacture	1	..	..	78	23,798	1	74
4. Printing, book-binding, etc.	2	..	2	..	..	..	10
5. Basic chemicals including fertilisers.	1	..	..	8	2,440	1	..
6. Petroleum, refineries, etc.	1	..	1	..	..	..	..
7. Manufacture of non-metallic mineral products.	1	1	..	97	29,100	..	..
8. Ferrous ..	1	..	1	10	3,110	..	..
9. Manufacture of machinery except electrical machinery.	1	..	1	68	24,820	1	53
10. Repairs of motor vehicles and bicycles.	2	..	1	..	..	..	..
Total ..	77	14	40	2,669	4,17,486	23	1,043

TABLE No. 16

CONSUMPTION OF ELECTRICITY IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1973-74.
(In '000' K. W. H.)

Electricity used for						
Domestic consumption (1)	Commercial light and small power (2)	Industrial (3)	Public lighting (4)	Agriculture (5)	Other purposes (6)	Total (7)
3,584	1,839	13,173	1,092	11,896	762	32,346

TABLE No. 17

NO. OF TOWNS AND VILLAGES ELECTRIFIED AND POPULATION COVERED, BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Year ending	Total in the district		Villages electrified		Towns electrified		Total Electrified	
	Villages	Towns	Number	Population	Number	Population	Number	Population
31-3-1970	1,371	9	277	3,73,109	9	1,75,438	286	5,48,547
31-3-1974	1,397	9	562	6,48,461	9	2,21,808	571	8,70,269

TABLE No. 18

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE STATISTICS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

No. of registrations during the year (1)	No. of vacancies notified (2)	No. of employers using the exchange (3)	No. of candidates placed for employment		
			Public sector (4)	Private sector (5)	Total (6)
6,376	1,092	143	10	741	751

TABLE No. 19

STATISTICS OF MONEY-LENDING TRANSACTIONS, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Number of Money-lenders	143
Loans advanced to traders (Rs.) ..	4,27,222
Loans advanced to non-traders (Rs.)	50,81,947
Total Loans (Rs.)	55,09,169

TABLE No. 20

STATISTICS RELATING TO CO-OPERATIVE BANKS, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Particulars (1)	District Central Co-operative Bank (2)	District Land Development Bank* (3)	Urban Bank (4)
Number of branches	37	13	11
Number of members— (i) Societies	866	1	..
(ii) Individuals	1,409	19,646	4,193
Share Capital (Rs.)	15,52,22,225	51,64,609	14,20,874
Reserve and Other Funds (Rs.) ..	7,70,727	N.A.	6,03,698
Working Capital (Rs.)	13,15,24,488	N.A.	1,67,63,646
Loans advanced— (i) Short term (Rs.)	3,47,14,760	Nil	5,15,07,976
(ii) Medium term (Rs.)	3,05,19,752	Nil	8,70,017
(iii) Long term (Rs.)	5,655	56,34,005	..

*District Land Development Bank is one of the branches of M. S. Co-operative Land Development Bank and as such figures are not available with district branch.
A-1198—58-B,

TABLE No. 21

STATISTICS OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Type of Societies (1)	Number of Societies (2)	Number of members		Share Capital Rs. (5)	Reserve and other funds Rs. (6)	Working Capital Rs. (7)
		Societies (3)	Individuals (4)			
Agricultural Credit Societies*	569	..	1,35,095	15,104	3,460	77,936
Agricultural Non-Credit Societies	121	876	13,491	3,395	3,746	32,119
Non-agricultural Credit Societies	83	..	7,393	1,474	211	4,015
Non-agricultural Non-Credit Societies	129	1,121	14,417	1,308	633	4,085

*Loans Advanced by Agricultural Credit Societies during 1973-74 are as follows :—
Amount

Advances (Rs.)	2,19,77,487
Recovery (Rs.)	2,15,71,842
Outstanding (Rs.)	5,28,47,186
Overdues (Rs.)	2,53,23,999
Percentage recovered	55

TABLE No. 22

OPERATIONS OF CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING SOCIETIES, BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Particulars (1)	Co-operative Marketing Federation (2)	Taluka Sale and Purchase Unions (3)
Number of societies	131	13
Number of members	..	8,495
Value of purchases— (i) Agricultural produce	1,879	36,070
(ii) Agricultural requisites	8,200	7,116
(iii) Consumer goods	4,404	10,974
Value of Sale— (i) As owners	13,982	25,788
(ii) As agents	..	..
Sale of agricultural produce as owners and as agents— (i) Paddy	..	..
(ii) Jowar	2,767	3,731
(iii) Other foodgrains	..	25,704
(iv) Others	..	..
Agricultural requisites sold as owners and agents— (i) Fertilisers	91,077	5,688
(ii) Seeds	162	1,728
(iii) Agricultural implements	7	1,031
(iv) Others	14	549

TABLE No. 23
OPERATIONS OF REGULATED MARKETS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT,
1973-74.

Commodity (1)	Quantity/ Value (2)	Chikhli (3)	Deulgaon Raja (4)	Malkapur (5)	Nandura (6)	Jalgaon (7)	Khamgaon (8)	Shegaon (9)	Mehkar (10)	Lonar (11)
Cotton	Q ..	4,483	4,433	14,699	1,720	4,357	25,052	4,310	4,657	861
Wheat	V. ..	15,949	16,603	59,045	5,445	14,109	105,471	14,376	14,947	2,651
Jowar	Q. ..	104	51	1,083	15	59	712	68	358	8
Gram	V. ..	223	104	1,474	30	73	1,002	143	445	17
Mug	Q. ..	76	N.A.	606	120	493	549	158	256	983
Udid	V. ..	132	N.A.	897	224	377	900	122	253	2,614
	Q. ..	181	204	457	98	..	341	492	14	15
	V. ..	379	409	1,059	193	..	776	583	27	28
	Q. ..	803	367	58	49	22	1,082	538	2,156	116
	V. ..	1,698	737	75	89	23	2,165	1,110	4,984	170
	Q. ..	843	145	274	52	18	500	10	1,697	108
	V. ..	1,286	191	384	79	20	985	21	3,236	149

(Quantity in Metric tonnes,
Value in '000' Rs.)

TABLE No. 24
NUMBER OF INSURANCE POLICIES ISSUED AND AMOUNT INSURED
IN BULDHANA DISTRICT.

Particulars	Year 1973-74
Number of insurance policies issued	2,712
Amount insured (Rs. in '000')	24,025

TABLE No. 25
COLLECTION OF SMALL SAVINGS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74
(Rs. in '000')

Serial No. (1)	Description (2)	Target (3)	Gross Collection (4)	With- drawals (5)	Net Collection (6)
1	Post Office Savings Bank ..	5,200	17,624	14,374	(+) 3,250
2	Cumulative time deposits ..	..	1,117	1,086	(+) 31
3	7 N. S. C. * II issue ..	..	1,005	267	(+) 738
4	7 N. S. C. III issue ..	..	918	25	(+) 893
5	7 N. S. C. IV issue ..	..	608	20	(+) 588
6	7 N. S. C. V issue ..	..	300	..	(+) 300
7	Recurring deposits ..	..	3,102	595	(+) 2,507
8	Time deposits ..	..	525	292	(+) 233
9	Public provident funds ..	..	2	..	(-) 2
10	Other old certificates discharged ..	..	..	748	(-) 748
	Total ..	5,200	2,520	17,407	(+) 7,794

*N. S. C.—National Savings Certificates.

TABLE No. 26
ROAD LENGTH ACCORDING TO CATEGORY AND SURFACE CLASSIFICATION
IN BULDHANA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1974.

Type of roads	Length (In km.)
Category—	
National Highways	75.60
State Highways	454.97
Major District Roads	432.71
Village Roads	390.84
Others	515.40
Total	1,869.52
Surface Classification—	
Cement concrete	505.14
Black-topped	873.86
Water bound macadam	108.15
Granular materials	691.37
Lower types	..
Total	2,178.52

TABLE No. 27

STATISTICS OF POSTS, TELEGRAPHS & TELEPHONES IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Number of Post-offices	Number of telegraph offices	Number of letter boxes	Number of Postmen	Number of telephones	Number of Radio licences issued and renewed
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
304	20	753	63	1,069	11,035

TABLE No. 28
TRENDS IN SELECTED INDICATORS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT

Serial No.	Items	Unit	Years						
			1950-51	1960-61	1966-67	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
I	<i>Area and Population—</i>								
	(1) Area (1951, 1961 and 1971) ..	Sq. km.	9,753.9	9,753.9	—	9,745.0	9,745.0	—	—
	(2) Total population ..	Number	870,168	1,059,698	—	1,262,978	—	—	—
	(3) Density of population per sq. km.	Sq. km.	89	109	—	130	—	—	—
II	(4) Percentage of workers engaged in agriculture (including agricultural labourers) to total workers.	Percent- age.	66.63	84.54	—	85.32	—	—	—
	<i>Agriculture and Irrigation—</i>								
	(1) Area under forests ..	Hectares	122,220	122,395	121,601	121,158	118,092	118,091	—
	(2) Cultivable area ..	"	776,630	741,158	750,164	757,240	763,038	762,893	—
	(3) Cultivable area per agricultural worker (for 1951, 1961 and 1971).	"	1.95	1.61	—	1.60	—	—	—
	(4) Gross cropped area ..	"	637,952	697,838	709,776	724,156	725,521	726,045	—
	(5) Net cropped area ..	"	628,886	680,325	679,198	693,847	688,599	685,151	—
	(a) Area under foodgrains ..	"	390,637	383,574	394,984	404,152	393,235	400,932	—
	(b) Area under sugarcane ..	"	618	1,240	1,313	1,872	1,797	1,403	—
	(c) Area under groundnut ..	"	34,313	35,263	19,723	19,224	19,104	29,646	—
	(d) Area under cotton ..	"	184,619	245,207	262,287	265,060	258,266	249,122	—

TABLE No. 28—contd.

Serial No. (1)	Items (2)	Unit (3)	Years						
			1950-51 (4)	1960-61 (5)	1966-67 (6)	1970-71 (7)	1971-72 (8)	1972-73 (9)	1973-74 (10)
	(6) Net are sown per agricultural worker (1951, 1961, 1971).	Hectares	1.58	1.48	—	1.53	—	—	—
	(7) Percentage of area sown more than once to net area sown.	Percent- age.	1.44	2.57	4.50	4.37	5.36	5.97	—
	(8) Gross irrigated area	Hectares	7,303	12,602	15,878	16,958	22,133	22,557	—
	(9) Percentage of gross irrigated area to gross cropped area.	Percent- age.	1.14	1.81	2.24	2.34	3.05	3.11	—
	(10) Net irrigated area	Hectares	7,303	12,458	15,719	16,485	17,814	18,176	—
	(11) Area irrigated under—								
	(a) Foodgrains	"	3,196	6,709	8,388	8,245	11,849	13,119	—
	(b) Sugarcane	"	618	1,240	1,313	1,832	1,781	1,703	—
	(c) Groundnut	"	2	12	8	59	82	26	—
	(d) Cotton	"	—	30	1,817	2,061	4,213	2,729	—
	(e) Fruits	"	—	—	—	2,507	1,410	2,615	—
III	Soil Conservation Work—	"	N. A.	N. A.	54,314	206	17,132	29,822	—
IV	Agricultural implements—								
	(For the years 1961, 1966 and 1972)—								
	(1) Ploughs	Number	—	32,585	9,742	—	—	36,063	—

V	(2) Oil engines with pumps (for irrigation purpose).	"	—	1,080	2,663	—	—	3,224	—
	(3) Electric pumps ..	"	—	229	1,618	—	—	6,957	—
	(4) Sugarcane crushers ..	"	—	316	363	—	—	251	—
	Live-stock— (for 1956, 1961 and 1966, 1972)—								
	(1) Total live-stock ..	Number	—	788,426	735,841	—	—	781,408	—
	(2) Net cropped area per pair of bullocks.	Hectares	—	6.53	6.67	—	—	—	—
	(3) Poultry ..	Number	—	154,303	101,643	—	—	120,248	—
VII	Factory Employment—								
	(1) Working factories ..	Number	71	68	64	50	—	—	—
	(2) Average daily employment ..	"	6,122	4,153	4,190	3,355	—	—	—
	(3) Number of workers employed in registered factories per lakh of population.	"	578	392	395	266	—	—	—
VIII	Electricity—								
	(1) Electricity generated ..	Million Kw.	N.A.	—	—	—	—	—	—
	(2) Electricity consumed ..	"	N.A.	N.A.	14,822	24,175	28,397	30,666	32,346
	(3) Towns electrified ..	Number	N.A.	9	9	9	9	9	9
	(4) Villages electrified ..	"	N.A.	27	144	376	427	470	562
IX	(1) Co-operative Societies—								
	(a) Agricultural credit ..	Number	N.A.	566	582	575	571	571	571
	(b) Agricultural non-credit ..	"	N.A.	82	139	136	126	125	121
	(c) Non-agricultural ..	"	N.A.	130	221	249	235	225	219

TABLE No. 28—contd.

Serial No. (1)	Items (2)	Unit (3)	Years						
			1950-51 (4)	1960-61 (5)	1966-67 (6)	1970-71 (7)	1971-72 (8)	1972-73 (9)	1973-74 (10)
	(2) <i>Members</i> —								
	(a) Agricultural credit ..	Number	N.A.	56,686	91,621	112,978	113,489	131,583	135,095
	(b) Agricultural non-credit ..	"	N.A.	8,100	11 582	14,997	18,390	19,485	14,367
	(c) Non-agricultural ..	"	N.A.	7,651	17,669	21,251	21,477	24,867	22,931
	(3) <i>Working Capital</i> —								
	(a) Agricultural credit ..	Rs. in lakhs.	178.38	621.74	—	868.79	777.14	779.36	—
	(b) Agricultural non-credit ..	"	N.A.	278.58	803.61	102.82	383.25	497.29	321.20
	(c) Non-agricultural ..	"	N.A.	15.10	35.38	62.21	55.75	193.60	81.00
	(4) <i>Loans advanced</i> —								
	(a) Agricultural credit ..	"	N.A.	124.87	211.34	339.18	288.09	431.18	219.77
	(b) Agricultural non-credit ..	"	N.A.	—	—	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	(c) Non-agricultural ..	"	N.A.	255	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	<i>Transport and Communications</i> —								
	(1) Road length ..	km.	589	589	1,346	1,927	2,083.64	2,097.79	2,178.52
	(2) Length of roads—								
	(a) Per 1,000 sq. km. ...	km.	60.4	69	138.9	197	213	215	225
	(b) Per lakh of population ..	"	68	63	127	181	165	166	173

XI									
	(3) Railway length ..	"	82	82	82	82	82	82	82
	(4) Post Offices ..	Number	143	244	280	267	292	303	304
	(5) Telegraph Offices ..	"	10	13	13	14	14	14	20
	(6) Radio licences issued ..	"	N.A.	3,521	7,871	16,122	8,619	8,535	11,035
Education									
	1. <i>Primary</i> —								
	(a) Institutions ..	Number	628	1,029	1,212	1,241	1,240	1,251	—
	(b) Students ..	"	43,994	87,696	136,860	142,433	141,452	143,185	—
	(c) Teachers ..	"	1,671	2,173	4,239	4,774	4,782	4,840	—
	2. <i>Secondary</i> —								
	(a) Institutions ..	"	29	70	99	132	141	152	—
	(b) Students ..	"	8,683	22,327	37,523	43,502	44,415	45,268	—
	(c) Teachers ..	"	333	996	1,440	1,846	1,958	2,061	—
	3. <i>Higher</i> —								
	(a) Institutions ..	"	N.A.	2	7	10	10	10	—
	(b) Students ..	"	N.A.	461	3,702	4,850	5,502	6,105	—
	(c) Teachers ..	"	N.A.	N.A.	114	160	161	206	—
XII									
	<i>Medical and Public Health</i> —								
	(1) Dispensaries ..	Number	9	9	94	94	94	94	96
	(2) Hospitals ..	"	15	15	10	10	12	13	13
	(3) Primary health centres ..	"	N.A.	N.A.	12	12	13	13	13
	(4) Beds ..	"	230	230	540	567	592	594	552
	(5) Beds per lakh population ..	"	26	26	51	53	47	47	44
	(6) Patients treated ..	"	394,922	394,922	709,877	804,463	983,221	990,990	812,679

TABLE No. 28—contd.

Serial No.	Items	Unit	Years						
			1950-51	1960-61	1966-67	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
XIII	(7) Birth rate	..	36	36	40	33	38	27	25
	(8) Death rate	..	25	25	18	13	13	11	15
	Community Development—								
	(1) C. P. A. Pattern blocks	..	—	13-50	13-50	13-50	13-50	13-50	13-50
	(2) Villages covered	..	—	—	1,371	1,371	1,371	1,397	1,397
XIV	(3) Population	..	—	—	884,260	884,260	884,260	1,041,170	1,041,170
	Banking Offices	..	12	26	38	53	61	65	—

APPENDIX II

TABLE No. 29
LAND REVENUE COLLECTION IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Particulars	Rs.
(1) Current year's consolidated demand of land revenue (excluding previous years)	26,61,351
(2) Arrears of the consolidated land revenue	27,90,188
(3) Gross consolidated demand of land revenue	54,51,539
(4) Remissions	3,43,632
(5) Suspensions	11,35,547
(6) Collections due	39,72,360
(7) Actual collections	25,62,259

TABLE No. 30
STRENGTH OF POLICE FORCE IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

No. of					
Superinten- dents	Assistant Superinten- dents	Deputy Superinten- dents	Inspectors	Sub-Ins- pectors	Jamadars
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	..	2	9	47	9

Head Constables	Constables	Total	Police stations	Out-posts	Sub- posts	Lock- ups
(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
231	813	1,112	23	10	6	23

TABLE No. 31
STATISTICS OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL COURTS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

Civil				Criminal			
Original		Appellate		Original		Appellate	
Regular	Misc.	Regular	Misc.	Regular	Misc.	Regular	Misc.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
4,248	329	153	47	7,697	511	242	39

TABLE No. 32

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES OF DIFFERENT TYPES (OTHER THAN AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES AND BANKS) IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973-74.

Type of societies	No. of societies	No. of members	Share capital (Rs.)	Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	Working capital (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) Agricultural marketing ..	14	8,626	18,69,769	30,17,174	2,62,90,002
(2) Fisheries	3	59	8,220	512	8,732
(3) Animal husbandry	22	762	46,475	6,702	1,35,759
(4) Irrigation	4	180	1,48,085	19,746	11,95,670
(5) Farming	65	988	72,437	22,924	6,96,365
(6) Agricultural processing ..	8	3,194	12,46,161	6,78,298	37,88,026
(7) Agricultural non-credit ..	5	558	4,007	675	4,950
(8) Urban credit	1	60	20,050	2,793	24,262
(9) Salary earners	81	7,333	14,53,952	2,08,054	39,90,544
(10) Thrift, Credit, bhisi and others	1	..	..	255	489
(11) Handloom weavers	6	527	2,01,756	67,609	5,97,290
(12) Other industrial	22	2,340	4,16,929	22,922	7,28,768
(13) Consumer stores	23	7,106	2,56,424	1,42,335	9,73,319
(14) Housing	54	2,434	2,51,691	1,10,885	12,41,635
(15) Supervising unions	3	144	..	..	4,413
(16) Other non-agricultural credit ..	21	2,987	1,81,562	2,89,617	5,40,125

TABLE No. 33

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL BODIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT IN 1973-74.

(Rs. in Thousands)				
Local Bodies			Income	Expenditure
Village Panchayats	..	..	6,732	6,034
Zilla Parishad	..	..	93,076	76,039
Municipal Councils	..	..	13,058	12,932

TABLE No. 34

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1972-73.

Institutions (1)	No. of institutions (2)	Pupils		Teachers	
		Boys (3)	Girls (4)	Trained (5)	Untrained (6)
(1) Pre-primary schools	22	598	566	31	2
(2) Primary schools	1,251	91,200	51,985	4,602	238
(3) Secondary schools	152	33,905	11,363	1,476	585
(4) Higher education (colleges, etc.) ..	10	5,417	688	206	..

TABLE No. 35

MEDICAL FACILITIES AVAILABLE THROUGH PUBLIC AND PUBLIC-AIDED BODIES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

Particulars	Number
Hospitals	13
Dispensaries	96
Maternity Homes	..
Health Centres	13
Primary Health Centres	75
Doctors	72
Vaidyas	151
Nurses	251
Beds—	271
Males	307
Females	..
Children	..
In-door patients treated—	54,807
Males	57,482
Females	36,605
Children	..
Out-door patients treated—	2,19,941
Males	2,22,277
Females	2,21,567
Children	..

TABLE No 36

DEATHS DUE TO VARIOUS CAUSES IN BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

Disease	Total deaths
Malaria	73
Cholera	11
Small-pox	17
Tuberculosis	636
Pneumonia	236
Dysentery, Diarrhoea	1,626
Typhoid	89
Cancer	168
Respiratory Diseases	2,408
Suicide	33
Accidents	303
Other causes	12,901
Total deaths	18,501

TABLE No. 37

NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS REGISTERED IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

Particulars	Number
Births	30,959
Deaths	18,501
Infant deaths	3,088

TABLE No. 38

NEWSPAPERS, PERIODICALS AND PRINTING PRESSES IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT, AS ON 31ST MARCH 1974.

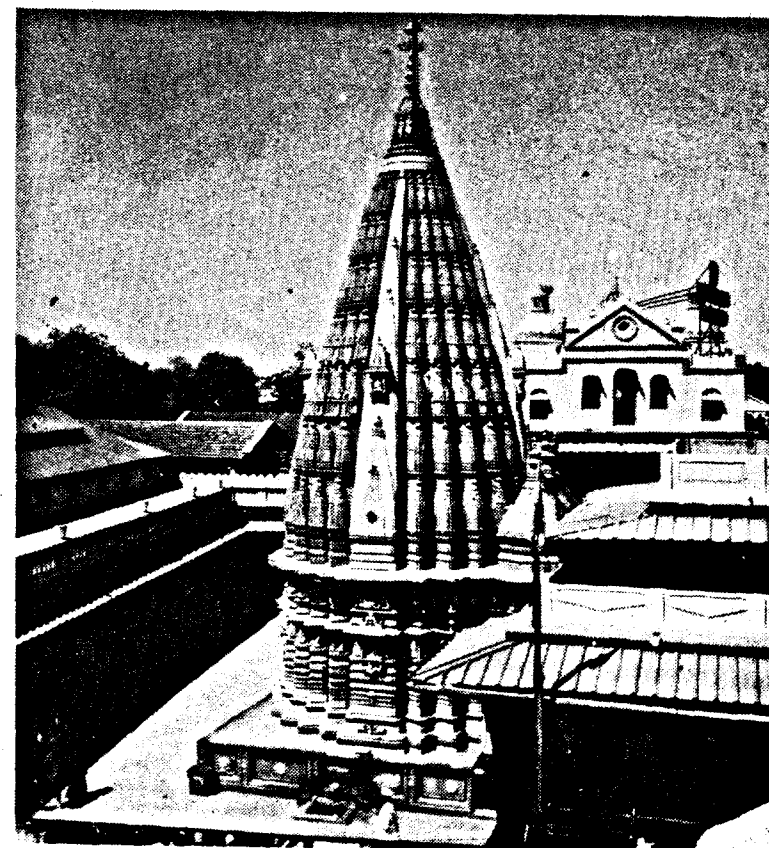
Particulars	Number
Printing presses	52
Daily newspapers ..	..
Weeklies	8
Fortnightlies and Monthlies.	1

TABLE No. 39

PLAN/EXPENDITURE UNDER DIFFERENT DEVELOPMENT HEADS IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT DURING 1973-74.

(Rs. in thousands)

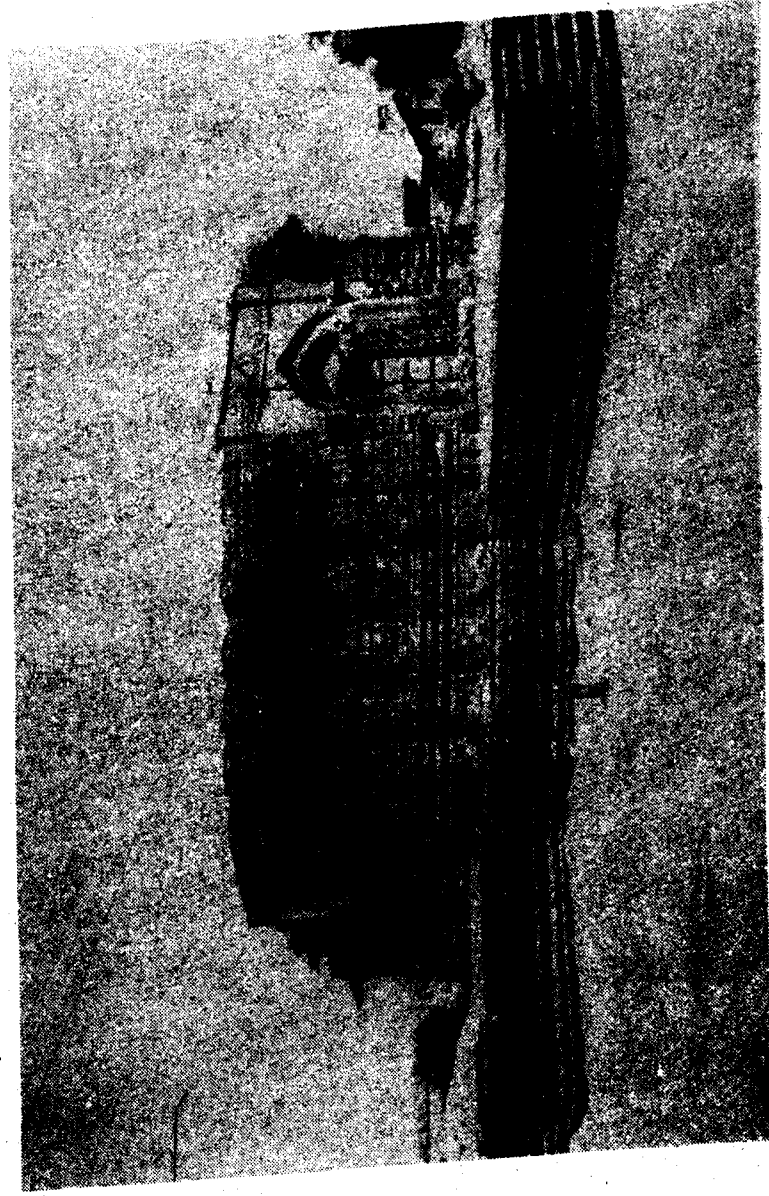
Serial No. (1)	Development heads (2)	Total (3)
1	Agricultural Programme	184.38
2	Co-operation and C. D. Programme	8.25
3	Irrigation and Power	15.56
4	Industry and Mining	0.07
5	Transport and Communications	17.15
6	Social Services	40.19
7	Miscellaneous	0.29
	Grand total	265.89



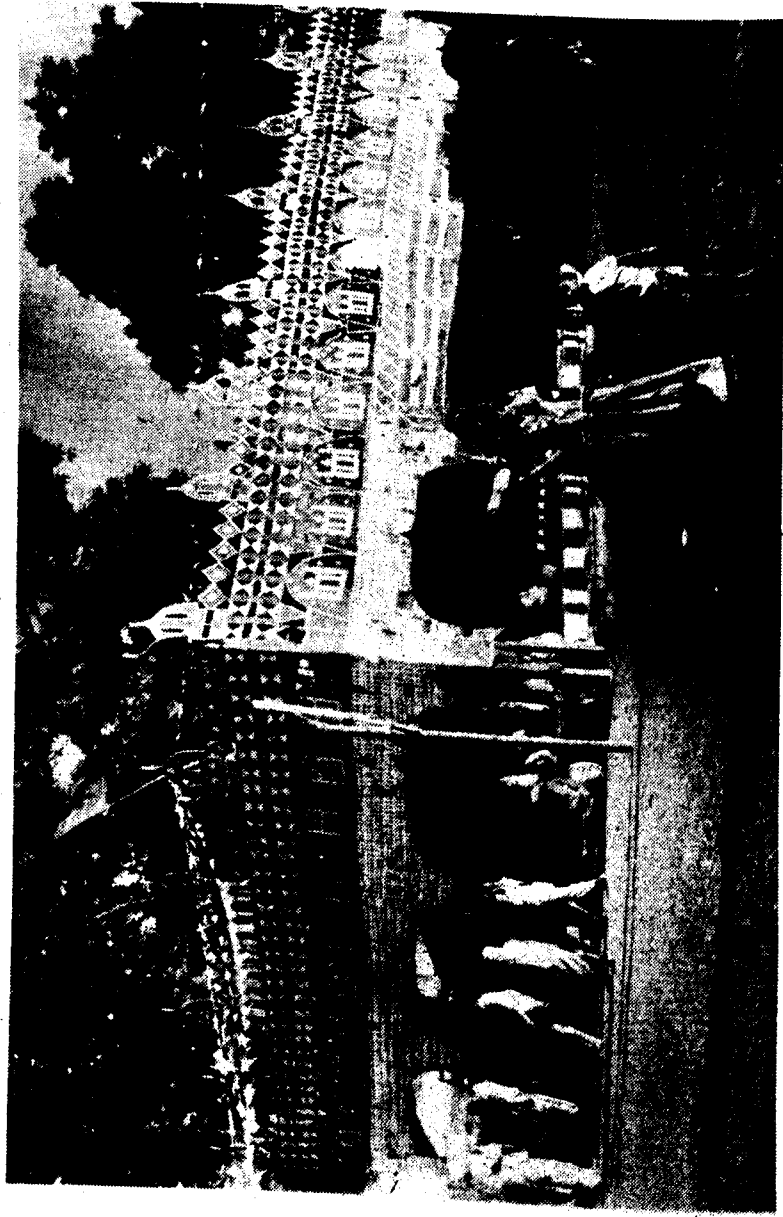
Gajanan Maharaj Temple, Shegaon (Taluka Khamgaon)



Satgaon Temple, Satgaon-Bhusari



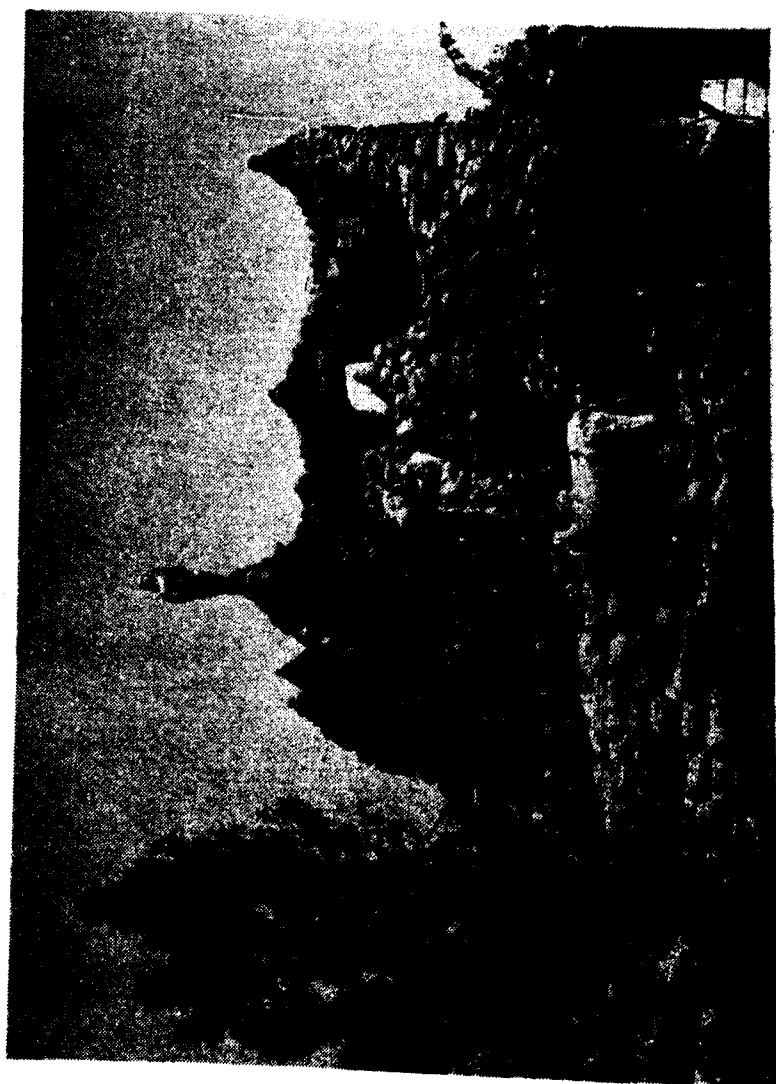
Daiyasudan Temple, Lonar



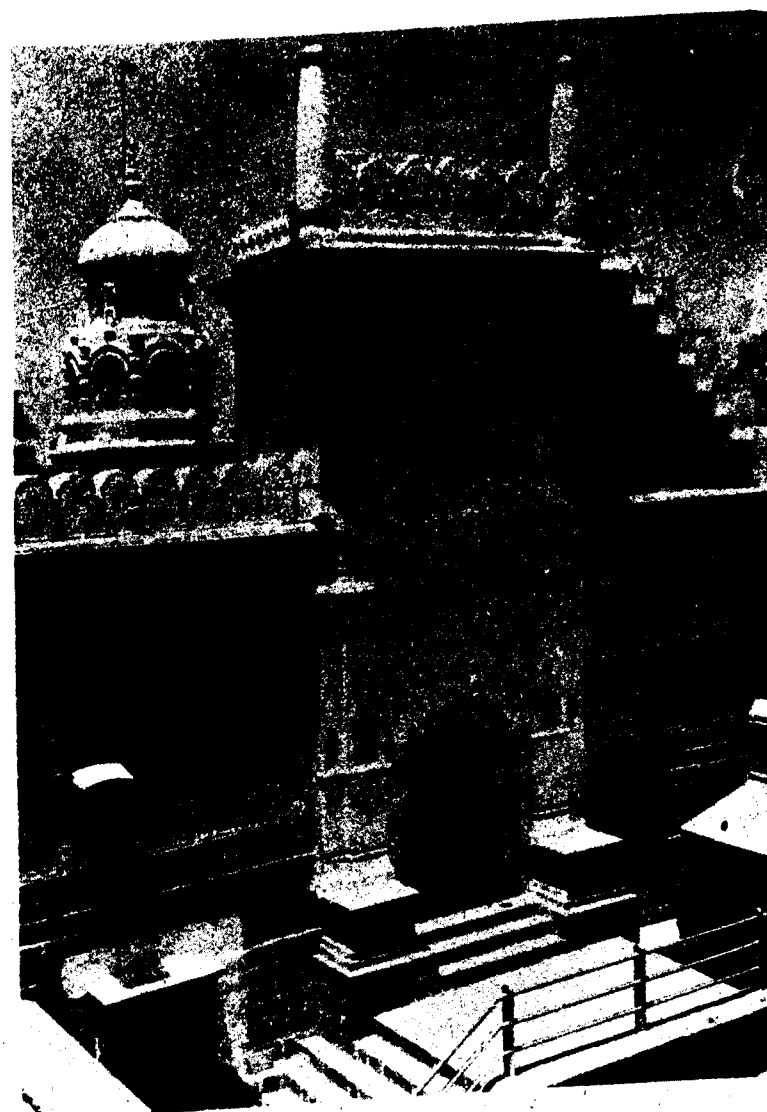
Sailani, Sailani Fair



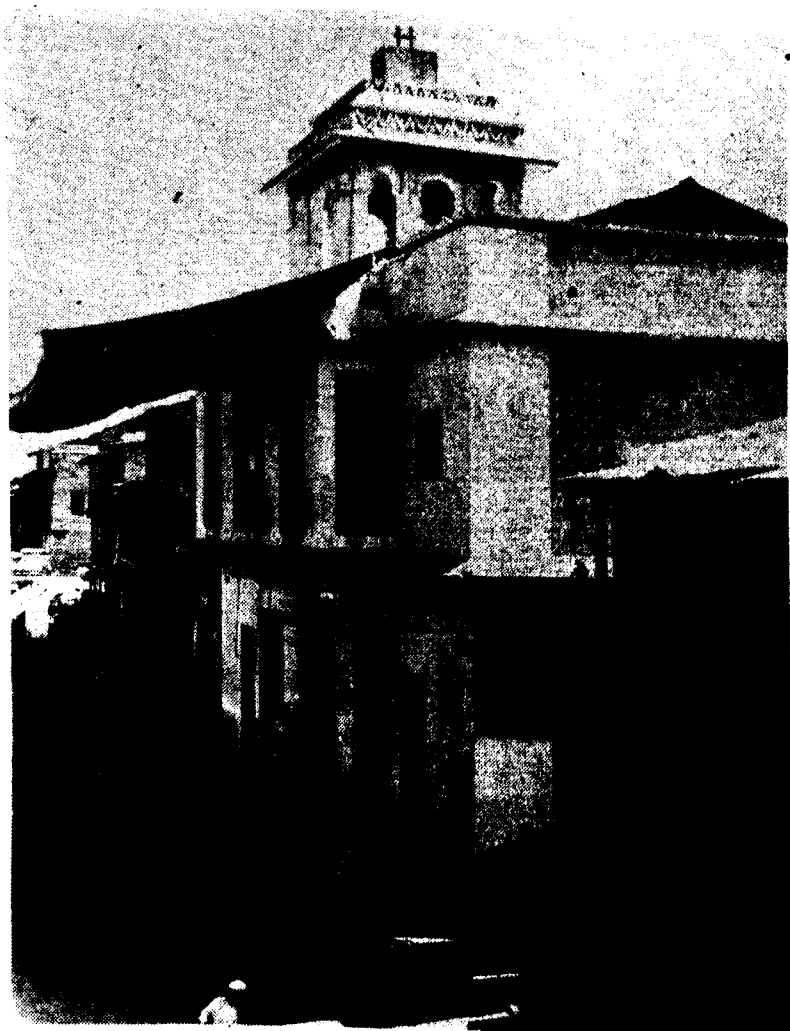
Mahadeo Temple, Kothali



Gaurishankar Temple, Malkapur



Gomaji Maharaj Temple, Nagzari



Balaji Temple, Deulgaon-Raja



Shiv-Mandir, Sakegaon



Shiv-Mandir, Dhotra (Khamgaon Taluka)

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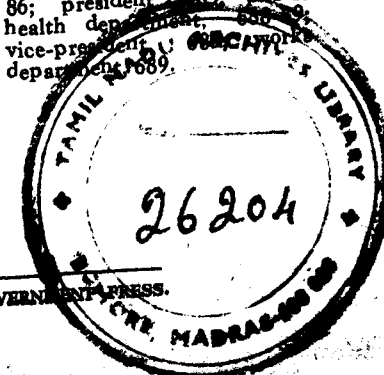


TABLE No. 37

NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS REGISTERED IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT, 1973.

Particulars	Number
Births	30,959
Deaths	18,501
Infant deaths	3,088

TABLE No. 38

NEWSPAPERS, PERIODICALS AND PRINTING PRESSES IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT, AS ON 31ST MARCH 1974.

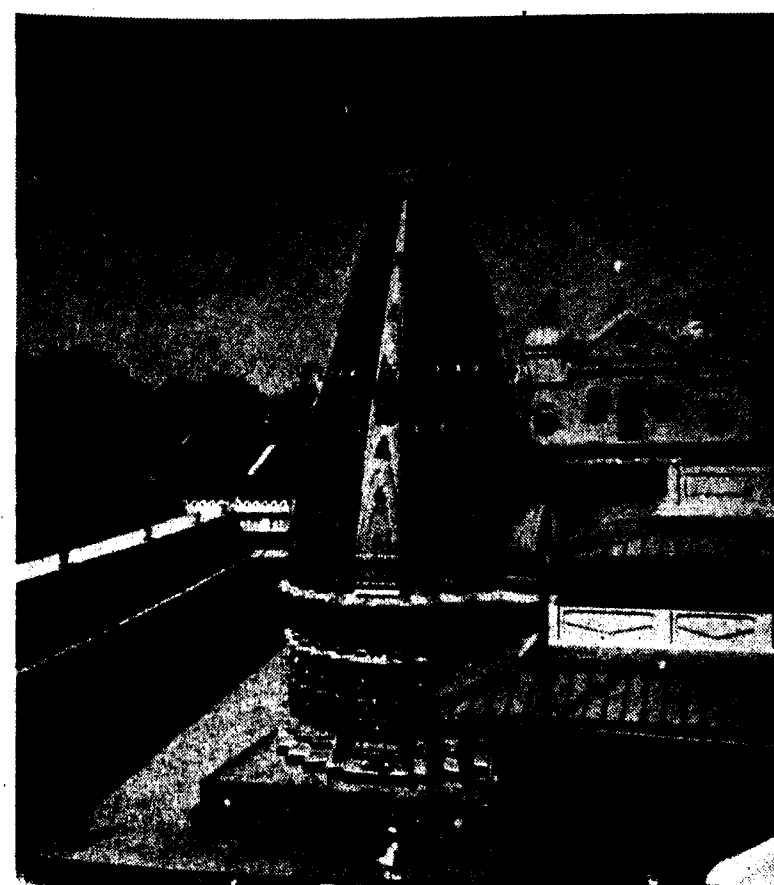
Particulars	Number
Printing presses	52
Daily newspapers ..	..
Weeklies	8
Fortnightlies and Monthlies.	1

TABLE No. 39

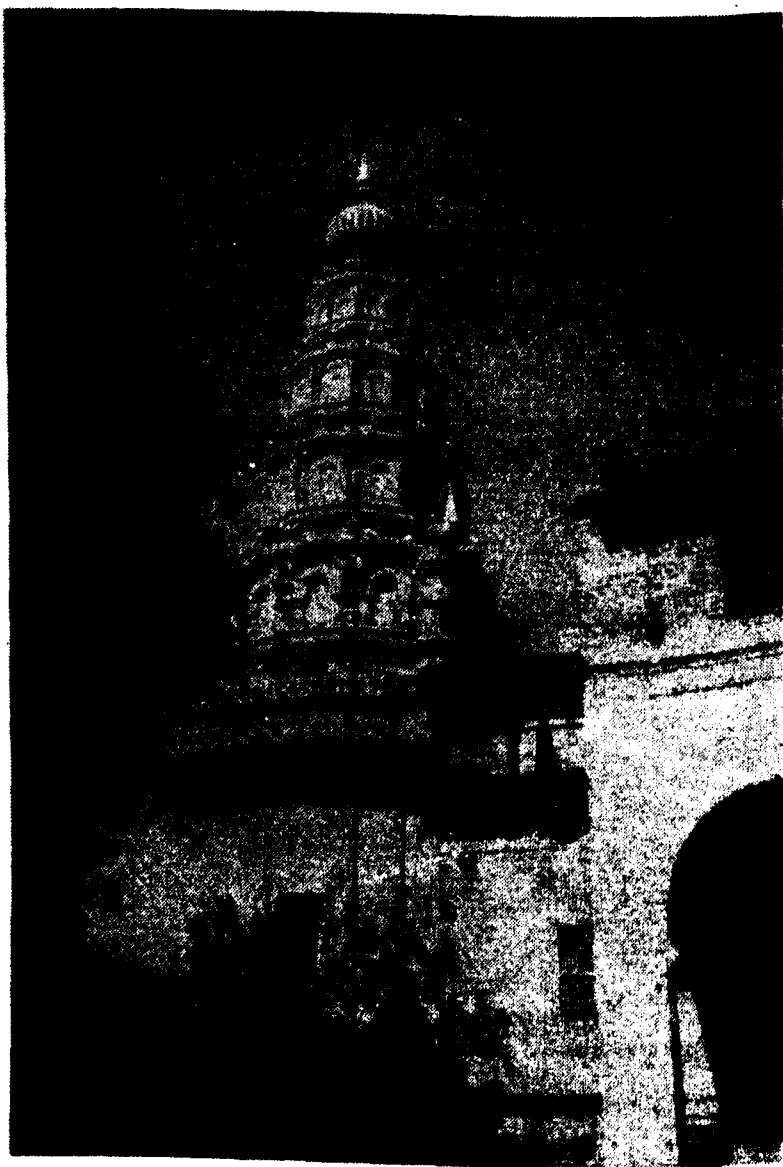
PLAN/EXPENDITURE UNDER DIFFERENT DEVELOPMENT HEADS IN
BULDHANA DISTRICT DURING 1973-74.

(Rs. in thousands)

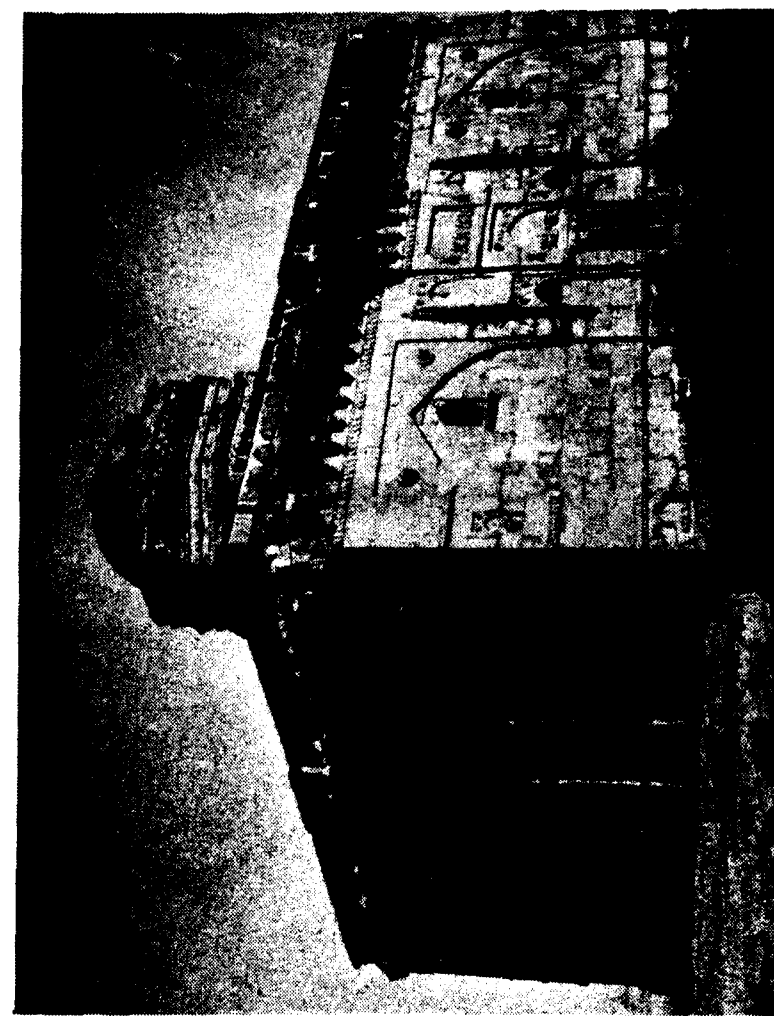
Serial No. (1)	Development heads (2)	Total (3)
1	Agricultural Programme	184.38
2	Co-operation and C. D. Programme	8.25
3	Irrigation and Power	15.56
4	Industry and Mining	0.07
5	Transport and Communications	17.15
6	Social Services	40.19
7	Miscellaneous	0.29
	Grand total	265.89



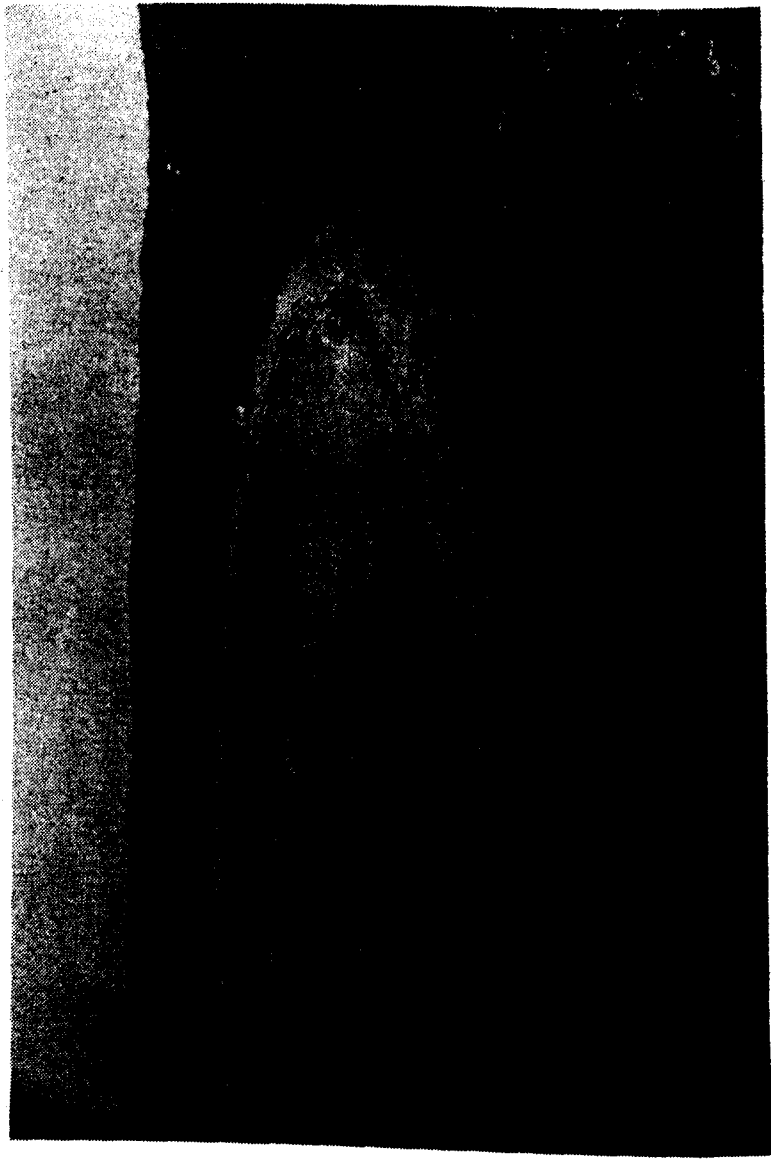
Gajanan Maharaj Temple, Shegaon (Taluka Khamgaon)



Balaji Temple, Mehkar



Lakhuji Jadhav Samadhi, Shindkhed-Raja



Lonar Lake, Lonar



Nalgangapur Dam, Nalgangapur