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GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MADHYA PRADESH

BILASPUR

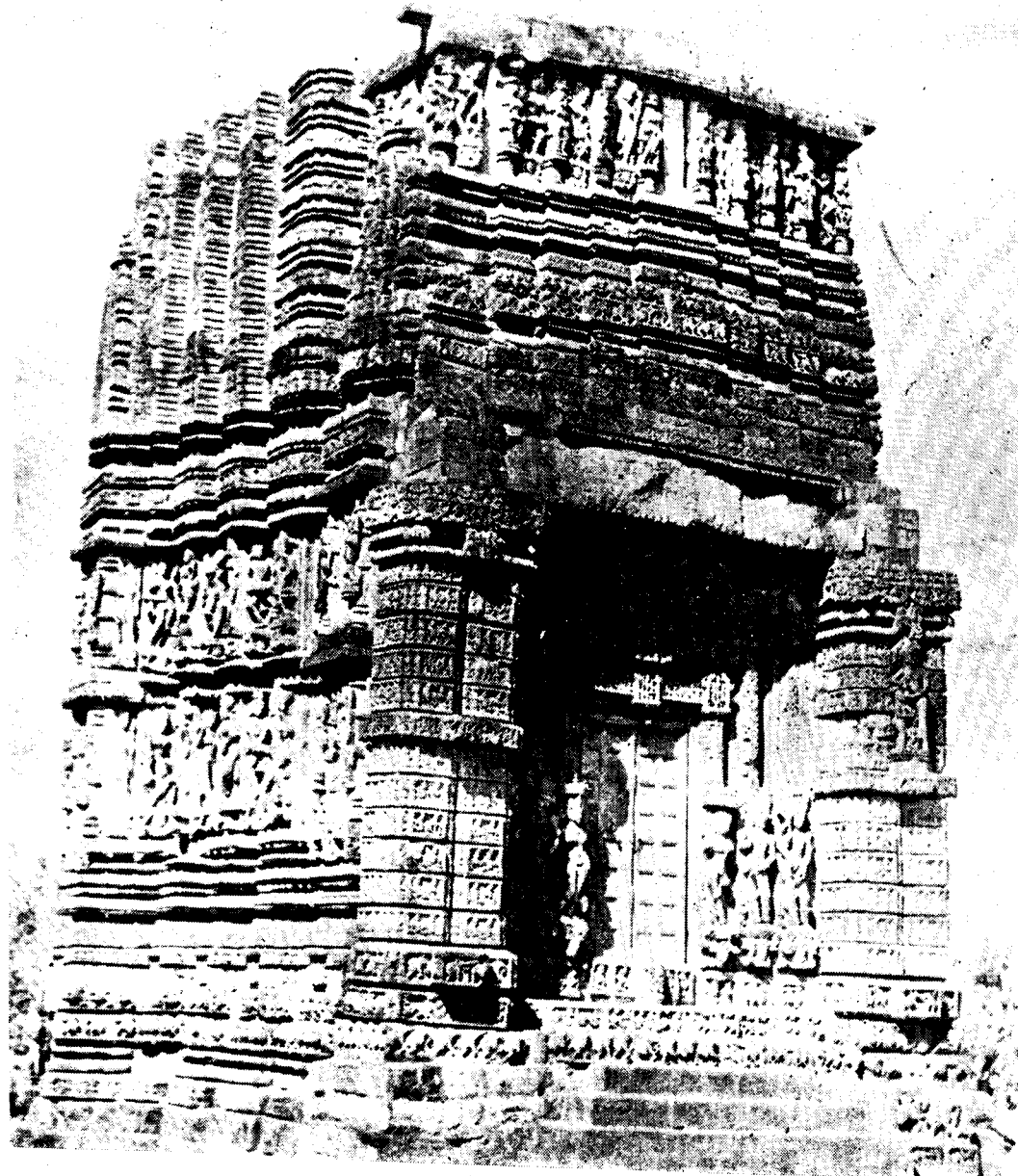
MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS



BILASPUR

P. N. SHRIVASTAV
Formerly State Editor

DISTRICT GAZETTEERS DEPARTMENT
MADHYA PRADESH
BHOPAL



Temple at Janjgir
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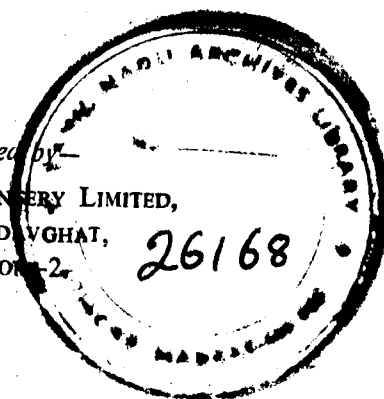
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P R E F A C E

The Gazetteer of Bilaspur District, which was finalised by my learned predecessor Prof. P. N. Shrivastav in the year 1969-70 is the fourteenth in the series of District Gazetteers published by the Government of Madhya Pradesh. It is regretted that there has been a delay of nearly a decade in its publication. However, every attempt has been made to incorporate up-to-date available data and information.

Bilaspur was created a District in 1861 by the British. Since then it has seen many changes in its boundaries, the latest change occurring in the 'fifties. The District, as it is constituted today, is the fourth largest in area and third largest in population among the districts of Madhya Pradesh. The District forms part of the "Rice Bowl" of Chhattisgarh and is predominantly agricultural. Industrially the district is still lagging behind, but holds out prospects of advancement. Bilaspur is rich in coal deposits (and bauxite), found over an area of about 200 sq. miles. A Thermal Power Plant at Korba, the biggest in the State, has already come up. The country's biggest Aluminium complex (BALCO) was established in the District in 1973 and has already achieved the distinction of being the first exporter of Alumina and Aluminium metal to foreign countries.

Bilaspur town, which is also the District Headquarters, and a railway junction for more than a century, it is said, was founded by a fisherwoman about 400 years ago. But the area has had a glorious history which can be traced to atleast the 2nd century B. C., when it had come under the sway of the Satavahanas. The discovery of inscriptions at Gunji and Kirari villages, as also the discovery of copper coins at village Balapur have established this fact. Then in the 4th century A. D. the Imperial Guptas were able to extend their sphere of influence to this area which then formed part of Dakshina Koshal and was ruled by king Mahendra. The Sarabhapuriya and the Panduvamsi kings ruled this area in the 6th century A. D. when the famous Lakshmana temple at Sirpur was built.

Chhattisgarh, for a long period was ruled by one of the most powerful dynasties of the Kalachuris, who ruled over a vast territory, extending from Amarkantak to Godavari and from Vidarbha to the borders of Orissa. This branch of the Kalachuri dynasty of Chedi or Dahala had their capital first at Tummana and later at Ratanpur, both of which are in Bilaspur District.

• The Marathas (Bhonslas) invaded and occupied Chhattisgarh in 1742, and the rule of the Kalachuris came to an end. Chhattisgarh, including Bilaspur District, passed under the British rule after the battle of Sitabuldi in 1818.

Bilaspur has had the honour of being a famous centre of freedom movement.

It is hardly necessary to mention that the preparation and printing of this Gazetteer has involved strenuous and untiring effort on the part of the then officers and the other staff. Valuable contribution of the following officers is acknowledged with thanks.

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To Dr. P. N. Chopra, M. A., Ph. D., Editor, Central Gazetteer Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi and to the editorial staff of the Unit go our grateful thanks for their help and guidance in the preparation of this volume.

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Bhopal
9th Feb. 1978

A. M. SINHA
State Editor

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Bilaspur is one of the eastern districts of Madhya Pradesh. It occupies the populous north-central part of Chhattisgarh region and is one of the three districts of Bilaspur Commissioner's Division, the other two being Raigarh and Surguja. It lies in the south-western portion of the revenue Division. Shaped like a crown the District has projections in the north-west, north, north-east and east. On the map, the northern projection resembles the crest of a crown while the eastern one, a helmet on the forehead. The District lies between the Latitude 21°41' and 23°7' North and Longitude 81°12' and 83°19' East. Its greatest length from the north-west to the south-east is about 144 miles (232.0 km.) and the maximum width from north to south is about 90 miles (145.0 km.). The area of the District is 19,905 sq. km.¹ It is the fourth largest in area and is nearly double the size of an average district in Madhya Pradesh. According to the Census of 1971 this District is the third populous district (after Raipur and Durg-Rajnandgaon) of Madhya Pradesh, with a population of 2,240,962. This figure too is remarkable in so far as it attains nearly treble the average population of the districts of Madhya Pradesh.

The District is bounded by the districts of Shahdol and Surguja in the north, by Durg and Raipur in the south, by Raigarh in the east, and Mandla and Durg in the west. The most striking features of the boundaries are the rivers Seonath and Mahanadi in the south, the Maikal (Chilpighat) Range in the north-west and the river Mand in the east. The south-western boundary is marked, in parts, by the Hanp river and the Phonk *nala*. The north-eastern boundary separates the more remote and high plateau of Surguja but is not marked by any particular hill range. The southern part of the District lies in the open Mahanadi valley whereas the northern part is covered by the semicircular span of ridges and plateaus which add to the difficulties of communication besides causing variation in cultural patterns across them.

Origin of the Name of the Region

Administratively, Chhattisgarh comprises six districts of Raipur and Bilaspur Commissioners' Divisions. Remote history of the region can be traced back to 4th century A.D. The region was then a part of Mahakosala, or Dakshin (South) Kosala to distinguish it from a country of the same name in

1. Census of India 1971, Madhya Pradesh at a Glance, p 31.

the north towards Uttar (North) Koshal. Koshal is supposed to be so called because of the excess of Kusha, a grass species. This country was found to be different from Vidharbha (Berar), which is without *darbha*. Maha Kosala, it is said, was named after Kusa, a son of Ram, the hero of the *Ramayana*.

The name Chhattisgarh is not found even in a single record and it seems to be of comparatively recent origin. It is popularly believed that Chhattisgarh had 36 forts under the Ratanpur and Raipur branches of the Haihayas.¹ Raja Kalyan Sai's account books², seen by Chisholm in 1869, the only authority, showed 48 *garhs* (forts). The difference is, however, explained away by saying that further conquests raised them to that number. Hirulal and Nelsom suggest,³ with more probability that the name Chhattisgarh is a corruption of Chedisgarh, meaning the forts of the lord of Chedi. The Haihaya dynasty of Tummana or Ratanpur was a younger branch of the Chedi family of Tripuri, whose name they continued to cherish. In one inscription⁴ the king Jajalladeva II, eighth from Kalinga Raja, is spoken as the leader of the princes who delight in keeping up the Chedi family.

Origin of the Name of the District

The District is named after the headquarters town, Bilaspur. The town is said to have been founded about 400 years ago by a fisherwoman named Bilasa Kewatin, from whom it takes its name. The story goes that Bilasa was a married woman. Once she was desired by the king of the country and to escape from yielding to him, she burnt herself alive, her husband voluntarily sharing her fate.

The southern most *mandalas* or subordinate estates divided among the 17 younger sons of Kokalladeva, the Chedi king of Tripuri (his approximate date 875 A. D.) were Komo (Dhanpur in Pendra circle), Tumman and probably Kosgain, the three ancient towns now in ruins. History of Administrative Units and The Tumman Dynasty later ruled over the territory, traditionally divided into 36 *Garhs* or *Chaurasis*, and was the overlord of a number of states in the adjoining hills, including those of Singhbhum, Patna, Sambalpur, Khariar, Karond (Kalahandi), Bastar, Chandra-pur and Lanji. A revenue book of about 1550 A. D. of Kalyan Sahai, shown to J. W. Chisholm, the Revenue Officer in 1868 lists the following 18 *garhs* located in the present Bilaspur District and the northern part of Durg district, north of the Seonath, and directly ruled by the Ratanpur Branch of the Kalachuris.

1. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, 1909, p. 49.

2. *ibid.* p. 53.

3. *ibid.* p. 49.

4. Mattar Inscription of Jajalladeva, *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, p. 43, and *Raipur District Gazetteer*, 1909, p. 49.

Table No. I-1

Northern Garhs of Ratanpur Kalachuris listed in about 1550 A.D.

Garhs	No. of Villages	Later Garhs	No. of Villages
1. Ratanpur	360		
2. Maro	354		
3. Bijaipur	326	1. Bijaipur	40
		2. Lormi	84
		3. Ramgarh	42
		4. Ranjan Mahaur	24
		5. Mailwar	12
		6. Takhatpur	124
4. Pandarbhata	324	1. Nawagarh	42
		2. Dewarbija	84
		3. Patharia	24
		4. Pandarbhata	42
		5. Mungeli	42
		6. Pendarbhata Bantargarh	42
		7. Malda	24
		8. Dewarhat	24
5. Kharaudgarh	145		
6. Katgarh	84		
7. Madanpur	153	1. Madanpur	62
		2. Umrđi	34
		3. Nawagarh	52
8. Kantula garh (Kemteli)	84		
9. Kosgarh	220		
10. Uproragarh	84		
11. Laphagarh	200		
12. Kendagarh	84		
13. Matingarh	84		
14. Sonthigarh	84		
15. Okhargarh	32		
16. Semariagarh	84		
17. Kaurikarkati	700		
18. Pendra	84		

Source:—*Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 40-41.

Each *garh* was supposed to contain eighty-four villages, grouped into several *barhons* containing 12 villages. The *garhs* (or *Chaurasi* as it was more commonly called), the *barhons* and villages were in the charges of the *Dewans*, *Daos* and the *Gaontias*, respectively.

During the Bhonsla regime the *garhs* were called the *parganas* and were entrusted to *Kamaishdars* under a *Subah* or Governor at Ratanpur. The *barhons* were designated *taluks* and were given to *Patels*. The *parganas* British Divisions were reorganised and their list includes only 10 of the old *garhs*. A list of the 18 *Parganas* of the open country as maintained by the Marathas north of the Seonath is preserved in an old letter of 1855. After 1818, the headquarters of Chhattisgarh was shifted from Ratanpur to Raipur and Maratha *Parganas* were compressed by the British Superintendent Colonel Agnew into three *Parganas* of Ratanpur, Kharaud and Nawagarh. The Maratha *Parganas* with the number of their villages, included in each of the three British *Parganas* is given in the following table.

Table No. I-2

List of Maratha Parganas Amalgamated into the New British Parganas

British Parganas	Maratha Parganas
1 Ratanpur pargana (925 villages)	Ratanpur 485, Baloda 67, Takhatpur 173, Bijaipur 91 and Lormi 109.
2 Kharaud pargana (449 villages)	Kharaud 158, Akaltara 93, Kokra 10, Nawagarh 53, Janjgir 31 and Kekirda 104.
3 Nawagarh pargana (872 villages) ¹	Nawagarh 37, Mungeli 159 Madanpur 23 Badnera 11, Patharia 36, Rakah 119 and Maro 153.

The *barhons* or *taluks* and the post of *Daos* or *Patels* had been abolished by Edmonds, the first British Superintendent of Chhattisgarh. From the *parganas* of Ratanpur, Kharaud and Nawagarh the tahsils of Bilaspur, Seorinarayan (later Janjgir) and Mungeli descended lineally. The *Zamindaris* were recognised for the first time in 1821 by a representative of the British Government.

On the lapse of the Nagpur Province to the British Government in 1854 Chhattisgarh was formed into a separate Deputy Commissionership with its headquarters at Raipur. In 1856, the region was divided into three tahsils, namely, Raipur, Dhamtari and Bilaspur. Durg, a fourth tahsil, was carved out

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 52. The number of villages accounted in the amalgamated Maratha *Parganas* is only 538.

in 1857. Bilaspur District was created in 1861. In 1864 on the Report of Sir Richard Temple *Zamindaris* were declared to be British subjects and their areas also became the administrative charge of the Deputy Commissioner on *Zamindari* system. Thus the area of the District was divided into two categories, *Khalsa* and *Zamindari*, until the introduction of Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950.

The Bhuntia and Sarsiwa tracts were transferred from Sambalpur in 1865. The *Zamindaris* included in Bilaspur District and surveyed for the first Settlement by J.W. Chisholm in 1868 were Bilaigarh, Bhatgaon (now in Raipur), Champa, Chhuri, Kenda, Korba, Katangi, Lapha, Matin (Mahateen), Madanpur, Uprora, Pendra, Pandaria and the Feudatoryships of Kawardha (now in Durg) and Sakti. Special mention is necessary of the two large estates of Lormi and Tarenga, called *tahuts*, which were held on conditions somewhat similar to those of the *talukdari* tenure and were included in the *Khalsa*. The Kawardha and Sakti Feudatory States were separated from the District after the Enumeration (Census) of 1872.

The area and population of the District in 1901 were 8,341 square miles and 1,012,972 persons, respectively. Both Raipur and Bilaspur districts, which at that time together covered an area of 20,000 square miles and contained a population of two and a half million were considered to be too large for efficient management, and in 1902 proposals were drawn up by L.S. Carey, the Commissioner, for the constitution of a third district comprising the western portions of Raipur and Bilaspur. This and other proposals resulted into extensive redistribution of territories.

In October 1905, on the cessation of Sambalpur to Bengal (which included Orissa), the Chandarpur-Padampur and Malkharoda estates and nine *gaontiahi* villages *Khalsa* from that district were made over to Bilaspur and were attached to Janjgir tahsil. The western part of Mungeli tahsil, comprised in the Nawagarh and Maro Revenue Inspectors' circles, was transferred to create Durg district on 1st January, 1906, this tract having an area of 363 square miles with a population of 83,650 persons. At the same time Tarenga estate of Bilaspur tahsil lying west of the Seonath and the tracts south of the Mahanadi comprising the Sonakhan estate and Sarsiwa tract, and the Bhatgaon and Bilaigarh-Katgi *Zamindaris*, in all 706 sq. miles, were transferred from Bilaspur (Janjgir tahsil) to Raipur. Seonath and the Mahanadi rivers thus became the boundary between Raipur and Bilaspur. The revised area of the District was 9,602 square miles and its population 917,240.

The Seorinarayan tahsil was superseded by Janjgir tahsil with the shifting of the headquarters to that place in 1891. An area of 80 square miles was transferred to the newly created province of Orissa in 1936. Katghora tahsil was

carved out in the District in 1921. The fifth and the last addition of tahsils in Bilaspur District was that of Sakti in 1953. An area of 155.2 sq. miles (401.9 sq. km.) comprising the old tahsils of Sakti (106 sq. miles or 274.5 sq. km.) and Kharsia (49.2 sq. miles or 127.4 sq. km.) was transferred to Bilaspur District from Raigarh district. Sakti tahsil was expanded also by the addition of 286 villages (42.32 sq. miles or 109.6 sq. km.) of Janjgir tahsil. All these changes greatly affected the shape and size of Janjgir thasil which gained only two villages from Raigarh district and lost about 40.8 sq miles to that district.

Bilaspur was created a tahsil of Chhattisgarh in 1856. There were again some changes in 1857. After the formation of the District in 1861, major changes in the tahsil boundaries were effected in 1905, 1906, 1936, 1948, 1953 and 1956. Alongwith the inter-district changes in the changes of territories on 1st January, 1906, the three *Zamindaris* Component Parts of Korba, Chhuri and Uprora with an area of 1643 square miles (4,255 sq. km.) was transferred from Bilaspur tahsil to Janjgir tahsil. At the same time for better adjustment of boundaries a small area of 21 sq. miles (54.4 sq. km.) lying to the west of the maniari river was transferred from Bilaspur to Mungeli, and 79 sq. miles (204.6 sq. km.) comprised in Baloda tract from Bilaspur to Janjgir. After the transfer of Tarenga estate from Bilaspur tahsil to Raipur district the area of the reconstituted tahsil was 3,111 sq. miles (8,057.5 sq. km.) in 1906. The revised area of Mungeli tahsil was 1,452 sq. miles (3,760.7 sq. km.) while that of Janjgir tahsil was 3,039 sq. miles (7,871 sq. km.).

In the readjustment of district and tahsil boundaries in 1953, again 17 villages (1.8 sq. miles or 4.7 sq. km.) were transferred from Bilaspur tahsil to Mungeli tahsil.

Sub-Divisions, Tahsils and Thanas

The District is divided into Sub-Divisions, Tahsils and Sub-Tahsils. There are five Sub-Divisions in the District. They are Mungeli, Bilaspur, Katghora, Janjgir and Sakti. There are five tahsils with their names and area co-terminating with those of the Sub-Divisions. Bilaspur tahsil occupies the central belt of the District from north to south. Janjgir is the southern central tahsil east of Bilaspur Tahsil. Sakti, Katghora and Mungeli tahsils occupy the eastern, north eastern and western portions of the District, respectively.

There were 27 police stations in the District on 1st January 1966, located at Bilaspur, Chakrabhata, Hirri, Masturi, Kota, Gaurella, Janjgir, Akaltara, Champa, Seorinarayan, Pamgarh, Sakti, Korba, Ratanpur, Marwahi, Mungeli Takhatpur, Lormi, Kunda, Pandaria, Patharia, Jaijaipur, Dabhra, Katghora, Kartala, Pasan and Pali.

Topography

The District lies partly on the plain of Chhattisgarh and partly on the northern plateau and hilly regions. The hills belong to the Maikal range of the Satpura in the north-western part and to the Chhota-Nagpur Plateau in the north and north-east. The northern part of the plateau is mostly undulating and open but it has poor sandy soil.

Maikal Range

The Maikal range which is the easternmost chain of the Satpura, runs in a direction from north-east to south-west and the water-parting line forms the north-western boundary (with negligible exceptions)¹ of the District. This range enters the District near the Bahmangarh peak (3,698 feet or 1,127 metres) on the Shahdol boundary and runs due south to the peak of Amarkantak (3,468 feet or 1,057 metres).

The tri-junction of the boundaries of Bilaspur, Shahdol and Mandla districts lies about two miles west of Amarkantak, near Kabir-chabutra. From here it runs to the south-west in a zig-zag manner upto the sources of the Hanp river and Hanpan *nala* and forms the boundary between Mandla and Bilaspur. The Maikal range continues further south in Durg and Balaghat districts and is known as Chipighat range in those parts. The important heights along the Mandla boundary are the hill near Ranjki (3,405 feet or 1,038 metres) Bija Pahar (3,299 feet or 1,005 metres) and the peak near Dhobe (3,215 feet or 980 metres). The Maikal range forms a bold scarp facing the east, and about 1,100 to 2,000 feet (340 to 610 m.) high from the neighbouring area on the Pendra Plateau in the north and in the Seonath valley in the south. The Maikal scarp is sharply distinguished from the Pendra Plateau without any significant spur on the latter. In the south-west its spurs stand in the denuded Mahoba Dongar (2,023 feet or 616.6 metres) north of Pandaria. The spurs extending east of the central part of the range run about 40 miles (64.4 km.) upto Chandli Pahar (2,695 feet or 821 metres), about 15 miles south east of Lamni. In fact, the lower geological beds of these hills join the Chhota Nagpur Plateau and distinction must have cropped up with the later geophysical or erosive forces. To the south of the Lamni hill range, the ridges of Lohar-khandi Dongar and Chunpathri pahar extend from west to east, and are separated by the narrow gorge of Kasnai *nala* and the bowl of Maniari tank.

The North-Eastern Plateau

The north-eastern part of the District is occupied by hills and dissected table-lands of the Chhota-Nagpur Plateau. In fact, the central chain of

1. Pandripani village of Bilaspur and the Sarwani plateau of Mandla district.

ruggedness and the water-divide line between the feeders of the Ganga and the Mahanadi pass through the extreme north-eastern corner of the District. From here the central chain of hills extends towards the north-west in the proximity of Baikunthpur, Sonhar and Jatar Suka hill in Surguja district. The prominent chain of hills in Bilaspur District, belonging to the Chhota-Nagpur Plateau, bifurcate to the west and extend along its southern margins. They are aligned from east to west, and join the hills of the Maikal range between Khodri and Khongsara Railway Stations of the Katni-Bilaspur section of South Eastern Railway. The hills at the meeting zone, which are less formidable, have facilitated the construction of vital railway connections of the District with the north and the north-west across the whole complex of Satpura and Chhota-Nagpur hills.

The importance of this fact is all the more clear when we find the District enclosed by the Maikal scarps along the western boundary and by the Chhota-Nagpur plateau in the north and north-east. These two features together form a semi-circle to the north of the Seonath-Mahanadi valley. The hills along the southern margins of Chhota-Nagpur plateau stand above the comparatively lower parts of the Plateau in the north. Between the central ridge in Surguja and the southern ridge in Bilaspur, there are several small openings along the streams on the plateau, which lie disconnected from each other and hampered between the ridges of lesser hills. The largest among the open tracts is the Gaurela tract which extends upto Pasan in the east, Marwahi in the north-east and shahdol in the north-west. There are small barriers, and also isolated clearings and settlements along the Hasdo and its tributaries, namely the Gez, the Chornai, the Tan and the Ahran. After its confluence with the Gez, the course of the Hasdo being due towards the south, divides the ridge into two sections, the eastern and the western. The important peaks in the eastern hills are Paunakbra Pahar (3,215 ft. or 980 metres), Karangli Pahar (3,356 feet or 1,023 metres), Karela-Uttari (3,252 feet or 991 metres) and Mahadeo Pahar (3,244 feet or 989 metres). The highest Peak of Chitaurgarh is only 3,240 feet or 988 metres, although the hills are equally extensive. The confluences of the Chornai and the Tan with the Hasdo provide tracks along their valleys to the northern faces of these hills and may provide road junctions in future. North of Katghora, the Hasdo and the Gez valleys offer the lowest gradient leading to Surguja in the north. The valleys of the Tan and the Chornai make the plateau more accessible to the west and the east, respectively. Thus, the valleys of these four rivers present a cross mark due N.S. and E.W. on the map.

To the northern banks of the Tan and the Chornai, both joining the Hasdo from opposite directions east and west, the hills of Guradwari Pahar, Janta Pahar, Matin, Dhajag Pahar, Lam Pahar and Samoti Pahar, all below 2,500 feet (762 metres) extend from west to east.

The Manjur Pahari, Purena and Kumhar Pahar are isolated hillocks lying far off, dotted in the valley region as hard rock remnants.

The Seonath-Mahanadi Valley

The southern part of the District, about 200 km. long from west to east and about 50 to 80 km. wide from north to south, is the northern part of the Chhattisgarh Plain. The level of the plain is about 800 feet or 245 metres above mean sea level. At individual points it may vary from 680 to 950 feet (200 to 300 metres). The consequent rivers, the Seonath and the Mahanadi form the southern boundary of the District. The obsequent tributaries of the District, all rise from the crescent belt of the western and the northern hills and join the great rivers. It means that the greater part of the valley in Bilaspur slopes toward the south-east. The plain extends upto Pandaria and Lormi in the north-west, and to the proximity of Belghana, Pondi and Korba in the north. The latter three are located on the banks of the Arpa, the Kurung, and the Hasdo, respectively. In this span the only hills in isolation are those of Ratanpur and Senti. About 10 miles (16 km.) north of Champa the hills of Purena, Bhawarkhol and Kumhar Pahar lie to the east of the Hasdo and separate the Upper Hasdo Valley from the rest of the wide plain.

Between the tributary rivers of the Seonath and the Mahanadi the grounds are generally elevated and form low ridges, which again are intersected by the subsequent streams and feeder rills. As a result of this there has appeared a vast span of undulating ground, an unending sequence of low mounds and shallow bowls giving a wavy margin to the scenery in the horizon. A distant blue or greenish blue picture is also presented by the Maikal, or Chhota-Nagpur hills. The whole of the plain is closely cultivated and the crude chess-board squares are obviously marked in the dry season by the bundings of the rice fields. Except this, and the mud-walls of outer houses, peeping from the clusters of mango groves and sacred trees of *bar* (*Ficus benghalensis*) and *pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*) the country looks deserted. The land is almost without grass due to excessive heat, and is blotted over by a few patches of shrubs and crooked trees of *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*), *nim* (*Azadirachta indica*), *munga* (*Moringa olerifera*) and tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*). Walking on the deep soil, one is sure to come across weeds and thorns and, of course, also the cracks on the ground caused due to the drying-up of moisture. The scenery is delightful in the rains when all the fields are filled with the greenery of grasses and shrubs on the waste and the net-work of bunds, and the entire unending span of fields is covered by the promising rice crop. The line of streams and the water in the pools, though muddy, have an extra hue, when reflecting the sun rays. However, the tracks are all muddy and cumbersome to walk on. The carts and other carriages are impossible to be used in this season. During the winter, greenery is less dark, tracks open, and atmosphere clear and pleasant. One can live in the surroundings without a large stock of woolen clothes.

The prevalent soils are black, mixed, red and sandy. The black soil, as stated earlier, is the debris of trap; the sandy, as the name implies, represents

deposits from sandstone rocks, while the mixed is allied to the soil, black or otherwise which preponderates in its composition. The black soil is, of course, the most valuable, because both spring and autumn crops can be grown on it. But it seems a disputed point whether the most abundant yield of rice is generally obtained from black or from red soil. Most cultivators swear by the latter for rice; but actually it is the black soil which gives the heaviest yield. During a full monsoon the black soil retains too much moisture and consequently the crop partially rots. As such at that time the red soil has a great pull, and gives a bumper harvest. It may be said then generally that the red soil is excellently adapted for rice, but chemical ingredients seem to render it useless for any other crop, excepting the grass-like plant of grain, e.g., *kodo*. From the black soil on the contrary all *rabi* crops are produced, and very often, by a system of rotation, two crops in one year. The sandy soil again when manured and irrigated, is well adapted for sugarcane and all kinds of garden produce, and is much prized, but there is too much percolation in it to suit the rice crop. Looking then at these main divisions of soil, it may be said that the western tracts of the District are the richest, being nearly all black soil. The centre has land of very mixed quality while the whole of the eastern part is almost entirely red or sandy.

Drainage

The Great Central Water-Divide Line of India runs from west to east. It lies along the ridge extending from Deoshani Peak (1,124 metres), through Gaurela, to Ahirpara in the northern parts of the District. The small area north of this line drains into the Ganga through the Son and its small feeders. The District to the south of this line slopes to the south and is drained by the tributaries of the Mahanadi. These great rivers, the Seonath and the Mahanadi, themselves flow towards the east along the southern boundary, but it is striking to note that the sympathetic slope does not extend in any area, except between Baitalpur and Mungeli in the south-west. The southern part of the Maikal range along the western boundary divides the waters of the Narmada from that of the Seonath and the Mahandi.

The tributaries of the Seonath flowing in the District are, from west to east, the Phonk, the Hanp, the Tesua, the Agar, the Mophar, the Maniari, the Arpa (or Arna), the Kurung and the Lilagar. The first six of these rise from the main ridge of the Maikal range. Apart from the Seonath, which joins it from the west at Khargahani (20°44':83°28') the Hasdo, the Berai and the Mand are the tributaries of the Mahanadi, joining its left bank from the north in the District.

The drainage in the whole of the District, both in the catchment areas of the Mahanadi and the Ganga is dendritic. In the hilly areas water flows through numerous channels and small feeders, and through larger streams like the Tan,

Charnai, the Kasnai and the Mand. At places the Hasdo lies entrenched deep between the ridges. The channels are narrow and the banks are high. Most of the feeder streams cease to flow after November, and go dry after March. The major streams are perennial but the flow is meagre in dry season.

The Mahanadi

The Mahanadi rises from a hillock (20° 20' N: 82° 0' E) in the Sihawa range east of Nagri. For some distance it flows towards the west, and then with a sudden bend towards the north-east until it touches the southern boundary of the District at Khargahni. Charama, Dhamtari, Rajim and Nawapara are located on its banks in Bastar and Raipur districts. Immediately after touching Bilaspur District it receives the waters of the Seonath from the west on its left bank. This enlarges the size of the stream and also widens the channel. It also forces it to adopt with the different slope-direction and to take an easterly course, in tune with the great affluent. The river flows for about 57 miles (91.5 km.) along the southern boundary of Bilaspur District. Seorinarayan and Chandarpur are located on the left bank of the river. Opposite these two places, the Jonk and the Lath join it on the right bank. On the left bank, after a course of 20 miles (32 km.) along the boundary of the District, the river receives the Hasdo and quite near Chandarpur, the Mand. A few kilometres beyond this point it enters Raigarh district and flows further east up to Hirkud dam. It flows to the south-east up to Sambalpur, to the south upto Sonepur, and again, towards the east until it falls into the Bay of Bengal through its several streams in the 160 miles (258 km.) wide delta fanning out beyond Cuttack. The total length of the river is about 621 miles (1,000 km.).

Among other important tributaries of the river, the Pairi is notable in Raipur district which joins the right bank at Rajim, a place of historical, archaeological and religious importance. Seorinarayan is another holy place with temples in Bilaspur District. In Orissa, the river is joined by the Ib and the Brahmani on the left bank and by the Jira, the Ong and the Tel on the right bank. The Mahandi has been dammed at Dudhawa in Bastar district and Hirkud in Sambalpur of Orissa. The canals have been diverted by siphons to the left bank of the river from Rudri, near Dhamtari. In Madhya Pradesh the channel of the river is sandy after it leaves the Sihawa hills. The river is navigable during the six months from June to November of the year in Bilaspur District, and is fordable at many points in the dry season, but this large stream has not been bridged at high level for auto-vehicular traffic across it anywhere in the District. Low level bridge for use in dry season connects the road-crossings at Seorinarayan and Chandarpur. During the rainy season ferry services of small country-boats are made available at distances of every 3 to 8 miles (5 to 13 km.).

The large fertile valley called the *Dandaha* has been supporting agriculture and culture since the remote past. Ruins of antiquity, though buried deep in the

alluvium, or partly swept by the inundating floods, are still seen at places like Seorinarayan and Janjgir. This part is the most thickly populated region of the State. Flooring stones, sand and gold are obtained from the river-bed. As calculated by the Chief Engineer, P.W.D. (Irrigation), Madhya Pradesh, drainage area of the Mahanadi in Madhya Pradesh is 29,860 sq. miles, with annual run off in M.A. feet 32. 2. At present there are four multipurpose schemes being worked on the river. The probable power benefits are to the tune of 102.72 Mega Watt at the rate of 100% L.F.

The Seonath

The river rises from the hill 2,055 feet (626 metres) high at 20° 30' N. and 18° 40' E. near the south-western boundary of Durg district. The river is the main contributor of the stream, what is later called the Mahanadi. In fact, it is the most important river of Chhattisgarh, and is greater in length, catchment area and volume of water than the Mahanadi itself before the confluence of the two great rivers.

The tribal story of the origin of the Seonath is that there was a Gond girl named Shiva, whom a Gond boy kidnapped for *bandhori* (forcible) form of marriage, then in fashion among the Gonds. On the girl's refusal to marry him the boy killed her and threw her body into a ravine and from this sprang the Shivanadi with its furious stream. It is said that somebody, while searching Seonath river for her, called her name loudly and the spring came out to answer. However, the name seems to have a religious bearing and it is probable that it might have been named after Lord Shiva. It is surmised that during the pre-Kalachuri period, Durg had a fort named Shiva-Durg and a temple of Lord Shiva on the bank of the Seonath.

The Seonath flows towards the north-east in Durg district and forms the north-western boundary of Raipur district. It forms the boundary between Raipur and Bilaspur districts for about 67 km. It touches Bilaspur near Baitalpur, forms the southern boundary (western half) and joins the Mahanadi at Khargahni.

The course of the river is mostly rocky in Durg but along the boundaries of Raipur and Bilaspur district a few stretches of sandy beds may also be found where generally cart tracks find a ford. It flows in a zig zag manner and passes through the outskirts of Khujji, Rajnandgaon, Durg, Dhamdha, Simga, Nandghat, Baitalpur and Manikchauri. The latter two places are in Bilaspur District. The river collects the water of the Kharkhara, the Tandula, the Khrun, the Hanp, the Maniari, the Arpa and the Lilagar. Except the first three tributaries all others join it on the left bank and also flow partly or wholly in Bilaspur District. Water is available in the stream and pools between the rock holes throughout the year. The floods are sudden and violent. It spreads for several miles near

the confluences with other rivers and sometimes sweeps off rice crops, villages, cattle and men. However, the floods have built the fertile plain with black or black and yellow mixed soil.

The Seonath is crossed by the South-Eastern Railway about three miles west of Durg and again near Garha between Raipur and Bilaspur. It has also been crossed by roads between Rajnandgaon and Durg, Rajnandgaon and Lohara, Durg and Dhamdha, Simga and Bemetara and Simga and Nandghat. The total length of the river is 220 miles (354 km.).

The Hasdo

The Hasdo rises from a hill (23° 30' N: 82° 30' E.) on the Chhotanagpur plateau in Surguja. It flows towards the south and enters the District at 23° North. After flowing about 29 km. it receives the Gej on the left. Further down it crosses the ranges of hills along Dhajag pahar and receives the Chornai on the left among the hills. The Tan and the Ahiran are other hilly streams which join it on the right bank. Katghora and Chhuri are located on the bank of the Ahiran. The Ahiran is also known as the Jatashankari. Kosgain, Korba, Champa, Bamni Dihi and Karnod are located on the left bank of the Hasdo. It joins the Mahanadi at Mahuadih, nine miles below Seorinarayan. In the northern parts the river is narrow and deep but after receiving the Tan at Bango the river bed is wide, sandy, and with islands. River islands are marked near Bango, Dhangaon, Samgurha, Charpara, and Chicholi. The valley of the Hasdo provides a low gradient for the road upto Korba and Katghora in the north, and pony track beyond it. It is crossed by the South-Eastern Railway at Champa. The total length of the river is about 145 miles (233 km.) of which about one hundred miles lie in Bilaspur District.

The Maniari

The river rises from the Maikal hills and flows towards the south-east. It receives the waters of the Agar and the Tesua and joins the Seonath to the west of the Railway crossing. The total length of the river is about 68 miles (110 km.). Lormi and Takhatpur are among the important villages on its bank. The river has been dammed at Khuria from which tank irrigation canals have been diverted.

The Arpa

It rises from the tableland of Pedra and joins the Seonath above Manikchauri. The valley of the river provides the low gradient to the hills for the construction of the Katni-Bilaspur Section of the South-Eastern Railway. The town of Bilaspur is built on the right bank. The Kurung is the left bank tributary which has been dammed at Khutaghat.

The Mand

The Mand rises from the slopes of the Mainpat near Kunkri in Surguja. It flows in Raigarh district and along the eastern boundaries of Bilaspur Dist-

riect. It joins the Mahanadi at Chandarpur. Caves having rock paintings have been found in Raigarh district among the hills near the Kharsia Railway Station.

The Son

The Son or *Suvarna*, meaning gold, is one of the great tributaries of the Ganga and is a sacred river. The river possesses great sanctity. It is believed that the performance of *sandhya* on its banks ensures absolution, and the attainment of heaven even to the slayer of a Brahman. It has also been called the *Hiranya Vaha* or *Hiranyo-Vahu* in Sanskrit literature. The *Sonos Erannoboas* of Arrian is also identified with the Son. The river is frequently mentioned in the *Ramayan* of Valmiki, *Ram-Charit-Manas* of Goswami Tulsidas, the *Bhagwat Puran* and the *Mahabharat*.¹

Legends about the river are numerous. One of the legends assigns the origin of the Son and the Narmada to two tears dropped by Brahma, one on either side of the Amarkantak range. The story goes that the male river Sonbhadra, hearing of the surpassing beauty of the maiden Narmada, came to woo her. Warned of the Son's approach the maiden took the form of a river and hastened in alarm from her mountain home of Amarkantak.² It is also interesting to note that while nearly all the rivers in India are given feminine names, Sonbhadra is a masculine name. A tradition has it that the Narmada and the Son were in love. But in the meantime the Son started flowing towards the Ganga. Considering this to be an indication of Son's infatuation for the Ganga, in sheer despondency and anger the Narmada took a westerly course, deserting the Sonbhadra to follow the northerly course and join the Ganga.

The river has also been identified with the *Erannoboas* (*Hiranya-Vaha* or the gold-bearing) of the Greek geographers' *Arrian and Megasthenes*,³ and the Soa (Son) of Ptolemy. The Son also bore the name *Hiranyabahu*, or 'the golden-armed', a title of Siva. Various other explanations of mostly modern derivations of the names of the river are current, and are recorded in the *Sona Mahatmya* and *Brihad Brahma Purana*.

The Son rises from the feeders of the Son Kund at 22°42' 30" N. and 82°2' 10" E. about 12 miles or 19 km. south-east of Pendra Road Railway Station. The place is called Sonmuda and is marked by a few Shiva temples.⁴

1. *Sonasya Narmadavashch praheave Kurunandana Vanshagulma Upsprishva bajimedha phulam labhate. Mahabharat, Vanaparva, 85..9, Geeta Press. Gorakhpur, p. 1203.*
2. *Mandla District Gazetteer*, p. 254.
3. Mc Crindle, *Megasthenes and Arrian*, p. 135-87.
4. Ptolemy, p. 94; *Imperial Gazetteer of India* (New Ed.); Vol. XXIII, p. 77 and *Rewa State Gazetteer*, Vol. IV, p. 3.
5. *Uttar Bharat Bhoogol Patrika*, Vol. IV, No. 2, p. 62. The old records have so far held that the Son rises near Amarkantak from the other Sonmunda on the Maikal Scarps, about one and a half miles from the source of the Narmada. In fact the stream of Sonmuda near Amarkantak drains into *Mati nala*, a tributary of the Arpa and the Seonath. This, however, seems to be a misconception.

The Son flows to the north for about 18 miles and turns to the north-west before it enters the Marwahi Plateau, a comparatively even and more inhabited area. The river flows for about 30 miles (48.3 km.) and has a narrow basin in this District. The important tributaries in the District are the *Khujji nala*, the *Gangnai nala* and the *Gujar nala*. The *Gujar* itself flows along the north-western boundary of the District and joins the Son at a point where it enters Shahdol district.

In its later course the river is joined by the *Johila* near village Bartoo (23° 28' N. 81° 15' E.) and by the Mahanadi (northern) near Sarsi (24° 5' N. 81° 0' E.) both on the left bank. From here the Son turns sharply to the east and washes the Kaimur scarps. The *Banas* joins it near Dembha (32°17' N. 81°29' E.) and the *Gopat* near Bardi, about 20 miles (32.2 km.) before it leaves Madhya Pradesh and enters Uttar Pradesh. Most of its course in the State lies above 1,000 feet (308 km.) from the mean sea level. The bed is widened and it lowers to about 800 feet (242 m.) after its confluence with the *Gopat*.

The *Rihand*, the *Kanhar* and the *North Koel* join it on the right bank before it enters the low plain of the Ganga. It tributes the Ganga near Ramnagar. The lower valley in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar is a fertile plain, having attained a moderate standard of industrial and commercial developments.

The river's bed is formed of Vindhyan sandstone practically throughout its length. At many places, especially in the lower valley it is merely a waste of sand during the greater part of the year, with an insignificant stream. The Characteristics that is fordable nearly everywhere. The discharge of water at this time is as low as 620 cubic feet per second, according to an old estimate.¹ This flow is steady. But the river swells, after a few hours rains during the rainy season, into a roaring torrent occasionally leaving patches of drifting sand. These dangerous quick-sands are called *chor-baru*. After a storm has burst on the Vindhyan Plateau, the rain-fall of an area over 21,000 sq. miles proves too much to the channel for the discharge, calculated at 830,000 cubic feet per second. These heavy floods are of short duration, seldom lasting for more than four days, but occasionally causing destruction in the low-lying plains of Shahabad. However, the flooded area is also left with the renewed deposits of fertile silt. The bed is enormously wide in the lower plains, stretching for three miles in some places.

The Son is mainly used for floating down rafts of bamboos and timber during the rains. Large country boats also proceed for short distances during the rains. Boating is also dangerous due to the violence of the river. The irrigation system in South Bihar, known as Son Canal is served by this river, the water being distributed in the west to Shahabad and in the east to Gaya and Patna from a dam constructed at Dehri.

1. *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. XXIII, p. 77.

The Son is crossed by the Katni-Bilaspur Section of the South-Eastern Railway near Anuppur and by the North-Eastern Railway on a lattice-girder bridge near Koelwar. Near the site of the Dehri dam it is also crossed by the Grand Trunk Road.

Falls

There are a number of hills and spurs which have sharp faces capped by hard rocks. Consequently, the streams flowing in the region meet with a water fall of 30 to 100 feet (9 to 30 metres) and are very delightful during the rains. However, all such points go dry after the rains and can be developed into a perennial water fall only by the creation of dams up-hill. Such falls are seen on the Bissar *nala* (30 feet), near Kendai (55 feet), Ketna (35 feet), Gaur Pahar (100 feet), Dorka *nala* (40 feet), Kantaduari (20 feet), Tikarkhurd (70 feet), Ratkhandi (100 feet), and other places.

Springs

Springs are located near Kartala, Dhaurabhata, Paunakhra Pahar, Chitaurgarh, etc. The amount of water flowing is very small during the dry season.

Tanks

There are a large number of small tanks almost in every village of Chhattisgarh plain. The only large and important tanks of the District are the Kurung tank and the Maniari tank, which are located on the foot-hills and are artificial creations.

Geology

The geological succession of the rocks found in the District are as follows.

Table No. I-3
Geological Succession

Recent	..	Alluvium
Sub-recent	..	Laterites
Upper Cretaceous-Eocene	..	Deccan Traps
Cretaceous	..	Lametas
Upper Carboniferous	..	Barakars
Lower Permian (Lower Gondwana)		Talchirs
Late-Pre-Cambrian	Upper Cuddapah Lower Cuddapah	Raipur Series Chandrapur Series
Archaeans	Dharwar	Slates, phyllites & dolomitic limestones
	Basement Complex (Meta- morphics)	Basic intrusives, Pegmatites, Granites, Gneisses, Schists, and conglomerate

1. Courtesy : Director General, Geological Survey of India.

Archaeans

On the northern side of the part of Chhattisgarh basin included within the District, that is, by Lormi, Pendra, Mahtin, Uprora and Korba, good strong bedded gneisses of the more massive quartzose, quartzo-felspathic and hornblende varieties are common, particularly in the slopes or the *ghats* separating the Pendra country from the Bilaspur plains; though the upland itself, as far north as Pendra at any rate, is of unfoliated and very coarsely granitoid kinds. The *ghat* rocks are all more or less foliated, or laminated and bedded, in a general east-west strike, with a high dip to southwards, though it becomes less and less inclined towards the foot of the hills. The country from Pendra southwards by the Suknai and Arpa valleys shows the granitoid rocks to the edge of the upland, where they are succeeded by the foliated gneisses with which are associated frequent thick beds or sheets of coarsely crystalline red felspathic granites, or more highly altered forms of gneisses. Strong quartzose gneisses, quartzrocks and some schists, still having the E.-W. strike, come in below the *ghats* and occupy (much covered up with alluvium) nearly as far as the Ratanpur group of hills. Similar succession of gneisses are seen further east in the same direction, over the Lapha hills or from Mahtin down to Korba and in Uprora. The general E.-W. strike is maintained even on the country in the system of long narrow and deeply-carved ridges and valleys. In Korba valley, the crystallines are extensively covered up by Gondwana rocks; but a belt of granitoid gneisses, with subordinate hornblende and quartzose schists, occurs a few kilometres to the south and south-east of Korba town and narrows off towards the Mand river.

Gneisses

Of the two gneisses recognised in this tract, the older is a fine grained, well-foliated, biotite-gneiss, and the younger a coarser, more acidic, granitoid and porphyritic biotite gneiss. North of the belt of Chilpi Ghat rocks, the older gneiss occupies the Bilaspur plain and the slopes or *ghats* between it and the hills. Its E.-W. "strike" has produced a remarkable system of long, narrow, deeply-carved ridges and valleys along the north-western boundary of the Chilpis, this gneiss often containing thin bands of Kyanite-bearing gneiss.

The younger porphyritic gneiss forms a large batholith, occupying the uplands bounding the Bilaspur plain and extending northwards into Mandla district, where it disappears under Deccan trap, to reappear further north as the pink porphyritic granite of Jabalpur. This granitoid variety is also seen in Korba Valley and in Raigarh: it may well belong to the Hlosepet or Bellary suite.

The same two varieties of gneiss are found to the south as well as to the north of the Chilpi syncline in Bilaspur District, the granitoid form predominating in the south-east.

Chilpi Ghat Series

The Chilpi Ghat belt, with an irregular out-crop of Dharwar rocks, is confined mostly to Bilaspur and Balaghat districts, but also continues into Mandla area. From the neighbourhood of Ratanpur in Bilaspur District it extends and widens westwards into Maikal range, which is nearly a southerly spur of the main Satpura range.

The portion of the Dharwar outcrop lying along the northern edge of the Chhattisgarh basin, around Ratanpur, is made up of quartz schists, hard massive "Quartzose strata", many of them green in colour, compact mica schists or coarse clay slates, and bands of probably interbedded greenstones and trapoids. In one place quartzites, sandstones and shales show low dips, and the beds twist and roll about. The "quartzose strata" include hard green grits full of particles of white quartz and felspar or larger sub-angular fragments of crystalline rock including "granite". In one place the green grits associated with shale, shaly grits and clay slates are said to pass into irregularly bedded extremely coarse conglomerates consisting of rounded, sub-angular and angular fragments of quartz, quartzite, quartz schist, green shale and chert through which are scattered pebbles or rounded masses of white felspar. In contrast to the E.W. strike of the adjacent gneisses, the general strike of the stratified rocks is N.W.-S.E. or N. S, but rapid and considerable changes in trend occur when the outcrop is traced round the corner of the Chhattisgarh basin.

Cuddapahs

A series of sedimentary formations comprising conglomerates, grits, sandstones, shales and limestones are considered now to belong to the Cuddapahs and not to Lower Vindhya as mapped by earlier workers. This is based on their lithological affinity with the Cuddapahs and also on the geotechnic features. The much indurated and quartzitic sandstones, grits, shales and limestones occurring around Sagona are considered to belong to the Cuddapahs. Such rocks also occur around Deosara, Bakela and a few other places.

The Chandarpurs (Lower Cuddapahs of Chhattisgarh plain) are exposed in hills in the area represented by the north-eastern corner of the Survey of India toposheet No. 64 F/8 and in the Hanp river-cutting near Sirmi. They consist of purple and grey coloured phyllitic slates interbedded with thin beds of ortho-quartzites, dipping at 35° to 45° to the north or N.N.W. Lower Chandarpur quartzites are largely exposed in the southern hills of toposheet Nos. 64 J/7,8 and 12.

In Sakti tahsil, the lower Cuddapah rocks represented by red and purple shales interbedded with fine to medium-grained dark grey limestone occur in the eastern part of the area shown in toposheet No. 640/1. The rocks show a rolling dip ranging from 8° to 10°. In a few places the shales are found locally folded into small anticlines and synclines.

The Raipurs (Upper Cuddapahs of the Chhattisgarh plain) consists chiefly of dolomitic limestone interbedded with purple shales. Exposures of flaggy dolomitic limestone are seen in the hills west of Boirkachra and north-east of Pandaria dipping at 45° to the north or north west. The interbedded purple shales are exposed near Bhaggara, Rampura, Temri and Koda kapa. The upper Raipur limestones are found in the lowlying southern area, showing regional dip of 10° to 15° towards S.S.W. Along the western margin of the quartzite ridge, point 1,292, about 1.5 km. south-west of Kali Pahar, a nine metre wide zone of fault breccia could be traced over a length exceeding eight kilometres.

In Sakti Tahsil, unconformably overlying the lower Cuddapahs are a series of rocks which have tentatively been regarded as Upper Cuddapahs. The lower most member of this series, which is chiefly made up of conglomerates and grits, is seen in a chain of hillocks, trending more or less N.-S. on the right bank of the Mand river. They are overlain by calcareous sandstones which are red, purple and grey and mediumgrained in texture. Sandstones and conglomerates crop out on the high grounds near Uchpinda. The sandstones are succeeded by red and purple shales, at places, interbedded with limestones. They exhibit a rolling dip of about 8° to 10°. Dolomite limestones overlie the shales at many places. Agrillaceous limestone flags are exposed near Dabra, Sakrali and at a few other places further west shown in toposheet No.64K/13. These limestones are overlain by shales interbedded with sandstones

Gondwanas

The rocks of the Gondwana System are represented by the Talchirs and Barakars (Coal-Measures) belonging to the Lower Gondwana of upper Carboniferous Permian age. These rocks occupy the north-eastern portion of the District and extend south-eastward into Raigarh and Sambalpur districts. These rocks rest unconformably above the pre-Cambrian crystalline rocks. A narrow bed of Talchirs consisting of conglomerates, sandstones and shales together with the western extension of the Barakar (Lower Gondwana) formation of Korba coalfield occurs in the area covered by toposheet Nos. 64J/7,8 and 12, which show a regional strike W.N.W.-E.S.E. with gentle dip towards south. A coal seam about 1.8 metres thick is associated with sandstone in the southern extension of Laphagarh fault.

The basal beds or Talchirs occur in an elongated basin between Aurapani and Rajak consisting of boulder bed, shales and sandstones forming a total thickness of 198-206 m. They are also exposed along the Tan Nadi and in the plains about 6.4 km. south of Pendra. Talchirs are also found to occur as outliers around Singhabahara, Anjani, Patarkoni and near the ninth mile from Gaurela on the Gaurela- Amarkantak road. The Talchir beds lie unconformably above the pre-Cambrian rocks.

The Barakars lie conformably over Talchirs and include white or grey sandstones interbedded with shales and coal seams. There are two patches of these rocks along the Mand and Hasdo valleys, constituting the Mand and Korba coalfields, separated from one another by a lofty hill mass consisting of massive sandstones.

Lametas

A band of about 15.2 m. thick gritty arenaceous limestone with chert and small perceptible jasper grains from a narrow fringe around the trap country at altitudes 791 and 806 metres in Mungeli tahsil and the Lormi forest range. It is considered to belong to Lametas of Cretaceous age. These rocks present a spongy appearance and occur in massive blocks. In the area represented by toposheet No.64F/14, they appear to fringe the scarp below the Amarkantak Plateau, at an altitude between 792 and 822 metres, and underlie the Deccan Traps. Another isolated outcrop of Lametas has been seen about 1.6 km. to the west of Bohil.

Traps

The trappean rocks occurring in the District belong to the Deccan Traps of upper Cretaceous period. They are usually medium to fine grained, and are either compact, non-porous or vesicular or amygdaloidal in texture. Columnar joints are frequently seen in these rocks. The traps occur in region west of Aurapani and in all probability from north-eastern extension of the main Deccan Trap flow. The Plateau over 800 metres are all composed of trap rocks. The approximate thickness of the flow in the area is about 152 metres.

Laterites

The laterites form thick mantle as capping practically on all plateau above 822 metres. They occur in the north-western part of the area forming a thick capping over the traps extending into Mandla district. The most important flat-surfaced occurrence of laterite is on the plateau of Rajmergarh. These laterites, at places, are bauxitic.

Alluvium

The southern flat area occupied by horizontal or gently dipping purple shales and limestones belonging to the Raipur series is mostly concealed by alluvium and at places, lateritic deposits constituting a portion of the extensive flat expanse known as the Chhattisgarh plain. Alluvial deposits which are quite fertile also occur along all the courses of major rivers and minor streams.

Economic Minerals

Bauxite

The first recorded occurrence of bauxite in the District as distinct from laterite is on the summit of the Phutka Pahar, at the extreme east of the erstwhile

Uprora Zamindari area near its boundary with the Chhuri Zamindari. At this place both laterite and bauxite cap the summit, the latter occurring in large patches in laterite as a product of segregation. On this ridge above a height of 965 metres, laterite is enriched in alumina and grades into grey and pink pisolitic bauxite. The hill is composed of felspathic Kampthi sandstones which are separated from the capping of laterite bauxite by a thick bank of lithomarge and white bauxite clay. Some of the samples analysed are as follows:—

Table No. I-4
Analysis of Samples of Bauxite

	Sample I Percentage	Sample II Percentage	Sample III Percentage	Sample IV Percentage
SiO ₂ ..	0.76	0.60	0.52	0.40
TiO ₂ ..	9.50	11.02	8.25	8.36
Al ₂ O ₃ ..	63.33	60.36	60.73	51.94
Fe ₂ O ₃ ..	4.47	3.82	3.82	9.10
H ₂ O ₃ ..	21.90	24.07	26.64	30.00
Total	99.96	99.87	99.96	99.80
Specific Gravity	2.62	2.61	2.50	2.51

Source: Geological Survey of India.

From analytical chart, it is seen that the material is titaniferous bauxite usually derived from the basaltic lava-flows of the Deccan. The first three samples compare favourably with high grade varieties found elsewhere in India. The best development of bauxite occurs on northern side of the eastern face and north-western side of the western portion of Phuntka Pahar. The quantity of the ore estimated from the exposures is of the order of 3,70,750 tonnes. Local segregations and boulders of bauxite occur in Laddi Pahar, Mahadeo Pahar and Janta Pahar. Deposits of good quality massive and pisolitic bauxite of moderate size are present at different places on the summits of the Paunakhra Pahar, Ranaikhet Pahar, Gaurduari Pahar, Kalera Pahar in the erstwhile Korba Zamindari and Satpathrikhar Pahar in Surguja. Bauxite was not reported from this area earlier than 1949. The total quantity of bauxite from the above localities has been roughly estimated at about 4,67,400 tonnes. The material from this area is decidedly better than that of Phutka Pahar.

In Both the above two erstwhile Zamindaris and in Surguja, bauxite occurs in association with laterite on the top of hills, over 915 metres above the mean sea level. The hills are formed of Kampthi and Barakar sandstones of the

Lower Gondwanas. Exposures of basalt, presumably of Deccan Trap age, are also present below a thick capping of laterite. It is not unlikely that the basaltic rocks have given rise to laterite and bauxite. A characteristic of bauxite from these hills in the erstwhile Uprora and Korba *Zamindaris* is the low content of silica, which is well below 3 per cent. Alumina is round about 55 p. c., titania ranges between 8 and 10 per cent on an average and iron oxide between 4 and 8 per cent. The total reserves of bauxite of this quality in the previous Uprora and Korba *Zamindaris* have been roughly estimated at about 8,40,000 tonnes.

Two occurrences of bauxite are also recorded at Pandripani and Majhgaon. The quality of the material is fairly good and an approximate quantity of 86,400 tonnes would be available.

The bauxite laterite is reported to occur around Tawardabra, Jaleswar and Choktipani, which are either pisolitic in texture or are metamorphous light white pinkish clay. The economic aspects of these deposits have to be further investigated.

Building Materials

Various kinds of rocks are quarried and used for building construction, road metal, railway ballast, etc. A summary of the same is given below.

Massive granites around Amaldih, Bhadora and Thengadand can be used as road-metal, railway ballast and concrete aggregates. Pink porphyritic gneisses near Chaitma is quarried on small scale for use as road metal.

The Cuddapah quartzites around Deosara can be used as road-metal. Course-grained massive quartzite is quarried on small scale near Jali for use as road-metal. Upper Cuddapah sandstones are quarried in blocks and slabs at Panrahardi near a place with co-ordinates 21°54';82°49' and in a few other localities in that region. These rocks are used for building purposes.

Bedded dolomitic limestones are quarried for road-metal near Setganga, Mungeli, Boirkachra, Bhalpahari and Pandaria. The flaggy dolomitic limestone exposed near Jaitpur, Damapur and Chatan are worked on small-scale for use as building material. The flaggy limestones are also quarried at Kharod, Sarkhon and Kharmandi in the form of slabs of varying sizes for flooring purposes. The massive siliceous limestones are exposed near Janjgir and Tarod. The purple, finegrained limestones of Nagpur, Basaha and Gidori containing 26 to 45 per cent CaO and 1 to 16 per cent MG are worked for use as building materials.

The laterites occurring on and around plateau areas of Deosara can be used as road-metal. White clay occurs in the shape of small pockets scattered at about 3.2 km. W.S.W. of Jogisar. The clay is plastic, light olive green to light pinkish white in colour and is admixed with grits. The thickness of the clay bodies varies from 0.3 to 1.5 m. below a blanket of 0.9 to 1.5 m. of overburden. This deposit is not of any commercial importance. It is, however, in great demand for white-washing purposes in the neighbouring villages.

A small pocket of gritty clay (Kaolin) is located about 1.6 km. S.S.W. of Thadpathra. The clay is formed by the alteration of feldspars in granite and is not of any economic value.

The erstwhile Uprora *Zamindari* area possesses large deposits of fire-clay, though not always associated with coal-seams. The clay usually comes immediately on the top of a coal-seam. At one place the fire-clay was noticed to occur independently of coal, and nowhere in the former *Zamindari* was the fire-clay found to occur as the underclay of a coal seam. Some of the principal exposures are in a tributary of the Dhajag *nala*, round about the co-ordinates 22°48':82°36' and in the upper reaches of the same *nala* about the co-ordinates 22°48':82°36'. At both the places the fire-clay is 1.8m. thick, usually cream to milk-white in colour, and occasionally buff, pink and rusty-brown. Physical tests show poor plasticity, low shrinkage and resistance to heat at 1400 C. Other exposures of fire-clay are: South of the Bissar *nala* near about the latitude 22°34', in the Katiaoahar *nala* about the co-ordinates 22°47': 82°40'; in the Kohmi Ama *nala* about the co-ordinates 22°48': 82°39', in the bed of a dry *nala* 2.0 km. N.N.E. of Nakia, and at few other places. Here the exposures of fire-clay rest on massive sandstones.

Fire-clays also occur in Korba coalfield area. One band of fire-clay extends over 457.2 metres along the Lachmi *nala* north of Managaon. It occurs upto a depth of 3 metres in a pit sunk and may extend further. Small pockets of fireclay are present: (i) 0.8 km. S.W. of Kesla and (ii) 0.8 km. S.E. of Mahudih and near Malgaon. It also occurs with the Manberi and Jhinga *nala* coal seams.

Fire-clay occurs associated with two coal seams near Madanpur with the seam 1.6 km. below the confluence of the Petpora and Chuia *nalas*; and also with coal exposures in Chuia *nala*. Small exposures are present in the Petpora *nala* near its confluence with the Chuia and in the Dhuwan *nala*, north of Ghontmar. It also occurs in association with the coal seams in the Bhainsa-pathar *nala* and its tributary.

Feldspars in the gneisses and granites around Katghora are in places highly altered to kaolin giving rise to small pockets of clay, which are worked in a small way for local uses such as white-washing. Such workings are seen in the

vicinity of Garhipakhna, Gopalpur and Bisanpur. In the area there are also sedimentary clays associated with the Talchir and Barakar sandstones. The Barakar sandstones are highly felspathic. In an old quarry about 3.2 km. S.S.W. of Pali, a clay bed 3.7 metre thick is seen under an overburden of 4.6 metres of soil and sandstone. Barakar clay does not appear to be suitable for making high-grade bricks or fine earthenware. Pockets of clay are being worked on a small scale near Sirghia, Lalmatia and Burbur. The clay is not suitable for refractory product. Five clay bands light grey and buff in colour, ranging in thickness from 0.06 to 1.5 metres are found inter-bedded with sandstones at Bandha Khar and Puta.

Coal-Uprora Coal Field

Coal is found in practically every important *nala* in the erstwhile Uprora *zamindari* in the high grounds north of latitude $22^{\circ} 45'$. The coal measure is of Barakar age and forms the extension of Hasdo-Arand or Rampur (Surguja) Coal-field. Reserves are considered to exceed 101.60 million tonnes within an area of about 155 square kilometres. Some of the larger outcrops of coal at the centre of the tableland in the northern portion of the ex-*zamindari* area continue for several metres and have thickness exceeding 3 metres. The rocks containing the coal are massive, coarse-grained fairly hard tough pyritiferous sandstones with gentle dips. The sandstones would provide strong and solid roof and underground mining. The coal-measures are comparatively free from igneous-intrusions and faults of serious nature. Coal seams occur at different levels suggesting the presence of more than one seam.

The results of analyses of a few samples of coal from different places show that moisture varies from 4.50 to 7.40 per cent, volatile matter from 27.98 to 39.20 per cent, fixed carbon from 34.16 to 47.78 per cent, and ash from 11.26 to 31.60 per cent.

Korba Coal Field

There are several coal seams in the Barakar rocks of this area. Tests carried out in the field showed the coal from the various seams to be noncoking. The Jatraj seam south of Korba on the right bank of the Hasdo river has been found to be 36.30 metres thick and about 15.24 metres below this seam another seam of coal and shale 21.2 metre thick has been met in the same bore-hole section. Further south of the same side of the Hasdo, two coal seams are exposed. Another seam occurs near Kanberi on the right bank of the Hasdo which appears to be 19.8 metres thick. Outcrops of coal and coaly shale are present along the Lilagar river at two localities west of Chainpur. About 1.6 km. south of Chainpur coal has been found in a well at the edge of Ranki village. An occurrence of coal seam about 1.8 metres thick is recorded in the felspathic Barakar sandstone forming the southern extension of Laphagar scarp about 5 km. north of Lapha.

On the left bank of the Hasdo river near Manikpur two seams have been found. Coal is obtained from a quarry near Bistrampur. Another outcrop of coal is seen in the Kachandi *nala*, about 3.2 km. east of Bistrampur quarry. Coal-seam also occurs in the Ranpakhara *nala*, about 152.4 metres from its confluence with the Kachandi *nala*. Upstream a large number of coal-seams of various thickness occur in the northern and north-eastern portions of the Korba area. The coal-seams occurring in the beds of various streamlets joining the Phylakdi *nala* between Subidhera and Dumardih, are non-coking and upto 0.9 metres thick.

Three seams occur in the low lying tract north of Kesla measuring 0.9, 1.2 and 1.5 metres, respectively, in thickness. In the hilly region outcrops of coal, some of them fairly thick, are present in sandstone cliffs giving rise to waterfalls. Some of the more important of these seams are described here:—Two seams of coal and shaly coal within 1.6 km. east of Mauhar; four exposures about 3.2 km. east and northeast of Patriapalli; several outcrops of varying thickness, three of which are 1.8 m., 3.6 m. and 5.4 m. thick lying north and northeast of Gahania; one 5 m. thick seam along the bed of a rapid about 3.2 km. E.N.E. of Parsakhoal. Four seams also occur about 5.6 km. N.N.E. of Chhuiha of which three are 6.7 metres thick and the fourth 0.9 metre thick. For the estimation of reserves, prospecting in greater detail, including drilling, will be necessary. The results of analyses of 23 samples from different outcrops of coal show moisture to range between 4 and 8 per cent, the ash content in four samples is below 13 per cent and in three samples it is above 18 per cent.

Dolomite

Dolomite has been located at the following places:—(i) West and southwest of Akaltara (ii) near Banerwar, (iii) around Jairamnagar (iv) near Ralia (v) Parsada, (vi) near Chhatona and Hirri and at several places on both sides of the Arpa river. In these deposits dolomite crops out nearly 0.60 m. above the ground level. The material is usually of light grey to pinkish yellow colour and medium to coarse-grained in texture. Near Akaltara outcrops of dolomite extend for about 8 km. south of the railway line and the occurrence at Chhatona continues towards the south-west for several kilometres as far as Maniari *nadi* through Hirri. It is assumed that there will be no dearth of material suitable for use in the iron and steel industry.

Felspar

An occurrence of felspar was reported at Jali but no workable deposit is known in the area. A number of quartzfelspar pegmatites have been recorded occurring as veins in the crystalline rocks around Jogisar, Umarkhoi, Koti Khurd, Tikar Khurd, Keonchi, Choltipani, Pidha, Sadwani and several other localities. These felspars are mostly associated with quartz and occasionally show graphic intergrowth making it difficult to mine and separate the felspars on a commercial scale.

Gold

A former gold mine is mentioned beneath the hill, at Sonakhan. Gold was reported to occur about 9.6 km. north of Lormi but on investigation neither the sands in the streams nor quartz-reefs were found to contain even a trace of gold. A certain amount of mineralisation has been noticed in a brecciated vein that runs along the shear zone between Kosabari and Tingipur. Presence of gold was indicated by microchemical test carried out on small specimen.

Iron Ore

Old workings for iron-ores have been observed around Lokhan where two types of ores, probably used by ancient iron smelters, are found; (i) Grey rather soft hematite ore found in fine stringers, veinlets and small nodules, and (ii) hard and massive ore found in greater abundance. Hematite and magnetic stringers and infillings have been found in a faultbriccia about 3.2 km. north-north-west of Paraswara. Several small nodules of hematite have been found in the pegmatites near Umarkhoi. None of these occurrences appear to be of any commercial importance. Old workings of iron-ores have been noticed on the southern slopes of Rajmergarh Plateau about 3.2 km. W.N.W. of Deosara about the same distance south of Murghusri. None of these deposits is of economic value.

Lead

The occurrence of stringers and nests of galena are reported to occur in a bed of limestone exposed in the bed of the Mahanadi under the village of Padampur. The deposit is said to be of no economic importance.

Limestone

Extensive deposits of limestone exist in this District. The major occurrences are those around Gobripat, south of Lormi near Maharpur, about 3.2 km. of Paraswara, on the hill 1930', around Baradwar, between Anne and Mahuakapa, west of Pohgaria, around Belpan, east of Limha and around Bijaipur. Reserves of these deposits have been estimated to the order of several million tonnes, but the material is not of sufficiently good quality, the lime quantity varying from 27.30 to 30.51 per cent and the magnesia content from 19.76 to 20.45 per cent. By suitable blending, some of the stone may be used as fluxing material.

Limestone occurs as discontinuous patches beginning in the east from Birgahani and Darrabhata on the western bank of the Hasdo river right upto Akaltara and Latia in the west. The individual limestone deposits are located at Birgahani, Darrabhata, 1.2 km. east of Pali, about 1.6 km. north of Sarkhon, Karmāndi, Karmanda, around Akaltara, north-east of Khaira, north and east of Ghatora, Mohtara and Kosamdih. At these localities the materials are fine-grained and practically with no overburden but sometimes interbedded with calcareous shales. The best development is near Akaltara, where the limestone

belt extends for about 1.6 km., parallel to the railway line. The bend is 7.6 km. thick in quarries near Akaltara. The limestone at the localities mentioned above is of cement grade. The deposit at Mohtara alone is estimated to yield more than ten million tonnes of high grade material suitable for use as flux in iron and steel industry. Siliceous and impure limestones of little economic importance have been reported near Badaura, Jhiria, Kalan, Narsingpur, Rahmankapa, Sagona Sindana and Kota. A sample from Sagona contains R_2O_3 4.58%; SiO_2 5.11%, CaO 28.47% and MgO 18.69%.

Grey, medium grained, bedded dolomitic limestone is exposed in the *nala* section north of Chitapandaria near Akalsara, Bhutidih and in a few other places. Dolomitic limestone is noticed in the old quarries south of Deragarh and it is quarried at about 1.6 km. south of Dumarpara. Several small deposits of tuffaceous limestone occurring intercalated with shales have been noted in a *nala* about 1.6 km. east of Rahmankapa. They are too impure to be made use of. Lameta limestone is reported from around Choktipani and towards north-west of Keonchi on the eastern slopes of the Maikal range which is burnt locally for lime.

Manganese

Occurrence of low grade manganese-ore has been reported from near Ratanpur, Kuraimunda and Kori. The minerals observed in these areas are pyrolusite, psilomelane, manganite and wad. Around Ratanpur they occur mostly as residual concentrations in a tight syncline and around Kori and Kuraimunda as concentration within the quartzites, occurring as hard concretionary mass and mammillary bodies. The ore is of low grade and mostly ferruginous, with the manganese content between 13.28 and 40.37 per cent, although the phosphorus content is low (ranging between 0.02 and 0.06 per cent).

Manganese ore is also reported to occur at Gorakona (Kamrakhol, $22^{\circ}19':81^{\circ}26'$). The deposit consists of nodular fragments and of psilomelan pyrolusite with remnants of quartz, chert and quartzite and has been traced for about 1 km. along the foot of a hill between Gorakona and Munmunā. Neither of these occurrences appear to be of economic importance.

Mica

Mica is reported to have been obtained from numerous pegmatite veins occurring near Komachoki. The mica obtained from this place did not exceed 5 m. square and was of second-rate. Some of the pegmatites around Umerkhoi are reported to contain fairly large flakes of white mica about 5 m. across and occurring in books of 02.5 cm. or more in thickness. The mica flakes are highly stained and crumpled on the surface.

Pyrite

Pyrite has been reported to occur as disseminations in the limestones in the bed of the Chapi nala about 1 km. W.N.W. of Sildana. These occurrences are only of academic interest.

Water

The rocks in rural areas of the southern part of the District consist mostly of limestones and subordinate bands of shales. Both the limestone and the shale are poor aquifers; and the available water in these rocks is found in joints and along bedding planes. Dug-wells with a wide diameter are the best means of obtaining water. Water in small quantity is available in granites and pegmatites accumulated in their joints and cracks. Water for drinking purposes and domestic use is generally available under the cover of weathered laterite.

The likely source of water supply for Bilaspur town is the Arpa river. Although the river dries up to a large extent before the onset of the monsoon it continues to have a fair amount of underground flow. Well sunk in the river bed would be able to supply the required quantity of water for the water-works.

Earthquakes and Tremors¹

The District is a part of the stable Peninsular shield region of India known as 'Horst Black'. This region is outside the main earthquake belt of India, namely the Himalayan arc, but gets sympathetic shocks, which are generally feeble when severe earthquakes occur in the latter area.

Records of various Indian earthquakes show that this District was never disturbed beyond the intensity of the Fifth Isoleist (Great Earthquake of 12th June, 1897) as per Rossi-Forel Scale, and Isoleistal-V (Bihar-Nepal Earthquake of 15th January, 1934) of the Mercalli Scale. The fifth Isoleist includes places where the earthquake was smart enough to be generally noticed, but not severe enough to cause any damage. Isoleistal V is defined as rather strong, felt generally indoors, but by few outside, with waking of those asleep, with alarm of some persons, rattling of doors, ringing of bells, rather large oscillation of suspended objects, stopping of clocks, etc., with acceleration 100 mm. per sec. McAdie. For engineering constructions the safety factor for this acceleration due to earthquake may be taken into consideration.

Many earthquakes originating in the Himalayan region have caused feeble to moderate tremors in the District, as short description of which given below:

1. Mathura Earthquake of 1st September 1803:—Very feeble tremor was felt in the northern part of the District which had fallen within the seismic area for the earthquake.

1. Courtesy- Director General of Observatories and Geophysics, Govt. of India, Delhi.

2. Cutch Earthquake of 16th June, 1819:—The whole District was covered by the farthest end of the seismic area, where tremors were very feeble.
3. Nepal Earthquake of 26th August, 1833:—Only the north-eastern part of the District was covered by the farthest end of the seismic area.
4. Deccan Earthquake of 1st April, 1843 (Epicentre near Bellary):—Feeble shocks were felt.
5. Burmah Earthquake of 24th August, 1858:—At Chhota Nagpur and westwards. It was felt so slightly that no note was taken, but two distinct waves with duration less than half a minute, and apparently from east to west were felt at Hazaribagh in Bihar.
6. Earthquake of 23rd May, 1866:—Slight tremors were felt in the District when some houses fell in Jabalpur.
7. Earthquake of 30th September, 1868:—Tremors were felt in the District when three distinct undulations lasting 45 seconds with loud rumbling noise rocked Hazaribagh in Bihar.)
8. The Great Assam Earthquake of 12th June, 1897 (Epicentre-Shillong Plateau):—Shock was felt in the whole of the District and the intensity was of the order of Fifth Isoleist as per Rossi-Forel Scale, which was not severe enough to cause any damage.
9. Kangra Earthquake of 4th April, 1905:—Bilaspur was included in the II and III Isoleist as per Rossi-Forel Intensity Scale, where the shocks were felt by a few sensitive people lying down or favourably situated.
10. Bihar-Nepal Earthquake of 15th January, 1934:—The District was included in the Isoleistal V of the Mercalli Scale.¹

At Bilaspur the Tahsildar reported that the shock was not felt by persons moving on cycles or carriages. A few *pucca* buildings were cracked slightly. The Railway authorities reported two shocks separated by an interval of 30 seconds. Persons asleep felt as if the beds were pushed from below. Houses swayed slightly in a north-south direction. A clock on the western wall of the Railway Station Settlement stopped, but that on the northern wall did not. Hanging flower pots swayed violently north-south, tiles of roofs made a rubbing noise and doors, windows and bolts rattled.

At Katghora the local Tahsildar reported two shocks preceded by a noise like that of a heavy lorry.

1. Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. 19, Pt. I, 1883; Vol. 29, 1899; Vol. 38, 1910; and Vol. 73, 1939.

At Mungeli one continuous shock with a sound like that of an approaching train was noted. Most persons felt the shock, which caused doors and windows to rattle. Hanging objects swung east-west. Hair-cracks appeared in some walls including the strong room of the Treasury. Some persons felt giddy.

At Janjgir the local Tahsildar reported two shocks in succession accompanied by sound like that of an aeroplane or motor car in motion. Persons resting felt the shocks, doors and windows rattled and the observers' seat moved.

11. Besides, the earthquake of West Nimar on the Satpura (21°32' N; 75°50' E) was also felt in the District.

Flora

The flora of the District is virtually limited to the forests. This has been effected by the successive workings in the Bilaspur Forest Division, i.e., the north-western part of the District. The forests of North Bilaspur Forest Division were under the control of various *zamindar* families. They have reduced the forests to the condition of devastation. In the plains and clearings, it is only the remnants of some tree species and the seasonal growths that come to the sight. The best forests exist on the Maikal hill range in Lormi, Lamni and Kota Forest Ranges. Among the tahsils, Mungeli Tahsil preserves the best forests in the District. There are no forests in Sakti Tahsil and only about 57 sq. miles (138 sq. km.) of area is forested in Janjgir Tahsil. Of the total of 3,403 sq. miles (8,814 sq. km.) of forest area in the District, only 527 sq. miles (1,365 sq. km.) are under the Reserves, all included in Bilaspur Forest Division. About 1,367 sq. miles (3,540 sq. km.) of forest area is classed as Protected Forest, and included in the two Forest Divisions. The remaining 1,509 sq. miles (3,908 sq. km.) are small patches of Forests controlled by the Revenue Department. Thus, it is to mark that, though the forest area is quite large in the District, only a small percentage of the same is well protected and under scientific management.

Table No. 1:5

Tahsilwise Distribution of each class of forest in square miles

Tahsil	Reserved Forests	Vested Forests taken over by the Forest Department	Forests under the control of the Revenue Department	Total
Mungeli	424	114	74	612
Bilaspur	67	343	625	1,035
Katghora	—	910	789	1,699
Janjgir	36	—	21	57
District Total	527	1,367	1,509	3,403

Source: Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur.

The forests of North Bilaspur Division have neither been studied fully nor their working plans approved and published so far. For this reason the information available for this area is scanty.

Composition and Condition of the Crop

The forests of Bilaspur division can be broadly classed under Sal and Mixed forests. The Sal forests present a stable climax in harmony with climatic, edaphic and biotic factors. On some hill tops the retrogression that has resulted in the creation of blanks, as also the grass lands have been the direct result of biotic influences like the heavy fellings made for cultivation, heavy grazing, repeated fires and impoverished soil. The grass lands are seral in nature.

Under Champion's classification in his 'Forest Types of India and Burma', the Moist Sal forests fall under the Northern Tropical Moist Deciduous Forests, and the Dry Sal and Mixed Forests under the Southern Tropical Dry Deciduous Forests.

They occur over extensive areas, from the margins of the Chhattisgarh plain to the slopes of the Maikal range. The Sal forests have a tendency to grow pure and grow best on well-drained flat plains, low hills, gentle slopes and valleys. Deep loamy soils in Kota, Lamni and Lormi ranges provide condition for the best growth. Sal is by far the commonest and most important tree. It is luxuriant in Lormi Range and retains its leaves nearly throughout the year. The quality of *sal* varies from II to IVb. The general quality is M.P. III. This is slightly inferior to those in the eastern parts of India.

The chief associates of *sal* in the top storey are *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *dhaora* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), etc. Bamboos are common in the *sal* forest and they soon cover the opened up areas. The undergrowth consists of *banrahar* (*Flemingia* sp.), *chhind* (*Phoenix acaulis*), etc., and is very dense in cool and shady localities. At places *mohti* covers up the area completely making it difficult for the *sal* seedlings of tree species to come up. In the areas of Lormi and Lamni ranges *bhandar* grows densely, particularly along *nala* and river banks.

The common grasses found are, *ghonad* or *chhira* (*Anthistiria ciliata*), *kusal* (*Andropogon contortus*), *chhir* (*Imparata arundinacea*), etc.

The important climbers frequently met with are *mahul* (*Bauhinia vahlii*), *gurur* (*Milletia auriculata*), *palasbel* (*Butea superba*), *remdaton* (*Smilax macrophylla*), and a few others. Of all the climbers, *mahul* or *mohlein* is most luxuriant in cool shady places and is frequently met with on the slopes of the Maikal and other hills.

A list of associate flora in the Sal and Mixed forests of the District is given in Appendix.

The sal forest can be broadly classed as (i) Dry Sal and (ii) Moist Sal.

This type is met with on shallow, loose sandy and friable soils on hill sides or flat grounds in the areas below the *ghats* including Kota Range and on the plain country side in Baloda Range. The type Dry Sal is not of very great economic importance as compared to the other type. Long, hot and dry seasons are characteristic with short cold weather. Occurrence of frost is rare. The quality classes met with are low, mainly M.P. IVa and IVb, and the site is incapable of growing large sized timber. Mixed species are abundant and *sal* occurs in small patches and strips along banks of the *nalas*. The canopy is rather open with a heavy cover of grass. Stunted and badly shaped boles are characteristic of the crop. The natural reproduction in whippy stage is fair, though establishment is slow and difficult due to severe and repeated fires and heavy grazing.

It is found in Lamni Range. The *sal* occurs in almost pure form over large stretches. The crop is of good M.P. quality III. The soil is well-drained sandy loam or heavy loam. The locality is mostly hilly with gentle slope, and flat hill tops. The rock is characteristically laterite in association with the trap. The dry season is well marked but is not very severe. The forests had been subjected to severe borer attacks and droughts in the North Forest Division, where the crop is open and of young to middle age. The production is found established.

They are mostly found in patches in the midst of *sal* forests and in the plain area, including parts of Lormi, Kota and Baloda Ranges. Generally the Mixed forests are met with on upper slopes and flat *dadars* of the hills. The general quality of these forests is low, it being M.P. IV. Good patches of M.P. quality III and quality II are found along the rich alluvial deposits of *nalas* and rivers. The crop is uneven-aged, the bulk of the crop being young to middle aged, with few scattered old patches often met with along the banks of *nalas* and rivers. Reproduction from coppice is satisfactory. Grazing is heavy in these areas as they adjoin populated villages. The fires are common in these regions. The common species met with are more or less the same as in the *Sal* forests, the proportion of all other species increased.

Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) are common on the hill slopes and on areas above the *ghat*. Their growth is luxuriant on hill slopes and tend to become pure. Bamboos are absent from the interior pure *sal* areas and the only species met with is *Dendrocalamus strictus*. *Katang bans* (*Dendrocalamus strictus*)

is sometimes cultivated and is found wild in damp localities. In Baloda Range they are restricted to fewer localities and are absent on the plains in the Mixed forests but are in abundance on the hill slopes, and along the *nalas*, above the *ghats* in Lormi, Lamni and Kota ranges.

(i) The hill slopes with shallow soil and quartzmicaschist gravel, support poor and open crop, chiefly of *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) and other species. Bamboos are not congested and are absent in places. Grasses are comparatively thin and of poor variety. *Chhind* is common in frosty localities.

(ii) *Thuar*, *keolari*, *kachnar*, etc., are common in moist and cool localities.

(iii) *Kulu* (*Sterculia urens*) occurs in dry localities, particularly on the southern part of Lormi Range. Elsewhere it is found scattered on the hills in Kota and Baloda ranges.

(iv) *Semal* (*Bombax malabaricum*) occurs scattered, and is chiefly met with on flat alluvial deposits along the *nalas*, e.g., on the banks of the Kuba *nala*.

(v) *Kusum* (*Schleichera eleosa*) is met with commonly along the banks of the Maniari *nadi* and is abundant near Karidongri forest village.

(vi) *Garari* (*Cleistanthus collinus*) is profuse on the gentle hill slopes in Lormi Range and in parts of Kota Range. In Baloda Range it is found in compact patches on the plain country and on gentle slopes of the hills.

(vii) *Sabai* (*Eulaliopsis binata*) is commonly met with on open well-drained soils. It is common in the Lormi Range and on the slopes of innumerable hills around Chirhatta in Lamni Range.

Bijasal, *bija*, or *bijra* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) is a valuable timber ranking next to teak. On account of the close-grained structure of the wood, the timber is sometimes used for making drumcases of the Indian Useful Trees *dhol*. This species also yields the gum *kino* of commerce. The *shisham* (*Dalbergia latifolia*) is another dark coloured wood used for ornamental furniture making. *Saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) is found in extensive areas although it attains large dimensions. The bark is, however, used for tanning and the ash-remains of the wood are the village *Dhobi's* washing material. The tree yields gum when tapped. *Kahua* (*Terminalia arjuna*) is the graceful tree found along water-courses. The wood has no better value as timber than *saj*. *Dhaura* (*Anogeissus latifolia*) makes very strong cart axles.

The bark is locally used for tanning. *Senha* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*) is the most popular timber of the agriculturists. *Kalmi* or *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*) yields a beautiful yellow timber which could be used for furniture making. *Murhi* (*Stephegine parvifolia*) yields timber of a little lighter colour than *kalmi*. Mango (*Mangifera indica*) grows wild in groves along water-courses and is better known on account of its fruit than its timber. The tree is capable of being infected with lac. *Gular* (*Ficus glomerata*) and *jamun* (*Eugenia jambolana*) grow wild along nullah banks; the timber is much used for the manufacture of well curbs and the fruits are edible. *Gumhar* or *khamhar* (*Gmelina arborea*) is sometimes valued as timber for furniture making. *Karra* (*Lebidieropsis orbicularis*) is the main house building wood of the poorer classes. *Dhaman* (*Grewia tiliaefolia*) makes fine cart shafts. *Tinsa* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*) is a strong and heavy timber, much used for making cart shafts and naves. *Bhirra* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*) is the satin wood tree.

The seeds of the *kharhar* (*Gardenia turgida*) produce a lather when mixed and rubbed with water, which is then sometimes used to wash clothes. The wood is very flexible and can be bent round to prepare frames of the Useful Shrubs *dhapla* or *chang* (an Indian rustic drum). *Dhawai* (*Woodfordia floribunda*) is a shrub which yields a resin useful as an insect killer. The unripe fruit of the *mainphal* (*Randia dumetorum*) is used to poison fish. *Makai* or *makor* (*Zizyphus oenoplia*) is a straggling and thorny shrub giving only good fencing material to the agriculturist. The fruit is eaten. *Marorphal* (*Helicteris isora*) is known by its twisted fruit and the bark is utilised for making rope.

The jungles are well stocked with edible roots and fruits and they are an immense resource to the hill tribes who have not unfrequently to remain content with a "dinner of herbs". The tamarind, the *mahua*, the Edible and Medicinal Fruits and Roots *tendoo*, the *char*, the *jamun*, the *gusto*, the *awura*, and the *bel*, are the fruits in ordinary use, and are most palatable. Then for medicinal purposes, instinct and experience have prompted the use of many plants, and those who are learned in their application are much resorted to. For fever, decoctions are made of *nim*, *chinhour*, *dowjurree*, and *goorich*. For dysentery, *bel* and *gindale* are used. For weakness, *bohar*, *buriaree*, *goorsukree* and *kesurwa*, for indigestion *awura*, *dunbaihra* and *satour*, for rheumatism *bunsemi* and *baihra*, for headaches, *jusmoor* and *dusmoor* are used. There are a host of simple remedies for all ordinary and general complaints.

Of industrial products, the lac is extensively in demand. The insect covers the tiny branches of the *koosum* tree (*Schleichera trijuga*) with its coral-like protuberances. The crusty material thus formed, including Lac and Silk bearing Plants several insects, in its recesses constitutes the stick lac of commerce and produces, when manufactured, the deep red dye. Each tree yields from 20 to 30 lbs., a portion being left to reproduce

the material in demand. As a consequence, the *koosum* is preserved as a valuable property. Following lac, resin is a product in considerable demand. This is extracted from the *sal* trees (*Shorea robusta*) which are generally ringed in the process instead of being punctured. The ringed trees speedily dry up.

The tassar cocoons supply the useful silk so esteemed by the community. During monsoon they are found feeding on the *saj* tree (*Pentaptera glabra*).

Forest Management and Results

The records show that the forests have been worked irregularly by the contractors since 1861. Most of the Reserve forests came under Reservation in 1878. Until 1888 these were under the control of the Deputy Reserved Forests Commissioner of the District when they were made over to the Forest Department. Forest protection measures were taken up in 1888. Upto 1893-94 the forests were open to the extraction of timber on licences; for the inferior species, bamboos, fuel, grasses, and all other minor products, no restriction being imposed as to the locality from which the material was obtained. In 1893-94 another system of localised fellings was introduced by which the felling of all green wood was prohibited except from coupes specially marked off for this purpose. But dry timber, dead and dry fuel grass, and bamboos could be removed as heretofore from any part of the forests, provided a license was first purchased at a revenue post for the quantity of material required. Working plans for Chitta Perdaria Reserve in the old Pantora range were in force in 1898. A complete working-plan for the forests of Lormi, Lamni and Kota Ranges of Bilaspur Division was prepared in 1898. The working-plan was introduced in 1910 in the rest of the Reserves. These plans prescribed Improvement Fellings with Standards. Small blocks were worked on Coppice-with-standards.

The entire present Bilaspur Forest Division was covered by J.W. Best, under the working-plan of 1912, which was based on stock-mapping. In addition to *Sal* (Improvement) high forest, and Coppice-with-standards, the Bamboo and Grazing working circles were formed. Fire protection was also prescribed. On the whole the prescriptions of the plan resulted in the systematic control of the forests. Depletion of healthy stock was stopped and the young crop was given requisite safeguards for growing. The old unsound and malformed growth was replaced by sound and straight-bole crop.

Between 1933-34 and 1953-54 the Reserved forests were worked on Jagd-amba Prasad's Plan, which created a Coppice working circle and abolished the Grazing working circle. This was revised in 1936 and 1939 to reduce fellings of immature growth and to liberate regeneration under the frost-shelter wood. A rough guide to frost-labile areas was given. The experience showed that the Protection Blocks (P.B.) were not allotted properly. The reduction of regeneration period from 30 to 20 years proved destructive. The forest capital was further reduced by the demands of World War II during 1939-45. The draught

of 1942 killed back a good number of *Sal* trees. The borer attack also necessitated some fellings of mature *Sal* trees in Lormi, Lamni and Kota Ranges.

Deep Singh's Plan of 1954 divided the Reserved forests in 9 working circles, namely, Protection, *Sal* conversion, Improvement fellings, Coppice-with-Reserves, Bevar, Bamboo (Overlapping), Kulu (Overlapping), Plantation, and Miscellaneous. This plan dealt with a number of new fields in forestry. Only light fellings were prescribed in the steep hillsides under Protection Working Circle. It proposed to allot small areas for *bewar* cultivation in each village where Baiga people resided. Better quality *Sal* forests were worked to convert the crop into graded age groups for sustained supply of healthy pole. Plantation of teak, *semal*, *sisoo* and other soft wood species, and *sabai* grass was prescribed. This plan was to expire in 1968-69.

The District contained 2, 653 square miles of private forests, of which 756 square miles belonged to *malguzars* and 1, 897 square miles to *zamindars* in 1908.

With the exception of Ratanpur and Lormi all *malguzari* forests of the District were little better than scrub. These jungles were included in village boundaries and the tenants of the respective villages had rights of *nistar* over them. The *zamindari* forests were very extensive and belonged to the *zamindars* of Pandaria, Kenda, Lapha, Matin, Pendra, Uprora, Chhuri, Champa and Korba. The vegetation, once probably very rich, has now been carelessly hacked out, the silvicultural principles have been absolutely disregarded and in nearly every case the forests have been over-cut, neglected and overgrazed. Apparently the only object in their treatment has been to make revenue out of them and to get as much produce as possible with the least trouble and expense. On the advent of the railways *zamindars* gave contracts sometimes at ridiculously low rates. Purchasers were allowed to cut and extract produce without the restriction and rules usually imposed in Government forests. It was clearly asserted from the beginning that *zamindars* were liable to Government restrictions in regard to the exploitation of their forests. The earliest rules (issued in 1867) simply declared that the forests of each *zamindari* should be managed under the rules obtaining in Government unreserved forests and that no arrangement for felling trees over a term of more than one year, or for the sale of more than 1,000 trees of the reserved kinds, should have effect without the Deputy Commissioner's sanction. However, the rules issued in 1867 were not enforced and the destruction of valuable forest continued. Then a formal attempt was made to stop destruction of *zamindari* forests in the Settlement of 1890. The forests of each *zamindari* (taken to consist of the balance of area after the exclusion of villages selected for survey) were constituted into *mahals* within the meaning of article 46 of the Land Revenue Act, and rules were imposed for their control. But in practice they were not enforced. Timber cutting, *dahia* cultivation and the ringing of *sal* trees for resin, etc., were regulated solely by the extent of the *zamindars'* own interest in the conservation of their forests.

Subsequently, *zamindars* were advised to prepare their own forest working plans and get them approved by the Forest Department. These were carried out but their actual working deteriorated the conditions further as the plans only provided a cover to the liberties of the ex-proprietors.

In 1950 the *zamindaris* were abolished. The news had come to the knowledge of all concerned and the proprietors nearly exhausted the forests to achieve their last gains within the short time they were to remain the landlords. After the Abolition of the *zamindari* and *malguzari* the private forests were first handed over to the Revenue Department which managed the remnant of the flora through the elected village headmen, the Patel and Patwari. These people were no less particular in making money and allowing the villagers to rob the forests for whatever ends.

However, the larger blocks of forests, handled by the Forest Department, are being managed as Protected Forests in both the Forest Divisions of Bilaspur District. The Working Schemes for (i) Kenda Range of North Bilaspur Division (1962-63 to 1981-82), (ii) Pendra Range of North Bilaspur Division (1963-64 to 1972-73), and (iii) Bilaspur and North Bilaspur Division (1966-67 to 1985-86) have been prepared.

The first step towards forest conservancy in Bilaspur District was taken in the year 1861. Since then there has been continued progress towards better management of forests. In order to commemorate the centenary of the Forest Conservancy in Madhya Pradesh the Forest Divisions of the District also celebrated the Centenary by raising 100 acres of teak plantation, each in Kota and Baloda Ranges in compartment No. 171-Coupe No. IV of Kota Conservancy Working Reserved and compartment No. 25, Baloda Conservancy Working Reserve, at a spacing of 9' x 9'. In addition, selected trees were preserved for life in different compartments of Reserved forests. Two preservation plots were established—one of *Sal* (*Shorea robusta*) in compartment No. 121, coupe No. C/II P.B.I. Sarasdol *Sal* Coupes (10 acres) in Kota Range and the other plot of *Saja* (*Terminalia tementosa*) in compartment No. 463 (b), coupe No. VII, Bijrakachhar I.F.S. over 38 acres.

Plantations

The Government of India sponsored a scheme for the "Plantations of fast growing species". The Government of Madhya Pradesh sanctioned expenditure for its implementation and the scheme was initiated. A new Plantation Division was, therefore, created in Bilaspur Conservator Circle, with headquarters at Bilaspur, which started functioning from 1st August, 1962 for the implementation of this scheme. The entire civil District of Bilaspur forms the jurisdiction of this Plantation Division. But the actual working is confined to Plantation centres only. There are 15 plantation centres in this Division.

Table No. I-6

Area Planted in Bilaspur District and Expenditure Incurred

Year	Species Planted	Area under each Species in hectare	Total area planted	Expenditure Rs.
1962-63	Teak, Semal, Maharukh, Salai, Baranga	280	280	1,86,345.40
1963-64	Eucalyptus-Hybrid, Bamboo, Teak	312 10 800	1,122	4,39,616.98
1964-65	Eu. Hybrid, Teak, Bamboo	1,112 110 2	1,224	7,38,335.72
1965-66	Eu. Hybrid, Teak, Bamboo	1,002 30 168	1,200	7,59,681.77
1966-67	Eu. Hybrid	1,333.20	1,332.20	7,09,094.31
1976-68	- do—	1,400	1,400	4,39,361.56 (upto Aug. 67)

Source: Divisional Forest Officer, Bilaspur Division.

Soil Conservation

To check soil-erosion in the forest areas, a Soil Conservation Division was formed. It worked from 9th March 1965 to 28th February 1967. To conserve the soil and to reduce the velocity of running water during the rains earthen, or boulder, or mixed check-dams and contour bunds were prepared. Peripheral bunds were also constructed in the hilly areas. In soar-forest areas patch-planting was carried out to cover the open land. Experiments were also carried out to cover the *bhata* land with suitable species of grass and trees.

Soil Conservation work was taken up on a total of 4,000 acres in 15 centres and cultural operations were carried out in 5 centres. As many as 8 nurseries were formed in various parts of the District. The chief species chosen for plantation were eucalyptus, *bija*, *khamdar*, *babool*, *auriculi*, *farmis*, *bamboo*, *mango* and *tendu*.

Table No. I-7

Area of Soil Conservation and Number of Trees Planted

S. No.	Conservation Centre	Area in Acres	No. of Plants
1.	Gatauri	2.5	4,656
2.	Makhanpur	20.0	7,169
3.	Sutarra	269.0	35,936
4.	Mohambhata	150.0	—
5.	Lodinala	573.0	44,745
6.	Tuman	380.0	105,698
7.	Barbaspur	529.0	56,150
8.	Dondro	21.0	11,460
9.	Baradwar	476.0	Nil
10.	Rajkhamba	403.0	"
11.	Madanguwan	266.5	"
12.	Til'eja	113.0	"
13.	Mohda	203.0	"
14.	Khaira	200.0	"
15.	Mohgaon	294.0	"

Source: Conservator of Forest, Bilaspur

Rules for the Preservation of Wild Life

The provisions of the Wild Birds and Animal Protection Act (VIII of 1912), the Indian Forest Act (1927) and the Shooting Rules made thereunder, the Central Provinces Game Act (1935) and the Central Province and Berar Game Rules (1942) made under the Game Act (1935), control and regulate the hunting, shooting, fishing, netting, or setting traps and snares for the wild games in the District. The Forest Divisions are divided into several regular Shooting Blocks for permit-holders only and some isolated small Reserved Forest Blocks for free shooting.

Two game sanctuaries, namely, Katra and Khuria Tank, with an area of 31.8 sq. miles and about 12 sq. miles, respectively, were formed in Bilaspur Forest Division but were abolished in 1942-43. The first was thought unnecessary while the latter was not well demarcated. The number of wild animals shot in the Bilaspur Forest Division only during the twelve years from 1940-41 to 1951-52 was recorded as: tiger -40, panther-24, bison-7, bear-12, pig-123, *sambhar*-52, *chitel*-66, *nilgai*-18, and other deer-40.

Fauna

The wild life used to be abundant in the past in the District, but it has been gradually decreasing. The remote areas, particularly the large forest blocks of Lapha, Matin, Uprora, Lormi, Lamni, Panra, Kenda, Kendai and Kota Ranges are rich in game.

During World War II when the army was stationed in the Reserved forests all over the District for jungle training, there had been over-shooting of the wild life, particularly of *sambhar* and *cheetal*, which have since declined in number excepting in a few localities.

Only a few remote areas now carry some good game, as in the valleys around Kharidih and Chouradadar in the Karanjia Range, on the banks of the Kasnai *nadi* in the Lormi Range, around Lambi in the Lamni Range and in the areas adjoining Bindawal, Bankar and Sarasdoi in the Kota Range.

Some of the carnivora and a few herds of bisons are found along the Kasnai *nadi* around Surhi, Chirhatta and Samardhasan. The bear is rare and is mostly met with on the Maikal hill range. The game is scarce in the Baloda Range due to the Reserved forests being in small isolated blocks. Only around Khondra some game, a few tigers and spotted deer are seen. The number of some wild animals estimated to be in the forests of North Bilaspur Forest Division is given in the Appendix. A short description of species occurring in the District is given below.

Carnivora

The tiger, *bagh* or *sher* (*Felis tigris*) is found in all the forest tracts of the District. Its favourite haunts are around the *sal dahiyans* of Pendra, Kenda, Matin and Uprora. It does not run to the great length of the Bengal tiger but is generally a very heavily built animal. The largest male tiger shot in these parts measured 10'2" in length. The tigers are very destructive to game and cattle, and in the hot weather they keep close to a stream for water and often follow a herd of tame buffaloes for months, killing every third or fourth day. As a rule tigers breed in February and March, the tigress generally throwing two or three cubs. The cubs remain with the mother for about three years, when they are almost full grown. In the wet weather tigers retire to the hills following the game and avoiding flies. Cases are known of tigers dying from wounds caused by porcupine quills. A white tiger was shot in the Pendra *zamindari* around the year 1904 and its skin was exhibited in the Central Provinces Exhibition of 1908-09.

The panther or *tendua* (*Felis pardus*) is fairly common in all parts of the District. Its availability in the North Bilaspur Forest Division is wider as shown by the figures given in Appendices. It is comparatively fearless of man and

consequently very destructive to cattle, goats and dogs. Locally, these are believed to be of two or three varieties.

The common jungle cat or *ban bilwa* (*Felis chaus*) is fairly common all through the District frequenting both jungle and open grass country. It feeds on the smaller game such as the partridge, hare and pea-fowl.

The lesser civet cat or *mushak billi* (*Viverra malaccensis*) is known as *bignaori* in Chhattisgarhi. Generally it is found in forests living in holes in the ground or trees. It feeds on small birds and animals. More than one at a time are rarely seen.

The mongoose (*Herpestes pallidus*) locally called *newara* is very common throughout the District. It is not a shy animal and often enters human dwellings in search of food. It is easily tamed if caught young. It is an extremely agile animal.

The striped hyaena (*Hyaena striata*), *lakarbaggha* or *rerua* is found in all parts of the District. It is a cowardly brute, living chiefly on carrion, but is not above taking a village goat now and then. It is almost entirely nocturnal and lives in burrows.

The Indian wolf (*Canis pallipes*) or *bheria* locally known as *bigwa* or *hundra*, is fairly common in the central and southern plains of the District and has sometimes done a great deal of damage, frequently attacking and carrying off children. It generally hunts in small packs.

The jackal (*Canis aureus*), *gidar* or *koliha* is very common throughout the District, except in dense forests. Jackals are frequently attacked with rabies.

The wild dog (*Canis rutilans*) or *sonkutta*, locally called *kogwa* destroys the game, more particularly in the hot weather. It attacks almost any animal and is reported to attack even the tiger. It is not considered a menace in this District, their number being small. It hunts in packs of ten to fifty. The wild dog has wonderful powers of scent, and hunts by daylight.

The Indian Fox (*Vulpes bengalensis*) or *lomri* is called *lakhurri* in Chhattisgarh. It is very common in the open country.

The wild elephants (*Elephas indicus*) *hathi* or *hathia*, were found in the forests of Matin and Uprora *zamindaris* in considerable numbers (about 300) in 1868 and a few were also recorded in 1908. But the wild stock has exhausted long back.

The Bengal Langur (*Semnopithecus entellus*) or *Karmuha*, is called *bendra* in Chhattisgarhi. It is found in all parts of the District being fairly common in the forests. It causes a good deal of damage to crops and fruit trees and is considered more or less sacred.

The small common red faced monkey (*Maccacus rhesus*) or *lalmuha bandar* is also called *bendva* in Chhattisgarhi. It is not so common as the *langur*. It generally inhabits slopes of hills with a southern aspect near nullahs and rivers. It is often to be seen in captivity and is still used for begging and other purposes.

The Indian sloth bear (*Melursus ursinus*) or *bhalu*, is found in the hilly forests of the District. In the North Bilaspur Forest Division it is commonly met with in Karanjia range, particularly around Sitalpani, Kharidih, and Bijori. A large male will measure over 6 feet from snout to root of tail. Females average about 5 feet 6 inches in length. It damages the fruit trees as it lives on fruits, honey, etc. Any bear if suddenly disturbed, especially she-bears with cubs, attacks human beings. It is easily tamed if caught young. The female has as a rule two cubs, born about January or February and carries them on her back. It is almost entirely nocturnal, sleeping nearly all day in caves or under trees in some shady spot.

The Indian antelope (*Antelope bezoartica*) or *hiran* is known as *harina*, or *karsayal*, in Chhattisgarhi. It has long horns and is found in the central parts of the District frequenting cultivated ground to which it does considerable damage. The bucks do not run to any great size, the horns being much smaller than that can be obtained in other parts such as Berar, and Rewa Division. The horns of this animal are used by natives as decorations in their marriage ceremonies and as an article of commerce for making fancy goods.

Porlax pictus (*Bos Elephas tragocamelus*) or *nilgai* is also known as *rojhin*. It is fairly common in the plain-forests of the District. It also destroys the field crops in the marginally located villages. The male does not attain his iron grey colour till almost full grown, young males being of the same colour as females. It lives in herds, grazes from evening to morning. When tamed it can be made to carry a pack. The flesh is coarse. In rare cases females have been known to develop the iron grey colour which males attain at maturity.

The four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*) or *chausinga*, though common in the large forest blocks, is very difficult to be shot at because of its shyness. The anterior horns are often only small knobs and in some cases are absent.

The gaur (*Gavaeus Bos gaurus*) is found in *sal* forests on flat terrain and the foot-hill regions, to the north-west and south-west of the District, generally in

herds of 5 to 25 owned by one gib bull. In the North Bilaspur Forest Division the herds are often seen along the Kasnai and Maniari *nalas* in Lormi Range, and along Matinara and Chirhatti in Lormi Range. Bulls seen in solitude are either too old or too young to own a herd. Old bulls are almost black. They have been known to charge when wounded. This animal prefers low hilly ground and lives on leaves and grass, young shoots of the bamboo being a favourite food. It is extremely shy. In the rains the gaur retires to the tops of the hills to get away from the flies. It is seldom molested by a tiger. A full grown bull stands between 17 and 18 hands at the withers.

The rib-faced deer (*Cervus muntjac*), *kakur*, or *bhasera* is fairly common in all the jungles of the District. It is generally found alone and utters a short bark, not unlike that of a terrier, when alarmed.

The *sambhar* (*Cervus unicolor*), is found in remote forests on dry ridges. It is strongly felt by the Forest officers of North Bilaspur Division that this species is disappearing from the Division. It is almost entirely nocturnal in its habits. Its horns are valuable both as trophies and as an article of commerce. The skin of the *sambhar* is exceptionally soft and is useful as leather for boots, etc. Stags shed their horns in April.

The spotted deer or *chital* (*Cervus axis*) is found throughout the forests of the District, living in herds. The male is called the *dhank*. It prefers more open mixed forest or grassy blanks on lower or flat tract than the *sambhar*, and never ranges far from water. The number of *chital* is mostly on the decline. Yet, in North Bilaspur Division it is often met with in Baloda Range, as also in the mixed forests of Lormi and Kota Ranges, particularly to the west of Khudia tank and along the banks of the Maniari river. Stags usually shed their horns in July.

The swamp deer (*Rucervus duvanucelli*) or *barasingha*, or *bagdaria* is found in open *sal* forests and grass glades. The appearance of the animal is singularly like that of the European stag. A good head is 37 inches long and has 12 points. The rut takes place in December and January, when the stags are very noisy and pugnacious, the whole forest ringing with their most peculiar call. After the rut the stags leave the hinds. The horns fall in April and at this season they assume the summer coat which exhibits distinct indications of spots and markings similar to those habitually worn by the *chital*. Their food consists almost entirely of grass.

The Indian mouse deer (*Meminna indica*) *pisuri*, or *khabri* is nearly always found solitary in dense forests. It is very timid and looks extremely delicate. It is of about the same weight as a hare and makes an excellent pet when caught young.

The white tailed Indian porcupine (*Hystrix leucura*) *seyi*, or *saih* is fairly common near the *nala* banks.

The common Indian otter (*Lutra vulgaris*) *panikutta*, or *ud* is found in all the larger rivers which flow through the District.

The flying fox (*Pteropus medius*) or *chamgidri* or *gidur* is often to be seen hanging on tamarind trees, in huge colonies. It lives on fruits and is easily caught in large numbers by putting nets round fruit trees. But this makes little difference in their numbers. They drink in the evenings flying over water and dropping down every now and then in their flight. The villagers assert that their flesh if boiled down makes a good medicine for rheumatism.

The wild boar (*Sus cristatus*) is plentiful and is found all over the forests particularly around grassy blanks and agricultural tracts.

The black buck and the *chinkara* are rare in the District.

Birds

All the usual game birds are found in the District. Ducks and snipe, visiting the District in winter, are commonly seen. Others are the goose, tufted pochard, red-crested pochard, the common teal and the whistling teal. Crane visits the Mahanadi in the cold season. The peafowl (*Pavo cristatus*) is common in forests with water bodies and cultivation close at hand. It is found mostly near the Village sites in Lormi Ranges of North Bilaspur Division. The spur and jungle fowls are met within only tracts, particularly in *Sal* forests. The grey partridge (*Orygornis pondicerians*) is common in low jungles around cultivation. Sand-grouses are also found but are less common. The bustard (*Chhattis homa*) is rarely found. The bush quail (*Perdicula asiatica*) known locally as *lava* and the grey quail (*Coturnix communis*) called *chimuk* are common. They resort to grassy plains and scrub forests. The *gundru* or bustard quail (*Turnix pugnax*) frequents jungle wastes, and the *turadabki* or the little button quail (*Turnix dussumieri*) is common over the grassy plains of the District. The spurred goose *nukta* (*Sarkidornis melanonotus*); the goose-teal, *girji* (*Nellapus coromandelianus*) and the whistling teal, *silli* (*Dendrocygna javanica*) breed in trees and resort to tanks and *jhils*, staying throughout the year. Green pigeons (*harial*) are found in wooded tracts feeding on various wild fruits. The blue rock pigeon or *kabutar* (*Columba intermedia*) haunts large buildings such as temples, tombs and mosques and also large solitary cliffs and trees. Species of herons and egrets commonly called *bugla* in the region are usually found around tanks, marshes and river banks. The plume of these birds are attractive. Swallow and swifts, or *baya* or *ababil*, king fishers or *kilkila* are much sought after for their skin and feathers. Woodpeckers called *lakarphora* abound in wooded tracts and sometimes are found in gardens and in the avenues planted on roadsides. Shrikes or *lahtor* inhabit open jungles. Drongo shrikes called *bhimraj*, fly-catchers, *mynas* and sparrows are also found in the District.

Fishes

The rivers and tanks are well stocked with numerous fish species which are a favourite article of food among all classes except vegetarians. The principal species of large fishes are *parhan*, *rechha*, *rohu*, etc., and of small variety, *singan mongri*, *karijewan*, etc. A large fish from a river may weigh 20 kg. The most abundant are *pariyans*, *kotra*, *kotri* and *kokya*. From the point of a zoologist the species of cat fishes, murrels, feather backs, spiny eels, glass fishes and other fishes, including the major and minor carps are given in Appendix.

Catla catla, *Labeo rohita*, *Cirrhina mrigala*, and *Labeo calbasu* among major carps, *Wallago attu*, all catfishes and *Ophicephalus marulius* among murrels are common in the ponds. Major carps are predominant because of intensification of carp culture. Kharung, Maniari and Ratanpur tanks are the important fish producing tanks in the District.

No major carps, except *Barbus* and *Labeo calbasu*, are the local fauna in rivers of the Mahanadi system. But all catfishes and murrels are commonly found. A few other carps species have also been reported at places in the rivers. It is understood that these might have found entry from the local tanks during the rains when the water bodies are inter connected. Dr. Hutchinson propounded a theory (before 1908) connecting too much eating of fishes with the prevalence of leprosy in the District. In the Mahanadi there is a *dahra* or deep pool near Jaipur and Barekel villages, from which many cartloads of fish are annually extracted. A number of small fishes are captured during the months in the rice fields and creeks filled by the back waters of the rivers in flood. The various devices in use in the District for catching fish are (1) the *mahajal* or great fishing net, (2) the pat or long net, (3) the *sokhi* or *bhanwar* jal, a cast net, (4) the *pailna* or small net fastened to a triangular frame, (5) the *halka* jal or frame net, (6) *hariyal*, a funnel shaped net, (7) *Danwar*, a baited line with several hooks, (8) *Dhir*, a bamboo wicker work, and (9) *Khandi* a cage like bamboo trap. At the close of the rains when the waters subside fishes are caught by the method known as *ulechna*.

Mortality from Reptiles and Beasts

During the 11 years from 1955 to 1965 as many as 645 persons died of snake-bite, and 308 persons were killed by wild animals. The Police-Stations of Gaurela, Pandaria, Katghora and Korba, each recorded more than 40 deaths caused by reptiles. The figures range between 31 and 40 in Masturi, Ratanpur, Kota, Marwahi, Pasan and Pali. The areas of all these Police Stations are hilly and forested. Plains are safer. About 67 per cent snake-bite deaths occurred during the rainy season, in the months of June, July, August and September. January, February and December, are the safest months.

The wild beasts took 37 human lives in Dabhra Police Station Circle. Between 21 and 30 persons were killed in Sakti, Korba, Jaijaipur and Gaurela

Circles. Bilaspur, Chakrabhata, Masturi, Ratanpur, Marwahi, Mungeli, Lormi, Kunda, and Patharia Circles recorded less than 5 deaths. The danger of wild animals is decreasing not only in the plains but also in many of the hilly areas. Monthly variations in the number of persons killed by wild animals are quite low.

Climate

The climate of this District is characterised by a hot dry summer and good seasonal rainfall in the south-west monsoon season. The region around Pendra in the north-western part of the District, being at a higher elevation than the rest of the District, has a comparatively milder summer. The cold season is from December to February. The hot season which follows continues to about the middle of June. The south-west monsoon season is from the middle of June to the end of September. October and November constitute the post-monsoon or retreating monsoon season.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the District are available for 15 stations, for 12 of which records are available for periods ranging from 34 to 94 years and for the rest for only 12 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the District as a whole are given in Appendix. The annual rainfall in the District is 1361.7 mm. (53.61"). The rainfall in the District generally increases from the west towards the east. About 87 per cent of the annual rainfall in the District is received during the south-west monsoon months, i.e. June to September, July being generally the rainiest month. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is not large. During the 50 year period from 1901 to 1950 the highest annual rainfall amounting to 133 per cent of the normal occurred in 1917. The lowest annual rainfall which was 71 per cent of the normal occurred in 1941. Rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal occurred in only 3 years in the District as a whole, none of them being consecutive. However, considering the annual rainfall at individual stations two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred twice at Janjgir and once each at Mungeli and Pasan. Even three consecutive years of such low rainfall have occurred once each at 5 out of the 15 stations. The annual rainfall in the District was between 1100 and 1600 mm. (43.31" and 62.99") in 41 years out of 50.

On an average there are 70 rainy days, (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5mm., 10 cents or more) in a year in the District. This number varies from 60 days at Dhanras and Barpalli to 79 days at Katghora.

The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the District was 379.2 mm. (14.93") at Dharampur on 18th July, 1933.

Temperature

There are two meteorological observatories in the District, one at Pendra-Road and the other at Champa. The records of these observatories are appli-

cable almost to the whole District, subject to variations in the local factors. Pendra is situated in the small region of the District near the north-western boundary which is at a higher elevation. As such, the temperatures at Pendra are generally lower by three to four degrees. From the beginning of March temperatures begin to increase rapidly. By May, which is the hottest month, the mean daily maximum temperature goes up to 43.0°C. (109.4°F.) except in the region in the higher elevation around Pendra where the mean daily maximum temperature is 38.4°C (101.1°F.). During May and the first half of June on individual days the day temperatures may rise up to about 48°C. (118.4°F.). The heat is intense over the major portion of the District and the dust raising scorching winds add to the discomfort. However, the afternoon thunder-showers which occur on some days bring welcome relief, though only temporarily. With the onset of the monsoon by about mid-June there is an appreciable drop in the day temperatures. After the withdrawal of the monsoon early in October there is rapid drop in the night temperatures with the progress of the season. The day temperatures, however, begin to decrease only after October. December and January form the coolest part of the year. The day temperature in the north-western hilly parts of the District in these two months is about 23.5°C. (74.3°F.) and the mean daily minimum is about 10°C. (50°F.). In the rest of the District, the temperatures are a little higher. On some days when the District experiences cold waves in association with the passage of western disturbances across the northern part of India the night temperatures sometimes drop down to a couple of degrees or so above the freezing point in the Pendra region. It is generally warmer by a few degrees in the southern parts of the District.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Pendra was 43.9°C. (111.0°F.) on 25th May, 1928 and 10th June, 1942 while at Champa the highest maximum temperature recorded was 47.2°C. (117.0°F.) on 22nd May, 1948 and 3rd June, 1953. The lowest minimum temperature recorded at Pendra Road was 1.7°C (35.1°F) on 2nd February, 1929. At Champa the lowest minimum was 7.2°C (45.0°F.) on 24th December, 1961.

Humidity

The relative humidities are high during the south-west monsoon season, being generally over 75 per cent. After the monsoon season humidity decreases. The driest part of the year is the summer season when humidities in the afternoon are generally about 25 per cent or less.

Cloudiness

Skies are heavily clouded or overcast in the monsoon season. In the latter half of the summer and post monsoon months there is moderate cloudiness, the afternoons being more cloudy than the mornings. During the rest of the year the skies are mainly clear or lightly clouded.

Winds

Winds are generally light with a little strengthening in the latter half of summer and the early part of monsoon season. In the South-west monsoon season winds are mostly south-westerly or westerly. But in the northernmost regions of the District northerly or north-westerly winds are also common. In the post-monsoon and winter months winds are mostly from directions between north-east except in the northern parts where they are from directions between north-west and north-east. In summer season in the northern parts winds are from south or south-west in the mornings and from north-west or north in the afternoons. In the rest of the District in this season winds are mostly from directions between south-west and north-west.

Special Weather Phenomena

During the South-west monsoon depressions originating in the Bay of Bengal cross the east coast and, moving in some westerly direction, pass through or in the neighbourhood of the District causing widespread and locally heavy rain and gusty winds. Occasionally post monsoon storms from the Bay of Bengal may also affect the weather over the District. Thunderstorms occur during the period from March to October, the highest incidence being during the south-west monsoon Season. Occasional dust-storms and dust-raising winds occur during summer. Fogs occur at times during January and February in the northern parts of the District.

The Tables in Appendix will show temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and special weather phenomena, respectively, for Pendra and Champa.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

Though the traditional cultural history of Bilaspur appears to have been wedged to the four cosmic ages, no direct historical references are available till the advent of the great Gupta Emperor Samudragupta in the 4th century A.D., leaving the intervening period to conjectures. During the first cosmic period, namely, the *Satyayuga*, Ratanpur, the ancient capital of Chhattisgarh, was known as Manipur. In the next two ages, namely the *Treta* and *Dwapar* when God appeared on the earth as Rama and Krishna, respectively, the name of the place was changed to Manikpur and Hirapur. And in the *Kaliyuga*, it is called Ratanpur. The meaning of all these names indicates that it was a town of precious stones, or otherwise a very rich and prosperous place.

In the second age, i.e., *Treta*, Dakshina Kosala was probably a colony of the Ikshvaku dynasty which was ruling over Uttar Kosala, with capitals at Ayodhya and Shravasti. This inference is drawn from the episode of the marriage of king Dashrath of Uttar Kosala with Kausalya, evidently a princess of another Kosala.¹ According to the local legend Turturiya Village in Baloda Bazar tahsil of Raipur district was Valmiki's hermitage, where Lord Rama's younger son, Kusa was born. Kusa is believed to have given his name to the country of Kosala which roughly comprised modern Chhattisgarh and the adjoining areas of Orissa.

In the third age, i.e., *Dwapar*, it is said Lord Krishna visited this 'town of virtuous kings'. A story appearing in the *Jaiminiya Asvamedha* states that, at the close of the Vedic Age, when Krishna was the king of Dwarka, a Raja named Mayurdhwaj, or Murathdhvaj was reigning at Ratanpur. By coincidence both Raja Yudhisthira of the great epic and the Raja of Ratanpur were performing the *Asvamedha* sacrifice simultaneously.

A legend current in Arang in Raipur district states that Lord Krishna asked Murathdhvaj, ancestor of the Haihayas, to saw his body into two halves. Because the sawing operation took place here the use of *ara* (saw) was prohibited throughout Chhattisgarh till the advent of the Marathas.²

1. *The Classical Age*, p. 218.

2. *Bilaspur Settlement Report*, 1868, p. 25; *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 257.

Early History

From the point of view of strict historical reference, this region did not come under the fold of the Aryan culture till the 4th century B.C., for it has not been referred to in the *Astadhyayi* of Panini, who flourished in the 6th century B.C. His commentator Katpayana, on the other hand, who flourished in the 4th century B.C., was familiar with the Pandya, Chola and Kerala countries. Hence in all probability the region, covered by the modern District, was penetrated by the Aryans sometime during the intervening period, when it was inhabited mostly by the Savara tribe.¹

There is yet another tradition for this inference. The celebrated Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang, who visited Southern Kosala in the middle of the 4th century A.D., had seen at the southern part of the capital city of Kosala an old monastery with an Asokan tope, where Lord Buddha is believed to have vanquished the Tirthikas by the strength of his super-normal powers. The shrine was afterwards inhabited by the great Mahayana preceptor Nagarjuna Pusa.²

It is a well known fact, that excepting Kalinga the vast kingdom over which Asoka ruled was inherited by him from his father and grandfather. We may, therefore, well place this region in the empire of Chandragupta Maurya and his grandson Asoka, whose empire included the major part of India except the extreme south. This is corroborated by the discovery of a few gold and silver coins of the Nanda-Maurya period within the District, at villages Akaltara and Thathari.³

Satavahanas

According to Hiuen Tsang the king of Kosala was a Sha-to-po-ho (evidently Satavahana) when Nagarjuna came to settle down at the monastery. He gave his name as Yin-Cheng (Leading Light) and recalled how he treated the great apostle with ceremonious regard, and quarried for him the monastery, known as Po-lo-mo-lo-ki-li.¹ The Satavahana king alluded to by the Chinese traveller might have been Satakarni I, whose dominion extended upto the Dahal region, (modern Jabalpur) or Kumar Baradatta, whose reference appears in an inscription discovered at village Gunji of Sakti tahsil of Bilaspur District.⁵ Alternatively, he might have been king Satvanha, a ruler known for his piety and admiration of virtues.⁶

The discovery of four square copper coins from the Mahanadi river at Balapur, a village of the District, with the elephant symbol of the Satavahanas

1. *Shri Vishnu Mahajagna Smarak Grantha*, p. 64.
2. Thomas Watters, *On Yuan Chawan's Travels in India*, pp. 200-201.
3. *Utkirna Lekh*, compiled by B.C. Jain, p. 2.
4. Thomas Watters, op. cit., pp. 202-201.
5. *Utkirna Lekh*, p. 3.
6. *Shri Vishnu Mahajagna Smarak Granth*, p. 81.

and also of a few red potteries, from the same site, provides yet another proof suggesting the existence of the southern rulers in this region.¹ However, these coins might have been issued by the local rulers of South Kosala after the downfall of the Satavahanas.² The founder of this Satavahana dynasty was Simuka, who established himself in what is now modern Telugu country, in the last quarter of the 3rd century B.C., after the dissolution of the Maurya empire. His descendants ruled for nearly five centuries and carved for themselves a very wide empire including Andhra, Vidarbha, erstwhile Central Provinces and Hyderabad,³ with capital at Paithan or modern Pratisthan.

During the sway of the Satavahana rulers the people of this region might have carried on maritime trade with foreign countries, especially with Rome. It is believed that diamonds from Kosala were very much prized by the Romans of that ancient period.⁴ Roman coins of gold are found in numbers in various parts of the District, as also a few copper Kushan coins, suggesting the Kushan sway over this region.⁵

From the discovery of an inscription on a wooden pillar at village Kirari of the District, it seems quite convincing that the Satavahanas introduced a very well organized administration in this region. The said pillar, now kept in the Raipur Museum, gives a long list of officers, namely, city *kotwal* or magistrate, commander of army, door keeper or private secretary, accountant or cashier, keeper of household fire, store keeper, temple attendant, charioteer, superintendent of kitchens, runners, officer in charge of perfumes and sanitation, officer in charge of cows and cattle, officer in charge of carriage-sheds and armoury, superintendent of letter carriers, chief of architects, superintendents of elephants and horses, and commander. Unfortunately the name of the reigning king has been defaced from the pillar.⁶ Another king mentioned in the Gunji inscription was Kumaraviradattasri, flourishing in the same century.⁷

Imperial Guptas

Probably Southern Kosala emerged as an independent country after the downfall of the Satavahanas. When in the 4th century A. D. the great Gupta emperor Samudragupta opened his campaign against the kings of Dakshinapatha king Mahendra was the reigning monarch of Dakshina Kosala. During his conquest in the south the great conqueror adopted a very wise and practical

1. *Indian Archaeology, A Review*, 1955-56, p. 72.
2. *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. IX, pp. 31-33; *Madhya Pradesh ke Puratutya ki Ruprekha*, p. 11.
3. *The Cambridge History of India*, Vol. I, p. 543.
4. *Shri Vishnu Mahajagna Smarak Granth*, p. 82.
5. *Utkirna Lekh*, p. 3.
6. *Shri Vishnu Mahajagna Smarak Granth*, pp. 80-81.
7. *The Classical Age*, p. 218.

policy of *grahana* (capture of enemy), *moksha* (liberating him) and *anugraha* (favouring him by retaining him in his kingdom) in a bid to safeguard his sovereign position at home and outside.

It is stated in the 19th line of Samudragupta's famous Allahabad Pillar Inscription, that the emperor first captured and then liberated and reinstated Mahendra of Kosala, Vyaghraraja of Mahakantara (meaning the great forests) and many more kings of the Deccan.¹ It may be recalled that Vyaghraraja was a feudatory of the Vakatakas and had a son, named Jayanatha of the Uchchakalpa dynasty.² South Kosala was, probably, not annexed to the Gupta Empire but it was certainly under the Gupta sphere of influence. The adoption of the Gupta era by the Sura rulers of Arang as well as the influence of the Gupta coin type on the coinage of the South Kosala³ provide ample evidence to draw this inference.

The sway of the Gupta rulers in South Kosala is further confirmed by the discovery of a hoard of forty coins from Pitaiband⁴ village in Raipur district, containing the legends *Mahendraditya* and *Kramaditya* (representing Kumar Gupta and his son Skanda Gupta). Yet another evidence is provided by the Arang Copper plate Grant of Bhimsena II, dated in the Gupta year of 282 (602 A.D.), which goes to prove the Gupta influence over this region till the end of the 6th century A.D.⁵

Sura Rulers

It seems from the Arang Copper plate of Bhimsena II, that at least six generations of these Sura rulers reigned in South Kosala during the 5th and 6th centuries A.D. They were: Sura, Dayita I, Vibhisana, Bhimsena I, Dayita Varman II and Bhimsena II, who are described in the grant as Maharajas, belonging to a family celebrated for its dignity like that of the royal ascetics (*rajarshi tulyakula*). The epithet might well be compared with the connotation *rajadhirajarsi* of the Udayagiri Cave Inscription of Chandragupta II. From the use of the Gupta era, we may well assume that these Sura rulers, like the Parivrajaka Maharajas of Dahala, were under the suzerainty of the Guptas, upto at least the sixth⁶ century A.D.

Other kings who had their sway over this region in the middle of the 5th century A.D. were the Nala Kings Varaharaja, Bhavadatta and Arthapati of

1. Fleet, *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. III, pp. 12-13.
2. R. K. Mookerjee, *Gupta Empire*, p. 21.
3. A. S. Altekar, *Coinage of the Gupta Empire*, p. 213; *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. X, pt. II, p. 137; Vol. XI, pt. II, p. 109.
4. *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. XVI, pt. I, p. 30.
5. *ibid.* Vol. XI, pt. II, p. 109.
6. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in C.P. and Berar*, pp. 94-96; *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IX, pp. 342-343; *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. XI, pt. II, p. 109.

the modern Bastar area,¹ and Nagasena and Harisena of the Vakataka house. In the Balaghat Copper Plates of Vakataka Prithvisena II, his father Narendrasena (c. 440-460 A.D.) is described as king of Kosala, Mekala and Malwa.² Harisena (c. 475-580 A.D.) is also described in the Ajanta Inscription to have made extensive conquests including that of Kosala³.

The Sarabhapurias

Another line of kings, coming into prominence in Kosala in the 6th century A.D. is famous as Sarabhapuriya, named after their capital at Sarabhapur. The identity of the capital city Sarabhapur of this dynasty has not yet been conclusively determined, but, in all probability, it was not far from Sirpur, ancient Sripura, in Raipur district, where the Sarabhapur rulers shifted their headquarters afterwards. It is quite possible, however, that it was merely a new name imposed on Sirpur, and that the name perished with the dynasty which created it.

From the Kurud plates and Pipurdula Grant of Maharaja Narendar it is known that his father King Sarabha was the founder of this royal house. Probably he was the maternal grandfather of Goparaja, who died at Eran in 510 A.D. Like his grandson, Sarabharaja might have owed allegiance to the Gupta overlords⁴. The next ruler of this house was Prasannamatra whose thin gold polished coin and silver coins, bearing the figure of Garuda and the symbols of conch and discus, have been discovered in 1947 in Chanda district of Maharashtra state.⁵

As indicated by the Mallar plates of Maha Pravararaja and the Arang plate of Maha Jayaraja, it is known that Prasannamatra was succeeded by his son, Maha Jayaraja, and the latter by his brother Manamatra, otherwise known as Durgaraja. Next came Sudevaraja and Maha Pravararaja. The Sarangarh Grant of Sudevaraja, issued in his 10th regnal year, gives ample proof of his sway over that part of South Kosala⁶. According to the Thakurdia (a village in Sarangarh tahsil in Raigarh district of Madhya Pradesh) plates, it was still under the possession of this royal house when the last known Sarabhapuriya ruler, namely, Maha Pravararaja II, was in power⁷.

Another charter of Pravararaja is the Mallar Grant, issued in the 3rd

1. *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. X, pt. II, p. 140.
2. R. K. Mookerji, *The Gupta Empire*, p. 77.
3. R. S. Tripathi, *History of Ancient India*, p. 279; A. S. Altekar and R. C. Majumdar, *Vakataka-Gupta Age*, p. 119.
4. *Vakataka-Gupta Age*, p. 86; *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXII, p. 17; Vol. XXXI, pp. 267-68; *Indian Archaeology, A Review*, 1957-58, p. 57.
5. A. S. Altekar, *The Coinage of the Gupta Empire*, p. 215; *The Classical Age*, p. 219.
6. *The Classical Age*, pp. 219-20.
7. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXII, pp. 16-17.

regnal year. Since both the charters of Pravararaja were issued from Sripura, it is safe to conclude that he shifted the capital of his kingdom from Sarabhapur to Sripur which was more centrally situated. Pravararaja was ousted from his throne by a Somavamsi ruler of Bhandaka, who was in all probability none other than Tivaradeva, as his Rajim and Baloda Bazar Plates assert¹. The Sarabhapurias seem to have ruled over a tract, which among other territories included Bilaspur, Raipur and Raigarh. All the undated inscriptions of these rulers are written, curiously enough, in the box-headed alphabets, prevailing during the 8th and 9th centuries A.D.

The Panduvamsis

The Rajim² and Baloda Bazar³ Plates of Tivara, also known as Mahasiva Tivararaja and Tivaradeva, were issued from Sirpur in his 7th and 9th regnal years, respectively. But his date has not been conclusively ascertained.

According to some scholars he flourished in the second half of the 6th century A.D.⁴, as he was a contemporary of the Vishnukundin king Madhava Varman (c. 535-85 A.D.) of Andhra, and the Maukhari prince Surya Varman. In his two grants Madhava claims to have captured Tivaranagara, i.e., the capital of Tivara⁵. Others, however, assign him to the 8th century A.D. because his inscriptions are written in the box-headed character of that period. In his Baloda Bazar Plates he is described as Mahasiva Tivararaja, son of Nannadeva and grandson of Indrabala. In the Rajim Plates Tivara is eulogized as the *Kosaladhipati*⁶ (the lord of the Kosala country). Tivara's grandfather was Udayana of the Pandava family, a reference to whom is found in a rock inscription of Kalanjara, in Banda district of Uttar Pradesh. Udayan's reign is generally assigned to the last quarter of the 5th century A.D.⁷.

According to an inscription from Bhandaka in Chanda district of Maharashtra, Indrabala had four sons, of whom Nanna, the eldest, succeeded his father and extended his dominion far and wide. The earliest record of the Panduvamsi rulers came from Kharod (a village, about 2 miles north of Seorinarayan in Janjgir tahsil of Bilaspur) inscription of Isanadeva, another son of Indrabala. Their movement towards South Kosala, therefore, seems to have started during Nanna's time. Tivara's epithets like *Kosaladhipati* (lord of Kosala) *Prapta Sakala Kosaladhipatya* (one who obtained the sovereignty of the entire Kosala country)

1. *ibid.* p. 17.
2. Fleet *op. cit.*, pp. 291 ff.
3. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. VII, pp. 104 ff.
4. V.V. Mirashi suggests c. 530-550 A.D. for Tivara. For details see *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXXI, pp. 32 and 220; *The Classical Age*, p. 220; *Vakataka-Gupta Age*, pp. 89-90.
5. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXII, p. 22.
6. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in C.P. and Berar*, pp. 96-97.
7. *The Classical Age*, p. 220.

suggest that the conquest of Kosala by these Bhandaka rulers was completed during the reign of Tivaradeva.¹

Tivara was succeeded by Nannaraja or Mahanannaraja II, who is known by the discovery of his inscription at village Adhbhar, about 40 miles from Bilaspur. As Nannaraja died issueless, he was succeeded by his uncle Chandragupta, and then Harshagupta, the consort of queen Vasata, herself a daughter of the Maukhari prince Suryavarman of the Varman dynasty of Magadha. She was a devout worshipper of Vishnu and built the famous Lakshmana temple of Sirpur during her widowhood. Harshagupta's kingdom, known as Kosala or Park Kosala comprised probably Dakshina Kosala, Purva Kosala with Tosala, Utkala and Odra, extending upto the eastern sea-shore.² His son Mahasivagupta, also known as Balarjuna, was probably defeated by Pulakesin II of the Chalukya dynasty of Vatapi, modern Badami, before A.D. 634, as it is stated in the latter's Aihole Inscription that the southern emperor conquered the whole territory between the Narmada and the Godavari³. According to a Sirpur inscription, Nityananda's (usually identified with Balarjuna) son Sivanandin was a Viceroy of that place, evidently signifying a state of vassalage for the descendant of Balarjuna. Epigraphic evidence suggests that the region came under the influence of the Nala kings of Bastar till the rise of the later Somavamsis.⁴ They might have conquered South Kosala after the reign of Balarjuna in the 7th century A.D.⁵.

It is known from the Lodhia Plates of Balarjuna that he was a devout worshipper of Siva, but he patronised Buddhism a liberal hand. At the request of his uncle Bhaskar Varman, he donated Kailaspura village to a Bhikshu Sangha. According to his Mallar Plates he donated a village to the community of venerable monks, residing in the small monastery *Viharika* of Taradamsaka⁶. Probably this was the same monastery which finds reference in a Sirpur inscription, as having been constructed by Bhikshu Ananda with an establishment of a *Sattra* (feeding house) attached to it. For the upkeep of this institution a field producing enough white rice was purchased from the *Sangha* and was donated to the monastery.⁷

The liberal patronage of Buddhism is corroborated by the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang. He came to South Kosala from Kalinga and found that the ruler, who was Kshatriya by birth, was a devout Buddhist and was very benevolent. He also found as many as 100 Buddhist monasteries, inhabited by about 19,000 brethren, belonging to Mahayana Sect⁸.

1. *ibid.* p. 221.
2. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXVII, p. 321.
3. *The Classical Age*, p. 222; R.C. Majumdar and others, *An Advanced History of India*, p. 175.
4. *The Classical Age*, p. 222.
5. *ibid.* p. 190.
6. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 320-21.
7. *ibid.* Vol XXXI, p. 197.
8. Thomas Watters, *op. cit.*, pp. 200-20.

The Somavamsis

After the downfall of the Pandava rulers of Sirpur, the Somavamsi rulers came to dominate over South Kosala about the 10th century A.D. King Sivagupta was the first known member of this royal family. He was followed by Janamejaya Mahabhavagupta I, who enhanced the prestige of his house. He conquered Orissa and assumed the title 'Lord of Trikalinga'. Just before the reign of Mahasivagupta of the same lineage, King Rajendra Chola of South invaded the country and conquered Kosala and Utkala. The new king recaptured both these countries and defeated the king of Karnataka, Gurjara, Lata, Radha and Gauda. After the reign of his equally brilliant son Udayakesari, the sovereignty of South Kosala passed to the house of the Kalachuris of Tummana in the beginning of the 12th century A.D.¹

The Kalachuris

The Kalachuris of Dakshina Kosala were the descendants of the Kalachuris of Chedi or Dahala with their capital at Tripuri. The advent of the Kalachuris opens a new epoch in the history of Chhattisgarh. The name of the dynasty figures in a large number of inscriptions spread over a vast area. The Kalachuris belonged to the Haihaya race and claimed descent from Kartaviryarjuna of the Epic and the Puranic fame.² While Kalachuri is the most usual style, a number of other forms are also known as variants. It is asserted that the name Kalachuri is not Sanskritic and has been connected with the Turkish word *Kuluchur*, indicating an office of high rank. This, if correct, would point to a foreign origin of the dynasty and they may well have entered India with the Hunas and the Gurjaras.³

In many records⁴ of the Tummana or Ratanpur branch of the Kalachuri dynasty, it is stated that in the race of the Haihaya princes was born the ruler of Dahala Kokalla (c. 850-890 A.D.) who had 18 sons, of whom the eldest became the ruler of Tripuri and the others were made lords of the *mandalas* in the neighbourhood. In the family of one of the younger brothers was born Kalingaraja, the first known king of the Tummana or Ratanpur branch. According to the Bilhari Stone Inscription, Mugdhatunga, son of Kokalla I, conquered the lines of countries along the eastern sea-shore and wrested Pali, 12 miles from Ratanpur and 30 miles from Tuman (old Tum-

1. R.C. Majumdar, *Ancient India*, pp. 382-83.

2. Pargiter, *Ancient Indian Historical Traditions*, pp. 41, 102, 144; *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXI, p. 160; Vol. XXII, p. 160.

3. Proceedings of the Indian History Congress, 1943, pp. 44-45. According to a legend the progenitor of the Haihayas was the mythical Ahihaya (snake-horse) who was born out of the union of a snake and a mare.

4. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt. II, No. 76, Line 10; No. 77, Line 6; No. 83, Line 8, etc.

mana) in Bilaspur District, from the Lord of Kosala¹. The Banaras plates of Karna state that Prasiddhayala another *biruda* of Mugdhatunga, conquered Pali for providing adequate territory to the princes who would be born in his family.² Thus, we have a record of the first entry of the Kalachuris into Chhattisgarh as also the motive for doing so.

After Mugdhatunga (c. 890-910 A.D.) there is a gap of about a century in the history of this Kalachuri branch, for which no records have come to light so far. Even the name of the founder of the Kalachuri branch of Chhattisgarh is obscure. From the Ratanpur Stone Inscription of Jajalladeva I, it is, however, known that the Kalachuri capital in those days was Tummana, which has been identified with Tumana, 26 miles north-east of Ratanpur.³ But after two or three generations, in about the middle of the 10th century, the Kalachuris were ousted from there, perhaps by the Somavamsi rulers, ruling in the eastern parts of Chhattisgarh. The Kalachuris tried to regain control of Kosala during the reign of Lakshmanaraja II (c. 945-970 A.D.) but without much success.

The attempt was renewed by the Tripuri dynasty during the reign of Kokalla II (c. 990-1015 A.D.) to conquer Dakshina Kosala. In order to augment his unimpeded prowess and treasure, Kalingaraja, descended from a younger son of Kokalla I, left his ancestral country (Dahala) and conquered Dakshina Kosala in c. 100 A.D.⁴ He chose Tummana as his capital, because it had been made the seat of their Government by his forefathers. Residing there and destroying his enemies he increased his fortune. The event of note during Kalingaraja's reign was an attack by Sindhu, the Paramara ruler of Dhara. But the invasion did not result in his dispossession of the Kosala country.

Wrapt as the historical passages are in the rhapsodies of royal eulogists, it is difficult to make out whether the whole of Dakshina Kosala was conquered by Kalingaraja or only a portion of it. The probability is that he conquered a large portion of it. From the lists of conquests enumerated in the Rajim temple inscription, it appears that a large part of Chhattisgarh was in the hands of local chiefs about the 11th and 12th centuries.

Kalingaraja was succeeded by his son Kamalaraja, who reigned between c. 1020 A.D. and 1045 A.D. Owing allegiance to the ancestral house

1. *ibid.* pt. I, No. 45, line 10.

2. *ibid.* No. 48, line 13.

3. *ibid.* p. CXVII.

4. *ibid.* pt. II, No. 77, Verse 6.

of Tripuri, he continued to rule from Tummana. He helped Kamalaraja his overlord Gangeyadeva of Tripuri in the campaign against the king of Utkala, Subhakaran II, and secured wealth as well as excellent elephants and horses for Gangeyadeva.¹ Gangeyadeva and Kamalaraja also came into conflict with the ruler of Eastern Kosala, Mahasivagupta Yayati, who claims to have inflicted a crushing defeat on the people of the Chedi country and devastated Dahala.² This may have been a retaliatory raid during Gangeya's campaign against the king of Orissa. Another notable event of Kamalaraja's reign was an invasion of Kosala in 1022 by a General of the great Chola Emperor Rajendra I (1012-1044 A.D.) It is, however, not certain if the expedition was against the Western Kosala, ruled by Kamalaraja or against the Eastern Kosala, held by Mahasivagupta Yayati.

Kamalaraja was succeeded by his son Ratnadeva or Ratnaraja I (c. 1045-1065 A.D.), who beautified the capital city of Tummana with temples of Vankesa, the tutelary deity, and Ratnesvara, fruit and flower gardens, mansions, etc. At the same time he founded the extensive city of Ratanpura, in such a fashion that it could vie with the city of Kuvera.³ He married Vajjuka's daughter Nonalla, a princess of the Komo-mandala.⁴ Later he shifted his capital to Ratanpur, which continued to be the seat of government of the successive Kalachuri rulers, until their overthrow by the Marathas.⁵

Prithvideva I (c. 1065-1090 A.D.) was son and successor of Ratnadeva. He seems to have considerably extended his patrimony. According to his Amoda plates he was the lord of twenty-one thousand villages, comprising the whole of Dakshina Kosala,⁶ although his title Mahamandaleshvara shows that he was still a feudatory of the parent house of Dahala. He used the Kalachuri era, which he called the era of the Lord of Chedi, indicating his subordinate position. He constructed a Siva temple called Prithvidevesvara at Tummana and a large lake at Ratanpur.⁷

Prithvideva I was succeeded by his illustrious son Jajalladeva. During the weakrule of Yashkarna of Tripuri dynasty, this king of the Ratanpur branch

1. *ibid.* No. 76, lines 12-13.

2. *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. I, 1905, pp. 6-7.

3. H.C. Ray, *Dynastic History of Northern India*, p. 804.

4. Country surrounding the Komo Village, 25 miles north-west of Ratanpur.

5. *The Struggle for Empire*, p. 65.

6. *Inscriptions in C.P. and Berar*, p. 119.

7. H.C. Ray, *op. cit.*, pp. 805-6.

Jajalladeva I became completely independent. He was one of the great kings of this dynasty. He undertook ambitious military campaigns and subdued a number of chiefs. According to his Ratanpur stone inscription, dated Kalachuri era 866, he developed friendly relations with his contemporary Gahadavala King Govinda Chandra, the ruler of Kanyakubja and Chandella Sallakshana Varman, invaded Orissa, defeated Bhujabala of Suvarnapura (Sonpur on the Mahanadi) and received tributes from the chiefs of the neighbouring *mandalas* of Lanjika (Lanji in Balaghat district), Banara (Bhandara in the district of the same name) and Talari (probably the southern part of Bilaspur and northern part of Raipur districts) of Dakshina Kosala, Andhra, Kimidi (in Ganjam district), Vairagarh (in Chanda district), etc. He also took Somesvara, the Naga ruler of Bastar, a prisoner, because he had occupied a part of Dakshina Kosala.¹

Jajalladeva I tried to expand the limit of his country eastward by deposing the ruler of Orissa and thus came into clash with Ananta Varman Chodaganga, espousing the cause of the former. He carried his arms even as far as Dandakapur (Mindapur district). The rulers of northern countries sought Jajalla's friendship because his kingdom occupied strategic position on the route of communication between the north and the south. The northern powers must also have regarded Jajalladeva as bulwark against a possible Chola invasion of North India.

Jajalladeva's kingdom thus extended from Amarkantak in the north down to the other side of the Godavari in the south and from the confines of Berar in the west to the boundaries of Orissa in the east. Jajalla founded a city, named Jajallapura, which has been identified with modern Janjgir in Bilaspur District. He also repaired an old Siva temple at Pali. These repairs have been commemorated by short inscriptions.² Jajalladeva married Lachchhalladevi, from whom he had a son named Ratnadeva II, who succeeded him.

Ratnadeva II came to the throne of Ratanpur in about 1120 A.D. Like his father he struck gold and copper coins in his own name, indicating his independence. He is stated to have routed a large and powerful army, sent against him by the contemporary Kalachuri ruler of Tripuri, named Gayakarna (c. 1123-1153). Ratnadeva also successfully repulsed an invasion of Kosala by the Ganga King,

1. *Inscriptions in C.P. & Berar*, pp. 116-117; *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XII, p. 29; Vol. XXII, p. 162; *Struggle for Empire*, p. 65.

2. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. CXXV.

Anantavarman-Chodaganga, ruler of Orissa and the latter's feudatory Gokarna. Ratnadeva obtained a large booty of gold, horses and elephants.¹ He is described in a Ratanpur stone inscription² as 'Rahu', in seizing and swallowing the large orb of the mighty warriors of Chodaganga. The battle, believed to have been a fierce one, was fought in c. 1130 A.D. in Talahari-Mandala near Seorinarayan³. A minister of Ratnadeva, named Jagpala, distinguished himself in the battle for his bravery.

Emboldened by this victory, Ratnadeva II invaded the Gauda kingdom in c. 1132 A.D. This fact has been recorded in several inscriptions of Vallabharaja, a Vaisya by caste, and an adopted son of Lachhballadevi, mother of Ratnadeva II. Vallabharaja fought valiantly alongside his master in that campaign. The king of Gauda on whom Ratnadeva inflicted defeat was, perhaps, Madanpala of the Pala dynasty.⁴

Ratnadeva was a patron of religion and learning. His court attracted learned men from different parts of India. For instance, Gangadhara, a learned Brahmana, migrated to Tummana from Madhyadesa and received a village from Ratnadeva⁵. It was usual with him to bestow gifts on the pious and the learned. Once he made a gift to an astronomer for accurate prediction of an eclipse. Considerable building activity was also noticeable during his reign; a number of temples, *mathas* (monasteries) were constructed, groves raised and tanks excavated.

Prithvideva II, the elder son of Ratnadeva II, succeeded his father in c. 1135 A.D. His minister and General Jagapala won for him the forts of Saraharagarh (modern Sarangarh in Raigarh district) and Prithvideva II Machaka-Sihava (Sihawava in Dhamtari tract of Raipur district), the country of Bramaravadra (Bharamarkotya in Bastar) and took Kusumabhoga, Kantara, Kakayaradesh (Kanker in Bastar) and Kanda-dongar. These achievements of his are recorded in his Rajim inscription⁶. In later records from Kanker, the Kalachuri era has been used, indicating that those parts had come under the sway of the Kalachuris. The other places referred to above were probably situated in Raipur district, for Kanda-dongar has been located in the south of Bindranawagarh tahsil; Kusumbhoga is identical with Kusumurra in Dhamtari tahsil of Raipur

district and Kakayara is modern Kanker in Bastar, which then included parts of Dhamtari tahsil of Raipur¹. These conquests brought a greater part of Chhattisgarh under the direct rule of Prithvideva.

Having consolidated his authority in Chhattisgarh, Prithvideva launched a massive invasion on the Ganga territory in Orissa, then under the rule of Anantavarman-Chodaganga. In the meantime the latter died and was succeeded by his son Jatesvara *alias* Madhukamarnava. Jatesvara was defeated and had, perhaps, to spend a few days in the Kalachuri prison before he was set free². This battle may have taken place in c. 1150 A.D. Discovery of some coins of Ratnadeva II and Prithvideva II in Khurda sub-division of Puri district and Sonepur seem to corroborate that these kings had definite hold on Orissa³.

Like his father, Prithvideva was a patron of learning and religion. There are seven inscriptions recording his grants of land to the Brahmanas. A Ratanpur stone inscription states that people were happy and contented under his reign⁴. Construction activities also received great fillip during his time. His feudatory, Vallabharaja excavated three tanks, one of which near Ratanput still exists under the name Kharung. He with a temple of Siva. Another feudatory, Brahmadeva also constructed several temples and tanks. There are also records of a number of other constructions.

Jajalladeva II succeeded his father in 1165 A.D. Not long after his accession, he had to face an attack from Jayasimha, the Kalachuri ruler of Tripuri. Jajalladeva, ably assisted by his feudatories, gave Jayasimha a tough fight. Jayasimha, enraged like a serpent trodden under foot, himself led the battle which, though fierce, was indecisive. Ullanadeva, a scion of the royal family fought bravely against the Tripuri forces and was killed. Some time after, Jajalladeva was caught by an alligator known locally as *Thiru*, but he was able to extricate himself.⁵ As in previous regimes, there was considerable building activity during the reign of Jajalladeva. All the three inscriptions of his reign are dated in Kalachuri era 912, i.e., 1167 A.D. Towards the close of his reign, Chhattisgarh seems to have been invaded by an unknown enemy, which resulted in suffering to the people⁶.

1. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, pt. I, No. 88, verses 15-17 and pt. II, p. 453; Raipur District Gazetteer, p. 470.

2. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, pt. II, No. 10, verse 9.

3. *Journal of the Numismatic Society of India*, Vol. XVII, pt. II, p. 58.

4. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, pt. II, No. 93, verse 7.

5. *ibid.* Verses 27 ff.

6. *ibid.* pt. I, p. CXXIX.

1. *ibid.* Vol. IV, Pt. II, No. 100, verse 8.

2. *ibid.* No. 93, verse 5.

3. *ibid.* No. 98, verse 7.

4. *ibid.* pt. I, p. CXXVII.

5. *ibid.* Pt. II, No. 97, Verses 12-13.

6. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXVIII, p. 150; *Inscriptions in C.P. and Berar*, p. 107.

The prevailing confusion was, perhaps, heightened on account of the sudden death of Jajalladeva in 1168 A.D. In such a situation, Jagaddeva, hurriedly came from the eastern country and succeeded in reestablishing peace and order in the kingdom. This is evident from the Kharod inscription which says that under Jagaddeva's rule "thieves disappeared obstacles vanished, dangers departed, the enemies took shelter in the corner of mountain caves and people roaming in forests had no fear even from a tiger¹."

It has been suggested that Jajalladeva II was not a usurper of the throne of Ratanpur and that Jagaddeva had voluntarily relinquished the throne in order to devote his undivided attention to fighting the Eastern Gangas. And as soon as he heard of Jajalladeva's death he hastened back to Ratanpur². Jagaddeva had a reign of ten years, i.e. from 1168 to 1178 A.D. He had a son named Ratnadeva III, from his queen Somalladevi.

In about 1178 A.D., Ratnadeva III came to the throne. The Kharod stone inscription eulogizes him for a handsome form, charity and learning.³ On account of some unknown reason the treasure was exhausted, the elephant force became weak, the people were scattered, the country was infested by famine and was reduced to a pitiable state.⁴ In such a critical situation Ratnadeva appointed Gangadhara, a learned Brahmana accomplished in the science of politics, to the post of the Prime Minister. Gangadhara's wise policy helped Ratnadeva vanquish the enemies and free the kingdom of all troublesome persons.⁵ Gangadhara constructed a large number of temples, including that of Ekavira at Ratanpur, which is still in existence.

Ratnadeva III was succeeded by his son Pratapamalla in c. K. 950 (1198-99 A.D.). He ascended the throne in young age, possessed great strength and was, therefore, called second Bali, according to the description in the Pendrabandh Plates⁶.

Coming to the beginning of the thirteenth century we no longer find the inscriptional evidence of the Kalachuri rulers of the Ratanpur branch. The records of the successors of Pratapmalla are not available until

1. *ibid.* pt. II, No. 100, verse 14.

2. *ibid.* p. 535. Another version is that Jagaddeva was superseded by his younger brother and was, therefore, ruling over some eastern districts during the latter's life time.

3. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, pt. II, No. 100, verses 16-18.

4. *ibid.* Verse 25.

5. *ibid.* Verses 26-27.

6. *ibid.* pt. I, p. CXXX.

we come to the time of Vahara towards the close of the fifteenth century. We however, get occasional references to the reigning kings in the records of other dynasties. For example, Hemadri's *Vratakhanda* states in its *Rajaprasasti* that "the Yadava king Simhana took away troops of rutting elephants belonging to the King Jajjalla".¹ The latter ruler was most probably a king of Ratanpur. As he was a contemporary of Simhana (c. 1210-1247 A.D.), he seems to have succeeded Pratapamalla in 1225 A.D.

Jajjalladeva suffered another defeat at the hands of Vishnu, the minister of the Ganga Ananga-Bhima III of Kalinga². The Purshottampuri plates of the Yadava Ramchandra inform us about a victory of Simhana's grandson Krishna over the ruling king of Kosala. The latter is not named in the plates, but he may have been a successor of king Jajjalla³.

From the Sihawa inscription of Karnaraja, Kankar plates of Pamparajadeva and the Kanker inscription of Bhanudeva dated saka year 1242 (A.D. 1320) it is evident that the Somavamsi rulers of Bastar-Kanker area were ruling over the modern Dhamtari-Sihawa area of Raipur district from 1192 to 1320 A.D. The present ruling family of Kanker is doubtless connected with these old rulers. According to its own tradition, its first ancestor came from Orissa to this place about *Vikram Samvat* 1150 or 1093 A.D. The story is that he was ruling at Puri; but suddenly being afflicted with leprosy he went out in search of a cure. A spring in Sihawa restored his lost health and his descendants continued to rule there. As the ruins and temples testify, Sihawa was doubtless the capital of these chiefs. The capital was finally removed to Kanker (most probably before Bhanudeva) which once included the rich soil of Dhamtari Tahsil.⁴

The stone inscriptions of king Vahara give us further names of the Kalachuri rulers of Ratanpur. The Kosgain Inscription⁵ of this king records his victory over some Pathans. It also describes the genealogy of the Kalachuri family of Ratanpur upto king Vahara, whose five predecessors were Simbama, Dhangira, Madanbrahman, Ramchandra and Ratnasena. Vahara may have reigned from c. 1480 to 1515 A.D. It, however, does not mention any political events of the reign of Vahara's predecessors. Taking twenty-five years as the average duration of a reign, the accession of Singhana, who

1. *ibid.*

2. *ibid.* pp. CXXX-CXXXI. Another version is that this event occurred during the reign of Pratapamalla. See: *The Struggle for Empire*, p. 66.

3. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt. I, p. CXXXI.

4. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IX, pp. 124, 166 and 184; *Inscriptions in C.P. & Berar*, p. 171.

5. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt. II, No. 105, Lines 6-7.

flourished five generations before, may be dated in c. 1355 A.D.¹ This king is most probably Singha or Simhana mentioned in the Raipur and Khalari stone inscriptions, who also seems to have reigned in the same period, for his grandson Brahmadeva was ruling at Raipur and Khalari in V.S. 1458 (1402 A.D.) and V.S. 1471 (1415 A.D.). The stone inscription of Raipur mentions that Lakshmadeva reigned at Rayapur (Raipur) and his son was Singha, who in turn had a son named Ramchandra. Brahmadeva, who is mentioned next, was most probably a son of Ramchandra, though there is no clear statement to that effect.²

It seems that after the reign of Simhana (1355-1375 A.D.) the Ratanpur dynasty of the Kalachuris split into two branches. The older branch continued to rule at Ratanpur, while the younger one founded a separate principality, in 1375 A.D., with Raipur as its capital.³

It appears that the royal house of Ratanpur used to give some appanages to the princes born in the family, as we find references to these in the Seorinarayan stone inscription of Jajalladeva II.⁴ Some grants were made to the royal members of the family and they permanently settled there after some time. The branch at Raipur, however, "became somewhat powerful and semi-independent".⁵

As already stated, we get no historical information about the reign of Vahara's predecessors. Vahara's reign, however, was marked by skirmishes with the Pathans. He even shifted his capital from Ratanpur to Kosanga (modern Kosgain) probably owing to the raids of the Pathan adventurers.⁶ From this strong-hold of Kosanga he used to raid the Pathan outposts. The Kosgain Inscription gives us details regarding the Pathan raids in the region and the counter-attacks by the king, Vahara, and his minister Madhava.⁷ The Muslim chronicles, however, do not mention any raids of the Afghans into this region, which, being land-locked, must have been comparatively secure from their depredations.⁸ *Tarikh-Daudi* of Abdullah mentions the invasion of Sikandar Lodi on the fort of Bandhu (Bandhogarh) in Shahdol district, which he, however, failed to reduce. Bandhogarh is about 125 miles north-west of Kosgain. This invasion seems to have occurred about 1496 A.D., two years after the date of the Ratanpur

1. *ibid.* Pt. I p. CXXXI.

2. *ibid.*

3. *ibid.*

4. *ibid.* Pt. II, pp. 521-27.

5. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 48.

6. *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt. II, No. 105.

7. *ibid.*

8. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 36-37.

Inscription of Vahara's reign. During this expedition or some time later, some Afghans might have raided the Kalachuri territory, but they were repulsed by Kalachuri king Vahara.¹

There is no inscriptional evidence of the successors of Vahara. Local tradition, however, mentions twelve successors of Bahar Sahai (Vahara), who ruled at Ratanpur until the country was conquered by Bhaskar Pant, the Brahmana General of the Bhonslas of Nagpur in 1742 A.D.² The reigns of those successors were uneventful and inglorious.

Kalyan Sahai, son and successor of Vahara, is said to have proceeded to Agra to pay homage to the Mughal Emperor, Akbar. Before proceeding to Agra, he made over the administration of his kingdom to his son Lakshman Sahai. He was at Agra for about 8 years and returned to Ratanpur laden with honours and having been invested with the full rights of Raja and confirmed in the possession of the territory of Ratanpur with a high sounding title. The Muslim chronicles, however, do not mention any event of this king.³

One of the Revenue books of Kalyan Sai's reign contains an interesting account of the condition of Chhattisgarh some four centuries ago. According to this book, the Ratanpur government comprised 48 *garhs* or *talukas*, "yielding a revenue of 6½ lakhs of rupees, and including "Sair" 9 lakhs of rupees, which, considering the relative value of money in those early days, and now, indicates a large share of prosperity".⁴ His territory then extended nearly over the whole of the region of Chhattisgarh. Of course, there were some Rajas in the region, who were called either his subordinates or feudatories.⁵ According to J.W. Chisholm, the three *parganas* of Bilaspur District, namely Bilaspur, Mungeli and Seorinarayan yielded a revenue of Rs. 2,17,832 approximately. The number of villages included in these three *parganas* of the District came out to be nearly 1,568 at that time.

Kalyan Sai maintained an army of nearly 14,200 men and an establishment of 116 elephants. This army was fully adequate for the maintenance of internal order of the country. "As for external enemies, the difficulties of approach and comparative remoteness and poverty of the country,

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 36-37.

2. Archaeological Report, Vol. XVII, pp. 77 ff; *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 37.

3. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 37; *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt. I, pp. CXXXII-III; Archaeological Report, Vol. XVII, p. 80. According to Cunningham he had been to Agra on account of a dispute with the Raja of Mandla and returned to Ratanpur in 1571 A.D.

4. *Bilaspur Settlement Report*, 1868, p. 27.

5. *ibid.* p. 28.

made an invasion in earlier years by no means an inviting prospect, and subsequently (Kalyan) Sai's shrewdness in proceeding to Delhi, and his acknowledgement by the Emperor Akbar, tended to prolong for years the rule of his dynasty."¹

On the death of Kalyan Sai, his son Lakshman Singh succeeded him, but there is nothing worth recording in connection with the reigns of Lakshman Singh and his successors until we come to Takhat Singh, who ruled the country between 1675 and 1689 A.D. He built a palace at Takhatpur, now in ruins, and a temple. Raj Singh, his son and successor, ruled from A.D. 1689 to 1712 and built a new palace at the eastern limit of Ratanpur which is now in ruins. He is also said to have excavated a large tank in front of this palace.²

Raj Singh (1689-1712 A.D.) was issueless. His Brahman Diwan, a hereditary servant of the family, proposed the novel remedy of a selected Brahman visiting the favourite Rani of Raj Singh Deva. In due time a son was born, who was named Bishnath Singh Deva. He was later on married to a daughter of the ruler of Rewa, but finally committed suicide by stabbing himself. Raj Singh, on being informed about what had happened, demolished with his guns the part of the town in which the Diwan and his relatives lived.

Subsequently, Raj Singh selected Mohan Singh of the Raipur house as his successor. But unfortunately the death of Raj Singh was somewhat sudden and Mohan Singh was on a shooting expedition at that time. He, therefore, could not come back early and Raj Singh put the *pagri* on the head of his grand-uncle, Sardar Singh, thus acknowledging him as his successor. On return from the shooting expedition, Mohan Singh was "greatly enraged at being thus superseded and in leaving said that he would yet return and assume the government".³ Sardar Singh, however, ruled quietly for 20 years and was succeeded by his brother Raghunath Singh in 1732 A.D. He was a man already over 60 and quite unable to face the difficulties which were shortly to overtake his territories.

The Bhonslas

In 1742 A.D. Chhattisgarh was invaded by the Maratha general Bhaskar Pant. At that time Raghunath Singh, the last ruler of Ratanpur Branch, was on the *gaddi*. Having lost his only son, he was, at the time, down

1. *ibid.* p. 90.

2. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1868, p. 28.

3. Raipur Settlement Report, 1869, pp. 28-30.

4. Raipur District Gazetteer, p. 54.

with heavy sorrow. Raghunath Singh, consequently, took little interest in the government. Worn out with years and afflicted in mind, he made no effort to defend his kingdom. Even when Bhaskar Pant reached his capital, Ratanpur¹, there was no attempt at resistance. Bhaskar Pant directed his guns on the fort, and a part of the palace was soon in ruins. At this juncture one of the queens mounted the parapet and exhibited a flag of truce. The gates were then opened and the invading army entered and took possession of the fort. In this inglorious manner ended the rule of the famous Haihayavansi dynasty which, without a struggle, yielded up its heritage².

Bhaskar Pant left a small garrison at Ratanpur and marched towards Cuttack. A fine of a lakh of rupees was imposed on Ratanpur and all that remained in the treasury was appropriated. Bhaskar Pant, who is said to have led an army of 40,000 men, chiefly horse, pillaged the country in all directions. No violence, however, was done to Raghunath Singh who, in fact, was permitted³ to carry on the government in the name of the Bhonslas.

Mention has previously been made of Mohan Singh who left Ratanpur disgusted when, in 1812, Sardar Singh succeeded Raj Singh and threatened to return and assume the Government. His efforts to raise a party in his favour, strong enough to create a local revolution, proving fruitless, he left for Nagpur and finally joined Raghoji I. He became a favourite with this prince, was made a Bhonsla, and accompanied Raghoji in his expedition against Bengal. In 1745 A.D. Raghoji, on his way back from Bengal, returned to Ratanpur via Rewa.

On Bhaskar Pant being treacherously killed in Cuttack and his army dispersed, Raghunath Singh threw off the Maratha yoke. When Raghoji returned from Bengal, he heard of Raghunath Singh's reassertion of authority. He, therefore, deposed Raghunath Singh and installed Mohan Singh on the *gaddi*. Raghunath Singh was assigned five villages for his support⁴.

On the death of Raghoji I in 1755, his brother-in-law Ranoji, availing himself of the confusion at Nagpur resulting from the disputed succession to Raghoji, usurped the authority.⁵ On settlement of that question Chhattisgarh and its dependencies were recognized

Bimbaji

1. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1868, p. 30.

2. Raipur District Gazetteer, p. 55.

3. *ibid.* p. 56. According to a different version, on Bhaskar Pant's departure, Raghunath Singh ousted his representative, a Gosain, and once more assumed the Government, Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 48.

4. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 49.

5. P.V. Agnew, *A Report on the Subah of Chhattisgarh*, 1820, p. 3.

as the appanage of his youngest son Bimbaji.¹ Mohan Singh, who was holding the charge of Chhattisgarh made preparations to oppose the assumption of authority by Bimbaji. But suddenly taken ill, Mohan Singh died at Raipur where he had collected a force. Thus Bimbaji was able to assume the Government without any opposition².

Agnew in his report on Chhattisgarh has given a different version of events between the death of Raghoji I and the assumption of power by Bimbaji. He writes, "He (Raghoji I) died in Sumbut 1812 (A.D. 1755) when his brother-in-law Ranogee, availing himself of the confusion then existing in the Government of Nagpur from the disputed succession to Raghoji, usurped the chief authority. In the settlement of the question, Chhattisghur became appanage to Bimbajee Bonsla, who sent a Brahmin named Pandoorung to assume the Government, but he was resisted and defeated by the usurper Ranogee. In sumbut 1815 (1758 A.D.) Bimbajee himself arrived at Ruttunpore seized Ranogee, and personally ruled the province until his death at Nurrah in Kondwan in Sumbut 1844 (A.D. 1787)."³

Though nominally subordinate to the Raja at Nagpur, Bimbaji was to a large extent independent with a separate court, ministers and army at Ratanpur.⁴ Bimbaji reigned from 1758 to 1787 A.D. In his early years of reign Bimbaji was very much oppressive. This had an adverse effect upon the revenue, which from 8 lakhs of rupees was brought down to 3 lakhs⁵. Towards the close of his reign, however, Bimbaji seems to have shown considerable improvement in his temperament, for he left a memory fairly popular and respected.⁶

Bimbaji had no sons. He, therefore, adopted his nephew Chimnaji, the second son of his elder brother Mudhoji and nominated him the successor of his territory. Chimnaji was essentially of a military disposition. On the death of Bimbaji in 1787, his widow Anandi Bai desired that Chimnaji might take possession of the Ratanpur district. But Raghoji, the eldest son of Mudhoji, fearing the adventurous spirit of his brother was averse to it and earnestly urged his father to withhold his assent to the proposed succession.⁷ However, Mudhoji passed away in 1788, leaving his dominion into the hands of Raghoji II.⁸ Soon after Chimnaji

1. C. U. Wills, *British Relations with the Nagpur State in the 18th Century*, p. 147.

2. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 49.

3. P.V. Agnew, op. cit., p. 3.

4. R. Jenkins, *Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur*, p. 76.

5. C.U. Wills, op. cit., p. 97.

6. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 57.

7. C.U. Wills, op. cit., p. 92.

8. R. Jenkins, op. cit., p. 61.

died in mysterious circumstances under the suspected plot of Raghoji II.¹ Consequent upon this, Chhattisgarh was allotted to Vyankoji, the younger brother of Raghoji II, as an appanage in 1788 A.D.²

Vyankoji was too much preoccupied with the affairs at Nagpur and, therefore, took little interest in the administration of Chhattisgarh, although he paid a few visits to the region. He ordered the *Suba* (Governor) to assume charge of the Government of Chhattisgarh on his behalf. This was much resented by Anandi Bai, who repulsed the *Suba* with the help of Bimbaji's army.

A compromise was, however, effected. It was decided that the Government should be carried on in the name of Vyankoji, who should be represented by a *Suba* on the spot but that the *Suba* should be bound to obey all orders of Anandi Bai. The latter was to be consulted on all details of the Government. Thus Anandi Bai wielded practically all authority until her death at the beginning of the 19th century.³

An European traveller, who passed through these territories in 1790 attests to the fertility of the district and to the position of eminence enjoyed by Anandi Bai. He writes "Ruttunpoor is in general a very fertile, fine country, and may be styled, from its plentiful produce of rice, the Burdwan of these parts. The widow of Bimbajee, Moddajee's brother is still alive, and all ostensible respect is shown to her; but the executive part of the Government is in the hands of Maypur Raou, a brahmin from Nagpur. The collectionincluding the toll upon loahed cattle, are..... of all Ruttunpore not above 1,50,000 (rupees). During the Government of Bimbajee, the revenue amounted to five or six lacs of rupees, but I was unable to learn the cause of this astonishing decrease. The people were remarkably civil".⁴

Yet another European traveller, who passed from Ratanpur in 1795 A.D. writes, "March, 13. We arrived at Ruttunpore, after quitting the mountaneous country. This being the capital of *Choteesgur*, and the residence of the *subadar*, I expected to have found a large town, but, to my great disappointment, I beheld a large struggling village consisting of about a thousand huts a great many of those were desolate and even

1. Prayag Dutt Shukla, *Madhya Pradesh Ka Itihas aur Nagpur Ke Bhonsle*, p. 140.

2. R. Jenkins, op. cit., p. 61.

3. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1868, p. 32.

4. *Early European Travellers in the Nagpur Territories*, pp. 66-67.

Itul Pandit (Vitthal Pandit), the *Subadar's* house, which was tiled, and situated in the Bazar, or market place, appeared but a poor habitation."¹

The headquarters of the *Suba* was Ratanpur, the old seat of Government. The *suba* was assisted in the administrative work by Sub-Collectors called *Kamavisdars*. Suba Vitthal Pandit was succeeded by Karu Pant. Subsequently, till the fall of Appa Saheb four other *subadars*, namely, Keshava Pant, Bhika Bhau, Sakha Ram Bapu and Yadava Rao Divakar were assigned the administration of Chhattisgarh. They were subject to very little control and most of them were very unscrupulous as to the means pursued to become rich.²

From the time of Vyankoji to Appa Saheb, who succeeded in 1222 *fasli* or 1816 A.D., exaction of revenue was exorbitant to a ruinous extent. In the course of eighteen years from 1209 to 1227 *fasli* or 1803 to 1821 A.D., the assessment was raised from Rs. 1,26,000 to 3,83,000. This exorbitant assessment inevitably caused tremendous hardship to the cultivators³ and, consequently, to violent results. Thus, *Suba* Sakha Ram Bapu was shot by a resident of Ratanpur, who was robbed of a considerable fortune on the false promise to raise him to a position of independence and dignity.⁴

To add to the difficulties of the people, there occurred raids of the Pindaris. In March, 1806 a considerable body of Pindaris had made its appearance in Chhattisgarh, on their way from Benaras to Raids of the Nagpur. After carrying off a very valuable caravan of goods Pindaris like silks, etc., and plundering two or three *parganas*, they encamped in the neighbourhood of Ratanpur with an intention of attacking that place. This party was supposed to have penetrated by the route of Amarkantak from Sohagpur.⁵

Chitu, the leader of the Pindaris, was determined to devastate the Bhonsla territories, because the Bhonsla troops had killed his adopted son. In consequence, the Pindaris spread into Chhattisgarh and Chanda, and even threatened Nagpur. Tired of their depredations, the Bhonsla had at one time thought of giving them a part of his territories in "the vicinity of Nizam's frontier on the condition that they stopped their ravages. The plan, however, did not materialise."⁶

1. *ibid.* p. 120.

2. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 58.

3. R. Jenkins, *op. cit.*, p. 115.

4. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 59.

1. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. I, p. 78.

2. *ibid.* Vol. II.; p. XVI.

In the year 1817 precautionary arrangements had to be made again on the north-eastern frontier of Nagpur Territories by the British to interrupt a body of Pindaris who seemed likely to return via Ratanpur to Jabalpur and Sagar.¹

Such was the state of affairs in Chhattisgarh when Vyankoji, younger brother of Raghoji II, passed away at Benaras in 1811. After a few years, i.e., on 22nd March, 1816 Raghoji II also died and his son Parsoji succeeded him. But on account of Parsoji's infirmities, and incapacity to rule, his cousin, Appa Saheb, was invested by him with the entire administration of his Government.² Shortly after, a treaty of subsidiary alliance was secretly concluded with the British by Appa Saheb on 27 April, 1816.³ In concluding this alliance Appa Saheb was only preparing the way for realizing his future ambition. On 1st February, 1817, Parsoji was strangled to death by the secret order of Appa Saheb while the British connived at it.⁴

Advent of the British

Thus, Chhattisgarh, including Bilaspur District, passed under the rule of Appa Saheb. Appa Saheb was not happy with the subsidiary alliance he had made with the Britishers. Therefore, to throw off his state of dependence, early in September 1817 he befriended the Pindari leader Chitu and enlisted a large number of fresh troops.⁵ The hunt for Pindaris by Britishers merged into the Third Maratha War. This ultimately led to the battle of Sita Baldi on 26 and 27 November, 1817, at Nagpur. The battle concluded in favour of the Britishers. Appa Saheb was forced to surrender.

Consequently, as a part of the treaty concluded between Appa Saheb and the British, the province of Chhattisgarh, including Bilaspur, passed into the hands of the British. For the purpose of general administration the Nagpur territories were divided into four districts, namely, Chhattisgarh, Bhandara, Chanda, and Deogarh-Balaghat or Chhindwara. At the headquarters of these districts were posted British Superintendents, who controlled the administration of the concerned district.⁶ Captain Edmonds was the first British Officer to take charge of Chhattisgarh District at Ratanpur.⁷

1. *ibid.* Vol. III, p. 64.

2. *ibid.* p. 474.

3. *ibid.* p. IV.

4. *ibid.*

5. Sardesai, *A New History of the Marathas*, Vol. III, p. 475.

6. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, p. VII.

7. *Ibid.* pp. 68 and 105.

The British protectorate over Chhattisgarh continued for a period of twelve years from June 1818 to June 1830. During this period important measures were introduced to ensure regular and uniform justice and attention was paid to the opening up of the country by means of roads for easy communication.¹ However, the British cared little for the people's welfare and introduced opium into these territories in an organised manner.²

On the death of Edmonds, who had first taken charge of Chhattisgarh, Colonel Agnew took up the charge of the tract. He remained Superintendent from 1818 to 1825. During his time the headquarters of Chhattisgarh was shifted from Ratanpur to Raipur. Agnew took steps to organise the civil administration. He took many important decisions with regard to land revenue settlement, which increased the revenue of Chhattisgarh from Rs. 3,31,470 in 1818 to Rs. 4,03,224 in 1825.³

About the general condition of the people at that time Agnew says, "The general condition of the inhabitants appears to me to be good. Their wants are few and those are supplied with little difficulty or exertion. This is proved by the excessive indolence of the people, who, if they have food for today, will take no concern for tomorrow..... the calamity of a famine has not for above 40 years occurred in this quarter owing probably to grain being the principal production of the.....(tract), and to the climate and soil yielding with wonderfully little culture.....A large quantity also being produced annually than is required for the consumption of the inhabitants, it is always cheap and abundant, and thus, the inhabitants are relieved from all apprehension of a scarcity of food..... The people are healthy and stout..... Their towns and villages although of an unprepossessing appearance, consisting of thatched huts, are far from uncomfortable. Each family has two or three of these huts, the whole surrounded by a wall, which with the interior yard, is nearly plastered with a whitish earth and has a clean appearance. Beggars are rare and those met with are generally so by profession."⁴

It may be interesting here to record a few punishments for particular crimes prevalent at the time.

The murder of a high caste man by a low caste man was generally punished by death. The murder of a low caste man by a higher caste man

1. *ibid.* p. VII.
2. *ibid.*
3. *ibid.* pp. 2 and 24.
4. P.V. Agnew, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-7.

was punished by fine. Rebellion and highway robberies were punished by death. Stealing and the other lesser offences were punished by cutting off hands, noses, ears and fingers, etc.

Women were not punished more severely for any offence than by cutting the nose off. Their lives were never taken.¹

In 1825, Col. Agnew was succeeded, one after the other, by Captains Hunter, Sandys, Wilkinson and Crawford. The last of these held charge till 1830.²

Meanwhile, subsequent to the deposition of Appa Saheb, Raghoji III was raised to the headship of Nagpur State at the age of 10 years. Bakabai the step-mother of late Parsoji was made the Regent. She carried on the administration under the guidance of the Resident, R. Jenkins.

In June 1830 Raghoji III reached maturity and, as such, the administration was made over to him. This position continued till 1854. During those 24 years Chhattisgarh was governed by the *Subahs*. This period has been regarded as a period of slow but steady progress.³

Raghoji III died on 11 December, 1853 without heir. Lord Dalhousie acting upto his pernicious policy Doctrine of Lapse did not permit the Bhonsla family to adopt a son. Consequently the Nagpur kingdom was annexed to the British dominion in March 1854.⁴

Thus, the District again passed under the rule of the British. The headquarters of the tract remained Raipur until 1861 A.D. when Bilaspur was constituted as a separate district.⁵

Great Revolt of 1857

During the days of the Great Revolt of 1857, the 3rd Native Infantry was stationed both at Raipur and Bilaspur.⁶ The troops stationed at Raipur rose in revolt on 18th January 1858, but unfortunately, the attempt proved abortive. In all 17 rebel leaders were arrested and publicly hanged.⁷ The rotops of the 3rd Native Infantry stationed in Bilaspur District mostly remained unaffected during the epic struggle against British rule.

1. *ibid.* pp. 44-45.
2. *ibid.* p. 24.
3. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 59.
4. *Shukla Abhinandan Granth*, p. 129.
5. Raipur Settlement Report, 1869, p. 25.
6. Kaye and Malletson, *History of the Indian Mutiny of 1857-58*, Vol. V, p. 77.
7. Chhattisgarh Divisional Records, Vol. 16 of 1857.

The only happening of note was the arrival of a large number of rebels, led by Gurur Singh and Rammat Singh and aided by some Zamindars of Sambalpur tract at Sohagpur, on the borders of the District. On getting this information the Deputy Commissioner of Raipur took up a force and reached Sohagpur on the 6th of December, passing through the District, and faced the rebels. In all 17 of the rebels were taken prisoners, but they escaped. Later it came to light that Ranga Bapu, the *ex-Vakil* of Satara Raja, was the real leader of the rebels behind the scene.¹

The Growth of Freedom Movement

In the years that followed the Great Revolt, people expressed their feelings through organisations for religious and social reforms like Bramho Samaj and Arya Samaj. Though the Arya Samaj was established at a later date, yet a few other institutions had sprung up in the District. They were Buddhi Prakash Sabha, Reading Club, Chanta Para Club, Bengal Nagpur Railway Institute, Bilaspur,² etc. All these contributed to a certain extent towards the awakening of the people in the District.

Although the birth of the Indian National Congress took place in 1885, the first signs of awakening in the Central Provinces and Berar were visible only in 1905 when the first Political Conference was organised at Nagpur. This was followed by the second Political Conference at Jabalpur in 1906 and the third at Nagpur in 1907. In the upsurge that swept through the country in the wake of the partition of Bengal, Tarachand took a leading part in the freedom movement of the District. To him goes the honour of being the first politically conscious worker of the District. He took up political education of students and labour class.

Later, the politically conscious workers of the Provinces closed their ranks and formed the "Central Provinces and Berar Provincial Association in November, 1915. Among the members of its Standing Committee, Bilaspur was represented by Nagendra Nath De, Munshi Akbar Khan, Thakur Man Mohan Singh, Trimbak Rao Dehankar and Kunj Biharilal Agnihotri.³ When the Home Rule League, started by Annie Besant, took up the cause of India's freedom, a branch of the League was established at Bilaspur in 1915.⁴ Besides the above leaders, prominent among those who took part in furthering the cause of awakening in the District were Gajadhar Say, Munnalal Swami, Govind Prasad Tiwari and Ambika Prasad Verma. Subsequently, 'Bal Samaj Pusta-

1. *Shukul Abhinandan Granth*, p. 135.

2. C.P. Administration Report for the years 1882, 1887, 1195 and 1897.

3. Prayag Dutt Shukul, *Kranti ke Charan*, p. 130.

4. *ibid.* p. 136.

kalaya' and 'Sewa Samiti' were organised by Yadunandan Prasad and Thakur Chhedilal, respectively. These institutions did pioneering work for the cause of national awakening.

After the momentous Nagpur Session of the Congress in December, 1920, deciding the course of Non-Co-operation Movement, the Province was grouped into three Congress Committees, namely, the Berar Central Provinces (later called Vidarbha Provincial Committee), the Hindi Central Provinces, (later called the Mahakoshal Provincial Committee) and the Marathi Central Provinces (later the Nagpur Provincial Committee). This realignment of the province on linguistic principle had significant effect on the growth of freedom movement in the District.

The Non-Co-operation Movement began in the District at Ratanpur. Sadasheo Rao Harpal, though quite young in age, led the movement. He was arrested alongwith Purshottamdas, Govind Prasad, Amarnath, Gainde Ram and Chamroo. The punitive force was imposed on Ratanpur. Of the total expenditure of about Rs. 4,000, half the amount was recovered from the family of Sadasheo Rao. At Bilaspur, Thakur Chhedilal, E. Raghavendra Rao and Vamandeo Khankhoje gave up legal practice, while Yadunandan Prasad Shrivastava and Shiv Lal Verma gave up service career.

The new mood was best reflected in the Hindi C.P. Provincial Political Conference held at Jabalpur in May, 1921. Dr. Raghavendra Rao from Bilaspur presided over the Conference¹ which was attended by a record number of delegates and visitors. Dr. Raghavendra Rao defended the policy of non-co-operation on the ground that it was based on the traditions and morality of our race. The Conference set up a Committee for Mahakoshal with Dr. Rao as President and prepared a programme for intensive political propaganda throughout the area.²

On 5th July, 1921, Makhani Chaturvedi was sentenced to eight months' rigorous imprisonment by the Bilaspur Magistrate, on the charge of guiding the Movement at Bilaspur.³ Students of the District also did not lag behind and a number of them including Dular Sai, Kanhaiyalal Verma and others left the Government School and joined Rashtriya Vidyalyaya which was established on the initiative of Dr. Shiv Dulare Mishra. Later Kanhaiyalal Verma joined the Kashi Vidyapeeth where he was the classmate of Lal Bahadur Shastri and Dr. Keskar. The untimely death of Kanhaiyalal de-

1. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 303.

2. *ibid.* p. 309.

3. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in C.P. and Berar, p. 8.

prived the District of his valuable services for the cause of the nation. During this period Ganpat Lal of Mungeli, Manoharlal Shukla of Katghora, Hafizji of Janjgir and Babu Purshottam Das of Ratanpur were the prominent nationalists.

The Hindi C.P. Committee met again in January, 1922 at Hoshangabad at which it was decided to collect a lakh and a half rupees for the Tilak Swarajya Fund. A Rashtriya Shiksha Mandal was also formed for controlling all the national schools in the Province, and Dr. Raghavendra Rao, Thakur Chhedilal and Shyam Sunder Bhargava were elected members of the Shiksha Board.¹ Bilaspur had the rare honour of having the first two of the three aforesaid members from the District.

Just when the national movement was gaining a foothold in the District, a split took place unfortunately in the Hindi C.P. Committee in its Session held at Chhindwara. Dr. Raghavendra Rao resigned from the Presidency of the Committee and was replaced by Pandit Sunderlal Tapasvi.²

Then followed the famous Jhanda Satyagraha of 1923 which rocked the country. When the centre of the Flag Satyagraha shifted from Jabalpur to Nagpur, a number of volunteers from Bilaspur took part in the Flag Satyagraha in the Satyagraha at Nagpur.

The successful termination of the Flag Satyagraha in August, 1923, was followed by the Special Session of the Congress in September, 1923, at Delhi. A green signal was given to the Swarajists to fight the ensuing elections of Provincial and Central Legislatures, to wreck the administration from within. The results of the elections showed an overwhelming majority for the swarajists in the Province. Dr. Raghavendra Rao and Thakur Chhedilal of the District were among the successful candidates³ of the Swarajist Party.

Dr. Rao was the leader of the Swarajist group of the Hindi Central Provinces. He tried to form the ministry, but his attempts were frustrated by Dr. B.S. Munje and the ministry could not be formed.⁴

For the time being Dr. Raghavendra Rao remained in the Swarajist Party working actively for its ideals. On 20th April, 1926, as a result of the dead-lock caused by the withdrawal of Swarajist Party from the C.P. Legisla-

1. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 310.
2. Seth Govind Das, *Atma Nirikshan*, Vol. II, pp. 81-82.
3. *ibid.* p. 105.
5. *ibid.* p. 107.

tive Council, dyarchy was suspended in the Province.¹ Thereafter, the parties began to marshall their forces to fight the next elections. Dr. Raghavendra Rao formed in the Hindi speaking area an Independent Congress Party.

Before quitting the Swarajist Party, Dr. Rao tried to bargain with Motilal Nehru, who was then leading the Swarajist Party. A meeting between Motilal Nehru and Dr. Rao was arranged at Mussoree with the help of Seth Govind Das.² However, on the question of allotment of Party tickets for ensuing elections of 1926, the talks broke down.³

Dr. Raghvendra Rao resigned from the Swarajist Party, and set up his own party, candidates, in opposition to the Congress. Dr. Rao was also successful in getting the support of all prominent Congressmen of the District with the sole exception of the Secretary, District Congress Committee, Dr. Shiv Dulare Mishra, who remained loyal to the cause of the Congress.⁴ In the elections, all the party candidates set up by Dr. Raghavendra Rao were routed in the Mahakoshal area.⁵ Dr. Rao alone got elected since the nomination form of the formidable Congress candidate Thakur Pyarelal Singh was rejected.⁶

However, after the General Elections of 1926 the Congress found itself less strong than the Swaraj Party had been after 1923 General Elections. Hence, Raghavendra Rao succeeded in bringing about other parties to his side and thus formed a conglomerate group in majority called Nationalist Party. On 12 January 1927 Dr. Rao was appointed as minister⁷ and was assigned the Education portfolio.

In August 1928 differences arose in the Coalition Government and, therefore, Dr. Raghavendra Rao and the other ministers had to resign. Shortly afterwards Dr. Rao was appointed as Member of the Executive Council⁸, which post he retained upto March, 1937⁹. Meanwhile, in 1929, the Mahakoshal Congress was reorganised. The same year Thakur Chhedilal also returned to the Congress fold leaving Dr. Rao's Independent Congress Party.

Civil Disobedience Movement

After the Lahore Congress (December 31, 1929) and declaration of *Purna Swarajya* as the goal, events moved rapidly. It was decided to celebrate the *Purna Swarajya* 'Week' from 6 April to 13 April 1930 at Bilaspur, as all over India, with great enthusiasm.

1. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 345.
2. Govind Das, *op. cit.*, pp. 145-46.
3. *ibid.* p. 146.
4. D. P. Mishra, *Living An Era*, p. 95.
5. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 346.
6. Seth Govind Das, *op. cit.*, p. 149.
7. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 361.
8. *ibid.* p. 392.
9. *ibid.* pp. 425 and 427.

The Municipal Committee unanimously passed a resolution (moved by Dr. Shiv Dularé Mishra) on 27th January 1930 that on ceremonial occasions Kaumi Jhanda (tricolour flag) be hoisted on the municipal building.¹

Thus followed the Forest Satyagraha, boycott of foreign goods and picketing of liquor shops. The Government High School, Bilaspur, was closed down, for the students of that institution took an active part in the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1930. This action infuriated the students. They hoisted the Congress flag on the school building on the 4th of August 1930, upon which the District Superintendent of Police reached the spot with his force and pulled down the flag. The police van that was taking the flag away was pelted with stones, injuring 14 constables and the Deputy Superintendent of Police.²

The members of the Municipal Committee also did not lag behind in this respect. They decided, by a resolution, on 17 August 1930, moved by Dr. Shiv Dularé Mishra to hoist the Congress flag on the municipal building the same day.³ The event took place in the presence of a large gathering and there was stiff opposition by the District Police.

Again, on the 24th of August 1930, when the police made some arrests the people showered stones upon the police on their way to the jail. As a result one Deputy Superintendent of Police and 4 constables were injured.⁴ Such sporadic cases of violence were repeated in September also. Those who were arrested, among others, during this Movement were, Ramcharan Sahu, Shiv Prasad, Dukalu, Rajaram Sahu, Ramiyawan Mishra, Shiv Ratan Tiwari, Chaubelal Sahu, Rameshwar Sahu, Jagoba, Ganga Prasad, Laxman and Badrinath Gupta.

With the calling off of the Civil Disobedience Movement after the conclusion of Gandhi-Irwin Pact on 5 March 1931 the agitation in Bilaspur District also ceased.

The second phase of Civil Disobedience Movement began soon after the rearrest of Mahatma Gandhi on 4 January 1932 on his return from the Round Table Conference in London. But this time, the Government was ready with all the punitive measures. The unlawful Instigation Ordinance (III of 1932) was applied to Bilaspur District also.⁵ Then the Molestation and Boycotting Ordinance (V of 1932) was also applied to the District.⁶ On the 25th of February 1932 Thakur Chhedilal was fined Rs. 250 by 1st Class

1. Proceedings of Bilaspur Municipal Committee, dated 27 January, 1930.
2. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the C.P. and Berar, 31st December, 1930, pp. 21 and 28.
3. Proceedings of Bilaspur Municipal Committee, dated 17 August, 1930.
4. *ibid.* p. 28.
5. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the C.P. and Berar, 31st December, 1930, p. 28.
6. *ibid.*

Magistrate, Bilaspur, for he and the congress volunteers had picketed foreign cloth shops in the Sadar Bazar, Bilaspur.¹

On 29th May, 1932, a combined Political Conference of Mahakoshal, Nagpur and Vidarbha was organised at Nagpur. The Conference was to be inaugurated by Ghanshyam Singh Gupta. But he having been arrested, Chhedilal was assigned the Presidentship. When Chhedilal started reading the Presidential address, he too was arrested,² and was fined Rs. 500 by the Magistrate.³

Subsequently, on his taking part in the Civil Disobedience Movement, the practising license of Chhedilal was cancelled. The Movement continued unabated in the District, taking the number of arrestees to 78 by 18 March, 1933.⁴ On the 7th of April 1934 the Civil Disobedience Movement was called off by Mahatma Gandhi. The leaders then started organising people for a future freedom fight.

Gandhiji's Visit

Gandhiji utilised the breathing time thus afforded by calling off of the Movement in constructive work dearest to his heart—eradication of untouchability and upliftment of Harijans. In the course of his historic countrywide tour for Harijan Welfare, Gandhiji visited Bilaspur also. He reached Bilaspur from Raipur on the 25th of November 1933. On the way, he was accorded a grand reception at village Jorhabhata. Subsequently, in a large procession Gandhiji was taken to Bilaspur where he stayed with Kunj Biharilal Agnihotri.⁵

A meeting was arranged by the women of Bilaspur city in the garden of the Municipality building, where a purse of Rs. 1000/- was presented to Gandhiji.⁶ After this Gandhiji addressed a very large gathering at the Shani-shara Parav which was renamed as Gandhi Chowk as a memorial to his visit. A purse of two thousand rupees was presented here to Gandhiji.⁷ When the meeting was over, the people took away all the stones and bricks of that *Chabutra*, on which Gandhiji was seated, as a token of his memory. The same evening Gandhiji returned to Raipur.

Popular Ministry in 1937

In the General Elections of 1937 the Congress came out victorious with a thumping majority. The Deputy Commissioner, Bilaspur, passed the following comments on the results of the elections: "I am informed, word went round the villages that Gandhiji wanted their votes. Villagers, therefore, flocked in large numbers and approached the green box (the Congress box) with great veneration and *salamed* it before putting their voting papers into it."⁸

1. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in the C.P. and Berar, p. 31.
2. Note on the Second Civil Disobedience Movement in the C.P. and Berar, 1932-33, p. 2.
3. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in the C.P. and Berar, pp. 14, 26.
4. Note on the Second Civil Disobedience Movement in the C.P. and Berar, 1932-33, p. 2 and Appendix.
5. *Madhya Pradesh Aur Gandhiji*, pp. 31-32.
6. *ibid.* p. 32.
7. *ibid.*
8. *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 426.

Before forming the Ministry, the Congress asked the Governors of the Provinces to give an assurance that they would act according to the advice of the ministers on all constitutional matters, and would not use their discretionary powers. Failing to obtain this assurance, the Congress refused to accept the office in all the Provinces, where the Congress had been returned in majority. This led to the unconstitutional action on the part of the Governor of setting up a ministry, consisting of Dr. Raghavendra Rao and three others, which had no following in the Central Provinces and Berar.

On 1st April, 1937, when the Constitution came into force, the ministry headed by Dr. Rao took office. In order to save the Cabinet from immediate collapse, the Governor refrained from summoning a meeting of the Assembly.¹

This had an interesting sequel. All the Congress members and some others met at a theatre in Nagpur and started deliberations of the assembly, thereby exposing the British Government's arbitrary action. Ultimately, the Government conceded to a large extent the demand of the Congress. Raghavendra Rao ministry resigned on 14th July, 1937 and on the day the Congress Ministry took up office under the leadership of Dr. N.B. Khare.²

In the early months of the Congress regime in Bilaspur and other places, the bureaucracy met with a not very pleasing experience during their tours, which was a testimony to the far-reaching influence of the Congress among the masses. The Sub-Divisional Officer, Bilaspur, complained as early as in August 1937, that the villagers were refusing to render him those customary free services which had been a part of the touring officer's normal expectations. No one would give him even a quarter seer of milk. He went on to say, "I have good reasons to believe that touring officers of all the departments have been experiencing various kinds of difficulties, and I am sure every one will have his own tale to tell. These difficulties appear to be due to deliberate misunderstanding caused by irresponsible workers of the Congress."³

Again, in another context, he said. This state of affairs is due to the Congress propaganda that was done before and after the elections. The local leaders keep on occasionally visiting the locality and reminding the public that the Government servants are now their servants.

At this the Governor was alarmed. The Chief Secretary took up this matter with the Chief Minister. This was in January 1938. The Chief Minis-

1. *ibid.* p. 427.

2. *ibid.* p. 429.

3. *ibid.* p. 432.

ter noted, "I have spoken to Bilaspur M.L.As. and the matter, I think, will be set right."¹

A few weeks later the Deputy Commissioner, Bilaspur, wrote to the Commissioner, Chhattisgarh Division, of the complete change in the situation. "Personally, in my tour in the Janjgir tahsil month, I received almost cordial welcome everywhere. No difficulties were experienced either by me or by my camp followers in obtaining supplies or labour."² No wonder bureaucracy came to entertain a wholesome respect for the pervasive influence of the Congress.

Individual Satyagraha

When the Second World War broke out, the Congress refused co-operation in a war which was conducted on imperialistic lines and the ministry resigned in November, 1939. This was followed by the launching of the Individual *Satyagraha*. For preparing the people for this *satyagraha*, District leaders and workers started touring the District. The British Government took a note of it and arrested six freedom fighters. They were Thakur Chhedilal, Yadunandan Prasad, Sardar Amar Singh Sahgal, Ram Gopal Tiwari, Dr. Jwala Prasad Mishra, and Bhuwan Bhaskar Singh. These workers were arrested and imprisoned for varying terms. Thus, they were in jail even before the Individual *Satyagraha* actually started. Mahatma Gandhi initially allowed 550 freedom fighters only from the Mahakoshal Region to offer *satyagraha*. Of these as many as 120 were from Bilaspur, which was the highest number in the region. Later, more people were allowed to offer *satyagraha* by Gandhiji. Thus, till May 1941, out of 2,761 *satyagrahis* from Mahakoshal, 201 were from Bilaspur. Mukund Kesheo Chitale, Dr. Ramacharan Rai, Chintaman Rao Ottalwar, Deo Dutt Bhatt of Mungeli, G.G. Disit, Babulal Kesharwani, Rajkishore Verma, Murlidhar Mishra, Mathura Prasad Dube, Kashi Ram Tiwari, Ramlal Vaishya, Ramcharan Sahu, Ganga Prasad and Badri Prasad were some of the prominent *satyagrahis*.

Quit India Movement

From now onwards, the country moved irresistibly to a final clash. On 8th August, 1942, the All India Congress Committee passed the "Quit India" resolution. The Government reacted sharply by declaring the Congress illegal and arresting its top leaders. The people reacted violently. The British Government arrested almost all those *Satyagrahis*, who were arrested in the individual *Satyagraha*. Notable among the new freedom fighters was Dr.

1. *ibid.*

2. *ibid.*

Deoras. Among those who had active sympathy with the freedom fighters were Bashir Ahmad Qureshi and Laxmi Narayan Dua and many others.

In May 1945 Mahatma Gandhi was released from detention on the grounds of ill health. Shortly after, the Labour Government came into power in Britain. The new Government decided to hold elections at the beginning of 1946. The results of the elections were overwhelming in favour of the Congress.

About this time the trial of Indian National Army prisoners created another wave of popular demonstrations. More dangerous still were the mutiny in Royal Indian Navy in 1945, and the Police Strike in Bihar.

These developments forced the British Government to transfer power to India on the midnight of 14th August, 1947.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

Population

Bilaspur, the most populous District in the State, ranked fourth largest in respect of area, and seventh largest in respect of density in 1961. With a population of 20,21,793 on a land area of 20,144.77 sq. km.¹ (7,777.90 sq. miles), according to Census 1961, the population distribution amidst its five tahsils is roughly even, excepting the headquarters Tahsil of Bilaspur, which recorded a population of 6,66,185 in 1961. Sakti Tahsil, which is the smallest in area, is the most densely populated tract (535 persons per sq. mile), followed by Janjgir Tahsil (481), Bilaspur Tahsil (438), Mungeli Tahsil (362) and Katghora Tahsil (295). The District is bounded on the north, west and east by ranges of hills, while the southern border is open, and for greater part marked by rivers—the Mahanadi and the Seonath. Almost the whole of the northern half of the District is covered by forests and hills, and thus is a sparsely populated region. The open undulating plain, which forms the upper-basin of the Mahanadi and the northern portion of the Chhattisgarh plain, is closely cultivated and thickly populated. The District consists of 3,529 inhabited and 93 uninhabited villages, Mungeli Tahsil sharing the largest number of them. The area and population distribution among the five tahsils of the District and the number of villages as per Census of 1961 is given in the following Table.

Table No. III-1
Area, number of Villages and Population 1961

Tahsil	Area in		No. of Villages		Population		
	sq. miles	sq. km.	Inhabit- ed	Uninha- bited	Persons	Male	Female
Mungeli	891.96	2,310.18	936	57	3,23,027	1,58,025	1,65,002
Bilaspur	1,522.08	3,942.19	912	10	6,66,185	3,31,177	3,35,008
Katghora	1,129.12	2,924.42	786	13	3,33,438	1,66,913	1,66,525
Janjgir	813.28	2,106.39	435	10	3,91,304	1,92,393	1,98,911
Sakti	575.72	1,491.12	460	3	3,07,839	1,50,230	1,57,609
Distt. Total	7,777.90	20,144.77	3,529	93	20,21,793	9,98,738	10,23,055

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

Note:—1. The area figures in the Table are according to State Survey Department.

1. According to Census 1971, the population of Bilaspur District was 24,40,962 on a land area of 19,905 sq. km. The density of population was 123.

Note Contd.

2. According to Surveyor-General of India, the area of the District was 7,615 sq. miles (19,723 sq. km.) in 1961.
3. The revised area figure of the District as per State Survey Department was 7,710 sq. miles in 1962-63. Mungeli Tahsil extended to 1,588 sq. miles, Bilaspur, 2,207 sq. miles; Katghora 2,435 sq. miles; Janjgir, 869 sq. miles; and Sakti 611 sq. miles in area.
4. Since the tahsil-wise break-up of the forest area is not available, the same has not been included in the respective areas of the tahsils, though it is included in the District total. The total forest area is 2,845.74 sq. miles (7,370.47 sq. km.).
5. According to Census 1971, the population of males was 12,18,083 and females was 12,22,879.

Since 1951, the District has undergone considerable territorial changes affecting all barring Katghora Tahsil. Consequently, the District area increased by 114.4 sq. miles in 1961. Rural area extending over 7,731.26 sq. miles (20,023.97 sq. km.) contained 18,53,356 persons, leaving the rest, i.e. 1,68,437 persons in ten urban centres over an area of 46.64 sq. miles (120.80 sq. km.). Rural population lived in its 3,66,339 residential houses of various description, while 36,000 residential houses in the urban areas housed 1,68,437 persons according to Census 1961.

Proportion of Sexes

The general demographic pattern obtaining in Census 1961 is that the southern and south-eastern districts show a higher sex-ratio in Madhya Pradesh. Bilaspur District, which lies in the eastern part of the State, during all along the past 60 years' demographic history, maintained its place in first five districts having the highest sex-ratio. With 1,024 females per 1,000 males in 1961, the District ranked second highest in the State, receding to third place when rural sex-ratio is taken account of. The rural sex-ratio was 1,036. Separately, the south-eastern Sakti Tahsil with a rural sex-ratio of 1,052 showed higher feminine proportion than the rest of the tahsils. Mungeli Tahsil with a sex-ratio of 1040, Bilaspur Tahsil with 1033, Katghora Tahsil with 1017, and Janjgir Tahsil with 1040, present a uniform female excess in 1961. The Table below compares the sex-ratio in the District in 1951 and 1961 Census.

Table No. III-2

Sex-Ratio, 1951 and 1961

	Sex-Ratio					
	1961			1951		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Mungeli	1,044	1,040	981	1,072	1,075	991
Bilaspur	1,011	1,033	908	1,013	1,019	949
Katghora	998	1,017	705	1,017	1,017	998
Janjgir	1,034	1,040	936	1,047	1,048	—
Sakti	1,049	1,052	925	—	—	—

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

The trend in sex-ratio variation during the demographic history of the past six decades has all along been of persistently increasing masculinity which is clearly revealed in the following Table.

Table No. III-3

Variation in Sex-Ratio, 1901-1971

Year	Sex-Ratio (No. of females per 1000 males)		
	Total	Rural	Urban
1901	1,056	1,057	1,022
1911	1,051	1,051	1,032
1921	1,046	1,048	982
1931	1,046	1,049	953
1941	1,035	1,037	973
1951	1,034	1,037	964
1961	1,024	1,036	902
1971	1,004	1,016	961

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961, and Census Report 1971.

The deterioration in sex-ratio has been steeper in the urban areas, where it declined from 1,022 to 902 in 1961 or by 11.7 per cent. The twin

Rural-Urban
Sex-Ratio

causes of urbanisation and feminine mortality, the former stemming out of increased industrialisation and consequent briskness in trade and commerce, have all along been in operation in Bilaspur. The latter, i. e., feminine mortality, was acutely felt during the influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which depressed the sex-ratio to a considerable extent in urban areas. Although more recently, the Korba complex has given a big boost to the industrialisation of the area, yet "The deteriorating sex-ratio reflects on our social health, for it indicates that the risk to female lives at most ages has not improved upon that to male lives; on the contrary, it seems to emphasise that demographically we have not yet entered upon the modern industrial age with its complementary characteristics of increased risks to males and reduced risks to female lives"¹. The more drastic deterioration in sex-ratio in 1961, in urban areas, corroborates the view that in an industrial area the sex-ratio generally remains low, particularly when it is new. The Korba Mining area, which emerged as a township only in 1961 Census owing to its mining colony, recorded as low a sex-ratio of 705 females per 1,000 males.

The proportion of sexes in different age-groups in the District, deviates much from the State pattern, which shows masculine excess in all age-groups below 60 years, barring 20-24 age-group. The proportion of females in the District was higher in age-groups 0-4, 5-9, 20-24, 40-44, and 55-59 as compared to the State ratios.

A significant feature in the District is low sex-ratio in age-group 10-14, conforming to the State pattern. Social stigma attached to the age of marriage of girls is perhaps responsible for depressing the age of unmarried girls to below 10 years, and pushing up that of married girls beyond 14 years of age.

Growth of Population

The first enumeration of the District population was made in 1866, followed by another in 1872. In 1881 the population was returned as 10,17,327 persons, which showed an increase of about 42 per cent over that of 1872. The area of the District then was 7,798 sq. miles. In 1891 the population was 11,64,158 persons, showing an increase of 14.5 per cent on the figures of the previous Census. At this Census, the area of the District increased to 8,341 sq. miles due to corrections in survey.

The last decade of the nineteenth century was characterised by abrupt failure of rains and consequent drought conditions during the mid-years. The year 1899 was again a bad year which severely affected the population of the District. The population declined by about 13 per cent during 1891-1901

decade and stood at 10,12,972 in 1901. The excess of deaths over births during certain years, and considerable amount of emigration were the factors responsible for the decline. Emigration to Assam was reported to be of the order of 33,000 persons during the decade.

In 1901, the population of Bilaspur adjusted to its present territorial jurisdiction was 9,23,632, which increased to 20,21,793 in 1961. The percentage decade variation in population since the beginning of the present century is given below.

Table No. III-4

Variation in Population, 1901-1971

Year	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
1901	9,23,632	—	—
1911	11,67,302	+2,43,670	+26.38
1921	12,57,266	+ 89,964	+ 7.71
1931	14,31,694	+1,74,428	+13.87
1941	16,11,844	+1,80,150	+12.58
1951	17,46,090	+1,34,246	+ 8.33
1961	20,21,793	+2,75,703	+15.79
1971	24,40,962	+4,19,169	+ 18.8

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961 and Census Report 1971.

The District commanded much greater area (8,341 sq. miles) till 1905, when important territorial adjustments were made. Sambalpur district was ceded to Bengal in that year and, consequent upon this, Malkharoda and Chandarpur-Padampur estates there of, and nine villages of *Khalsa* of that district with an area of 333 sq. miles were transferred to Bilaspur District. In the following year, the administratively unwieldy Bilaspur District was further made to part with 363 sq. miles of its tract to the newly constituted Durg district, and at the same time an area of 706 sq. miles was also transferred to Raipur district. These changes had far reaching effects on the population of the District which declined to 9,17,240 from 10,12,972 in 1901. However, the adjusted population, as given in the foregoing Table records the highest ever decade increase, i. e. 26.38 per cent during 1901-11 decade. Apart from large natural increase owing to fairly high birth-rate and generally low-death-rate, the return of emigrants who left the District in the wake of famine preceding the 1901 Census count, were largely

¹Census of India, 1961, Report No. I of 1962, p. XVI.

responsible for the same. Fresh immigration in the northern parts of the District from the erstwhile feudatory States also contributed to this steep rise in the District population during this decade.¹

Notwithstanding the fulminating influenza epidemic that gripped the State, and comparatively uncongenial conditions as far as agricultural production was concerned, the District population increased to 12,57,266 or by 7.71 per cent during 1911-21 decade.

It appears that less affected Bilaspur District received substantial immigration of Gonds from Surguja, who settled down in Mungeli and Katghora Tahsils. The inter-censal period witnessed a decline in the number of emigrants by about 10,000; probably the temporary emigrants had also begun to return to their homes by the time the 1921 Census count was underway². The immigration from distant parts of the erstwhile Central Provinces and Berar recorded an increase from 8,000 to 14,000 persons.³

The succeeding three inter-censal decades showed no abnormal trend in the growth of the District population. The Census 1931 recorded a population of 14,31,694 persons, representing an average increase of 13.87 per cent over 1921 population. The excess of births over deaths (actual figure of excess being 1,47,457) was mainly instrumental for such a large increase in the District population. The increase would have been still larger but for the considerable emigration to Bengal, Bihar and Orissa from Bilaspur, and also because of a fall of over 22,000 in the number of immigrants during this decade. About 12.58 per cent increase during 1931-41 decade, even after the transference of 80 sq. miles of the tract to the "New Province" of Orissa, which was constituted in 1936, should be deemed considerable. Comparatively less propitious period for population growth was 1941-51 decade, when the District population increased to 17,46,090 in 1951, representing an increase of 8.33 per cent over 1941 population.

During the momentous decade 1951-61, the District again underwent some territorial adjustments, and registered even large growth in the District population. Whereas the District was made to part with a tract of 40.8 sq. miles to Raigarh district, it gained 155.2 sq. mile of area from it. The District population moved to 20,21,793 in 1961, thereby recording an increase of 15.79 per cent over the previous decade. The reason for this increase appears to lie in the fact that the number of deaths was considerably arrested by the greater

1. Census of India, 1911, C.P. & Berar, p. 43.

2. *ibid.* 1921, p. 22.

3. *ibid.* p. 45.

medical facilities made available to the people under the Plans. The infant mortality has been much checked and Malaria, which had been notorious for taking heavy toll of life in the jungle tracts, has been largely eradicated. According to the figures collected by the Director of Health Services the birth-rate during 1951-61 varied between 26.75, the lowest in 1954, and 34.95, the highest in 1955. The death-rate, however, varied between 17.49, the lowest in 1956, and 26.52, the highest in 1958 during the decade. When compared to surrounding districts, Bilaspur District, though most populous recorded the least increase in population. It appears, that one of the factors for this paradox was that in respect of migration the District has been on the giving rather than the receiving end. This is borne out by the following figures:—

Table No. III-5

Number of Migrants, 1961

District	No. of persons born in Bilaspur District and enumerated in other districts	No. of persons born in the District mentioned below and enumerated in Bilaspur districts
Mandla	2,569	3,657
Shahdol	10,335	8,650
Surguja	9,993	6,672
Raigarh	33,688	25,136
Raipur	35,856	29,019
Durg	24,948	21,197
Total	1,17,389	94,331

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

Bilaspur has close immigration link with the six contiguous districts which account for major share in total migration. Except for Mandla, the emigrants to each of the other districts over-stepped the migration links migrants from these districts. The District thereby suffered a shortfall of 23,058 persons on account of migration during the decade. Comparatively a backward tract industrially, as also in respect of mineral deposits, Bilaspur has not yet found place at par with other faster developing districts like Raipur and Durg. The agricultural sector affords no substantial incentive to immigration which has reached more or less a saturation point.

Since 1901, a span of 60 years brought about large and continuous increase in population in each successive decade. The overall increase during 1901-1961 was 118.90 per cent, which is largest when compared to Durg and Raipur. Durg increased by 81.56 per cent and Raipur 105.34 per cent, during the same period.

Density of Population

The population of 20.22 lakhs on a land area of 7,777.90 sq. miles in 1961, gave an average of 260 persons per sq. mile, the highest amongst the six eastern districts of Madhya Pradesh, namely, Surguja, Bilaspur, Raipur, Raigarh, Durg and Bastar. The following Table gives the tahsil-wise density according to Census 1961.

Table No. III-6

Density of Population, 1961

Tahsils	Density (per sq. mile)		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Mungeli	362	349	5,782
Bilaspur	438	371	4,353
Katghora	295	284	22,186
Janjgir	481	460	1,637
Sakti	535	524	2,321
Distt. Density	260	240	3,611

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

Note:—In 1971, the density of population in Bilaspur District increased from 102 in 1961 to 123 persons per sq. km.

Density Ranking

Standing seventh in the descending order of general population density in the State, Bilaspur District maintains its third highest place among the rural densities of the State, the first two being Bhind district (346) and Rewa district (301). The peculiarities of its topography are mainly responsible for the typical distribution of population in the District. The wooded and hilly northern half of the District is thus sparsely populated and the plain region is densely populated.

The abnormal feature of population distribution discussed in 1951 Census is reproduced here. "The Bilaspur district of the Chhattisgarh plain shows abnormal features in as much as about 11 per cent of the rural population of this district lives in large villages as against 5.6 per cent in the Chhattisgarh plain as a whole. Thus this district presents a picture in which the percentage of people who live in large villages is high although the overall percentage of the people in high density tahsils is by no means very large. This would apparently mean that these big villages are scattered all over the district, but the real explanation is that the district is a non-homogeneous tract with heavy concentration of population and large villages in the rich rice producing areas of Janjgir, Bilaspur and Mungeli tahsils and with sparsely populated forest tracts in the Katghora tahsil adjoining the backward Surguja District"¹.

Rural and Urban Population

The rural area comprising 3,539 inhabited and 93 uninhabited villages accounted for 18,53,356 persons and urban area comprising ten towns for 1,68,437 persons according to Census 1961. This roughly gives the ratio of rural and urban population as 92:8.

The following Table gives the distribution of rural and urban population in tahsil break-up.

Table No. III-7

Rural and Urban Population, 1961

Total	No. of Villages		No. of towns	Total	Population	
	Inhabited	Uninhabited			Rural	Urban
Mungeli	936	57	1	3,23,027	3,10,596	12,431
Bilaspur	912	10	5	6,66,185	5,55,150	1,11,035
Katghora	786	13	1	3,33,438	3,21,014	12,424
Janjgir	435	10	2	3,91,304	3,66,882	24,422
Sakti	460	3	1	3,07,839	2,99,714	8,125
Distt. Total	3,529	93	10	20,21,793	18,53,356	1,68,437

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Hand book, 1961.

Note:—According to Census 1971, the rural population was 21,76,849 and urban population 2,64,113.

1. Census of India, 1951, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. I-A, p. 72.

During 1901-61, the urban population of the District increased by 424.50 per cent and the rural population increased by 107.89 per cent. The highest increase (140.15 per cent) was recorded during the Growth 1901-1961 last decade as far as urban population was concerned.

Against five towns in 1951, the number of towns increased to 10 in 1961. Thus the growth in the urban population is not actually a reflection of urbanisation or industrialisation. The only town which has sprung up as a direct result of industrialisation is Korba Mining Colony.

Classified by population, 62.14 per cent of the villages in Bilaspur District had less than 500 persons, and covered about 30.09 per cent of the total population. Between 500 and 999 population, the percentage of villages was 26.07, which accounted for 34.18 per cent of the total population. The rest of the 11.79 per cent of villages with a population of 1,000 and above but less than 9,999 persons covered 35.53 per cent of the total population according to Census 1961. Thus a little more than 88 per cent of the villages in the District were small with less than 1,000 persons and covered about 64.27 per cent of the population. Compared to 1951 figures, the percentage of villages at the two extremes, i.e., in category with less than 500 persons and more than 5,000 to 9,999 persons has declined, the former from 67.66 to 62.14 and latter from 0.14 to 0.11. The decrease in the latter category was mainly because of such villages being upgraded as towns in 1961 Census.

Bilaspur Tahsil with five urban centres accounted for the largest urban population, followed by Janjgir which had two urban centres. The rest of the three tahsils shared a town each. During the sixty years since 1901, the growth in urban population has been tremendous (424.50 per cent), the largest increase, i.e., 140.15 per cent being recorded during the last decade 1951-61.

The Table given below gives the percentage variation in rural and urban population during this century.

Table No. III-8

Variation in Rural and Urban Population, 1901-1971

Year	Rural		Urban	
	Population	Percentage variation	Population	Percentage Variation
1901	8,96,997	—	26,635	—
1911	11,14,571	+26.38	25,731	— 2.75
1921	12,20,091	+ 7.71	37,175	+ 34.25

1931	13,82,053	+13.87	49,641	+ 18.40
1941	15,49,062	+12.58	62,782	+ 26.41
1951	16,75,953	+ 8.33	70,137	+ 11.72
1961	18,53,356	+15.79	1,68,437	+140.15
1971	21,76,849	+17.5	2,64,113	+ 56.7

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Hand book, 1961.

Except for the opening decade of this century when there was a fall of 2.75 per cent in the urban population, the increase in each successive decade had been large and continuous. But rural population grew by 107.89 per cent over the entire span of 60 years of this century.

As against ten towns in 1961, there were only five in 1951, which are responsible for over four-fold increase in the urban population during this decade. Five new townships are Korba Mining Area, Akaltara, Pendra, Takhatpura and Gaurella. The population of Town Population towns at different censuses between 1901 and 1961, beginning with the year in which they were first classified as towns, is given in the following Table:—

Table No. III-9

Variation in Population of Towns, 1901-1971

Town		Year							
		1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971
Bilaspur	(M)	18,937	19,850	24,295	31,374	37,460	39,099	86,706	N.A.
Champa	(M)	—	—	6,344	8,362	9,868	11,907	16,258	—
Mungeli	(M)	5,997	5,881	6,536	6,665	6,915	8,108	12,431	—
Korba Mining Area	(M)	—	—	—	—	—	—	12,424	—
Akaltara	(G.P.)	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,164	—
Sakti	(M)	1,791	De-classified	—	3,240	4,187	5,301	8,125	—
Kota	(M)	—	—	—	—	4,352	5,722	6,591	—
Pendra	(G.P.)	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,081	—
Takhatpura	(G.P.)	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,075	—
Gaurella	(G.P.)	—	..	—	—	—	—	5,582	—

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

Note:—(M) Municipality.

(G.P.) Gram Panchayat.

It may be seen that only three towns had continued existence since 1901. Sakti, however, was declassified in the Census of 1911 and 1921. The population in other two towns, namely Bilaspur and Mungeli increased by 357.3 and 110.4 per cent, respectively, during the period 1901-61.

During the last decade, the population of Bilaspur town increased by 121.76 per cent, which hardly reflects the true increase in the population. The fact that the municipal limits of Bilaspur town were extended to include three villages, namely, Torwa, Sarkanda and Chantidih, which together had a population of 9,663 in 1951, was responsible for the high increase. Another contributing factor had been the addition of four villages and the Station Settlement to the town as non-municipal urban area in Census 1961.

Displaced Population

The partition of the country in 1947 was followed by widespread communal disturbances. This resulted in vast movement of population during the successive years, and the people thus uprooted from Pakistan spread throughout the length and breadth of the country. During the years 1946 to 1951 (upto February), 6997 displaced persons arrived in the District, comprising 3,902 males and 3,095 females. Dadu (3,418), Gujarat (744), Larkhana (1,202), Bahawalpur (357) and Sukkur (230) were the main districts in the erstwhile Pakistan from where refugees immigrated to Bilaspur District and settled there. Of these 4,625 refugees settled in the rural areas and 2,372 in the non-city urban areas.

In conformity with the State pattern, and overwhelming majority of these displaced persons in Bilaspur District preferred non-agricultural occupations for their means of livelihood. As many as 6,928 persons were enumerated in these occupations in 1951 Census, and 69 in 'Agricultural Occupations'. 'Commerce' and 'Other services and miscellaneous sources' claiming the majority of these persons, i.e., 5,353 and 667, respectively. It appears that one of the main reasons for their dependence on 'non-agricultural occupations' was the non-availability of land to them. It is interesting to note that more than 41 per cent of the displaced persons who immigrated in the District were literate.

Language

Broadly speaking, in all 65 languages/dialects spoken as mother tongue in the District have been returned in 1961 census. Regional distribution of some numerically important languages/dialects is given in the following Table:—

Table No. III-10

Mother Tongue, 1961

Mother-tongue	Total	Rural	Urban
Hindi	19,38,953	18,11,186	1,27,767
Urdu	10,000	3,684	6,316
Sindhi	9,521	3,105	6,416
Chhattisgarhi	9,139	8,906	233
Marathi	8,420	2,092	6,328
Telugu	6,199	1,485	4,714
Oriya	5,185	2,733	2,452
Kurukh (Oraon)	5,983	5,924	59
Punjabi	3,492	857	2,635
Bengali	4,690	508	4,182
Kharia	2,968	2,950	18
Marwari	2,779	2,068	711
Gujarati	2,511	609	1,902
Rajasthani	3,207	1,859	1,348

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

Chhattisgarhi

Comprising the northern portion of the Chhattisgarh plain, about 93 per cent of the population in Bilaspur District, in the year 1901, was enumerated under Chhattisgarhi dialect of Eastern Hindi. But the figures in the Table above lead us to a different conclusion, as far as Chhattisgarhi is concerned. The figures for Hindi which claims 95.9 per cent of the population in 1961, and Chhattisgarhi 0.5 per cent do not give a correct picture of the spoken dialect in the area. Strictly speaking "Chhattisgarhi, which is a dialect of Eastern Hindi, is the true vernacular of the District".¹

Chhattisgarhi as spoken in the District is considered to be the pure or standard form of the dialect. Bilaspur with Raipur and some parts of Raigarh and Durg districts, is considered to be the home of pure Chhattisgarhi². When Ratanpur, now a village in the District, was the seat of the kingdom known as Rattanpur Chhattisgarh, the dialect spoken there had the honour of being accepted as King's or standard Chhattisgarhi³. But the modern Chhattis-

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 70.

2. G.A. Grierson, *Linguistic Survey of India*, Vol. VI, p. 212.

3. Kanti Kumar, *Chhattisgarh-ki-Gramya Jiwan Shabdawali*, p. 51.

garhi, spoken and used in expressing the literary genius of the modern Chhattisgarh, differs from the spoken vernacular in as much as it has to use words borrowed from Sanskrit.

The principal dialects of Chhattisgarhi are *Mahakosli*, *Laria* or *Khaltahi*. Grierson bracketed *Laria* and *Khaltahi* with Chhattisgarhi,¹ thus creating an impression that Chhattisgarhi, *Laria* and *Khaltahi* are various names of the same dialect. It may be pointed out here that Chhattisgarhi like *Awadhi* and *Baghelkhandi* is a dialect of the group named Eastern Hindi, while *Laria* and *Khaltahi* are sub-dialects, and are local form of Chhattisgarhi.²

As the name suggests, Chhattisgarhi is the vernacular of the region known as Chhattisgarh, which is of recent origin, and does not go back beyond 250 years.³ It is difficult to state whence Chhattisgarhi was introduced into Mahakosala, the ancient name of the region where it is now spoken. But Grierson considers that Eastern Hindi of Chhattisgarh, the home of which is Awadh, found its way through Jabalpur and Mandla, being introduced by the Aryans who originally settled there. It was, perhaps, the ancestors of Kalyan Shah who brought the language from their ancestral kingdom of Dahal—the original country of Haihayas, which extended from the Narmada to the Ganga as mentioned in Malkapuram inscription.⁴ Thence forth, owing to its geographical isolation, the dialect developed its peculiarities, and gained distinctive name. In its development, Chhattisgarhi has been influenced by Bagheli on the north, by Oriya on the east, by Telugu on the south and Marathi on the west⁵. It has also been influenced by aboriginal languages, especially *Sawari*, which apparently merged totally with the languages of immigrants. It is but natural that Chhattisgarhi greatly resembles its sister dialects of Awadhi and Bagheli.

“Peculiarities of Chhattisgarhi,” noted by Dr. Grierson “are the formation of the plural in *man* as *laikaman*, boys, the instrumental in *an* as *bhu-khan*, by hunger, and the addition of *har* to a noun to give definition as *gar-har*, the neck. This last belongs also to the Bihari of *Chutia* Nagpur. To indicate the plural *sab*, *sabo*, *sabbo*, *jama* or *jamma* may be prefixed with or without *man*, thus *jamma puto-man*, the daughters-in-law. An old form of plural ends in *an*, thus, *baila*, a bullock; plural *bailan*. In declension the following post-positions are added

1. G.A. Grierson, op. cit., p. 24.

2. Kanti Kumar, op. cit., p. 48.

3. *Chhattisgarhi ki Sarthukta*, Madhya Pradesh Sandesh, January 9, 1965, p. 18.

4. Lochan Prasad Pandey, *A Grammar of Chhattisgarhi Dialect of Hindi*, p. V.

5. *ibid*, pp. IV and V.

to the noun which remains unchanged; *ka*, to (also denotes *accusative*); *la*, for (also denotes *accusative*); *bar*, for; *le*, *se*, by, from; *ke*, of; *ma*, in. The *ke* of the genitive does not change; example *laika*, a boy; *laika-ka*, to a boy; *laika-ke*, of a boy; *laika-man-ke* of boys. There is no difference between the conjugation of transitive and intransitive verbs. The construction of the past tense is always active, not passive. The syllables *cch* and *och*, meaning even and also, are profusely used in ordinary conversation. Thus *dai-ch-ka*, even to the mother; *tor-och*, thine also.”¹

A vast majority of the Scheduled Tribes population in the District consists of Gonds (2,03,393) according to 1961 Census. Nearly all (200,636) of them returned speaking Hindi as mother-tongue, leaving an insignificant number who spoke Gondi (388), Chhattisgarhi (1,821), Oriya (91) and Tamil (380). But in the previous Gazetteer, most of the Gond population in Bilaspur was recorded to be speaking Chhattisgarhi with a slight admixture of Dravidian words. This presented a patois which slightly differed from the pure Chhattisgarhi. Grierson observed that the “use of a few aboriginal words” by the Gonds was responsible for this difference, which is not sufficient to class their speech as a separate dialect.² The patois may be particularly noted towards the interiors of north-eastern part of the District, which is influenced by Gonds. Chhattisgarhi is commonly written in the Devanagari character. The alphabets of Chhattisgarhi are nearly the same as that of Devanagari, with only a few changes and modifications to suit its particular requirements.

In the absence of any recorded tradition, the old form of Chhattisgarhi cannot be ascertained. The oldest and the only inscriptional record relating to 1703 A.D. in the Chhattisgarhi dialect, is engraved on a stone at Dantewara in Bastar district. It is doubtful whether this place was included in Chhattisgarh in olden times, but the inscription was composed by an immigrant from the north. The words and phrases such as *ke*, *bach-bca*, *thor ho*, *biah*, in the said inscription are used in modern Chhattisgarhi. Similar phraseology is found in the *Pad-mavat* of Malik Muhammad Jayasi and the *Ram Charita Manas* of Tulsidas. It is but natural that similarities of forms should be common in the off-shoot and the parent language. In the poetry of Prahlad Dubey of Sarangarh who wrote at the end of the 17th century, pure Chhattisgarhi verbs unfamiliar to Hindi have been used. In recent times efforts have been made to create literature in Chhattisgarhi and many works of prose and poetry have been published. Some periodicals are also being brought out in Chhattisgarhi. It

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 71-72.

2. G.A. Grierson, op. cit., p. 189.

has also been recognised as a medium of Radio and films. A grammar of the dialect has been written in Hindi by Hiralal Kavyopadhyaya and translated by Grierson, which was published in the journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.¹ It was revised and enlarged by Lochan Prasad Kavyavinod and published by the Government of Central Provinces and Berar in 1921.

Religion and Caste

The religious composition of the District in 1961 Census presents a picture of Hindu predominated area, constituting about 97.99 per cent of the population against 97.67 per cent a decade ago. Followers of other religions are Muslims 1.27 per cent, Christians 0.51 per cent, Sikhs 0.13 per cent and Jains 0.06 per cent. Buddhism showed some revival during the recent years as is reflected from the Census returns in 1961. Whereas only one person was returned as professing Buddhism in 1951, their number increased to 319 in 1961.

The distribution of population according to 1961 Census, professing different religious faiths is given in the following Table.

Table No. III-11

Distribution of Population by Religion, 1961

Tahsils Rural	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Sikh	Jain	Buddhist	Other religions and persuasions
Mungeli	3,05,344	2,732	2,046	339	121	14	—
Bilaspur	5,48,612	4,667	1,384	340	95	33	19
Katghora	3,18,595	2,140	148	44	8	—	79
Janjgir	3,63,790	2,428	376	106	38	1	143
Sakti	2,98,354	1,212	48	2	9	1	88
Total Rural	18,34,695	13,119	4,002	831	271	49	329
Total Urban	1,46,527	12,462	6,427	1,724	1,014	270	13
Distt. Total	19,81,222	25,641	10,429	2,555	1,285	319	342

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

1. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. Lix, Pt-I, 1890.

Hindus

Hindus also include the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, who numbered 3,67,563 or 18.18 per cent and 3,67,092 or 18.16 per cent of the total population, respectively, according to Census 1961. All of them profess Hinduism. According to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956, 15 castes (including synonymous groups) have been scheduled in the District. Similarly, 32 tribes have been scheduled under the aforesaid order. Scheduled Area in respect of tribes only extended to Bilaspur and Katghora tahsils.

In the absence of the latest Hindu caste composition in the District, the relative numerical strength of each in 1931 Census will be of interest. Accordingly, the numerically important Hindu castes and tribes were Brahmans (37,177), Chamars (1,17,978), Dhobis (29,294), Gardas (30,676), Gonds (1,23,950), Kawars (69,488) Kewats (49,901), Kurmis (64,329), Malis (49,407), Pankas (71,749), Rajputs (21,887), Satnamis (1,31,159), and Telis (1,00,999).

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The 15 Scheduled Castes professing Hinduism accounted for 18.18 per cent of the District population according to Census 1961. Chamars (3,04,528) with their synonymous group claim 82.85 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population in 1961. Among others, Gandas or Gandis (29,857), Ghasis and Ghasias (15,329), Mahars or Mehras (5,757), Mehtars or Bhangis (2,535) were numerically more pronounced.*

There were 32 Scheduled Tribes in the District who constituted 18.16 per cent of the total population of the District in 1961. Their proportion in Bilaspur Tahsil was 28.64 per cent and Katghora Tahsil 52.82 per cent of the total population. The Scheduled Tribes constituted more than 50 per cent of the total population in Marwahi, Kota and Gaurella (excluding Gaurella and Pendra towns), Revenue Inspectors' Circles in Bilaspur Tahsil, entire Katghora Tahsil excepting the Katghora Revenue Inspector's Circle and the Korba Mining Colony. This shows the pockets of concentration of tribals in the District. The largest concentration was, however, noted in Pasan Revenue Inspector's Circle (81.67 per cent). The numerically important tribes inhabiting these areas were Gonds (2,03,393) Kawars (80,549), Dhanwars (15,939), Binjhvars (14,219) Bhaina (14,914) and Majhwars (11,124).

The Table below gives the tahsil-wise distribution of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population.

* Apart from these, the following Scheduled Castes were also listed in the District:—Audhelia (1,610), Bahna or Bahana (78), Balahi or Balai (11), Basor, Burud, Bansor or Bansodi (1,178), Dewar (1,150), Dom or Dumar (216), Katia or Patharia (599), Khatik, Chikwa or Chikvi (80), Mang, Dankhni-Mang, Mang-Mahashi, Mang-Garudi, Madari, Garudi or Radh-Mang (766), Sansi (40) and Unclassifiable (3,804).

Table No. III-12

Population of Scheduled Castes and Tribes, 1961 and 1971

Tahsil (Rural)	Scheduled Castes		Percentage to total S.C. Po- pulation		Scheduled Tribes		Percentage to total S.T. population	
	1961	1971	1961	1971	1961	1971	1961	1971
Mungeli	78,836	—	21.5	—	—	—	—	—
Bilaspur	91,682	—	24.9	—	1,85,575	—	50.6	—
Katghora	28,375	—	7.7	—	1,75,243	—	47.7	—
Janjgir	86,538	—	23.5	—	—	—	—	—
Sakti	64,582	—	17.6	—	—	—	—	—
Total Rural	3,50,013	394,267	95.2	—	3,60,818	4,08,449	98.3	—
Total Urban	17,550	27,858	4.8	—	6,274	9,165	1.7	—
District total	3,67,563	422,125	100.0	—	3,67,092	4,17,614	100.0	—

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961 and Census Report, 1971.

Religious Life

The religious life of people in the rural areas of the District is considerably influenced by animism, and worshipping the tribal gods and spirits. On the other hand, owing to the process of acculturation, the tribal people have picked up a smattering of knowledge of Hindu Gods. Their Hinduism is not of scriptures and religious texts, but is a quaint mixture of animism and Hinduism. The rural pantheon includes the village gods, common in the District. Thakur Deo continues to be the principal deity in the rural areas, the tutelary god of the village and crops. He is offered special worship at the agricultural festivals of Akhti in Baisakh and then at the time of harvesting.¹ But in Tilabhat, a village in Mungeli Tahsil of the District, Dulha Deo is widely propitiated. Teli caste, adopting this deity from Bhumia returned Thakur Deo as the family god in Tilabhat village. Bilaspur has been considered by Fuchs to be the original home of Bhumias,² but their population in 1961 was recorded to be 6,634 only. Dulha Deo, a Gond deity has been introduced in the region because of the Gond influence in the past. It appears that after the spread of Kabirpanth in the region, allegiance to this deity waned among the local people. Rawats keep an earthen image of Dulha Deo i.e., a rider on horse-back. Other family deities and divinities worshipped

1. Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961, p. Lxi,
2. Stephen Fuchs, *The Gonds and Bhumias of Eastern Mandla*, pp. 383-384,

are Kankali, Raka, Krishna, Shankara, Hanumana, Radha-Krishna and Bhagwan. Kabir has also been recorded as the family deity of Kabirpanthis in Tilaibhat village,¹ though Kabir condemned idol worship. They were adopted as a result of culture contact. Other village gods referred to in the previous Gazetteer were Banjari Deo, Dongarpat, Mas-wasi pat, Chitharhai Devi, Rat Mai, etc. Dongarpat, a hill godling is propitiated to prevent earthquakes and volcanic eruption. Nelson recorded that the appearance of a light on Lachhman Dongri in the forest of Lormi is said to be the manifestation of Dongarpat.² The phenomenon of moving light is an established fact of rural Chhattisgarh.³ Jim Corbett also recorded a similar phenomenon in his famous book on Man Eaters.⁴ In more recent years in 1952-53, the phenomenon was commonly seen and believed to be the warning of the approaching epidemic by the Devi.⁵

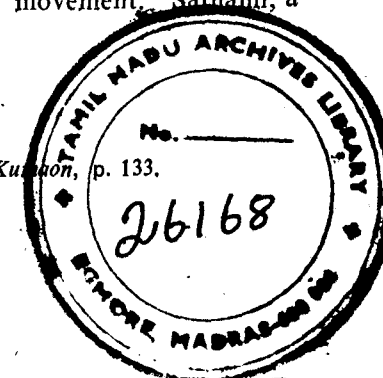
Auspicious days, omens and superstition are universally embedded in the religious life of the common people. In tribal areas these are different in many ways. Amongst the good omens are: meeting a Brahman, filled pitchers, crossing of a deer from left to right, Common Superstitious falling of a lizard on the right part of the body, etc. Eastern direction is considered holy. On the contrary the bad omens are: meeting a Teli or a one-eyed man, empty vessels, falling of excreta of bird on the back, sneezing at the beginning of any work, crossing of the path by a cat or a fox, wailing cows, dogs or the *ji churai* bird in the east and western direction.

The previous gazetteer recorded that Bhainsasur, the demon who lived in the fields, steals the crop and destroys the standing corn. Thus a pig used to be offered to him when the rice was coming into ear. The last sheaves were not harvested in the belief that the corn-spirit took refuge in the last patch of grain. These last sheaves were known as *barhona* or the giver of increase.⁶

Religious Movements

Chhattisgarh has been historically the seat of various religious movements striving to retrieve members of lower castes. Two outstanding movements were the Satnami movement and Kabirpanthi movement. Satnami, a

1. *ibid.* p. 83.
2. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 74.
3. Tilaibhat, A Village Survey, p. 78.
4. Jim Corbett *The Temple Tiger and more Man-Eaters of Kumaon*, p. 133.
5. Tilaibhat, A Village Survey, 1961, pp. 78.
6. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 78.



religious sect was founded by Ghasidas, around 1820-1830 A.D. Ghasidas was the resident of village Girod in Raipur district. A detailed account of the same appears in the Gazetteer of Raipur district. Satnami movement, which originated as a religious sect, emerged as a caste during the twenties of the present century. The population of Satnamis as per territorial jurisdiction of Bilaspur District in 1961 was 2,04,851 against 1,46,056 in 1931.¹ Southern and eastern parts of the District are typical Satnami tracts, and in these areas the physical features of Satnamis are best exhibited.

Kabirpanth, which was founded by Kabir, who lived between 1488-1512, has been the principal religious movement in Chhattisgarh area, which claims a wide following. Since Kabir belonged to weavers caste, the teachings mainly attracted members of this caste.

Kabir is said by his followers "to have first commenced preaching in Rewa where their first Guru Dharam Das, was installed in *Samvat* 1520, i.e., 1463 A.D. Dharam Das, a Kasundhan Bania, who distributed all his wealth, eighteen lakhs of rupees, at Kabirs' bidding"² was a convert. The headquarters of the Mahant of the sect is at Kawardha, now in the neighbouring Tahsil of Durg district. Formerly, Kawardha, a feudatory State was attached to Bilaspur. The Mahants of Kawardha claim to be the direct descendants of Dharam Das. A dispute about the headship of the *gaddi* arose which was referred to Bombay High Court, and was decided in favour of Dhirajnam, who occupied the seat at Kawardha. But he was said to be unpopular, and Ugranam, who lived at village Kudarmal in Janjgir Tahsil, enjoyed the real homage of the followers of the sect.³ An annual fair of the sect is held at Kudarmal, which attracts a large number of Kabirpanthis. The allegiance to Kabirpanth has divided the Teli adherents of the sect into two main groups, the Kabirha and the Deotaha.⁴ The Kabirhas are supposed not to worship any idol or image or any other deity, and refrain from taking meat and other non-vegetarian food, while the Deotahas worship various deities and idols, and observe no restriction on food. The divisions are purely religious and not social, for they permit inter-marriage. It was, however, noted that the Kabirhas worshipped idols, if necessary, and did not observe the restriction on food.⁵ "The Pankas are nearly all Kabirpanthis, and it is probable that they are really Gandas who have adopted this religion and became a new caste with a view to raising their social position".⁶ But as far as possible they disown their connections with the Gandas.

1. Kosa: A Village Survey, p. 10.

2. *ibid.* p. 17.

3. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 80.

4. Tilaibhat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 83.

5. *ibid.*

6. *Bilaspur District Census Handbook*, 1961, p. Lii.

Chauka is a ceremony among the Kabirpanthis, which is performed after birth, marriage or death in family or on the occasion of fulfilment of some desire. In Durg district Satnamis, like Kabirhas, observed *Chauka* ceremony this religious ceremony (*Chauka*). But this has been stopped by the caste-panchayat in some areas, because it was gathered that the dignity of the ceremony could not be kept up.¹ Russell and Hiralal, however, did not mention *chauka* ceremony among the Satnamis, and it appears that *chauka* probably refers to *satlok*, an identical ceremony of Satnami sect, which should take place within three years of the wedding or after the birth of the first son.²

Other Movements

More recently the Suryabanshi and Chandrabanshi movements have also been gaining ground in the region. The former is attracting Chamars and the latter, the Mahars. The Suryabanshis have attempted to get the stigma of "Scheduled Caste" removed and they resent their being included as synonym caste of Chamars.

During the last two or three decades, a number of religious movements like Rajmohini, Birsa Bhagat and Mahua Dev, etc., have sprung up in the tribal areas of the eastern parts of Madhya Pradesh, particularly Raigarh and Surguja districts. In Mahua Dev movement, which started in the forties of this century in village Ratanpur of this District,³ the traditional religious gods and goddesses of the groups are also kept in view, and the new belief and practices are introduced in the background of the old ones. The Movement has now spread over mostly in Chhattisgarh and other areas, once under the adjoining feudatory states. The propitiation of Mahua Dev, normally, continues for nine days in a village, and on completion, ceremonial *nava khana* (first meal after the crop has been harvested) is taken by all the persons. The ceremonious propitiation of Mahua Dev is a chain process, and on the invitation from the villagers all the proceedings are performed again. It appears that the Movement seeks to eliminate the belief in and practice of *bhoot* and *pret*. The participants in the ceremonious propitiation are forbidden to eat meat or drink liquor. They are enjoined to adopt sanitary habits of cleanliness, which seems to be a later introduction to the preachings, to purge the ruralites of many social evils. The Movement is now giving itself a stable organisation and set aims and objectives, mainly to purge the society of some evil practices.

1. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 137.

2. Russell and Hiralal, *The Tribes and the Castes of the Central Provinces of India*, Vol. 1, p. 311.

3. *The Changing Tribes of Madhya Pradesh*, (Tribal Research Institute, Chhindwara), p. 44.

Principal Scheduled Castes

Constituting about 20 per cent of the District population in the first decade of the present century, Chamars in 1931 numbered 1,17,978. Since by 1927 these Chamars, who were followers of Satnami sect, got recognition as a separate endogamous group having no relation with Chamars, their population was recorded separately. Chamars in 1931 numbered 1,31,159. In Census 1961, Chamars including Satnamis, Surjyabanshis, Rohidas, Mochis, Surjyarnami and Nonas numbered 3,04,528, constituting 15.5 per cent of the District population. Amongst the tahsils, Bilaspur (rural) with a population of 80,659 Chamars showed more concentration than Mungeli (75,585) and Janjgir (72,969). Only 10,293 Chamars were enumerated in urban areas of the District. They were mostly engaged as "cultivators" (1,33,603), and as "agricultural labourers" (36,987). Only 3,822 persons were found to be engaged in "household industry", which in their case is working in leather. About 11.6 per cent of their population is literate, including ten persons holding university degree.

In has been recorded that the physical appearances and stature of Chamars are often of a noticeably fine order, and some of them are very fair in complexion.¹ "It is on record that on one occasion a European officer mistook a Chamar for a Eurasian and addressed him in English."² The existence of some feud between the Chamars and other higher castes in Chhattisgarh is of long standing and Satnami movement is sometimes considered to be an expression of resentment in the form of religious revolt.

During the course of about 150 years' history of Satnami sect, many remarks of the earlier authors about them were not confirmed by any socio-economic survey. Enquiries in Kosa and other villages do not reveal that "Satnamis burn all their dead except the lepers".³ Sherring's remark that Satnamis worship the Supreme God, without any visible manifestation, and that Satnami prostrates himself before sun, morning and evening, does not appear to hold good now. Russell and Hiralal observed that Chongiya Satnamis had taken to idolatry,⁴ and that Satnamis of Kosa village in Bilaspur District worshipped many of the Hindu deities, and had idols as well.⁵ The restrictions on food are not observed by Satnamis, and it has been recorded that there is good reason to believe that meat and liquor are also taken by them, though not openly.⁶

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 93.

2. *ibid.*

3. Kosa: A Village Survey. Census of India, 1961, p. 14 (quoted from Ethnological Committee Report, 1866-67).

4. Russell and Hiralal, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 313.

5. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 14.

6. *ibid.*

The exogamous sections of Satnamis have broadly been classified for the first time in the Socio-Economic Enquiry of Kosa Village in Bilaspur District. Classifying them into totemistic and titular, the names they set in Kosa village were *Jogi, Tadaida, Kosariya, Gadra, Baghmar Sonwani, Jarkodiya, Dahariya, Banjar, Maghimudi, Todar, Maraiya, Sang-Sulaiya* and *Kurra*.¹

Satnamis in Kosa village wear sacred thread, and have their own Satnami priest. They employ a Brahman priest only very rarely.

The next numerically important Scheduled Caste in Bilaspur District is of Gandas or Gandis (29,857), who constituted 8.12 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population in 1961. In 1931, their population was 30,676. Gandas are the caste of village watchmen, whose concentration is more pronounced in Katghora Tahsil (8,189) and Sakti Tahsil (10,233). "Cultivation" and "agricultural labour" are the categories in which more than 86 per cent of their "working" population was engaged. They are educationally backward, and more than 86 per cent of their population were illiterate. Those found literate were recorded to have read upto primary standard only.

"The Gandas proper are distinctively known as Bajgaria because they are regularly employed as village musicians, the name having this significance".² They have also exogamous groups or septs of the usual low-caste type, named after plants, animals or other inanimate objects. Marriage is prohibited within sept, and between children of two sisters, though the children of brothers and sisters may marry.³ They principally worship Dulha Deo, and also observe the Hindu fast and festivals. On Dussehra, they worship their musical instruments and the weaver's loom.⁴ The dead among them are generally buried.

The Pankas, who have not been 'Scheduled' in the District, numbered 71,749 in 1931, and are "A Dravidian caste of weavers and labourers found in Mandla, Raipur, Bilaspur, etc. The name is a variant on that of the Pan tribe of Orissa and Chhota Nagpur, who are also known as Panika, Chik, Ganda and various other designations".⁵ Pankas form a separate division of Gandas here, consisting of those who have become members of Kabirpanthi sect, and disown their connection with Gandas. They hold that their name is *Pani-ka*, or from water, establish-

1. *ibid* p. 14.

2. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 97.

3. Russell and Hiralal, *op. cit.*, Vol. III, p. 15.

4. *ibid* p. 16.

5. Russell and Hiralal, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 324.

ing association with Kabir, who was discovered by a weaver woman lying on the lotus leaves of a tank. This has given rise to the following doggerel rhyme about them:—

*Pani se Panka bhai, bundan rache sharir,
Age age Panka bhai, pachhe Das Kabir.*

Divided into four sub-divisions—Manikpuria, Saktaha, Bajania and Dom Panka, and further sub-divided into some exogamous divisions, which are named after plants and animals, the Pankas prohibit marriage between members of the same sept, and also between first cousins. The Pankas worship only Kabir.

Traditionally a caste of groom and grass-cutters, the Ghasias are now adopting Thanwar and Sarathi as their caste-name.¹ They principally reside in Chhattisgarh and have been "Scheduled" in Bilaspur District under the President's Order, 1956 (Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification Order), Numbering 13,461 in 1931, their population in 1961 was enumerated as 15,329. A fair sprinkling of Ghasias have been returned in all the tahsils, except Mungeli Tahsil. Now a good number of them are engaged as agricultural labourers (4,351). Educationally, the Ghasias are very backward, and a few in the District possess qualifications beyond matriculation.

The earlier Gazetteer records that *Laria* or Chhattisgarhi Ghasias are the highest sub-division among them. Other groups are the Oriya Ghasias, the Mandarchawa and the Dolbaha (*palki*-bearers). Their household deity is Dulha Deo.

They worship the sickle, the implement of their trade at Dussehra, and offer coconut and liquor to 'Ghasi Sadhak', a godling who lives by the peg to which horses are tied in the stable. Their principal festival is called Karma which falls in the month of *Bhadra* (August). They both burn and bury the dead. It was recorded that to touch a dead cow was regarded as an offence by the Ghasias in the past, entailing temporary excommunication.

A major caste in Bilaspur District, the Telis (oil-pressers) formed about eight per cent of the District population in 1961. Earlier in 1866, 51,679 Telis were enumerated in the then Bilaspur District. In 1931, Telis numbered 1,00,999 or constituted 7.2 per cent of the District population.

1. Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961, p. Li.

The earliest reference about the Teli caste is that it has been regarded low in the Hindu caste hierarchy. In the history of Telis, compiled by the Secretary of the Teli Society, it is claimed that Telis were originally of Vaishya division of the Hindus.¹ Claims of similar nature have also been recorded by Russell.²

An occupational caste of oil-pressers and vendors, a great bulk of Telis have now abandoned their traditional occupation, many of them are primarily agriculturists, and follow the traditional occupation only as a secondary one. The name Teli comes from Sanskrit—*Tailika* or *Taila*, meaning oil, and this word is derived from *til* or sesamum plant.³ They are sub-divided into three endogamous divisions. The principal groups in Chhattisgarh are Halia Jharia and Ekbahi Telis. The most preponderant in Bilaspur District is the Jharia sub-caste. All these divisions are again sub-divided into a number of exogamous septs, called *gotras*. *Sahu-Sandesh*, a monthly journal of Chhattisgarhi Teli Society, contained 63 *gotra*-names.⁴

Ornaments made of *ranga* (an alloy) are prohibited among them, and the Telis are prohibited to eat meat. Rajim, in Raipur district, is a place of pilgrimage to them because of the temple of Rajivalochan, dedicated to the name of Rajia *Telin*, a woman of their caste.

In Chhattisgarh, Dulha Deo is the household god of the Teli caste. The dead are either buried or burnt, cremation being an honour reserved for the old.⁵

Scheduled Tribes

Gonds along with its 41 sub-tribes,* constitute the most preponderant Scheduled Tribe in Bilaspur. With a population of 2,03,393 according to Census 1961, they constituted 55.4 per cent of the total Scheduled Tribe population in the District. The rural areas of Bilaspur and Katghora tahsils, in which they have been Scheduled, account for the entire bulk of Gond population (199,811), leaving only

1. Chaudhri Basorilal, *Teli Bhuiyaon ki Vanshawali* (1930).

2. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., III, p. 546.

3. ibid. p. 543.

4. Tilaibhat, A Village Survey, 1961, p. 10.

5. ibid p. 551.

* Gonds include the population of the following sub-tribes also: Arakh or Arrakh, Agaria, Asur, Badi Maria or Bada Maria, Bhatola, Bhimma, Bhuta, Koilabhuta or Koilabhuti, Bhar, Bisonhorn Maria, Chota Maria, Dandami Maria, Dhuru or Dhurwa, Dhoba, Dhulia, Dorla, Gaiki, Gatta or Gatti, Gaita, Gond Gowari, Hill Maria, Kandra, Kalanga, Khatola, Koitar, Koya, Khirwar or Khirwara, Kucha Maria, Kuchaki Maria, Madia (Maria), Mana, Mannewar, Moghya or Mogia or Monghya, Mudia (Muria), Nagarchi, Nagwanshi, Ojha, Raj, Sonjhari Jhareka, Thatia or Thotya, Wade Maria or Vade Maria.

3,582 Gonds in the urban tracts. More than 60 per cent of their population were classed as "workers", majority of them being engaged as "cultivators" (93,840) and "agricultural labourers" (25,792). Educationally, Gonds in the District are backward, only 8.8 per cent of them being literate. An overwhelming majority of Gonds returned Hindi (2,00,636) as their mother tongue, Gondi and Chhattisgarhi mother-tongues being returned by 388 and 1,821 persons, respectively. It is interesting to note that English (4,506) constituted an important subsidiary language of Gonds returning under Hindi as mother tongue. The entire Gond population professed faith in Hinduism. Earlier in 1931 Census 1,23,950 Gonds were returned as professing faith in Hinduism and 48,410 in tribal religions.

The Hinduisation of Gonds has also largely influenced their religious and social life. Their pantheon includes Bhagwan (Mahadeo), which is to them a great God to whom offerings of *malida* (wheat cakes reduced to powder, and mixed with molasses and *ghee*) are also made. They do not eat the flesh of cow. Under the cultural influence of Hindus, they have also adopted the social and moral codes of their neighbours. The system of *Lamsena* or *l-m-jhana* still, however, continues as also the rules of exogamy and marriage which are adhered to in rural areas. The institution of levirate and sororate are of common occurrence. Superstition connected with the totem are, however, waning and are generally confined to men and women of older generation. In urban tracts, the Gonds are being rapidly detribalised and assimilated into the lower economic strata in the urban social pattern. The traditional "institution of kinship exogamy, mutual avoidance, sororate, levirate, and Chuddur penk-the invariable traits of Gond culture-pattern, as they are still largely found and operate in rural areas, have undergone profound change or in some cases discarded altogether".¹ Two main sub-divisions of the tribe in Chhattisgarh are Raj-Gonds and the Dhur Gonds. Among them are also a number of occupational groups, such as, Agarias or iron-smelters, Ojhas or soothsayers, Nagarchis or musicians, Koilabhutia or dancers, etc. In Chhattisgarh, a class of Gonds known as Belkarihas was considered to be the highest.²

The Raj-Gonds are believed to be the descendants of, or connected with, the ruling class in the past. They enjoy a high status within the Gond community. The Khatola Gonds, one of the aristocratic sections of the Gond community, have borrowed their name from the Khatola State in Bundelkhand, which, though no longer in existence, is said to have once been governed by a Gond ruler.³ A

1. M.P. Buradkar, *Social Organisation of the Gonds*, pp. 69-70.
2. *Raipur District Gazetteer*, p. 105.
3. M.P. Buradkar, op. cit., Ch. VIII,

small number of them are also found in Chhattisgarh region where they are known as Khatolwar. They call themselves as Thakur, wear sacred thread and worship Hindu deities.

Common class of Gonds as distinguished from the aristocracy is known as Dhur (Dust) Gonds. In some parts they are also known as Rawanvanshis, i.e., descendants of the demon king Rawan of Lanka. Dhur Gond The Dhurwa Gonds or Naik Gonds of Chhattisgarh are said to be descendants of those who were engaged in military services under the Gond kings and zamindars. The Hill Marias are the most primitive section of the Koitur or Gond community.

A Gond is supposed not to marry within his own sept, nor he should marry in a sept in which the same number of gods are worshipped. Cross-cousin marriage is the preferential form of marriage. Payment of bride-price is the rule. Polygamy is permitted. Burial of the dead has been the general custom in the past, but nowadays cremation of the dead has become a common practice. The village gods are now generally common to Gonds and Hindus. Besides the common gods, the Gonds have also their special tribal gods. These are sometimes kept in a *Deo-Khulla*. "The collection of gods at a Deo-Khulla", Mr. Tawney remarks "is called Bara Deo, and when a Gond swears by Bara Deo, he swears by all the gods of his sect."¹ Formerly the Gonds were accustomed to offer human sacrifices to their gods, and if possible a Brahman was obtained as the most suitable offering.² In Bindranawagarh tract in Raipur district, "the Gonds are said to have entrapped strangers and offered them to their gods."³

The hilly area of Chhattisgarh, north of the Mahanadi, in Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja districts constitute the home of Kawars. Kawars include the Kanwar, Kaur, Cherwa, Rathia, Tanwar or Chattri. According to Census 1961, the population of Kawars in the Scheduled Area of the District was 80,549, constituting about 21.9 per cent of the tribal population. Almost the entire population of Kawars is found in rural areas, particularly in Katghora Tahsil (66,678) while a sprinkle of them may be found in urban parts (295). Similar to Gonds, more females are recorded among the Kawars also. About 62.5 per cent of their population constitute the working force according to 1961 Census. Majority of these workers are cultivators, other categories of occupation absorbing a very few of them. Educationally a backward tribe, the

1. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 99.
2. *ibid.* p. 113.
3. *ibid.*

Kawars are reported to be an important and well-to-do tribe, and formerly a large number of the *zamindaris*, except those of Pandaria and Kanteli, belonged to them.¹

The Kawars trace their origin from Kaurawas of the *Mahabharata*. The Kawars are divided into eight endogamous divisions, namely, Tanwar, Kamalbansi, Paikara, Dudh Kavar, Rathia, Chanti, Cherwa Subdivisions, Rites and Rautia. The Tanwar group, also known as Umrao, is and Rituals one to which several erstwhile *zamindaris* belonged. A large number of exogamous septs have been recorded among them, nearly 117 in number, and marriage within the sept is prohibited. The system of bride-price is prevalent, and is known as *suk*. Widow remarriage is permitted except among Tanwar group. The practice of serving for a wife, known as *gharjian* is also prevalent among them. Polygamy is permitted but is not common. The tribe bury their dead as a general rule though well-to-do families have adopted cremation.

Concentrated in the wild hilly parts of Bilaspur District, the Dhanwars numbered 15,933 or 4 per cent of total tribal population according to Census 1961. The Dhanwars are found to be more concentrated in Katghora Tahsil (rural), and account for 69.7 per cent of the tribe's population in 1961. They are also known as Dhanubars, meaning bow-men, who were accustomed to living by hunting and collecting forest roots and fruits. Now a large number of them are 'cultivators' (3,822) and 'agricultural labourers' (3,677), though household industry' also absorbs a good number of them (1,787). The 'household industry' in their case has been the making of bamboo-matting and large baskets for storing grain. Educationally, Dhanwars are a very backward tribe, only 392 persons being returned literate in the District according to Census 1961.

Dhanwars have no endogamous divisions but are divided into a number of totemic exogamous clans. One of the septs is known as 'Mankhaia' or an eater of men, and may indicate that cannibalistic practices existed in the tribe formerly.² Marriage within the Sub-Divisions. Rites and Rituals clan is prohibited, so also between first cousins. Widow-marriage is prevalent. The Dhanwars profess Hinduism, their principal deities being Thakur Deo and Dulha Deo, who are propitiated widely along with other village deities. An interesting deity is 'Maiya Anthi-yar', or the goddess of the dark fortnight of the month. She is worshipped in the house jointly by husband and wife, on any Tuesday in the dark fortnight of Magha (January-February).³

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p.86.

2. *ibid.* p. 90.

3. Russell and Hiralal, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 496.

Among the remaining Tribes, Bhaina (14,914), Binjhwar (14,219) and Majhwar (11,124) may also be mentioned because of their comparative numerical significance in the District. While Bhainas showed Other Tribes concentration in rural parts of Bilaspur Tahsil (14,391), Binjh-Bhainas wars (10,399) and Majhwars (11,011) were mostly met with in Katghora Tahsil (rural). Majority of these tribes were found to be engaged in "cultivation" or worked as "agricultural labourers." Bhainas are believed to be of mixed origin, descending from Baines, Kawars and Gonds. There is a tradition that, formerly, they were the rulers of the locality, and several of the old forts are ascribed to them.¹ They are comparatively an enlightened folk, and have adopted Hindu usages in all walks of life. Their principal deity in Bilaspur is "Nakti Devi" or noseless Goddess.²

The Binjhvars, also known as Binjhals, are considered to be an offshoot of the Baigas of Mandla and Balaghat districts. divided into four sub-divisions, the Binjhwar is a Dravidian tribe. Tattooing Binjhvars is compulsory for women, and none would accept water from a woman whose feet are not tattooed.³

The Majhwars, also known as Manjhi, are the tribe of fishermen and boatmen in Raigarh. They worship Dulha Deo, the bridegroom god. They are considered to be a mixed tribe. Bilaspur is considered Majhwars to be the original home of the Bhumias, a tribe now chiefly concentrated in Mandla district. In the Pandaria tract of Mungeli Tahsil one may also come across a sizeable population of the Baigas, (they are not Scheduled here) who are the same as those of Mandla and Kawardha area.

Social Life

Property and Inheritance

Prior to enactment of Land Settlement Act of 1868, the concept of private property did not include fields and forest, and among tribals who largely practised shifting cultivation, the land was in joint possession of the whole family group or a kinship group.⁴ But all the land is now owned in accordance with the Settlement Code of the Government, and its acquisition, management and sale are subject to the laws and regulations of different Government departments.

1. *Bilaspur District Census Handbook*, 1961, p. Li.

2. *The Tribes of Madhya Pradesh*, (Department of Tribal Welfare, Government of Madhya Pradesh). p. 10.

3. *ibid.*

4. Stephen Fuchs, *op. cit.*, p. 177.

The property in rural areas largely consists of land, cattle, ornaments, utensils, etc. The control of the head of the family over the family property, his behaviour towards the dependents and *vice versa* are evidences of the existence of patriarchal system of family in the District.

The legal provisions about the disposition of immovable property and inheritance, run contrary to the traditional tribal convention, and do not allow a person to dispose his field without the consent of the prospective heir, i.e., son. After the death, the inheritance of immovable property runs in male line, all the sons being entitled to share the property equally (*bata*), the daughters getting no share of inheritance.¹ The son who supports his mother and unmarried sisters may get a bigger share, which among the Satnamis is known as *jethasi*.² Only in the event of there being no male heir in the family, that the property devolves on his widow or daughter. But the Hindu Succession Act, 1956, which governs the succession among the Hindus, Buddhists, Jains and Sikhs, requires that the property of the Hindu dying intestate devolves on his sons, daughters, widow and mother. Theoretically, the head of the family is the owner of all movable property, such as furniture, tools and implements, cattle, jewels, etc. The inheritance in such cases is also governed by ancient convention. In certain cases he must ask the consent of his relatives to give away certain articles, but he may not sell them.

The wedding presents (*kamori*), which a woman brings into the family from her father's side, are her property, and in the event of death, the husband or children inherit it all. In the event of desertion, Women's Property she has a right to take them, and the man cannot rightfully claim those back.³ The *lamsena*, who is serving for the daughter of the deceased Gond, inherits all the property if there is no other male heir. But if other male relative is present, he gets only a share in the property.

The Muslims are governed by the Islamic law in the matter, and the mother, wife and daughters are also co-sharers in the inherited property. The property of the deceased Muhammadan is applicable in Inheritance the first place to the payment of his funeral expenses; Among Muslims secondly, to the discharge of his debts; and thirdly, to the payment of legacies up to one-third of the residue. The remainder of the property is distributed by a complicated system of shares to those of the deceased's relatives who rank as sharers and residuaries.

1. Stephen Fuchs, op. cit., p. 178.

2. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, pp. 42-43.

3. Bendri: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 27.

The family in the rural areas of Chhattisgarh continues to remain a biological, social, economic and functional unit. It is patrilocal and patrilineal in character, and represents unilateral social group consisting of parents and their unmarried children. But the presence of married children with the parents is also quite common, and similarly the widow or widower living with her or his son or sons is a common feature.¹ Thus joint family, though small, by and large continues to exist in the District. Small joint family is the most typical form containing members in vertical extension. The growing industrialization and urbanization of Chhattisgarh area has been instrumental in weakening traditional lineage ties which represented security. Now conjugal family is more important than the lineage.²

If a household is taken as a family, then sample study of family composition in the District according to Census 1961, will be of interest here. In 1,000 sample households, covering 4,573 household population, the heads of the households constitute 1,000, spouses of the heads of the households 781, married relation (sons, other males and females) 874, never married, widowed and divorced or separated relations 1,896 and 22 unrelated persons. This shows that 60.6 per cent of the members in an average household in the District are either married relations or widowed or divorced persons. Further, a large number of the total sample households (41.6 per cent) consisted of four to six members each, and covered 44.3 per cent of the total sample household population. This suggests people's preference for small size family unit in rural areas, while 34.5 per cent of the urban sample households, consisting of two to three members, covering only 19.9 per cent of the urban sample household population in the District, suggests the presence of very small family units in urban areas. However, small size (four to six members) households which were next numerous to very small-size (two to three members) covered the majority of the household population (38.5 per cent). This shows that traditional joint family in old form no more dominates the family life in the area.

Monogamy has been the practice even when there was no restriction on polygamy, but polygamy was resorted to in cases where wife was childless. But with the passing of Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, polygamy has been abolished, and a Hindu can take a second wife only in certain specific circumstances. Hindu Law favoured agnate succession and, therefore, discountenanced marriages in the same *gotra*. But with the passing of the above Act, even restrictions on *sagotra* marriages have been removed, and such marriages have been

1. Tilaihat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 25.

2. Souvenir, 1964, (Indian Conference of Social Work, Madhya Pradesh State Branch, Bhopal), p. 82.

legalised under the Hindu Marriage Act. The provisions of the Act extend to Sikhs and Jains also.

Polygamy finds traditional sanction among the substantial persons belonging to the tribal stock, or among the castes where the spouse is given an economic value. Being a helpmate in the field, she augments the family income. In Census 1931, it was recorded that among Ghasias, Kawars, Gonds, Telis etc., there was considerable excess of married women over males in the Province, suggesting the existence of polygamy. But with the growing influence of Hindus, the practice is declining, which is also suggested by the Census of 1961. Only Kawars, Bharia-Bhumia and Majhwars among the Scheduled Tribes and Gandas among the Scheduled Castes show more proportion of married females to males in the District. It appears that polygamy is still prevalent among these tribes and castes.

Civil marriage is not common in the District, which can be seen from the returns of the Registration Officer, in the District. During the years 1960-61 to 1965, no such case was registered under the Civil Marriage Hindu Marriage Act, 1955. Since then, a number of cases were recorded and in 1966-68, in all 22 cases were registered under the Act. Their number further increased to 30 in 1969-70. However, 31 cases were registered under the Special Marriage Act, 1954, during the same period. Since 1964, when five cases were registered, the tendency has shown some improvement in 1968-69 and 1969-70 by registering six and eight cases, respectively.

Islam permits polygamy to the extent of four wives, but in practice its incidence seems to be even non-existent. Earlier in 1911, in Raipur and Bilaspur Districts, a proportion of 975 wives per 1,000 husbands was noted, which declined to 937 in 1921 and further to 925 in Census 1931. In 1961, the proportion of females among them was 988. The declining proportion may be owing to the results of immigration of businessmen without families during the earlier decades.

There seems very little reason to suspect that the lower number of married women than married men in any community or caste, mentioned above, indicates the survival of the practice of polyandry. In an interesting note on polyandry, Marten mentioned that, among Bhainas and other lower Muhammadan groups, who largely follow Hindu customs of their neighbours, also follow the levirate, i.e., custom by which a younger brother takes as his wife his elder brother's widow. "This is the survival of fraternal polyandry, but is really likely to lead to polygamy, as it may have

done among the Telis for instance, with whom the custom is common."¹ Polyandrous customs and practice, both matriarchal or fraternal, are not to be found in the District.

Traditional caste restrictions on marriage are adhered to even today. In general, people practise the time honoured *got* or *gotra* exogamy. But the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 seeks to legalize *sagotra* marriages also. People marry endogamously within the sub-caste. Marriage outside the caste results in ex-communication of the members, or imposition of fine on them. The Chhattisgarhi Brahmans do not normally inter-marry with other north Indian sub-divisions. The *gotra* exogamy is followed, though the growing pressure of social and economic forces have made them slightly flexible in this regard. The Telis forbid marriage of persons belonging to the same sept and of first cousins. A man may marry his wife's younger sister while she herself is alive, but never her elder sister. Among the Bairagis the mutual inter-change of girls between the two families is not disapproved of, though most of the other higher castes look down upon this practice. The Pankas, majority of whom embraced Kabirpanth, have exogamous sub-divisions. They do not marry their children until they have reached maturity. Marriage within the same sept is prohibited, and also between first cousins. The Kabirha Pankas who form a separate group, as also Mahars, permit inter-marriage between Kabirpanthi and Saktaha families. The Saktaha in Chhattisgarh is a term which signifies an eater of meat as opposed to a Kabirpanthi who refrains from it.²

The Chamars who form the bulk of the Scheduled Caste population in the District, are broken up in a number of endogamous sub-castes. Of these, the largest now consists of the members of the Satnami sect in Chhattisgarh, who do not inter-marry with other Chamars.³ The *Chungias* (those who have resorted to the use of tobacco) are considered lower among the Satnamis, and the inter-marriage between the two sections is largely, though not entirely, prohibited.

Among the Dhanwars and Majhwars, the sept exogamy is observed and the marriage within the sept is avoided. Marriage between the first cousins is also avoided usually. The Binjhvars appear to have no system of exogamous groups and marriage is determined simply by relationship. The union of agnates is, however, avoided as long as the connection can be traced between them. But on the mother's side, all except first cousins may marry. The Gonds, generally, avoid their own sept, nor will they marry

1. Census of India, 1921, C.P. & Berar, p. 184.

2. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 243.

3. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 12.

in the sept which worships the same number of gods. The marriage of first cousins is considered especially suitable, and the match is known as *dudh-lautana* or bringing back the milk. Formerly, a sort of compulsion was exercised, and the girl's father was required to compensate for the avoidance of this match. But now compulsory nature of relationship is not recognised and compensation is not paid generally.¹

Marriage Customs

Manu, the Law-Giver laid down rules for marriage among Hindus, and recognized eight different forms of Marriages.² Of these the Hindu society now recognizes only two forms, the *Brahma* and *Asura*, the Forms of Marriage higher castes preferring the former, the backward castes the latter.³ The *Brahma* form of marriage requires the parents to invite a learned and virtuous young man to make over their daughter to him along with clothes and ornaments, etc. The *Asura* form, however, entails the acceptance of bride-price, etc., from the bridegroom by the relations of the bride.

In rural areas of Bilaspur District both these forms of marriages are prevalent, and in addition, *arsha*, *gandharva*, *prajapatya* and *rukshasa* forms of marriages are also practised. *Bihav* or *bade-bihav* is *Brahma* Rites and Rituals form of marriage. This form of marriage is performed with necessary rituals and it is said that it can be performed only once. The Brahmins and other higher castes follow this form of marriage. *Lagan* or *tika* is the confirmation of the settlement of match which, elsewhere, is also known as *faldan*. The marriage is performed at the bride's house, and the *barat* is received with great courtesy. In the evening the bridegroom reaches the bride's house in ceremonial dress, and at the *vedi*, amidst the recitation of sacred verses by the priest (*pandit*), the *hawan* is performed. The ends of bride's sari and upper-cloth of bridegroom are tied. The *bhanwar* is performed by taking seven rounds of the sacred fire and oaths are administered for an ideal marital life. The presents and dowry, etc., are offered, and then *bida* takes place. The *barat* party leaves for bridegroom's house.

Marriage in any other form such as elopement, seduction, abduction or intrusion is not practised by the upper castes. Widow-remarriage is also not favoured.

Marriage among Scheduled Castes and Tribes

The regular marriage among the Chamars, etc., who have embraced

1. Leela Dubey, *The Gond Woman*.

2. D.N. Majumdar, *Races and Cultures of India*, p. 184,

3. *ibid.* p. 185,

Satnami faith is, generally, arranged by the parents. The proposal is moved by the boy's father, who pays the bride-price also. Satnami Chamar *pandit* or priest is consulted for finding the auspicious date for marriage. The various rituals performed during the marriage are *tel* (oil), *mayan* (invocation of deities and departed ones) and *bihav* (marriage). The first two rituals are performed, both in the house of the bride and bridegroom, but the final ceremony, i.e., *bihav* is solemnized at the house of the girl's parents, except in case of *chhot-bihav*, where because of the poverty of the girl's parents, the *bihav* ceremony is performed in the boy's house.

Since girls are generally married at a pre-puberty age, the *gauna* becomes necessary after attainment of puberty, when the girl goes to her husband's house.

The Telis or oil-pressers allow *bihav* (regular marriage) *brandi* (widow marriage) and *choori* form of marriages. In 1929, it was resolved in an All India Teli Conference to prohibit marriages between boys below 18 years and girls below 12 years of age.¹ Of the various rituals performed during the marriage ceremony of Telis in Chhattisgarh, the first is *faldan*, confirmation of marriage negotiation. The marriage rituals at both the places start with *chulh mati*, bringing some earth to fix *madhwa*, etc. *Mayan* is the worship of *gram-devta*. *Haldari* is the sprinkling of turmeric water on the people going in the *barat* party. The *bihav* consists of bridegroom putting vermilion in the bride's hair-parting seven times after which the priest ties the ends of their apparel and they take seven rounds of *magrohan*, the marriage post, known as *bhanwar*. In cases of child-marriage, *gavan* or *gauna* ceremony is also performed after the girl attains the age of puberty. More recently, there has been a feeling opposed to child-marriage, as also *choori*-marriage (child widow-marriage).²

The Pankas who are Kabirpanthis and appear to be an offshoot from Ganda caste of weavers, do not observe *mayan* ceremony for they do not worship any deity or god except Kabir.³ The *mahant* ties the ends of the apparel worn by the couple in a knot, and the couple take five rounds of the *kham*, marriage post. This is known as *kunwari-bhanwar*. After this, *bihali-bhanwar* consisting of seven rounds is also performed. The Ganda marriage takes the usual low-caste Chhattisgarhi form of marriage. Seven *cowries* and seven pieces of turmeric are placed beneath the marriage shed. *Sothi*, an elderly male member of the caste, conducts the marriage, and the couple go round five times the sacred pole in the morning and three times in the evening.

1. Choudhary Basorilal, *Teli Bhaiyaon-ki-Vanshavali*, p. 38.

2. Tilaibhat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 33.

3. *ibid.* p. 37,

Two prominent forms of marriages are prevalent among the Gonds of Chhattisgarh, i.e., with ordinary rites and *bara-bihav* with elaborate rites and rituals. Marriage *par excellence* among the Gonds is known as *marmi*. The various rituals performed during a Gond marriage are *magni* or *sagai* (betrothal), which is also known as *mantarfi*. Gonds do not take any assistance from Brahman priest, and the time of marriage is fixed in a peculiar way known as "*khari phakna*".¹ *Barokhi*, *chulh-ma'i* or *chush-mati*, *magrohan*, *tel*, *dev-pujan*, *parghui*, *mapanbudi*, *tel-haldi*, *ligin*, *bhanwar*, *tikan* and *jhroti* or *bidai* are other rituals and ceremonies performed in a Chhattisgarhi Gond family. In some parts, the Amat Gonds do not perform *barokhi*.

Among the Amat Gonds in some parts of Chhattisgarh, a ritual for warding off the evil stars is also performed during the marriage ceremony. The bride is kept hidden in one of the five groups of ladies and the groom is required to discover her. A *mandap* is prepared for this function, and the bride and the bridegroom, both scantily dressed, move out of the *nandap* and strip themselves off the pieces of cloth on their body. They are immediately given new clothes to wear. In some parts, the ceremony is performed by the side of a river or a tank.

Marriage among Kawars is usually *adult* and the proposal for a match always comes from the boy's father. The system of bride-price is prevalent, and is known as *suk*. The exchange of girls between two families in lieu of bride-price is permissible, and is known as *jumrawat*. The wedding among Kawars follows, and in many respects conforms to the ordinary Hindu rituals but Brahmans are not employed. The marriage is performed by walking round the sacred pole six times on one day and once on the following day.

The Dhanwar gives a feast on the betrothal of his son, the custom being known as *phul-phulwari* or the bursting of the flower. The betrothal itself is known as *faldm*, gift of the fruits. Prior to marriage, yet another ceremony is that of *barokhi*, when the bride and bridegroom are taken to see each other. On this occasion, rings are exchanged and the boy offers vermilion to the earth and then rubs it on the bride's forehead.² The marriage date is fixed after this girl becomes mature. Bride-price is also fixed. *Bhanwar*, walking seven times round the marriage-post, is an important ceremony. Vermilion is applied seven times to the marriage-post and to bride's forehead at the parting of her hair by the bridegroom.

1 The *Yugdharma* (Deepawali Number) 1967, p. 145.

2. Russell and Hiralal, op cit, Vol. II, p. 49.

The marriage ceremony among Binjhvars is performed at the bridegroom's house, to which the bride proceeds after bidding farewell to her family. Among the Birjhias, a sub-division of Binjhvars, the bride takes seven rounds of the marriage-post alone and then the bridegroom also takes the rounds. After this they go round it together. As among the Kawars, the couple go to bathe in a river or a tank, and on their way home the bridegroom shoots seven arrows at an image of a *sambhar* deer made of straw.¹

Among the Bhainas, *tatia-kholna*, the opening of the door is the first ceremony which leads to a regular betrothal. Bride-price and date of marriage are fixed. For the wedding ceremony, a number of Hindu rites Bhainas and Maj-hwars have been adopted. The couple go round the sacred post, and afterwards the bridegroom daubs bride's forehead with red lead seven times. Among the Majhwars, the marriage is adult, and the match is arranged by the parents. At wedding, rings are exchanged and bride's hair parting is marked with vermilion by the bridegroom. The couple walks round the sacred post seven times. Payment of bride-price is the rule but a suitor who cannot afford this may do service to his father-in-law for a year or two, in lieu of it. The Majhwars, like the Gonds, employ the Pathari or Pardhan as their priest.

Dowry

Dowry system is prevalent in some or the other form in all castes, and the amount varies according to the status of the family. Among the Chhattisgarhi Brahmans, it is claimed that dowry system is not prevalent in the form in which it is practised in Uttar Pradesh, and even in Madhya Pradesh among the Kanyakubjas. However, the bride's father gives dowry according to his means to the bridegroom's father, but no dowry is fixed as a condition.² Among the tribes, the dowry takes a different form, and is given by the boy's parents to those of girl's. This is known as bride-price or *kharchi*, consisting of a fixed amount of silver coins (rupees), provisions for the wedding feast at girl's place, and a fixed amount to the tribal council. Until full amount of bride-price is paid, the marriage date is not fixed among Gonds.

Marriage among Muslims is a contract and is known as *nikah*. The betrothal or *magni* is the settlement of the match, followed by the principal ceremony, *nikah* at an appointed date. The *Kazi* performs the marriage among Muslims marriage ceremony in the presence of witnesses. The marriage party *barat* reaches the home of the bride's father on an appointed day. The consent of the bride and bridegroom is obtained before the witnesses and *mehr* (alimony) is disclosed. The *Kazi* then

1. *ibid.* p. 333.

2. Bendri: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 35.

reads *Khutbah*, and the marriage ceremony is over. *Rukhsat* (leave-taking) is the last ceremony, and the bride goes along with the bridegroom to his house.

The Christian marriage is performed in their church in a brief, simple manner. The Jain marriage rites are generally similar to Hindu rites, and vary in some respects from region to region. The main rites among are *vagdana* (promise), *kanyadana* (giving of the bride to the Christians & Jains groom), *panigrahana* and *saptapadi*.

Divorce and Widow Marriage

Among the higher castes, divorce and widow marriage are not favoured, though among the more advanced sections of population, a general laxity in outlook is witnessed. But among the tribal-stock, viz., Gond, Kavar, Dhanwar, Binjhar, Bhaina and Majhar, as also among the lower caste groups, viz., Chamars, (Satnami), Ganda, Ghasi, Mahar, Teli, etc., the separation, divorce, and widow marriage are widely prevalent. The incidence of separation by running away are probably highest among the Satnamis in the whole of the Chhattisgarh area.¹ In majority of the cases the separation is effected by the woman, who remarries another person. Such marriages are known as *choori* marriages, resorted to with the sanction of caste-panchayat. The good looks of Satnami women have not infrequently attracted Rawats to the Satnami fold through *choori* form of marriage.² In such separations, the new husband has to pay *bihati* compensation to the old husband. If divorced woman marries again, her first husband performs funeral and mourning ceremonies as if she were dead.³

Widows are known as *barandi* or *randi*, the *randi* being a widow in ordinary sense of the term and the *barandi*, a girl who has been married but has not lived with her husband. The Telis, Chamars, etc., keep a widow, divorced or separated through *choori* form of marriage which has social sanction. But opinion is gathering round in Chhattisgarh, disavouring the evil of *choori* form of marriage in the cases of separation among the Telis.⁴ The Rawats, Ghasis, Mahars and Pankas allow widow marriage. The Ghasi or a Mahar widow is under no obligation to marry her first husband's younger brother. Tribal stock is also not an exception to the practice of widow-marriage. Generally they practise junior levirate, and if the widow takes some one other than the younger brother then he is entitled for compensation or *bihati* from the new husband.

1. Bendri: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 63.
2. Tilaibhat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 69.
3. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 135.
4. *ibid.* p. 33.

The *choori* form of marriage in legal opinion is considered to be "a *Brahma* form of marriage, in view of its being regarded as valid by the caste. In a case under the Hindu Law, Justice Shevde stated: "The presumption under Hindu Law is that a marriage should be deemed to be in an approved form and that a *pat*-marriage in *choori* form or in any other form is no exception."¹

As cases of separation, divorce, etc., are generally referred to the caste panchayats, the same are not taken to the court of law and, as such, we find no case of the nature registered in the District during the period from 1960 to 1966. Since then, three couples took divorce during 1966-67, and an equal number in the following year. In 1969-70, in all 6 couples took divorce.

Here it may also be mentioned that in spite of the preponderance of females in Chhattisgarh tract, generally, the male has to go in search of a wife. In certain cases, he also meets the marriage expenses of girl's side. And in the event of separation, which is generally effected by the wife, he tries his best to take her back. Even if the wife runs away, as some times it happens during the Teeja festival in the month of Bhadra, when wives go to the fathers' place, the husband tries his level best to get her back by persuasion or by force. No stigma is attached even when she has lived with another man. A wife is referred to as *mal* (property) and when a man asks her back from her suiter, he would say: "*hamar mal la apis kar de*" (return my property). Sometimes the wife is also referred to as *admi* (male) by her husband. When asked about her he would say: "*more admi bhaga ge he*", which would literally mean 'my male has run away'.²

Economic Dependence of Women

With consistently high sex-ratio during the period from 1901 to 1961, Bilaspur District contributes to the peculiarity of the Chhattisgarh area, which in demographic pattern of the State is characterised with women predominated zone. But the position of women, and the relationship between man and his wife, however, present a paradox. Though females predominate, yet procurement of a wife is difficult, and is paid for. Her position is exalted and dominant. It is a socially accepted fact that females in Bilaspur, and for that matter in the whole of the Chhattisgarh tract, have comparatively greater degree of freedom than women in many other parts of the country. They play a more prominent role in life than men. They go to market to make purchases and sell things and are generally more intelligent than the men. The dominance can be

1. Nagpur Law Journal, 1948, p. 74.
2. Bendri: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 37.

seen from the day-to-day utterances. The men refer to their wives as *more admi* (my men),¹ as stated earlier. In all economic pursuits, she figures prominently. "She it is, who cares for the animates, the dwelling, where the past is preserved, the future prefigured."² The beauty and physical form of the local women won appreciation from a number of foreign writers. J.W. Chisholm in 1869 stated that: "Their women (Satnami Chamar) are strong, sturdy creatures and are not unfrequently fair and comely."³ Shoovert in 1931 mentioned that "People who know the Chhattisgarh must have been struck by the fine physique of the women which compared more favourably with that of men."⁴ Writing about them, Hutton stated that they "have a great reputation locally for their handsome features."⁵

Nearly 52.0 per cent of the female population in the District is economically active. The role played by women in economic activities is highlighted in the following Table which shows sex-ratio (females per 1,000 males) among the total population and total "workers" in each category of workers:—

Table No. III-13

Female Workers

Category of Workers	Sex Ratio (No. of Females per 1,000 males)		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Total Population	1,024	1,036	902
Total Workers	865	906	388
Category of Workers			
1 As Cultivator	940	943	764
2 As Agricultural Workers	1,127	1,125	1,352
3 Mining, Quarrying, etc.	215	218	195
4 At Household industry	742	728	795
5 Manufacturing other than household industry	490	1,103	219
6 In construction	259	298	218
7 In Trade & Commerce	274	370	189
8 In Transport, Storage and Communications	39	63	32
9 In Other Services	375	301	499

Source:—Bilaspur Distt. Census Handbook, 1961.

1. Kosal A Village Survey, 1961, p. 43.
2. Simone de Beauvoir, *A History of Sex*, p. 302.
3. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1869, p. 45.
4. Census of India, 1931, C.P. & Berar, p. 148.
5. J.H. Hutton, *Castes in India*, p. 23.

It may thus be seen that while in category I, the female "workers" are almost equal to male "workers", in category II, the female "workers" are in greater number. Chhattisgarh being predominantly a rice-producing tract, the two operation of weeding are done by manual labour, and this is mostly done by females who are employed in large number by the substantial landlords. Again their proportion in category V, i.e., "Manufacturing other than Household Industry" is larger in rural areas. A peculiar feature of the District is that in the age-group 0-14 years, an appreciable proportion of "workers" is that of girls. About 9.55 per cent of females in this age-group are economically active.

Prostitution, Drinking and Gambling

In 1967, it was reported that there were 42 prostitutes in the District. There were 14 prostitutes in the area under the jurisdiction of Bilaspur Police Station, 2 in Chakarbhatta, 11 in Takhatpur, 8 in Mungeli and 7 in Sakti Police Station area.

The common malady in the District is alcoholic drinks, the tribals being the tipplers of the first rank. The habit has permeated in other castes, living in proximity in rural area. It forms an important part of their social life, and on festive occasions, drinks form a common mode of entertainment. Women and children also share liquor on these occasions.

This quite often gives rise to illicit distillation. In order to curb this social evil, in the initial stages during the latethirties, it was sought to introduce prohibition on country spirit and toddy. But it was proposed to exclude the tracts inhabited by aboriginal tribes since drinking finds social and religious sanction among them. As such, it was only in October, 1946, that Janjgir Tahsil of Bilaspur was brought under prohibition, and was declared "dry". Every year "Prohibition Week" is organised in the District in which the evil effects of drinking are explained with the help of film-shows, etc. The prohibition, however, led to an increase in the illicit distillation. The number of offences detected increased from 187 in 1949 to 1,001 in 1959-60, and then declined to 865 in 1960-61. From Rs. 2,854, the Government expenditure on prohibition programmes in Bilaspur increased to Rs. 7,025 in the year 1967-68. Recently, the prohibition has been scrapped by the State Government.

Gambling is not open, but *pasa* or *chupad* and card-games, which are usually indulged in by the people, particularly at the time of festivity or annual bazar, are usual forms of gambling. Gambling during the Diwali festival is notorious in police records. The number of offences registered in Bilaspur District under the Gambling Act increased from 327 in 1960 to 465 in 1965,

Home Life

According to Census 1961 there were 4,02,339 (3,66,339 in rural and 36,000 in urban) occupied residential houses in Bilaspur District, sheltering 4,37,734 households (399,468 in rural and 38,266 in urban).

Dwellings This gave an average of 1.08 households per 'census house', while there lived 5.03 persons per house in the District. The average increases to 5.06 persons per house in rural and recedes to 4.68 persons per house in urban areas. This shows that in comparison to Raipur and Durg districts, the pressure on housing is slightly more in Bilaspur District. But in comparison to north-eastern and western districts of the State where the pressure is generally high, Bilaspur seems to be better off in this respect. We cannot, however, hazard the conclusion that, comparatively, the housing position is comfortable in the District. Bilaspur lies in the highest (rural) density range (209-345),¹ and thus 'this syndrome of high density and relatively low pressure on housing can be explained only in terms of generally poor population (a normal consequence of high density), living in sub-standard housing, even though the houses may all be independent structures (like huts, for example.)'²

According to a sample study of the households in Census 1961, about 53 per cent of the households lived in one-room structures, 32 per cent in two-room structures, about 10 per cent in three-room structures and about 5 per cent in four or more room structures in the District.

The majority of houses in rural areas are built of mud, and tiles or grass is used for roofing. Considering the wall-material, about 7.3 per cent of the houses in rural areas of the District are made of grass, leaves, reeds, thatch wood or bamboos. Mungeli Tahsil has the largest proportion (30.5 per cent) of such houses. In other tahsils (rural) the respective proportion was, Bilaspur (3.3 per cent), Katghora (7.4 per cent), Janjgir (0.4 per cent) and Sakti (0.1 per cent). Use of burnt bricks as wall-material in rural areas is not appreciable. Only 2.0 per cent of the houses in the District have walls of burnt bricks. If burnt-brick houses are taken as an index of prosperity, Katghora (1.4 per cent) and Mungeli Tahsil (1.4 per cent) have still to make a headway. The use of grass, leaves, etc., as wall material is extensive in Mungeli Tahsil, owing perhaps largely to the large number of Baigas, who have a preference for such houses.

¹ Census of India, 1961, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II-A, p. 41.

² Ibid.

As for roofing-material, Katghora Tahsil (rural) has the largest proportion of houses (12 per cent) with grass, leaves, reeds, thatch, wood or bamboo roofs. Sakti Tahsil (10.1 per cent), Mungli Tahsil (5.6 per cent), Bilaspur Tahsil (3.2 per cent) and Janjgir Tahsil (1.4 per cent) stand lower in use of such roofing material. The use of corrugated zinc or other metal sheets in the roofing of houses is more common in Janjgir (rural) than in other tahsils.

Three types of roofs found in Bilaspur are *sari*, *kat-parchhi*, and *konla*. *Sari* type of roof slants down on the two sides, i.e. front and back, from the central beam, while in *kat-parchhi* type, the roof has two stages, one covering the room and the other covering the verandah portion or the portion of another room. In the *konla* type, the roof slants on all the four walls, and is the most expensive one.

A separate shed is also constructed for the cattle by the side or near the living room. Caste-wise segregation of houses is not noticed in the villages.

Generally, before digging the foundation, worship ceremony called *thun* is performed. A coconut is offered. The labour is generally done by the members of the household, and normally, no labourer is employed for the construction of a house. Carpenter (*Badhai*) is employed to construct the door-frames and door-panes. Generally, well-to-do people give feast or get recited *Satyanarayan-ki-katha* by a Brahman priest.

Usually, no separate place is kept for cooking in the house. The Telis, Rawats, and Nais do not usually have separate cooking rooms, whereas Chhatris, Dhobis, Bairagis, and Pankas generally have separate cooking rooms.

Furniture and Decorations

The housewives take due care of the house. The floor is regularly washed with cow-dung, and bordered white with clay (*chhuhi-mati*). The external side of the walls is either left as it is, or washed with red clay. Generally the houses in rural areas of Chhattisgarh are kept clean and attractive from the outside by regularly washing them with cattle-dung and a suspension of white or coloured clay in water. The tribal villages are still cleaner than other villages. No motifs, etc., are found on the house-walls, generally. Females in some of the houses draw some figures on the walls with mud.

But the figure does not symbolize anything except decoration. Human figures are also painted on some walls with cow-dung.

An average house in the District is still devoid of furniture or articles of luxury. Chairs are generally not used and instead finely strung cots serve the purpose. Peculiarly enough, the cots in rural areas of Bilaspur are very small in size as compared to the cots in towns, and any person of normal stature cannot sleep on them with stretched legs.¹ Other possessions in the name of furniture are *chatai*, the mats woven from a variety of legume and used for sitting, etc., *machia* or *pidha*, a small four-legged stool with seat woven with jute-rope.

In areas with urban influence, the house equipments show a tendency for better living. Cots, chairs and tables are not alien to them. Those who can afford decorate their houses with artistic pieces.

Utensils

Generally, the cooking utensils and water pots etc., are earthen and of metal. Water is brought from the tank or well in the brass *hauia*. *Hauli* is a brass vessel of smaller size. The water is generally stored in *maika*, an earthen pot or pitcher. For cooking purposes, *chulha* is made of earth. Rice, dal or pulse is usually boiled in an earthen vessel. However, brass vessel called *betua* is used for this purpose by the higher castes. Vegetables are cooked in *karahi* made of iron, or in earthen *kanouji*. Big spoon meant for stirring *dal* is called *dua* and is made out of a cocoanut-shell, fitted with a wooden handle.

Eating utensils are *thari*, large dish, *sekmi* or *batki*, an eating bowl, and *maliya* or *tharkuliya*, a small plate used for eating *basi*. Other common household possessions are *dhenki* (rice-pounding implement) and *janta* or *jantwa* (grinding implement) used for grinding wheat or rice into flour. *Kharanta* is the broom used for cleaning the cattle-shed. It is made of stems of *rahar* (a kind of pulse) plant.

Dress

Culture contacts have made an average Chhattisgarhi more conscious of his dress now than ever before. Oft-repeated proverb "what will a washerman do in a Chhattisgarh village where people live naked" is no longer true.

1. Kosa A Village Survey, 1961, p. 65.

People have long since taken to *salookas* and *bandis* and now, *shirts* and *kurtas* are common men's wear. Among the female-folk *polka*, blouse, has become popular, and young girls almost invariably wear blouse while going out to the market.

The use of ready-made garments which are brought by vendors in the weekly market is increasing. "Culture contacts in the markets of Pandariya and Mungeli are now bringing about another factor of socio-economic significance. The women have acquired a passion for clothes and cosmetics used by women in the towns and, if the husbands are not able to fulfil this desire, they change husbands in the hope of better results."¹ This tendency is more marked in villages with urban influence.

The headgear is known as *pagree*, and sometimes *pancha*, a small piece of cloth, is also worn round the head. Not all people wear it, but among Rawats and Dhobis, it is commonly worn in village Tilaibhat in the District. Satnamis, Pankas, etc., do not wear turban commonly. The Satnamis may wrap the *safi* (towel) round their head. Men's upper-garment is known as *salooka*, jacket, which is a common wear among the people in rural areas. *Kurta* among the Pankas, and shirts are also fast coming in use. The Satnami men and boys wear a variety of apparel ranging from the *salooka* to the bush-shirt. The lower-garment is the mill-made *dhoti* of fine yarn. The use of handloom *dhoti* is less noticeable. Sometimes a small *dhoti* upto the knee which is known as *pancha* is also worn. This is generally worn by the labourers. In the night, when retiring, the people even put off this *pancha* and wear *angochha*, a handloom woven towel cloth.

Men's dress on ceremonial occasions is more tidy, comprising *dhoti*, *kurta* coat and *paga* (turban). In the urban areas, and areas where urban influence has permeated, all modern garments are in use. The increasing use of bush-shirts is a common sight. The immigrant Sindhi and Punjabi males are no exception to general urban wear described above. Turban, usually of dark colour and worn in an elegant style, is a distinguishing wear among the Sikhs. Well-groomed beard is their proud possession.

Commonly in Chhattisgarh, women wear *luga* (sari) upto the knee and drape one end of it over the shoulders to cover the upper part of the body. *Polka* (blouse) is now worn by young girls and newly married women. But as the age advances, the use of *polka* becomes occasional. Brassiers are not worn in rural areas at all. The Bairagi women wear sari down upto the ankles and not upto knees

1. Tilaibhat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 20.

like Rawats and Telis. They cover their head also. The ceremonial dress among women is silken or *kosa* sari, *kurti* (a loose blouse), *orhni*, a scarf of 2 to 3 cubits in length which covers the upper part of the body.

In urban areas all sections wear sari and blouse in the modern fashion. The use of brassiers is also made by the ladies of higher section. The Punjabi women are distinguished in their traditional *kamiz*, an upper-garment, and *shalwar*, a lower-garment. A Sindhi woman can be noticed in loose *pyjama*, a lower-garment, and *kamiz* on the upper part of the body. The young girls generally wear *kamiz* and *shalwar*, though *churidar-pyjama* is gradually winning over the *shalwar* among the fashion conscious class. The use of petticoat as under-garment is restricted largely to urban elites, who wear fine textured mill-made *dhotis*.

Ornaments

The ornaments are generally purchased in urban markets, but the sophistication in this respect in rural areas is rather slow. The *hamel*, *nagmori*, *pata*, *sutiya*, etc., are existing in their traditional style.

The women do not usually wear any ornament on the head. The ears are bored at the top and through the lobe. *Bali* and *khilwan* adorn the ears. In the nose, *fulli* is worn and the ornament of the neck is *sutiya*, which is a solid silver ring. Another ornament of the neck is *rupiya*, same as the commonly known *hamel*. On the arms, the Teli women wear *nagmori* and *bahunta*. While the former is the serpentine silver ornament worn above the elbow, the latter is hollow silver armlet. Ornaments of the wrist are *haraiya*, *kada* or *choora* and *nata*. *Patas* are flat wrist-bands used along with *kada* or even without it. Commonly, Telis wear two *patas* on each wrist. *Haraiya* is another hollow ornament worn on the wrist. *Mundri* is worn in the finger. The men's finger-ring is known as *chhalla*.

Kardhan or waist-band is an ornament of the waist. It is also known as *kamcr-patta*. The ornaments of anklets are *toda* and *paijan*, but the latter is very uncommon. The *choora* (*pairi*) is a characteristic ornament of Chhattisgarh, and is worn by the Rawat, Satnami women, etc. Generally it is made of bronze and is a heavy ornament with three rings projecting like teeth all around. *Toda* is the anklet, while *chutki* and *bichhiya* are the ornaments worn on the toes.

The ornaments prohibited for unmarried girls among the Telis are *fulli*, *toda* and *bichhiya* or *chutki*. The widows are not supposed to wear *toda*,

fulli, and *bichhiya*. Both the unmarried girls and widows are not supposed to put on vermillion in the hair-parting. It is an exclusive mark of married women. In Chhattisgarh, *sendur* is not of vermillion colour but of orange colour. A type of paste is used for the same instead of dry powder used in urbanized areas.¹

There is not much variation in the ornaments of different castes, though a few ornaments may be found more common among one particular caste. Rawats, for instance, wear *tabiz* (amulet), more as an ornament than for magical or spiritual significance. The Satnami men and Pankas wear *kanthi-mala* or bead-necklace.

It is a common form of body-decoration for women in the villages. In village Tilaibhat, the Bairagis, a caste of religious mendicants, opined that "Lord Krishna himself tattooed his consort Radha, and as such, this is an ornament of God Himself."² Tattooing is done by the professional tattooers who are women, and known by the name of Dewarnin, Godharin or Bhumnin. These professional women belong to nomadic caste of Dewars. The process of tattooing involves the pricking of skin with a needle, over which the tattooing compound made of the juice of *bhilausa* (*semicarpus anacardium*) tree and soot is rubbed. The designs of tattooing differ in case of married and unmarried girls. In case of unmarried girls, tattooing is done on the face alone, while the married women may get these marks on the wrist, arm and leg.

It is not common for village people to wear shoes of any type, and generally, they go without it. In summer months, and on ceremonial occasions, women may wear *harpa*, a type of *chappal*. Male-folk wear *bhadai*, *panchi*, and in rainy season *chiklahi-joota*. All these are purchased from the local weekly markets, and are country-made.

Food Habits

As elsewhere in rice-growing tract of Chhattisgarh, rice constitutes the staple food of the people in Bilaspur District. It is taken in different forms, *basi* being the most favoured and refreshing one. *Kodo* is also taken by the people either by boiling it or as gruel (*pej*). Generally three meals are taken in a day by the villagers. The left-over of the previous night is known as *basi*, which normally forms the early morning meal before going to fields and

1. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 32.

2. Tilaibhat: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 24.

is also taken at noon with salt and chilli mixture. The Chhattisgarhi folk-songs have glorified *basi* as a wonderful, nourishing and refreshing preparation.¹ Morning tea is gradually coming into vogue in villages with urban influence. Another preparation, as said earlier, is the rice gruel, which is taken with vegetables or pulse. *Bhat* is the rice cooked in the usual manner, and is taken with *dal* and curry. The commonly used pulses are arhar, mung, urd and masur. Vegetable curry is regarded as delicacy. The evening meal consists of *pej* and *bhat* and is eaten with curry, *dal* or *chatni*.

During festivities, the food preparations are different. The usual meal comprises *sunhari*, which is the same as *puri* or *luchi*, i.e., thin cakes of flour, fried in oil. Both wheat and rice flour are used to prepare *sunhari*. *Bara* is another common item of food at the time of festivals. *Baras* are small urd-cakes fried in oil.

Common items of sweets, available during festivals, are *thethri*, *khurmi*, *ladoo* and *dahrouri*.

The Bairagis are strict vegetarians, but the non-vegetarian food is occasionally taken by the Dhobis, Telis, Rawats, etc. The pankas and Satnamis do not generally take non-vegetarian preparations. Telis do not take chicken and eggs for which no reason can be assigned.²

Festivals

The festival cycle in the rural areas is geared by the religious belief of the local people. Mainly four shades of people, viz., the Tribals, the Kabirpanthis, the Satnamis and upper-caste Hindus influence the religious life of the people in Bilaspur District. Thakur Deo and Dulha Deo are the most popular deities who do not require any particular festival for propitiation, and are worshipped or invoked as and when necessary. The Kabirpanth, which prohibits idol worship, similarly, does not ordain the celebration of any special festival. Thus the entire festival cycle is dominated by the Hindu beliefs, which require the celebration of various festivals in which almost the entire population participates.

Important local festivals in the month of Chaitra are described here. *Diul Panchmi* is observed five days after *Holi*, and *Ram Navmi*, which continues for nine days. Thakur Deo *pooja* in the month of *Vaisakha* marks the beginning of agricultural operations. *Bhimseni Ekadashi* is celebrated in the month of

1. *Sahu Sandesh*, Vol. I & II, 1961, pp. 12 and 16.

2. *ibid* p. 70.

Asadha, when fast is observed for self purification. *Hariali* or *Hareli* in the month of *Shravana* on new moon day, when cattle are worshipped and fed with wheat flour made into dough and salt, is enthusiastically celebrated by the local people. Other festivals in the month of *Shravana* are *Nagpanchmi* on the fifth day of the waning moon, *Bhojli*, when women sow wheat in a basket in their houses and water it for seven days to be immersed in the tank, is celebrated following the *Rakhi* or *Rakshabandhan*, on full-moon day when coloured threads or *rakhis* are offered to village deities for protection. *Halshasti* or *Kamarchhat* is celebrated in the month of *Bhadra* for the welfare of children. *Janmashtami* also falls in the month of *Bhadra*. Birth of Lord Krishna is solemnized at midnight, and His name written on the walls of granary. *Pola Parab* for the welfare of cattle and *Tija Parab*, when the female-folk in rural Chhattisgarh worship for the welfare of their husbands, are also celebrated in the month of *Bhadra*. Paradoxically enough, in many cases, young married females of lower castes who go to their parents' house to celebrate *Tija*, do not return to their husbands after the festival, and become *choori*-wife of somebody.¹ Other festivals in the month of *Bhadra* are *Ganesh Chaturthi*, when the idol of Lord Ganesh is worshipped by the higher caste people, and *Karamdal*, which is a festival of tribal people largely. Other groups of people also participate in this festival except Kalar, Sonar, etc. Every family sows paddy eight days before the festival, and on this day, the tender plants are collected in a pot and placed before the '*karam*' branch. *Baiga* performs the worship. Dances follow, and in the morning '*karam*' branch is immersed in the tank. *Pitrapaksha*, *Navaratri* and *Dussehra* are celebrated in the month of *Asvina*, mostly by the upper section of the rural population. *Diwali* falls in the month of *Kartika* when goddess of wealth, *Laxmi*, is worshipped. Ceremonial gambling was a normal feature in the past. The Rawats go to every house in the village dancing all the way. *Rawat* dance is vigorously danced on the occasion. Other festivals of *Kartika* are *Jetheni*, *Gau-Bhojan*, *Kartika-Asnan* and *Gaura*. *Gaura* is the festival of tribal people which lasts for 8-15 days. Mahadev is worshipped on the last day by the Baiga. From first day of the festival, known as *phulkuina*, tribal girls dance *sua* dance every following night. *Cherta* in *Pusa* and *Holikadahan* in *Phalguna* are also celebrated with customary enthusiasm.

Communal Life

A number of sacred places, regarded as *tirthasthan*, are also visited by the local people on some auspicious occasions. For Chhattisgarh people, Seorinarayan, a place about 39 miles from Bilaspur, is an important place for pil-

1. Kosa: A Village Survey, 1961, p. 127.

grimage at the time of *Magha-poornima*. Nearly a lakh pilgrims visit the place annually on the occasion.

Ratanpur, a place nearly 18 miles from Bilaspur, and Pithampur, a place nearly 50 miles from Bilaspur on the banks of the river Hasdo, are also important centres where thousands of pilgrims assemble on the occasion of *Magha* and *Phalguna-Poornima*, respectively. Seorinarayan village is situated on the confluence of the Mahanadi and the Jonk. The biggest fair in the District is held here. Pithampur fair is famous for the belief that the cases of stomach disorder are cured, if an offering is made to the idol of Lord Shiva here. Ratanpur fair is largely attended by the Satnamis. Kudarnal in Janjgir Tahsil is a place of pilgrimage for Kabirpanthis, where an annual fair is held on *Magha-sudi* 15. The grave of Churaman, son of Dharamdas, Kabir's principal disciple and successor, is said to be situated here.

Songs and Dances

Dadariyas are the mainstay of Chhattisgarhi folk-poetry and Rawats excel in it. Some of these *dadariyas* are in the nature of questions and answers. *Dadariyas* are, generally, sung at the time of marriages. During marriage, the boys in groom's party taunt and cut jokes with the girls in the bride's party, and are sometimes obscene and imply sexual significance. *Bhajans* (devotional music), are also occasionally sung, and songs sung are usually the poems of Kabir or *dohas* of the *Ramayana* or some other composition. Generally, the songs and dances are accompanied with *dholak* or *mandar* and *duggi*, the musical instruments. *Dholaki* is a barrel-shaped structure while *mandar* has a cone-shaped structure.

Among the dances, *rawat-nach* has some distinguishing features. The Rawats, about the festival of Diwali, take out their colourful dress, viz., the *salooka*, *courie-belt* and peacock feathers. They put on jinglerings, *ghunghroo*, and with *lathis* in hand go on singing *dohas* and dance to their rhythm. Other dances are known as *danda-nach*, *sua-nach*, *karma-nach*, etc. *Sua-nach* is a parrot-dance, danced by the girls during the time of Diwali festival. Among the Gonds *karma*, *saila* and *reina* are important folk-dances. While *karma* is a mixed dance, *saila* and *reina* are exclusive dances of males and females respectively.

Public Games

With the spread of education in the interiors of the District, the schools have assumed the role of providing facilities of western games to its students in a limited way. But by and large, the traditional games are manisy

played. People assemble at *jatikham* or at Patel's house, and play *choupad*. It is a kind of game which is played with the help of *couris*, and has got roots deep in the Epic, the *Mahabharata*. Card games are also played by adults which are of simple nature. *Teen-do-panch* and *sathalla* are usually played.

The children, at the time of Pola festival get earthen toys to play, and in July/August they play with *gedee*, wooden stilts. Sometimes, *ghargoudia* and *dauka-dauki* are also played by them, in which the household activities are reproduced. *Dauka-dauki* is the depiction of husband and wife's role. Other games are *pittul*, *lukachhipi*, (hide and seek), *ghanwara* (wooden top), *gulli-danda* and *fugdi*. The teenagers play *kabaddi*, *ba'ni* (wrestling) and *noon-par* (an out-door game).

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Chhattisgarh has been termed as the rice bowl of Madhya Pradesh, and Bilaspur District has always lent its strength to this region in retaining this position. The principal economic feature of the District is the cultivation of paddy and the connected activities. People eat rice, morning, noon, and night and spend their lives growing rice. Their happiness and prosperity or otherwise depend entirely upon the fortunes of their paddy crop.

Bulk of the population of the District derives its livelihood from the calling of agriculture. The Census of 1961 shows that of the total workers in the District, 68 per cent were cultivators and 16 per cent agricultural labourers. The combined figure at the subsequent Census of 1971 was computed as 85 per cent.

Land Utilization

Land Records statistics for the year 1968-69 have placed the area of the District at 19,72,302 hectares (according to village papers). A big chunk of the area, i.e., 40.6 per cent was recorded as forest area, controlled either by Forest Department or by Revenue Department. Land not available for cultivation amounted to 7.4 per cent of the total District area. 'Other uncultivated land' reckoned at a somewhat higher figure, i.e., 8.1 per cent. 'Fallow land', a minor land use in the District, claimed only 2.9 per cent. The residual and the biggest slice of land (41.0 per cent) was utilized for the production of agricultural crops for the homestead and the factory. In the same year doublecropped area was reported as 1,60,371 hectares, the total cropped area thus aggregating to 9,69,526 hectares.

It may be noted that the area put under crops is an ever expanding land-use. This land which stood at 15,87,300 acres in 1910-11, gradually increased to 19,93,900 acres in 1964-65, i.e., by 26 per cent. During the period from 1950-51 to 1964-65 the net cropped area showed an increase of 40 per cent.

Culturable Wastelands

During 1964-65, culturable wastelands were recorded as 24,754 ha. Out of these 10,976 ha. (44 per cent) of wastelands were immediately reclaimable, 8,791 ha. (35 per cent) at some expense and the rest, i.e., 4,987 ha. (21 per cent) were scattered in patches and could be reclaimed only at considerable cost. Lack of irrigation facilities has been stated to be the main obstacle in the utilisation of these lands for cultivation. However, the Wasteland Survey and Reclamation Committee (1961) had observed that the extent of culturable wastelands was much less than that revealed by land record statistics. Unauthorised cultivation was one of the reasons. The Committee had also found out that bulk of the wastelands was scattered in small blocks. It could not locate any block comprising 250 acres or more.

Efforts have been made in recent years to bring under plough as much of the land as possible. This is done by allotment of wasteland, either on individual basis or by the settlement of colonies of landless cultivating labourers or members of scheduled tribes and castes. This measure is expected to solve the twin problems of rural unemployment and under-employment, and fruitful utilisation of wastelands. State Government started a scheme for the colonisation and settlement of landless persons in the course of the Second Five Year Plan. During 1959-60, families numbering 12 were settled in Janjgir Tahsil on 100 acres of wasteland. During the same year 25 families were settled in colonies in Mungeli Tahsil on 250 acres of wasteland. Such land to the extent of 9,199 acres was allotted on individual basis also during the two years of 1957-58 and 1958-59.

Under another scheme sponsored by the Government of India for the resettlement of landless agricultural workers, 34 families were allotted 400 acres of Government wasteland during 1963-64.

Soil Erosion

It has been roughly estimated that 30 to 40 per cent of the land is affected by soil erosion. A number of streams, namely the Hamp, Agar, Maniari, Arpa, Kharun, Lilagar, Hasdeo, Mand, and the two Kelos, which issue from the northern uplands and running north to south fall ultimately into the Mahanadi, cause a little damage by scouring, but on the contrary leave rich alluvial deposits at several places where good fruit and vegetable cultivation is carried on. Some parts of the Mungeli Tahsil, particularly areas of Patharia and Pandaria Blocks, part of Janjgir Tahsil near the banks of the Hasdeo and the Mahanadi near Shivrinarain are affected by soil-erosion. The

extent of the damage is from 0.5 to 10 per cent depending upon the slope of the land. Areas hit by the worst forms of soil-erosion are on the banks of rivers and nullahs. Thus, the main cause of soil-erosion is water. During rains, water rushes down to the lower slopes washing away the soil from the higher lands.

With a view to checkmating the menace of soil-erosion, contour-bunding programme of paddy fields has been taken up on a mass scale and nearly 25,000 acres have been thus protected from 1962 to early 1967. During the years from 1963-64 to 1965-66, loans sanctioned for contour-bunding in the District were Rs. 23,924; Rs. 1,39,427 and Rs. 2,70,943, respectively. The bunds erected serve as barriers to the flowing water laden with rich fertile topsoil. The soil gets deposited. The work of the bunding of nullahs is also taken up in some parts of the District.

Irrigation

Since time immemorial agriculture has been the principal economic activity of man. The rulers of the day also undertook construction of tanks for providing irrigation to the fields and thus warding off the dreadful spectre of scarcity or famine. They were also usually constructed to enrich the landscape. We find numerous references to the tanks built in the 12th century.

A tank called Vallabh Sagar with a pleasure house within was built by Vallabharaja, a feudatory chief of the Kalachuri king Ratnadeva II (1120-35 A.D.) at Kotgad near Akaltara in Bilaspur District.¹ A large tank was built at Ratanpur by Purushottama, a minister of Ratnadeva II.²

According to the Ratanpur stone inscription of Prithvideva II, dated 1157-58 A.D., Vallabharaja made a lake to the east of Ratanpura, using the range of hills near the village Khada as a dam. He also built several tanks in the vicinity and excavated a large lake Ratneshwar-sagar named after Ratnadeva II. Khada is modern Karra near which exists the extensive Kharang tank.

Brahmandeva, another feudatory chief of Kalachuri Prithvideva II, built a number of tanks and temples at and near Ratanpur which are enumerated in the Ratanpur stone inscription of Prithvideva II, dated 1163 A.D. He excavated a tank at Mallaha which is same as Mallal, 16 miles south-

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, Pt. II, pp. 430-1.

2. *ibid.* p. 436.

3. *ibid.* p. 496.

east of Bilaspur. Near about he dug two lotus ponds. At Ratanpur he excavated two beautiful tanks, besides a five-stepped well. He also dug picturesque tanks at Bamhani (four miles north-east of Akaltara) and three other neighbouring villages.

The Sheorinarayan stone inscription of Jajalladeva II dated 1167-68 A.D. testifies to the excavation of a splendid tank at Pandaratalai (modern Pondvia) which is seven miles north-west of Sheorinarayan and another at Patharia six miles south-east of Mungeli by feudatory chiefs Amanadeva and Rajadeva, respectively.

According to the Kharod stone-inscription of Ratnadeva III, dated 1181-82 A.D., his minister Gangadhara had beautiful tanks and lotus lakes excavated at Tipuruga (modern Tiprunga), 10 miles south of Kharoda, at Girahuli (modern Girotpali in Janjgir Tahsil), at Uluva (modern Ulba in Raipur District) and at Senadu (modern Sonada), 15 miles east of Kharod.

Coming to the modern times, it is seen that in the first decade of this century the sources of irrigation were almost entirely tanks, usually of no great size, and the value of irrigation in the District principally lay in the possibility of rectifying uneven distribution of the rainfall. The area which could be considered as protected against a general failure of the monsoon was trifling. The tanks were usually provided with an outer reservoir called a *paithu*, from which the water passed into the tank through a cut in the upper embankment of the latter. The effect of this reservoir was to increase the volume of water held up, and to enable some of the silt settle before the water passed into the source of supply of drinking water. When irrigation was necessary water was first drawn off from the *paithu* and allowed to run into the fields on the highest level which could be reached. When these were irrigated and no more water could be made to run off the sluice, the tank itself was breached at a lower level and the water was allowed to run into the fields which could be covered thence. Unless there were two or three tanks in the village the breaching of the tank itself was avoided, if at all possible, in order to prevent the supply of drinking water from running short in the hot weather. In many cases the tank was the only source of supply, and, if it failed water had to be brought from long distances for household purposes, and the cattle had to be driven a long way to drink. The sinking of wells where water level was close to the surface of the soil was usually left to the Marars who specialised in the cultivation of garden crops. The only sources of irrigation of any importance besides tanks were nullahs, which in suitable places were dammed by the people who run the water so held up into any field near the nullah which it could reach. Basket-lift or *chhapa* was the contrivance which was resorted to irrigate fields ad-

joining a tank, reservoir or pond or nullah. This consisted of a basket slung between two pairs of ropes, which were held by two men sitting facing one another across the sluice who dipped the basket into the water and then swung it up on the higher level.

Development of Government irrigation was hampered on account of the notion of the Government of India that Chhattisgarh was sufficiently provided for in the future by the Tandula and the Mahanadi canals and declined to continue the spending of further sums in the investigation of major projects in Bilaspur.¹ However, Government interest in the development of irrigation in the District owes its origin to the recommendation of the Indian Irrigation Commission. The Commission, which was appointed in 1901 to report on irrigation in India as a protection against famine, came to the conclusion that construction of small-scale irrigation works in the paddy-growing districts of Central Provinces and Berar, although never likely to be directly remunerative, was urgently required for protection against drought, as compared to the productive works in other Provinces. In pursuance of the above recommendations the investigation and construction of 16 works was taken in hand in the Provinces in 1906. Besides, in the same year, the Provincial Government of the day made definite proposals for carrying out certain new schemes, which the Government of India, after a good deal of correspondence, accepted in 1909. The works were started by 1910. Amongst others the proposals included the expenditure of a sum of Rs. 7 lakhs in the districts of Bilaspur, Damoh and Sagar.

An Irrigation Sub-Division of the Public Works Department was created at Bilaspur in 1906. This Sub-Division undertook the investigation and construction of minor tanks. The formation of Hasdeo Irrigation Circle in 1922 gave great impetus to the development of irrigation in the District. This Circle was divided into two construction divisions, named Kharung and Maniari after the two rivers on which major irrigation tanks were to be constructed.

In the following years two big storage works emerged on the irrigation map of Bilaspur. Work on one of them, Kharung tank, was sanctioned on 21st October 1924 and was completed in 1931 at a cost of Rs. 58.37 lakhs. The tank is situated across Kharung river on the left side in mile 20 of Ratanpur Katghora road. The project showed promise of being successful on account of the fairly large area of sandy soil which it commanded. The irrigation network consists of two canals with a mileage of 67.96 miles and

1. Quoted in *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 136.

140 minors and distributaries with a length of 219.46 miles. The area irrigated by the tank is 95,450 acres.

The other project is Maniari tank. The tank is situated in Khudia village of Mungeli Tahsil. Construction work was started in 1924 and was completed in 1933. Expenditure involved amounted to Rs. 56.57 lakhs. Irrigation water led by its 4.96 mile long canal is carried through its 138 minors and distributaries with a length of 249.75 miles. The irrigated area is 83 750 acres. This project was not considered so promising as the previous one as the bulk of the area commanded by it consisted of black soil, unless the late monsoon failed and water required for *winter* sowings. After the construction of these two tanks Hasdeo Circle was amalgamated in the Mahanadi Circle in 1931 and the two Divisions were merged into the Kharung Division for the maintenance of the existing irrigation works in the District.

Further progress in the sphere of irrigation works remained suspended due to the recommendations of the Central Provinces Irrigation Committee (1929). Work was restarted only in 1944 when the nation was jolted out of its deep apathy on the food front. Grow More Food Campaign was launched and a beginning was made with small-scale irrigation works. The District under the Five Year Plans witnessed feverish activity in the creation of irrigation facilities.

The formation of the Chhattisgarh Village Project Division at Raipur with a Sub-Division at Bilaspur in 1949 was an important step forward in the development of irrigation. The Sub-Division investigated a number of minor irrigation schemes and undertook the construction of tanks termed as Village Project Tanks. The Division was abolished in 1952 and the works in progress were completed by the regular sub-divisions.

Since 1952 the Development Blocks came into existence in the District. They undertook the preliminary investigation of minor irrigation tanks and evinced interest in their execution. Since the schemes costing Rs. 25,000 or more had to be scrutinized and executed by the Public Works Department, an independent Minor Irrigation Sub-Division was created at Bilaspur for the clearance and execution of such schemes. Besides, allotments were also placed at the disposal of the Collector for the development of minor irrigation works during the Second Five Year Plan.

During the Second and Third Plan period a scheme for the development of Maniari tank was taken up. The scheme was designed to remodel the existing canal system, including canal structure and to construct a new distributary with minors. The estimated cost of the project was Rs. 23.97 lakhs with an additional irrigable area of 21,716 acres in Bilaspur District.

Included in the Third Plan of the District was a major irrigation project for harnessing the Hasdeo river. The project envisaged the construction of a 200 feet high dam in Atma Range Gorge across the Hasdeo, a tributary of the Mahanadi, and a pick-up weir 29 miles downstream. The main dam will be of straight gravity type with central overflow section for passing surplus water. There will be an earthen dyke 5,000 ft. long to the right. The power-houses to be located at the foot of the dam will have a big power capacity of 50,000 kw. at 60 per cent load factor. Two canals on each bank will take off from the pick-up weir to irrigate an area of three lakh acres in the District. It is estimated to cost Rs. 350 lakhs.

Tank Irrigation

In the opening years of this century the only Government tanks constructed in Bilaspur District were two minor tanks namely, Hardi and Dhanras near Lormi, while a third was under construction at Barpali near Akalta. Hardi tank fell within the area commanded by the Maniari reservoir. One more Government irrigation tank, namely, Amachua tank came into existence in 1917. Tank construction programme undertaken in post-Independence period has already been referred to,

However, small tanks still constitute a very important source of irrigation. Bilaspur District is studded with a number of small irrigation tanks. In 1968-69, the District had 334 tanks with an ayacut of 100 acres or more and 14,570 tanks with ayacut less than 100 acres. The minor tanks were previously under the management of *malguzars* and zamindars. With the enforcement of Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, the management of these tanks passed on to the State. The Government has decided to repair all these tanks urgently and to develop maximum irrigation from them.

However, the utility of tank irrigation is limited, in the sense they are rainfed. In case rains fail, the tanks fail to fill up and provide succor to the withering crops when water is needed most to drench the parched soil. If, however, early monsoon is copious and tanks are full to the brim, the culti-

vated land under the command of the tanks becomes safe from the caprices of the later monsoon.

Sub-soil water is mostly very deep and digging of a well in such strata is a very costly affair. As such, wells are not generally used for irrigation, except in beds of rivers and nullahs where shallow wells are used for vegetable irrigation. In 1968-69, there were only 225 Government wells in the District. The number of private wells was quite large, being 16,978. A little less than half the number of these wells were pukka.

Area Irrigated

The area irrigated fluctuates considerably from year to year. It depends partly on the necessity for irrigation and partly on the capacity of tanks to supply water when it is required. In the good year of 1906-07 there was little necessity for irrigation and the total area irrigated was only 9,910 acres. In 1907-08, though the early monsoon was above average there was more necessity for irrigation in September, and the irrigated area expanded to 1,40,970 acres.

In 1910-11 the area irrigated was recorded as 62,700 acres, while in 1920-21, the same shot upto 1,85,100 acres. Again, in 1930-31 irrigated area amounted to 38,500 acres which, in 1940-41, reached the high figure of 2,90,900 acres. In 1960-61, the District had 2,36,459 irrigated acres, or 10.5 per cent of the net sown acreage. In 1964-65 an area of 2,19,100 acres was in receipt of irrigation, which was equivalent to 11 per cent of the net cropped area. In 1968-69, this percentage had risen to 17.3.

Canals were responsible for the largest share in providing irrigation. In 1968-69, their share amounted to 61 per cent. In the same year tanks contributed 34 per cent, wells two per cent and 'others' the remaining three per cent.

Crops Irrigated

Almost the entire benefit of irrigation was claimed by paddy. Paddy had 1,34,235 irrigated hectares i.e., 95 per cent of the total area in receipt of irrigation. Next came sugarcane with 1,591 irrigated hectares thus claiming 1.1 per cent of the irrigated area. Wheat had 932 irrigated hectares (0.7 per cent). The remaining irrigated area went to fruits and vegetables.

Rabi irrigation is very limited and depends upon carry over stock of water in the tanks after meeting the *kharif* demand. It is done in sugarcane and vegetable crops from the village tanks and wells specially constructed for the purpose.

In the past irrigation was most frequently resorted to in the east of the District where light soils predominate. It was of practically no importance in Mungeli Tahsil where the black clay in normal years requires no artificial supply of water and where the level character of the ground renders the source of supply insufficient to protect more than a very limited area. Since the coming up of the Maniari tank in Mungeli Tahsil, paddy irrigation is being done. But the irrigation is of 'protective' nature and not 'productive', i.e., irrigation is resorted to only in case of failure of monsoon. However, it has been observed that since 1940-41, monsoon has become very irregular, thus, giving fillip to irrigation. As such, irrigation even in Mungeli Tahsil is coming into its own. Moreover, now there is greater awareness of the benefits of irrigated agriculture.

Soils

The western part of the District is mainly a black soil tract, the soil being formed from disintegrated trap rock carried down by the rivers from the Maikals. In the centre and east, red soils are prevalent. The soil terminology known in the District is the same as elsewhere in Chhattisgarh, i.e., *kanhar*, *matasi* and *dorsa*. *Kanhar* is a deep clay soil of blue-black or brown-black colour. *Matasi* is a light coloured soil varying in colour but generally being brownish-yellow. *Dorsa* is the middle of these two and on the basis of their respective proportions it is generally divided into two classes. First grade *dorsa* is a dark brown clay soil, which in many respects resembles *kanhar* which predominates over *matasi* in its composition. Second grade *dorsa* is a light brown soil in the composition of which *matasi* predominates over *kanhar*. Besides these three principal soil types, there is an area of very inferior soil called *bhatu*. *Bhatu* consists of a slight sprinkling of a sandy soil over gravel and is good for nothing except the lightest kind of millet and sesamum. The alluvial soil found on the banks of rivers and streams is known as *kachhar*. The *kachhar* consists of a mixture of clay and sand and in its better form, in which clay predominates over sand, it is known as *pal kachhar*. *Patpar kachhar* is the term for that alluvial soil in which sand predominates over clay and is principally found in the beds of streams.

Kanhar and first grade *dorsa* will grow any kind of crop and, when sown with paddy, are usually double-cropped with linseed or *rabi* pulses. Second grade *dorsa* will grow paddy, linseed, *rabi* pulses, lighter millets, *arhar* and occasionally wheat as a single crop. When sown with paddy it will grow, in good years or in low-lying position, a second crop of linseed or *rabi* pulses. *Matasi* will grow nothing but paddy, but is very susceptible to damage from deficient rainfall. *Pal kachhar* is principally suitable for garden crops. *Patpar kachhar* is generally cropped with melons and sweet potatoes.

About 15 per cent of the soils are classed as heavy, 75 per cent as sandy loam and the rest, i.e., 10 per cent as sandy. Depth of the heavy soils varies from four to five ft., whereas that of sandy loam varies from one ft. to five ft.

The most fertile part of the District is represented by the whole of Mungeli Tahsil excluding Pandaria R.I. Circle and Sipat and Masturi R.I. Circles of Bilaspur Tahsil. In its plain regions it almost entirely consists of *kanhar* and first grade *dorsa*. Janjgir and Sakti Tahsils principally consist of *matasi* and second grade *dorsa*, and Bilaspur Tahsil forms the point of transition between the soil types of Mungeli and Janjgir—in its western half the formation of soil approximates to that of Mungeli and in its eastern half to that of Janjgir. Katghora Tahsil is the poorest in its soil types as it consists mostly of a very inferior soil and *matasi* and second grade *dorsa* in patches.

The following Table shows the distribution of soils, Tahsilwise, in the District according to the last Settlement:

Table No. IV-1

Distribution of Soils

Type of Soil	Area Under the Soil				Total
	Bilaspur Tahsil	Mungeli Tahsil	Janjgir Tahsil	Katghora Tahsil	
Kanhar I	2,121	84,035	63	—	86,219
—Do— II	3,30,657	76,023	7,666	—	4,14,346
Dorsa I	1,60,026	79,566	97,537	—	3,37,128
—Do— II	1,46,057	16,141	1,84,927	381	3,47,506
Matasi I	63,026	8,267	2,24,319	353	2,95,965
—Do— II	9,185	634	70,180	—	79,999
Bhat	1,107	151	2,941	179	4,378
Pal kachhar	1,353	1,682	1,778	—	4,813
Patpar kachhar	11,046	3,495	12,219	54	26,814
Gairmumkin	1,036	402	2,941	5	4,384
Barchha	205	—	259	—	464
Total:	7,25,819	2,70,496	6,04,829	972	16,02,016

Source:—Settlement Report.

Crops

The principal economic activity of the District is the growing of paddy. In fact, the entire economy of the District revolves round this fact. This characteristic is so marked, real, and apparent that it needs no reiteration. Before the colossal paddy acreage of 6,29,508 hectares, other crops make a poor showing; *Lakh*, which ranked second after paddy had only 1,08,007 ha; next came linseed with 36,691 ha. and *kodon-kutki* with 45,168 ha. Gram and wheat, other crops of some consequence, trailed far behind and were grown only in 23,957 ha. and 19,931 ha. respectively.

Paddy is the most important crop of the District. It is uniformly grown all over the District. Acreage of paddy is gradually increasing. In 1904-05, it covered 10,25,141 acres or 67 per cent of the net cropped area. In 1961-62, this percentage rose to 76. The year 1964-65 registered further increase when the percentage rose to 77.

In 1968-69, the total outturn of rice was recorded as 4,15,633 metric tons though the quinquennial average for the last five years was a little higher being 4,59,697 metric tons. During the same year the per ha. yield was 695 kg.

Bilaspur is one of the principal paddy producers of Madhya Pradesh. During the 5 years ending with 1968-69 paddy acreage of the District was equivalent to 15 per cent of the State average, and it occupied second place amongst all the districts of the State. From the point of view of outturn also Bilaspur claimed a little higher percentage i.e., 17 and the same second position.

Paddy is almost universally sown broadcast, transplantation being only practised in a few localities by enterprising cultivators. There are three methods of sowing paddy locally known as *khurra*, *batar* and *lehi*. *Khurra* consists of sowing in land which has been ploughed once or twice before the monsoon breaks. *Batar* is sowing in land which is ploughed for the first time when monsoon breaks. In both these methods the seed is broadcast--in the case of *khurra* sowings, over ground which has been prepared before the rains broke, and in the case of *batar* sowing, over ground which is ploughed immediately before sowing once or twice according to the amount of grass and weeds in the field. In rare cases when the field is exceptionally free from weeds, the seed is scattered over unploughed land in *batar* sowings. Whatever be the state of

the ground before the seed is scattered over it, the latter is ploughed in by a final ploughing. The third method is called sowing in *lehi*. It is adopted for late sowing when the ground has been well saturated by the first fall of the monsoon. It consists in ploughing up the wet ground, with an inch or two of water standing on it, into thick mud until all the water is absorbed in the soil. Then seed, which has been made to germinate artificially by being soaked for 24 hours in a pot full of water and then covered over inside the house with a heap of straw to exclude light and produce warmth, is sown broadcast over the field. In this case the seed is not ploughed in. In the District the most common practice is sowing after one or two ploughings in *batar*, because in this District where paddy land forms so large a proportion of the total cropped area, few even of the resourceful farmers have sufficiently frequent opportunities of ploughing their land before the rains break to be able to sow all of it in *khurra*. The latter method when it is practicable is by far the most profitable, owing to the fact that the upturned earth becomes more friable through the action of the air and the sun, the manure becomes more perfectly amalgamated with the loosened soil, and the rain when it comes more rapidly permeates it. Hence the seed can be got into the ground more speedily than in the case of other methods. *Lehi* sowing is only adopted in fields which cannot be sown promptly, and is avoided as much as possible, because the plants so sown are very apt to be washed out by a heavy fall of rain soon after sowing time.

Whichever method of sowing is adopted, the paddy plants, about four or five weeks after sowing time, are thinned by driving a plough through the field at right angles to the lines which have been made by the ploughing prior to sowing. This method of thinning is known as *biasi*. *Biasi* requires a fairly large amount of water in field and is usually practised just after the second heavy fall of rain at the end of July or the beginning of August. Its performance at the proper time is of critical importance to the paddy crop and its postponement owing to unseasonal want of rain is very detrimental. A few days after *biasi*, when the plants begin to revive from the uprooting, *kopar* is dragged across the fields to press the roots exposed by *biasi* back into the earth as well as to level the irregularities of the ground, and to submerge the weeds which have grown up with paddy. After this, a certain amount of water is allowed to run off and the field sluices are blocked for the reception of mid-August fall. These are not reopened, except in case of heavy rain, till the last half of October. During this time, paddy fields are weeded twice or even oftener. For this manual labour is required and usually women do the job. The process of weeding is known as *nindai*.¹

1. District Census Hand-Book, Bilaspur (1961), pp. LVI.

To produce a good crop, another good rainfall at the beginning of October is required. The critical periods in paddy cultivation are the end of July, the latter half of August, and from the middle of September to the middle of October. At all these periods good rain is necessary and any diminution of the supply of water at once results in a diminished outturn.

After threshing the paddy is stored in *dholies* prepared with bamboos and earth. Some wealthy cultivators have constructed pucca godowns for storage purposes. Straw and stalks of the paddy plant are used for feeding the cattle.

Though with the opening of Development Blocks and through the working of the Agriculture Department attempts are being made to popularise the use of chemical fertilisers, cattle-dung manure still holds Manures and Seeds supreme. The cultivator manures his paddy land as much as he possibly can with cattle-dung. The bulk of it is employed in the fields composed of *kanhar* and *dorsa* soils which require much more regular manuring than *matasi*. The usual allotment of manure by a cultivator in average circumstances is about 4-5 cart-loads per acre, though those who can afford it apply 10 or even more cart-loads per acre. Paddy when sown broadcast takes about 30 to 40 kg. of seed per acre. In case of transplanted paddy, quantity of seed is halved.

On the basis of ripening time, there are three kinds of paddy. *Haruna* is the early ripening variety sown on high-lying ground, which is reaped by the end of October. *Ardhana*, or intermediate paddy is reaped early in November and *mai* variety or the late ripening variety is reaped by the beginning of December.

Nearly 200 different varieties of paddy are reported to be grown in this District, but even the best quality does not come upto the standard of the best quality paddy grown in Balaghat district. The different varieties are known by such fanciful names as Badshah-Bhog, Nariyal-Phool, Doodh-Khowa, Tulsí-Amrit, Doobraj, Begum-Pasand and so on. The best medium variety of paddy is Luchai. The production of fine varieties of paddy has registered a set-back for a decade or so, as in the opinion of cultivators, their cultivation is fraught with comparatively greater risks of failure.¹

New varieties of paddy introduced by Agriculture Department during the past years consist of X-116, L.G.B., Sultugurmatia, Chhatra, Laloo, Safeda, Nungi No. 17, Surmatia, Nungi Nagkesar and Taichung Native-I. The last

1. *ibid.* p. LVII.

mentioned variety was the last to come and was introduced in the sowing season of 1966. Some hybrids with purple leaves have been evolved which are very useful in eradicating the menace of wild rice.

The latest method of paddy cultivation, commonly known as Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation—an extremely intensive method of growing transplanted paddy was introduced as an experimental measure in 1956. About ten to eleven thousand acres of paddy is raised by this method. The seed-rate is substantially reduced under this method, being only 16-20 lbs. per acre. The yield per acre is also trebled or quadrupled.

A programme for the intensive cultivation of paddy has been taken up in the District from 1963-64. This programme aims at stepping up the per acre yield of paddy.

Wheat is the principal *rabi* crop. It is mostly concentrated in Mungeli and west of Bilaspur Tahsil, i.e., in Mungeli, Lormi, Masturi, Belha, Pandaria, Takhatpur and Janjgir Blocks of the District.

Wheat in 1904-05 covered 1,03,893 acres or seven per cent of the net cropped area. Wheat has lost its popularity over years. In 1964-65 it commanded not more than 78,180 acres (equivalent to four per cent of the net cropped area), the quinquennial average being even less, i.e., 61,326 acres. This decline in wheat cultivation is attributed to the diversion of wheat lands to paddy, though in Mungeli Tahsil, wheat continues to be an important crop. In 1964-65, wheat gave an outturn of 18,233 tons while the average yield per acre was 565 lbs. In 1968-69, wheat was grown on 19,931 hectares and gave an output of 11,952 metric tons with per hectare yield of 625 kg.

Wheat is sown from the end of October to early December in ground which, when unembanked, has been ploughed three or four times before the seed is sown. The first ploughing of wheat fields is in the second half of August. Two more sowings are done either towards the end of September or in the beginning of October and the final ploughing is done at the end of October or in the beginning of November, just prior to sowing. The seed is sown in lines at the time of the final ploughing by being dropped through a hollow bamboo, called *tora*, which is inserted in a hole drilled through the wooden share of the plough. Wheat fields are generally not manured nor are weeding operations necessary.

Wheat is also sown in embanked fields. Embankments are constructed around wheat fields which hold up water till sowing time when it is drained off. The system of embanking confers a double advantage over fields

not so embanked; (i) the moisture necessary for germination is available for a much longer period than in unembanked land, and (ii) the standing water renders the ground much softer than it would be if unembanked, and if the water can be maintained at sufficient depth, the growth of weeds is prevented. Consequently, the field requires fewer ploughings (one or two as compared to four or six in unembanked land). Wheat can be sown throughout November and even early in December. If there be sufficient moisture at sowing time, wheat only wants one good fall of rain in December to give a very fair outturn. If it gets another fall in January or in the beginning of February it should give a full crop, unless unseasonable rains towards the end of February produce rust or any damage caused by hail.¹

In areas blessed with irrigation, two irrigations are given; first, one month after sowing and the second before the flowering stage. Thirty to forty kg. of wheat seed is applied per acre where it is sown broadcast. The crop is ready in the first three weeks of March and is harvested in March and April by manual labour.

Linseed and miscellaneous *rabi* pulses, namely, *urad*, *tiura*, *batra*, *masur* and gram largely account for the area from which a second crop is obtained after the principal crop of paddy has been harvested.

A precise estimate of the area under each crop may be difficult. Linseed and miscellaneous pulses cover between them practically the whole of the area double-cropped. The

area under linseed and miscellaneous *rabi* fluctuates largely from year to year, as they are, whether grown as single or double-crops, largely dependent on good rain at the end of September or the beginning of October. An extreme case is provided by the figures of 1904-05 and 1905-06. In the former year when monsoon was favourable acreage under linseed and *rabi* pulses was 4,51,603 while it shrank to barely 20,030 acres during the next year marked by unfavourable monsoon.

The ground in which these crops are to be sown is usually given two preliminary ploughings in August and September. If moisture is plentiful and near the surface, linseed, *batra*, *masur* and castor are usually sown broadcast and then ploughed in like *kodon* and paddy. If the moisture is beginning to sink into the ground and the surface soil is drying, they are sown in lines like wheat. The broadcast method, being labour-saving, is preferred, for one man can let his plough stand while he scatters the seed, and then plough the

latter in, whereas if the crop is sown in lines, a second man is required to drop the seed into the *tora*.

Linseed is sown in two ways, namely, (a) *utera*, and (b) *bota*. *Utera* method of sowing was responsible for 5.6 per cent of the total area under linseed in 1968-69. Under this method the seeds are broadcast in wet paddy fields soon after the reaping of the paddy crop. As such, there is no need of preliminary cultivation in this method of sowing. *Bota* system of sowing accounted for 44 per cent of the total linseed of the year 1964-65. In *bota* system the land is *bakkhar*d once or twice in summer and as frequently as possible during breaks in the rainy season.

During the quinquennium ending with 1968-69, Bilaspur accounted for seven per cent of the area sown under linseed in the State and enjoyed third place amongst the districts of the State during the same period.

Linseed is the earliest of the *rabi* crops and is sown at the end of September or in the beginning of October. The seed is broadcast in *utera*, while in *bota* it is drilled by means of a country plough or *tiffan*, a three-coultered *desi* seed-drill. Linseed requires a fine seed-bed. The yield per acre is considerably influenced by the system of sowing.

Linseed is of two varieties—bold and small. In Bilaspur, it is the small variety that predominates.

When harvested the crop is tied in bundles and brought to the threshing floor, where it is spread for a day or two. Threshing is generally done by treading the bullocks over the crop.

The practice of cultivating *til* has declined considerably over the last 60 years. The acreage under *til* which had amounted to 33,700 acres in 1909-10, gradually fell to 19,100 acres in 1919-20, 12,700 acres in 1929-30, 9,600 acres in 1939-40 and 8,500 acres in 1964-65. In 1968-69 area under *til* was 4,796 ha.

Til is taken as a *kharif* crop. It is reaped early in October. *Til* when grown as a pure crop is sown broadcast in the same manner as *kodon* at the end of June or in the beginning of July when the cultivator has completed his paddy and *kodon* sowing. It is neither weeded nor thinned. *Til* can be grown in *bhata* and unembanked *mutasi* also. In such light soils it is sometimes admixed with *kodon*.

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, pp. 139-140,

Gram is sown till December, and is, therefore, usually after the others have been put into the ground. It is sown in lines like wheat. Castor is sown usually at the beginning of October, and *batar* and *masur* early in November.

Kodon is the poor man's staple food. It is the principal *kharif* crop after paddy. It is practically the only crop, except *til* and *urad* which *bhata* and unembanked *matasi* grow. It is also grown largely in the better soils in poor positions, and in wheat land it is used with *tur* as a rotation crop to prevent the exhaustion of the soil. It is sown in the latter half of June or the beginning of July concurrently with the paddy sowings. It is broadcast over land which has been ploughed once or twice after the rains break and is then ploughed in by driving the plough over it in a direction at right angles to the original furrows. In light soils it is usually admixed with *til* and in the heavier soils with *tur*. In *kanhar* or first grade *dorsa* it is largely used as a rotation crop for wheat and in these soils 100 times the seed is looked upon by the people as a good average yield. The seed of *tur* is mixed with that of *kodon* and it requires no additional cultivation. About three to five weeks after germination, *kodon* is thinned by raking it over with a *datari*. This process removes the congestion caused by the luxuriant growth of the broadcast seed and uproots a large proportion of the weeds which grow up with the crop. The surviving plants benefit by the additional space and throw out a large number of fresh shoots. After thinning the *kodon* crop is weeded once or twice in the latter part of August and the beginning of September and then requires no further attention till harvest time. It is reaped in October or November depending on its being the earlier or the later variety.¹

This prolific millet grew considerably in popularity since the famine years as it required little rain. It is considered as a sort of insurance against the failure of the paddy crop and can be grown in any soil from *kanhar* to *bhata*. *Kodon* in 1904-05 covered 1,40,125 acres or nine per cent of the net cropped area. *Kodon* acreage shows erratic trend but it does appear that in recent years its cultivation has fallen off. In 1964-65 the area of *kodon* was recorded as 99,620 acres. In 1968-69 it was responsible for 42,321 ha. while the quinquennial average (1964-65 to 1968-69) worked out to 41,521 ha.

Teora (also known as *matra* or *khesari*) is a popular crop. It is known to cause lathyrism on account of the presence of a toxin in the pulse; yet its popularity has not waned. The reasons are not far to seek. Its cultivation requires less labour and it gives comparatively higher yields. The plant is a sturdy one and can withstand

¹ Ibid. pp. 138-139.

the onslaught of pests and diseases and scarcity of water. The leaves and stubbles are fed to the cattle. It is sown as an insurance against failure of crops occasioned by the capricious monsoon, for even though other crops may wither away, it will still hold the ground. Moreover, bread prepared from *teora* flour is very sweet and tasty. In 1968-69 it was grown on 1 08,007 ha. the second highest area after paddy. *Teora* is termed as saviour of life during famine and scarcity, as is apparent from the following folk-lore:

matra ki roti, matra ki dar,

matra ki pati, rackhanhar

which means

Matra as bread and *matra* as pulse

matra indeed is the guardian of all

The crippling effect of the consumption of this pulse, namely, paralysis of legs, is very well known to the people. This is clear from a local folk-verse:

Kariat matra piar pisan,

Pisan khai se gor nasaa;

Hale chandui matke kool,

Je dekho matre ki sool;

The black pea with its yellow flour,
From eating it comes trouble in legs;
Flapping top knot and swaying hips,
Behold the ill-effects of eating *matra*.

But the crux of the problem is that use of *teora* has been inextricably interwoven into the life pattern of the people, due to a variety of factors, so that its elimination is not an easy task. Dissemination of information regarding the damaging effects of its consumption and spread of irrigation channels will wean away the people from its cultivation.

Double Cropping

The most remarkable feature of the cropping statistics of this paddy-District is the system of double-cropping, known as *utera*. In *utera* the method of sowing is very simple. The seed is scattered broadcast when paddy is still

standing in the fields. This sowing is done about the third week of October. Different *utera* crops are sown according to the condition of the field. Linseed and *urad* cannot stand soaking and are sown after the water has been run off from the fields; *batra* (*Pisum sativum*), gram and *masur* (*Ervum lens*) are generally sown a few hours before the water is run off and *teora* (*Lathyrus sativus*) is allowed to soak in the fields for 24 hours or so before the field sluices are opened. The *utera* crops grow up for about a month or so in the shade of paddy plants which protect them from the rays of hot October sun. After the paddy is reaped in November the *utera* crop remains in the field. This second crop considerably enhances the value of the heavier soils, for it entails no labour except that involved in sowing and harvesting. It may be remembered here that *utera* crops are essentially those that are sown without reploughing; the very crops sown after reploughing do not come under the name of *utera*. The area sown with second crops fluctuates largely from year to year depending upon the exigencies of rainfall.

Agricultural Implements and Machinery

The number of agricultural implements in operation in the District and their tahsil-wise distribution are shown in Appendix.

The implements used in agricultural operations that have been handed down from generation to generation are the plough or *nagar*, *patha* or *kopar*, *phawda*, and *datri*. *Nagar* is the ploughing implement. Here it is somewhat lighter than that used in the wheat-growing areas. It is possessed by all the cultivators as no cultivation is possible in the absence of a plough. As the Table indicates there were 2,76,847 wooden ploughs in the District according to the Census of 1961. The number had declined to some extent in 1968-69, when they were enumerated as 2,62,855. The plough weighs about 15 kg., lasts for about 5½ years and costs about Rs. 15. Work rate is half an acre a day.

Kopar is a log of wood used for levelling the field after the *biasi* of paddy is done. Like the *nagar* it is also worked by bullock-power. The weight of the *kopar* is 30 kg. It serves for about three years. The cost is about Rs. 10. It is universally found in the agricultural community.

Datri is an implement used for pulverising the soil and thinning plants in the fields of late ripening *kodon*. It is a log of wood fitted with about 13 wooden teeth or nails driven in it in one row. Wheat is sown through a hollow bamboo called *tora* which is inserted in a hole drilled through the *nas* or wooden share of the plough. The bamboo stands upright between the bullocks (or buffaloes as the case may be) and the ploughman and is surmount-

ed by a bottomless wooden cup known as *paila* which fits over the top of it and into which a second man drops the seed. *Tutari* is the term for the stick used by the cartman or ploughman for driving the bullocks. It is pointed at one end with an iron nail.

Other petty implements used in agriculture are *chatwar*, *sur*, *kalari*, and the common sickle (*hasiya*) and crow-bar (*sabar*). *Chatwar* is a wooden implement to cut clods out of moist ground with which field embankments are prepared and breaches in the bunds are closed. *Sur* is a wooden pole to carry bundles of harvest to the threshing floor or *khalihan*. *Kalari* is a wooden pole with a big iron nail turned into a sickle shape. It is used for separating stalks from the seed. *Kudra* or *kudri* is the term for pick-axe.¹

Since 1962-64, an improved version of some agricultural implements has appeared on the agricultural scene, but the number of such implements in use is infinitesimally small. Amongst the improved implements, Sabash, Wah Wah and Mould-Board ploughs, *tauchi gurma*, threshing roller and chaff-cutter can be named. They are worked either manually or by bullock-power. A firm of Bilaspur is manufacturing these implements.

But on the whole, the traditional implements are still holding the ground though new and improved ones are also trickling in. At present the new implements are neither preferred nor practicable as they involve certain amount of mechanisation which in turn implies sufficiently large and compact blocks of land for operation. The fabric of rural life has changed but little, so the farmer still clings to the implements which he saw during his boyhood and adolescence being used by his father and grandfather. Large-scale mechanisation does not appear to be a feasible proposition under the prevailing circumstances, namely, smallness of holdings, poverty of agricultural classes in general, tradition bound methods of cultivation and preponderance of paddy cultivation.

Seed

Paddy, being the most important crop of the District, was the first to attract the attention of the cultivators as regards adoption of better seeds, fertilizer and scientific farming practices. The farmers are becoming increasingly conscious of the need for sowing pure and high yielding seeds. They obtain their supplies of seed from the stores of Agriculture Department or Co-operative Banks. Sometimes big and well-to-do cultivators also undertake the business of supply of improved seed.

1. District Census Handbook, Bilaspur (1961), p. LVIII.

Arrangements have been strengthened for multiplying improved seeds and supplying the same to the cultivators. Foundation seed procured from the seed multiplication farms serves as the mother-seed. It is supplied to the selected progressive cultivators called 'A' class or 'Primary' seed growers for multiplication. The seed obtained from these growers is further multiplied by 'B' class or 'Secondary' seed growers and the seed obtained from them is then distributed to 'C' class seed growers. These registered seed growers agree to multiply the seed of improved strains on their land under the supervision and guidance of agricultural extension staff who attend to the roguing of crop, besides inspecting the seed at sowing, harvesting, threshing, bagging and storage, so as to maintain a high level of purity of the seed. The seed-growers agree to sell back the seed to the Department and as an inducement to the growers to multiply seed of high purity they are offered a premium on the seed sold to the Department. Only seed of high purity and viability is procured from these growers and for this purpose the agricultural staff thoroughly test the seed before buying the same. The seed produced by 'C' class growers is not procured by the Department.

The Table given below shows the quantity of improved seeds distributed in the District from 1961-62 to 1969-70.

Table No. IV-2
Distribution of Improved Seed

Year	(In Quintals)		
	Improved Seeds Distributed		
	Groundnut	Paddy	Wheat
1961-62	1	8,971	191
1962-63	4	13,320	481
1963-64	1,058	7,928	1,685
1964-65	503	6,202	1,722
1965-66	843	10,383	2,517
1966-67	245	32,013	N.A.
1967-68	202	3,673	Nil
1968-69	352	5,610	824
1969-70	9	1,532	879

Source:—Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur.

As a result of these efforts it has been estimated that, by the end of 1967 about a third of the paddy area of the District had been saturated by improved seed.

Manures and Fertilizers

Cow-dung manure and burnt ashes are usually applied for increasing the fertility of soils. Cow-dung is heaped during rains in big deep pits and is allowed to rot. The quality of manure is naturally very poor. The quantity is also very small as in other seasons it is converted into cakes for use as fuel. Hardly three or four cartloads of this manure are applied per acre and that too once in two or three years. Burnt ashes, whenever available, are brought even from long distances. The price is settled by higgling and bargaining in terms of whole lots and it varies between Rs. 8 and Rs. 10. With the dawn of scientific agriculture efforts are being made to introduce better composting methods by placing all available refuse in the recommended manner in the properly dug compost pits.

Use of tank silt is yet another old method for raising fertility status of the soil. In all tracts dotted with tanks, silt is dug out and carted to the fields. This practice improves the texture of the soil as well.

Mixed cropping and rotation of crops also contribute to the fertility of the soil. Scientific pattern of the rotation of crops is advocated by Agriculture Department.

The system of green-manuring is coming into vogue particularly since 1962. *Sunn* and *dhaincha* are used for this purpose. They are sown either mixed with the seed of the main crop or by pre-sowing in the fields earmarked for transplantation. About one-fifth of the paddy area has been covered by this practice. *Dhaincha* is less popular as a green manuring crop as it damages the crop under adverse climatic conditions. Green leaves are also used for manuring purposes.

With the beginning of the First Five Year Plan of economic development, fertilizers as a concentrated source of nutrients essential for plant growth were introduced in the District and ever since their popularity has steadily increased. Ammonium sulphate, urea and superphosphate are applied to paddy, wheat and sugarcane fields. Major part of the fertilizers is diverted to these crops. Ten lbs. of nitrogen and 10 lbs. of P_2O_5 are generally applied to each acre of unirrigated paddy crop. In the case of irrigated crop the dose is almost doubled. Supplies of fertilizers are stated to be sufficient to meet the demand.

The following Table shows the distribution of fertilisers in the District from 1961-62 to 1969-70.

Table No. IV-3

Distribution of Fertilisers

Year	(In Tons)	
	Nitrogenous	Phosphatic
1961-62	4,447	187
1962-63	3,154	495
1963-64	5,023	381
1964-65	7,893	1,338
1965-66	7,588	3,766
1966-67	9,346	2,686
1967-68	9,156	1,334
1968-69	13,956	2,683
1969-70	16,398	4,162

Source:—Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur.

The practice of leaving the land fallow is resorted to for giving rest to the agricultural land so that the fertility is recuperated in a natural way. However, the practice is no longer in vogue to the same extent as it used to be in the past, for it is incompatible with the recent advances in agricultural methods and also pressure on land as rising prices of agricultural crops induce the cultivators to bring maximum land under the plough. Current fallows which were reckoned as high as 2.01 lakh acres in 1911, 2.41 lakh acres in 1921, 1.97 lakh acres in 1931 and 1.66 lakh acres in 1941, came down to 1.03 lakh acres in 1951, 0.74 lakh acres in 1960-61 and 0.67 lakh acres in 1964-65. In 1968-69, current fallows accounted for 30,013 ha.

Pests and Diseases

A large number of insects and diseases damage the agricultural crops in various stages of growth. Bilaspur is principally a paddy-growing area, hence this crop has been dealt with at some length.

The distribution of pests and the magnitude of the damage caused by them depend upon environmental and climatic factors. Under favourable conditions a minor pest in a certain region may become a serious pest in the same region or in another region. The distribution of paddy pests is facilitat-

ted by the vast contiguous areas under paddy cultivation. Further, many varieties of paddy which come to maturity on different dates, when grown simultaneously in a region, afford continuous food supply and shelter for the uninterrupted breeding and dispersal of pests. These pests have also alternate hosts in some graminaceous plants on which they either over-winter or continue breeding. The more important pests of paddy are mentioned below.

Paddy stem-borer (*Schoenobius incertulas*, Wlk) known locally as *tana chhedak illi* is reported to inflict a loss from 3 to 95 per cent of the crop. The pest is prevalent all the year round and is particularly active in areas under double-cropping. This is a dangerous pest. The attack starts usually in the late planted monsoon crop, which gets so seriously affected that cultivators are often reluctant to grow a summer crop.

When they bore into the stem, the central shoot withers, producing dead hearts. The pest is most active during September and October in flowering stage.

Rice grasshopper (*Hieroglyphus banian*, F.) or *phapha* is a major pest and causes on an average 20 per cent loss. Both nymphs and adults feed on leaves, which appear partly eaten. In cases of severe infestation, plants may entirely be eaten up or reduced to mere mid-ribs and stalks. The adults are sturdy fliers. The active period of this pest lasts from August to December.

Rice gundhy bugs (*Leptocoris acuta*, Thun; *L. varicornis*, Fabr.) cause 10 to 40 per cent loss to the crop. Both nymphs and adults suck the juice from developing grains by means of their proboscis. Grains are attacked at the milk while mature grains are immune. Infestation by bugs is characterised by the presence of some empty or ill-formed grains in a panicle. Bugs are also known to suck the sap from the branches and rachii of ear and cause completely chaffy grain on some rachii. A hole is left on the grain where the bug punctures it, around which a brownish spot develops. The bugs are phototropic. Nymphs on hatching suck the developing grains and fall into the water when disturbed. Large swarms of bugs fly from one field to another usually at night. They emit a nauseous odour indicating the presence of the pest in a field even from a distance. The pest remains most active from second week of August to second week of November.

Rice case worm (*Nymphula depunetalis*, Gn.) or *banki* in local parlance is common in low-lying paddy fields where water remains stagnant. The nursery leaves are eaten up by the larvae. Severe infestation in the field crop presents a frayed appearance. The larvae feed on the epidermis of leaves and lead a semi-aquatic life. They cut the leaves and roll to form tubular

cases which are often seen afloat on water or attached to stems at or above the water level. The larvae remain inside the cases and pupate. The moths are phototropic. Considerable damage is caused in cases of severe infestation. The common belief is that *banki* affects poorly manured fields and that it is highly injurious to crops sown by *lehi* methods.

Rice hispa (*Hispa armigera*, Ol.) is a major pest. Grubs are leaf miners and remain within the leaf tissue feeding and creating patches on leaves which ultimately turn white and dry up. Adult is also a leaf-feeder and starts feeding on leaves in characteristic parallel white lines. The infested crop becomes stunted and the leaf tips dry up. There are three to four generations in a year.

Rice gall-fly (*Pachydiplosis oryzae*, W.M. Mani and armyworm or swarming caterpillar (*Spodoptera mauritia*, Boisd.) locally understood as *Batua* or *illi* are sporadic pests. Tillers infested by gall-fly show long, hollow tubular galls called silver shoots resulting in the death of tillers. After hatching the grub enters the stem at the base. As a result of the irritation caused by the feeding grub, the tiller turns into a silver shoot. The entire life-cycle is spent within a single tiller. Depending upon weather conditions the peak of infestation fluctuates between the end of August and the end of November.

The swarming caterpillars nibble at leaves and in the case of severe infestation their entire seed-beds are destroyed, or the crop damaged to such an extent that the field appears as if it has been grazed by cattle. The larvae feed voraciously on the leaves, mainly during nights, and hide in the crevices of the soil during the day. They migrate from one field to another during nights.

The rice crop suffers from a number of plant diseases, such as, the blast, Helminthosporiose, foot-rot, stem-rot, etc. Of these blast is the most widespread and destructive. These diseases are caused by fungi.

In the case of blast (*Piricularia oryzae*, Cav.), spindle-shaped spots with brown margins and grey centres are formed on the leaves. Many spots coalesce causing the drying up of the leaves. The symptoms are apparent in the transplanted crop.

The seeds infected by brown spot or sesame leaf spot (*Helminthosporium oryzae*, van Breda) show dark brown discolouration on the husk. In case the attack occurs in June seedlings die before emergence. Brown rectangular lesions are produced on the leaves of the surviving seedlings. In the subsequent stage leaf spots are produced as in the case of seedlings. Irregular brown spots are also produced on the leaf sheath and on the stem. Dark

brown discolouration is formed on the glumes. Badly affected earheads become chaffy.

In cases of appearance of foot-rot (*Fusarium moniliforme*, Sheld) the diseased seedlings become elongated, turn pale and finally dry up. The affected plants produce aerial roots from the nodes and their leaves dry up one after the other below and finally droop.

When attacked by stem rot (*Sclerotium oryzae*, Catt) the basal portions of the affected plant become soft and rotten causing the plants to collapse and wilt. On many plants small black round bodies (Sclerotia) are noticed. The disease usually occurs in patches.

Some of the diseases of wheat are *sendri*, *roki* and *khairi*. *Sendri* is the most fatal scourge to wheat and the affected plants do not yield any grain. *Roki* is a rust and the affected plants yield shrivelled and stunted seed which is reddish in colour. *Khairi* is said to attach itself to the stem of plants and the affected crop yields shrivelled seed. The test of *khairi* is that the touch of infected plant leaves a yellow stain on fingers. The wheat is sometimes affected by another disease *katua* or the wheat stemborer (*Nongria uniformis*) which eats the young plants. Linseed and gram are attacked by an insect called *bhong* (*Chlorodea obsoleta*) in cloudy weather.

Growing resistant varieties and evolving an economic spray-schedule directly in areas of severe outbreak are the recent and effective answers for controlling the diseases.

The cultivators have no traditional remedies to ward off the damaging effects of pests and diseases. They regard them as a matter of natural occurrence and remain passive witnesses to their withering crops. However, the farmers believe that if heavy showers are received after the appearance of paddy-plant-pests the loss is minimised. In case of worms they put up sticks of *ban tuls* in the fields having water and believe that this acts as a repellent.

Modern plant protection measures have now been started in the District. But it has been observed the cultivator does not avail himself of this facility till the attack is in a fairly advanced stage and then it is often too late. The advantages of prophylactic plant protection measures are realised by very few cultivators, and are often regarded as a dead investment. However, the plant-protection programme is making a headway in the District.

Co-operative Farming

Application of the principle of co-operation in the field by agricultural credit is of some antiquity, but its application to actual farming is of recent

origin. During 1965-66, there were as many as 5 collective farming and 15 joint farming societies in the District. The first collective farming society was registered on the 31st of July 1959 and is located at village Hardibandh in Mungeli Tahsil. Similarly the first joint farming society was registered on the 5th of April 1960 at village Khahmi of the same Tahsil.

Better farming societies are also functioning in the District whose principal business is to advance credit to their members. They also undertake the supply of seeds and fertilizers to their members. There were 9 societies in the District as on the 30th of June 1966.

District Agriculture Office

With a view to bringing about improvement in agricultural practices and thus raise the productivity of agriculture, a District Agricultural Office has been functioning in the District. With the advances in agricultural techniques and science, the scope of the activities of the office has also expanded considerably. The status of the office was upgraded in May 1965 when a Deputy Director of Agriculture was appointed. The office was till then under the charge of a District Agricultural Officer of the rank of Assistant Director of Agriculture.

Agricultural Farms

One agricultural farm was established at Sarkanda (Bilaspur Tahsil) in 1918 on an area of 133 acres. The function of the farm is to conduct research and pass on the promising results to the farmers for adoption. Besides, there are seed multiplication and demonstration farms. As the name denotes, these farms have been established to multiply the nucleus seed of the improved varieties of crops and to maintain the purity of these seeds while under multiplication. These farms are also meant for the purpose of demonstration. They demonstrate the usefulness of improved agricultural techniques and results of successful research carried out at the research stations. These results are in the form of new and improved strains of crops evolved by the Department, better methods of cultivation, manuring, use of superior types of implements, insecticides and fungicides and other improved agricultural practices. Details of the existing seed multiplication and demonstration farms are given below:

Table No. IV-4
Agricultural Farms

No. Location	Tahsil	Year of Estt.	Area (Acres)
1. Khoksa	Janjgir	1959-60	100
2. Lakhanpur	Katghora	1959-60	100
3. Dharampur	Mungeli	1959-60	94
4. Jairamnagar	Bilaspur	1959-60	100
5. Ragja	Shakti	1962-63	100

Animal Husbandry

The agricultural cattle of the District as shown in the returns for 1905-06 amounted to 9,19,314 heads. In 1951 the livestock wealth of the District numbered 16,36,889 heads. In 1956 the total number declined to 15,68,098, due mainly to the decrease in cattle by 2 per cent and in buffaloes by 25 per cent. This loss was made up to some extent by growth in the number of goats to the extent of 34 per cent. At the 1961 Census the livestock stood at 17,96,854, registering an overall increase of 13 per cent over the figure of 1956. Cattle increased by 15 per cent and buffaloes by 19 per cent, while goats came down by 7 per cent.

The most important constituent of the livestock wealth of the District is cattle numbering 12,25,335 in 1961. Buffaloes, though numerically next important category, numbered only 3,40,786. Goats came third with 1,81,170 heads.

The cattle and buffaloes are of non-descript type, their stunted growth and miserable stamina are a by-word throughout the State. Small-sized cattle weigh from 400 to 450 lbs. They have small straight horns. Cows are very poor milkers yielding only half to one lb. of milk.

Bullocks are also of small size and cannot be used for agricultural purposes. Besides, due to predominance of paddy culture, the farm animals have to work in slush for which bullocks are unsuitable. Therefore, large numbers of male-buffaloes are imported in the District for agricultural operations. Buffaloes are brought down annually in large herds by Basdewa drovers from the districts of Sagar, Rewa and Mandla and sold at important cattle markets of the District.

The buffalo is the living tractor of paddy cultivation and costs almost nothing to keep. It is characteristic of this animal that it is slow, ponderous and docile. It is in fact the ideal animal for the patient toil of paddy husbandry. Large hooves, flexible joints and sure, unhurried gait place it far above the cattle for this task. It could be controlled by one light rein and even a child can manage it. The prowess of the buffalo is not restricted to the paddy fields. In simple harness it is used to drag heavy loads on the road. It also threshes paddy with a primitive efficiency moving round in light circles while the farmer pitchforks the sheaves under its feet.

One strong reason of the emaciated condition of the cattle is the woeful absence of grazing lands. The tendency in the diminution of pasturage was

noted even 80 years back, as is clear from the following observation in the Settlement Report of Bilaspur District of 1886-1890.¹

"The reduction in the areas of pasture grounds is the growing evil of the day, and is becoming a matter for serious consideration.... its extent is being gradually diminished by the action of the plough. A portion of the land is also specially reserved by proprietors for production of thatching grass which pays them well, so that the room now available for pasturage is smaller"

The cultivator takes pride in having a large herd of cattle, for their maintenance costs little. The cattle is prized not as a giver of milk but as a provider of dung which is used as fuel. The bulk of the open portion of the District is so denuded of jungle and is so far from the forests of the Government reserves that the people are unable to send away their cattle to healthier surroundings and adequate pasturage. Such cattle going to the reserves from any distance are generally the property of well-to-do village proprietors or of professional herdsmen who remain in the forests for most of the year. For the greater part of the open season they are turned out daily to graze in the charge of the village herdsman or *bardiha*. In the open parts of the District they pick up what sustenance they can from the stunted grass which grows on the village waste and the embankments of the paddy fields and from the stubble which has been left in the fields after the crops have been reaped. In the hot weather, when there is practically no natural pasture to be had, they are given at night time a quantity of paddy straw just sufficient to support life upon. In the rains the area available for grazing is restricted to the village waste, and although the latter gives a better yield of grass (unless the going and coming of the cattle tread it up to a slimy morass in which grass cannot grow) the heavy labour demanded from them at a time when their vitality has been sapped by the starvation which they have undergone in the hot weather, results in very great mortality apart from the ravages of the various forms of diseases described in a separate section.²

Nutritious and adequate feeding is the citadel of health and power. In Chhattisgarh the base of this citadel is shaky due to the paddy-straw, mainstay of cattle feed; just as rice is nutritionally poor as a human food so is paddy straw poor as a cattle feed. It has been shown to contain oxalates which are harmful and they can be removed only by steeping the straw in water of dilute solution of caustic soda. The grasses that grow in the District are not of much value as nutritious and succulent fodder due to their early maturity and the *bhata* on which they grow. The resistance and apathy of the cultivators to grow fodder crops which was in evidence seventy years ago persists even to day. The cultivator does not include the fodder item in his *kharif* programme because of short span of rains and insufficiency of irrigation. However, wherever irrigation

1. p. 16.

2. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 144-145.

water is available cultivation of fodder is encouraged through the Block and Departmental agencies. The grasses popularised are Berseem, Para, Napier, Lucerne and G-73. Fodder Development Programme includes other measures also, namely, supply of improved seed through Departmental and Block agencies on 50 per cent subsidy basis, supply of chaff-cutters on 50 per cent subsidy basis for avoiding wastage of fodder, popularisation of alkaline treatment to paddy-straw before feeding it to animals, and grant of Rs. 100 per acre for fencing the pasture as a measure to encourage pasture development. During the summer not a blade of grass grows on the thirsty and parched *bhata* land of the District and the only available cattle feed is the paddy straw. Silage-making, by which surplus grasses of the flush season are preserved for the dry days, is the only answer. Construction of silo-pits is assisted and encouraged by granting subsidy upto 50 per cent of the cost with a maximum of Rs. 200.

What the cattle eat in general has already been discussed. However, while they are in milk or are working on the fields they get some preferential treatment; they get some helpings of *chuni*, rice bran and linseed oilcake.

Stall feeding is still negligible in the District. It has, however, made some headway in urban and industrial areas where due to the emergence of dairy industry and difficulty of pasturage stall-feeding is resorted to.

Dairy Farming

The first organised attempt made in the District for the supply of clean and wholesome milk was the establishment of a Government Dairy Farm at Bilaspur in 1948-49. Starting with 6 milch animals consisting of Haryana cows and Berari she-buffaloes and a supply of 62,275 lbs. of milk in 1948-49, the Dairy Farm has steadily grown in dimensions, the milk supply aggregating to 2,19,399 lbs. in 1961-62. Milk production amounted to 48,709 litres in 1964-65. The breeds of cattle now maintained at the Farm consist of Haryana cattle and Murrah and Nagpuri she-buffaloes. The supply of breeding bulls to farmers has been a subsidiary aim of the Farm from the beginning.

The Farm is situated 10 miles from Bilaspur on Ratanpur road. The total area of the Farm is 766 acres. Initially it was only 150 acres. The soil of the Farm varies from sandy loam to heavy *kanhar*. Irrigation is secured from the Ratanpur tank which benefits about 60 acres of land. Irrigation is proposed to be developed by the boring of tubewells. Out of the total Farm area, 160 acres are under cultivation. The Farm has extensive grazing lands covering 259 acres. Grass lands comprise 265 acres and are used for hay and silage making. The Farm raises fodder crops for its full requirements. At the end of the year 1966 the Farm had 258 animals out of which 108 were milch animals. About 225 litres of milk was being produced per day.

However, since the 1st of December 1964 the Farm has been named as Cattle Breeding Farm.

Poultry Farming

The total poultry of the District in 1956 was 1,93,305. It increased to 2,45,809 in 1961, i.e., by 27 per cent. Fowls account for the bulk of poultry, being 94 per cent in 1961. With the bare exception of two per cent, the fowls were *desi* or indigenous.

Poultry keeping industry is marked by primitive, wasteful and inefficient methods. However, of late demand for eggs is steadily rising. Inhibitions against the use of eggs are fast disappearing. Urbanisation and industrialisation are giving added impetus to this industry. It was, therefore, but proper that steps were initiated by the Government for the sound development of poultry farming. This has made it possible not only for the enterprising private poultry keepers to earn a decent income but also for the agriculturists to supplement their profits from farming.

White Leghorn and Rhode Island Red are the two improved breeds of fowls which have been found to thrive in the District, the former is usually found in rural areas and the latter in urban areas. How the change over to these birds makes the poultry keeping a lucrative business will be apparent from the fact that whereas a *desi* bird lays only 65 eggs per year, a R.I.R. bird lays 150 eggs and a W.L.H. bird 175 eggs per year. That is why Government Poultry Farm exchanges the improved ones for *desi* fowls.

One poultry farm was established at Bilaspur in 1956 with an initial stock of 100 birds. R.I.R. birds have been maintained since its inception. During the Second Plan period, the strength of the birds was raised to 500 and it was converted into a Poultry Extension Centre. Since the Centre is categorised as a "productive scheme", good results are insisted upon. Its activities include distribution of R.I.R. birds at concessional rates, exchange of improved cocks with *desi* birds, sale of day-old chicks at nominal prices, etc. These measures are intended to hasten the upgrading programme.

Two District Poultry Units were established through the Block funds to meet the demand for birds, eggs and cockrels emanating from Development Blocks of the District. These Units were subsequently merged with the Poultry Extension Centre, Bilaspur.

With a view to promoting the industry in the private sector, individual poultry farmers are assisted both financially and technically. They are granted loans for the subsidised purchase of birds, day-old chicks, breeding equipment, balanced feed and medicine and construction of poultry house, subject to a

maximum of Rs. 6,000. Poultry breeders are also given training in the management of poultry. Besides, subsidy is granted for the repair and renovation of old poultry houses. During the Third Plan period, loans amounting to Rs. 10,500 were granted to 38 private poultry breeders. Balanced feed worth Rs. 18,200 was sold and 181 breeding equipments were supplied. Moreover, 54 poultry keepers were trained for maintaining feeding and management.

The demand for poultry is quite sufficient to absorb the supplies available in the District. Korba is the biggest consuming centre. During peak laying seasons, the surplus supplies of eggs are diverted to Raipur. Ranikhet and fowlpox are the two most deadly diseases of poultry. Every year prophylactic vaccinations are arranged against them in all the Key Village Centres.

Fisheries

The fish fauna of the District consists of a variety of fish. However, only *Catla catla*, *rohu* and *mrigal* are of commercial importance. They were introduced by the Fisheries Department in 1946.

The profession of fish catching is age-old with the Dheemars, Kewals and Kahars inhabiting the District. They have been plying their trade with their traditional equipment. The drag-net (locally known as *dholni* or *mahajal* or *kathijal*) is an indigenous net of various meshes having pulling ropes. It is operated manually by a large unit of fishermen. It is mostly made of cotton twine, hence is of short durability. It is useful for operation in small and controlled waters. Cast-net or *sokhi* is operated by a single fisherman. It is made from cotton thread, has conical shape and small meshes and its life is short. It can efficiently net a catch of local varieties of minnows in shallow waters. It cannot be gainfully employed for commercial operations. Other types of nets, namely, trap net (*kuriyal*) cage trap (*sidga* or *bendeva*) and dip nets (*halukar* and *pelna*) are local devices operated by a single man or even in groups and are used to obtain limited catches in rivulets and nullahs. A small boat (*donga*) used by them is made of wood and can carry five to eight persons. It is manually driven with wooden oars. When one or two persons go out on fishing a dug-out canoe (*dinghi*) is employed. It is a local craft made by digging a sitting space into a log or a tree stem. It is very unbalanced and is usable only in slow currents or stagnant waters. It is driven with wooden oars.

Bilaspur District has extensive sheets of water for fishing, i.e., a large number of seasonal and perennial tanks. There are 2,876 village ponds with an area of 9,939 acres. The District possesses a wet *bundh* that goes by the name Karra which is an important producer of major carps. Besides, three big rivers, the Mahanadi, the Seonath and the Hasdeo flanked by their tributaries and carrying large volume of water, drain the District. They provide fish stock to rural fishermen and also serve as breeding grounds of labile species of fishes.

Efforts are continuously being made to popularise improved fishing equipment so that efficiency of the fishing industry may increase. Quick-growing fish varieties are being spread. Technical guidance and monetary assistance is being extended to the fisherfolk so as to better their lot.

Since the year 1946, carp-culture has been introduced. Three varieties of major carps, namely, *catla* (*bhaksi*), *rohu* (*roha* or *rohu*) and *mrigal*, which are fastest and maximum growing fishes of commercial value and are inhabitants of Indian waters, have been introduced by the Fisheries Department in the private and public waters of the District. In 1964-65, common carp (*lal machhali* or *carp machhali*) was introduced. It is almost as good as the major carp as regards growth with the additional quality that unlike major carp it breeds in confined waters on establishment. It is getting popular.

The fish catches are available all the year round. But the Fisheries Department advises conservation during the monsoons to permit breeding of the carps. During the first three rains, the riverine fishes ascend for breeding.

In 1960-61 the Department introduced the gill nets (*fasla* or *jaria*). They are suitable for controlled size fishing and can be used both in flowing and stagnant waters. Their operation is easy as they can be held even by a unit of two persons. They are made from nylon twine or some other synthetic fibre. Nets are of varying meshes and are durable. Stationary tackle is used to catch fish from different depths by controlling with floats and sinkers. In 1964-65 the Department put up a boat with mechanised board and an outboard engine. This boat can ply, however, only in deep sheets of water. These fishing equipments are designed to ensure maximum desirable catches.

The Department is encouraging the local fishermen to form themselves into groups and Co-operative Societies. The Department extends to them facilities of loan to purchase implements, nets, boats, etc., and fish seed. Suitable provision for subsidy also exists. At the same time, the Department controls some big tanks and reservoirs which serve as demonstration centres. They are also leased out to groups and Co-operative Societies of fishermen. As a further step to place this industry on sound footing the Department is establishing an ice plant-cum-cold storage at Bilaspur. The building is almost complete. Private sector of this industry will then be in a position to store its catches in the storage at nominal charges. Since fish is a perishable commodity this measure is bound to give incentives to the people to have large catches by eliminating losses.

The Survey Unit attached to the District Fisheries office has been able to localise a major carp breeding centre at Karra Bandhwa tank in Ratanpur area. This will partially meet the requirements of fish seed. With a view to augmenting fish seed resources steps have been taken for the induced breeding of

major carps through pituitary hormone administration. A major carp induced breeding centre has been established at Khutaghat in the District. A pilot project for the intensive Department of inland fisheries has been started at Takhatpur from 6th July, 1960. Its coverage is 181 villages or 1,81,100 acres inhabited by 91,000 people. A separate river survey unit has been established in the District to find out and localise the fish seed collection centres to enable the collection of the carp seed from natural riverine resources. The unit will also assess the fish potential and draw out a scheme for Departmental working.

With the reclamation, renovation and desilting of the existing derelict tanks and completion of irrigation schemes, this industry look forward with buoyancy. A public sector 100 acre fish farm proposed to be set up at Bharari village will further add to the potential of the District.

A number of areas on the rivers are proposed to be declared as sanctuaries for preserving spawn and breeders. They are listed below:—

Table No. IV-5

Development of Pisciculture

S. No.	Rivers, Streams & Nullah	Area of the Sanctuaries	Restricted Period
1.	Sheorinarayan	Singkul Dahara 5 miles area in length-nearby Singhual village.	Throughout the year
2.	Jonk river	Sheorinarayan to Kharidihi village 5 miles (approx) area of Mahanadi & Jonk river.	—do—
3.	Kanjinala	2 miles from Mahanadi river towards upstream and downstream of the nalla.	From July to December.
4.	Chharanala	—do—	—do—
5.	Maniyari river	5 miles from waste-weir of Maniari reservoir towards downstream	Throughout the year
6.	Kharung river	5 miles from Kharung waste weir towards downstream	—do—

Measures to Improve Quality of Cattle Breed

As has already been stated, the cattle and buffaloes of the District are of non-descript type, i.e., they do not conform to any specific breed of livestock. So it was necessary to fix a breeding policy for the District, so that after fixing the breeds suitable for propagation in the District efforts could be made to develop them. Requirements of urban and rural areas differ. In urban areas the primary consideration is milk, while in rural areas dual purpose animals

suitable both for the pail and the plough are preferred. In view of this the local stock is being upgraded through Hariana breed in urban areas and Malvi and Thari in rural areas.

After deciding the breed it is necessary to disseminate improved germ-plasm for achieving this end. However, it may be noted that a comprehensive and concerted approach to the problem of raising the efficiency of the livestock is a post-Independence phenomenon. The first attempt to upgrade the local stock dates back to an event 40 years ago when a Cattle Breeding Farm was established at Pakaria in 1928 with the avowed object of upgrading the local cows with Malvi breed to meet the requirements of Chhattisgarh area. In 1961-62 it was decided to introduce Thari breed and accordingly two Thari bulls were purchased from the National Dairy Research Institute, Karnal, for upgrading the Farm herd. This is likely to bring about progressive increase in the milk performance of cows.

The Farm is situated seven miles away from the Railway Station, Pendra Road, just by the side of the kachha Pendra-Amkantak road. The western boundary of the Farm is surrounded by the dense forest of Amkantak hill having deep and steep slopes and the eastern side is flat with alluvial soil. The big nullahs and the river Malinia flowing from the area have caused heavy erosion to the fields.

The Farm has an area of 2,207 acres comprising 800 acres of grazing area, 1,137 acres of grass land for hay and silage making, and 76 acres of cultivated land. The rest was claimed by buildings and roads. Grasses found in the area are usually of coarse varieties and such grasses were found to have an adverse effect on the growth and performance of cattle. A pasture improvement programme for 300 acres of land was drawn up in 1961-62. The strength of livestock on the 31st of March 1965 was 235, out of which 61 were cows and 7 cow-buffaloes. Four cow-bulls were sold for breeding purposes during 1961-62.

Cattle Breeding Farm, Bilaspur, has already been mentioned.

Besides, there are 12 Cattle Breeding Units in the District. A Bull Depot was set up at Bilaspur during 1957-58 as a Second Five Year Plan scheme. The object of the Depot was to rear up the bull-calves till they were fit to be distributed for breeding. Every care is taken in maintaining the bull-calves so that they are developed fully and attained maturity early. Arrangements also exist for the cultivation of fodder grasses for the animals. The Depot was renamed as Bull Rearing Farm and was transferred to Jogipura during 1964. Hariana, Malvi, Thari, and Sahiwal breeds of cow-bulls and Murrah breed of buffalo-bulls are maintained. During 1964-65, cow-bulls

numbering 36 and buffalo-bulls totalling 7 were distributed for breeding purposes. A sum of Rs. 1,83,720 had been spent during the Third Plan period and bulls were sold for breeding purpose.

Key Village Scheme was initiated so that cattle development work could be taken up in suitable pockets through the establishment of key villages instead of being spread in isolated villages. Accordingly, an all round programme for cattle development in a group of villages in selected pockets was taken up under a State scheme christened as 'Key Village Scheme'. The Key Village Centres of the District are located at Mungeli, Marwahi, Masturi, Lormi and Janjgir.

A Key Village on the Government of India pattern was started at Bilaspur in 1956. It consists of one Artificial Insemination Centre and eight Key Village Blocks. Artificial Insemination Units numbering 14 have also been functioning in the District. These are located in rural areas. The breeding programme is being intensified through the extension of artificial insemination facilities.

One Quarantine Station at Dharmohli and three Check Stations at Ramanujganj, Belgahna and Lormi have been working along important cattle movement routes for the prevention of ingress of infection through diseased cattle. Animals passing through these stations are protected with G.T.V. rinderpest vaccine and are branded. Animals in the neighbourhood of station and in villages along the routes are also protected so as to create immune belts. A nominal vaccination fee is realised from the owners of cattle.

The *goshala* is an old charitable institution in India, and is associated with the religious sentiment of the people where aged, infirm, useless, and out-of-milk cows are maintained to meet their natural death. These *goshalas* are also being utilized for upgrading the cattle. The *goshala* managements are persuaded to remove the useless and uneconomical animals to the *gosadan* and efforts are made to convert the *goshalas* into small breeding-cum-dairy units. For this purpose the selected *goshala* is supplied with pure breed cows and a bull for breeding and is paid maintenance grant and *ad hoc* grants for repair, addition or alteration of its buildings. The three *goshalas* of the District covered under the Goshala Development Programme are Shri Krishna Goshala, Naila; Shri Goshala, Kota and Shri Krishna Goshala, Bilaspur.

There is no *gosadan* or cattle-home for the removal and segregation of old, infirm and unproductive cattle in the District itself. However, such cattle are sent by truck free of cost to the *gosadan* at Sarora in Raipur district.

Further measures, in the shape of Milk-yield competitions during Gosamvardhan Week, cattle shows and calf rallies at the Artificial Insemination Centre,

are taken for cattle development. Prizes are awarded according to fixed categories. These are calculated to instil a sense of pride in possessing highly-bred, well-fed and healthy animals amongst their owners.

For further promoting cattle development work a Cattle Breeding Association has been formed in the District with headquarters at Bilaspur. Financial assistance in the form of loans, grants and subsidies is made available to interested member-cultivators for the purchase of bulls, calves, and chaff-cutters, preparation of silo-pits, improvement of pasture and cultivation of fodder.

Animal Diseases

The common livestock diseases are rinderpest (*mata*), haemorrhagic septicaemia, gloss anthrax (*Chhai* or *chitbhoj*), anthrax (*ghatsarp* or *lohadia*), foot and mouth (*chapka sarsa* and *khuri*), blackquarter (*ektangia*) and *sonahi*. Out of these rinderpest, haemorrhagic septicaemia and anthrax are the major contagious cattle diseases. At one time they swept off thousands of cattle annually. The infected animals were never segregated and consequently when an epidemic got a footing in a village it ran through the whole herd.

Looking to their dreadful nature and heavy losses inflicted by them on the poor peasantry, besides actual treatment, preventive vaccinations are carried out by the Veterinary Department well in advance every year. Vaccine and sera required for vaccination purposes are supplied by the vaccine and sera production centres of Mhow and Jabalpur. They are stored at Bilaspur in deep freeze and supplied to various veterinary institutions.

Rinderpest is the most notorious livestock disease, Bilaspur being one of those districts of the State which suffer most on account of this epizootic. It is responsible for causing bulk of the mortality in cattle and buffaloes. Quarantine and check stations were started for preventing the import of this disease in the District. In 1962-63 the Rinderpest Eradication Programme of the State was extended to this District. In the same year 5,50,609 vaccinations were given. During the five year period 1962-63 to 1966-67 as many as 20,21,417 vaccinations were carried out.

Protozoan and other parasitic infections, e.g., trypanosomiasis, piroplasmoses and liver fluke, and chronic contagious diseases like brucellosis, etc., are responsible for causing heavy economic losses due to mortality and impairment of capacity of livestock for work and diminished milk production and sterility. Organised action for controlling these diseases was taken up during the last two years of the Third Plan. Though vital problems are not posed by these diseases, yet it is necessary to take precautionary measures since they cause considerable emaciation among the cattle.

The history of the establishment of veterinary institutions in the District goes back to the year 1898, when a veterinary dispensary was opened at Bilaspur. In 1903 a separate touring Veterinary Assistant Surgeon was appointed at this dispensary. Later two more dispensaries were added, one at Mungeli in 1908 and the other at Janjgir.

However, the problem of providing treatment to the ailing cattle was tackled in a big way only in the post-Independence era, when full-fledged veterinary hospitals in important centres and dispensaries in remote areas were set up in quick succession. The hospitals numbered 21 and the dispensaries 49 at the end of the Third Plan in comparison to seven and four, respectively, in the beginning of the Plan period.

For rushing veterinary assistance to the door steps of the needy or to areas in urgent need of such aid, a mobile unit was also established with headquarters at Bilaspur.

Forestry

Forests comprise an area of 19,85,685 acres¹ which is equivalent to 41 per cent of the total area of the District. The forest area consists of 3,53,799 acres of Reserved forests, 7,55,978 acres of Protected forests and 8,76,315 acres of Revenue Department forests.

Forests play a very important role in the economy of the District. Forests support thousands of people who derive their livelihood from activities related directly or indirectly to forestry. The tribal people depend largely on forests for their day to day needs and even for their food for three to four months during the lean periods of the year.

Extraction of timber, fuel wood, bamboos and other forest produce and their cartage give employment to a significant segment of the rural population. *Tendu* leaves provide the basic material for the manufacture of *bidis*. Tribals and Basors use bamboos, barks and leaves in making baskets, *chatais*, ropes and various kinds of brooms for meeting the requirements of the District. Local distilleries procure their requirements of *mahua* from the forest. Collection of *mahul* leaves, honey, *harra*, *behera*, *aonla*, lac, gum and other minor forest produce engage the local people for earning their livelihood. Cocoons which supply the chief ingredient of the flourishing *kosa* industry of the District are obtained from forests. Villagers derive their *nistar* in the form of grazing, fuel, bamboos and constructional timber from the forests.

The most valuable forest tracts of the District are represented by Lamni Range, Lormi Range and Kota Range of the Bilaspur Forest Division. Other rich tracts are found in Katghora and Bilaspur tahsils.

The main timber species is *sal*. *Sal* and *saj* timber is well known for construction purposes. *Bija* and *khamar* are used for furniture making. *Saj* yields good straight poles for roofing.

Karra when growing straight yields poles much valued locally as it can resist insect attacks. *Dhaura* makes strong cart axles and *tendu* and *tinsa* make the best cart shafts, while *senha* is the most useful of all woods to the agriculturist. Nearly all trees in the forests yield good fuel except *galgal*, *salai*, *semar*, *gunja* and other soft wooded species. Fuel wood in large quantities is exported to Uttar Pradesh and other northern States. The chief bamboo is *Dendrocalamus strictus*. Major part of the bamboo supplies finds local market. A part of the supplies goes to the Amlai Paper Mills. Timber in large quantities is exported to Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Delhi, and Bengal from Kargi Road, Pendra Road, Belghana, etc., in the round as well as sawn form. Similarly, railway sleepers are manufactured at the above rail heads for despatch to the South Eastern Railways. *Tendu* leaves from the District command a wide market outside Madhya Pradesh. Approximately 400 wagon loads of *mahul* leaves are annually exported to Madras.

The *chir* and *birain* grasses make good brooms. The *bagai* grass is twisted into thin cordage used for weaving cots. *Sukla* grass yields the best thatching grass. *Mucheli* grass is used as fodder. Honey, wax, myrobalams, *chironji*, catechu, gums, hides, horns, lac, *tikhur*, etc., are other minor products. *Musli kand*, white *musli* and black *musli* are much prized for their medicinal properties.

The principal markets for forest produce in the District are at Kargi Road, Pendra Road, Belghana, Bilaspur, Lormi, Korba, Champa, Sakti, Khongsara and Khodri. Korba is coming up as an important consuming centre due to conglomeration of industries there.

It may not be out of place to mention that most of the forest produce goes out of the District. Only teak has to be brought from outside in limited quantity from Raipur and Durg districts for furniture making and building works.

Nistar

For meeting the requirements of *nistar*, additional *ad hoc* coupes are opened yearly from where timber and fuel are obtained. As regards the supply of bamboos, *nistar* felling series are formed. In addition, during the Second Five Year Plan, additional *ad hoc* camps were charged with the work of *nistar* supply from the camps at half the market rates. During the Third Five Year Plan also

additional *ad hoc* coupes were marked by the Forest Department on improved system and were handed over to the Panchayats for *nistar*.

The *nistar* depots opened during First Plan supplied timber (including poles) and bamboos. During Second Plan period the number of *nistar* depots was increased and commercial depots were also opened. During the Third Plan the same privileges were enjoyed by the villagers. Thus, the benefits of *nistar* have been gradually expanded during the consecutive Plan periods though it has meant mounting loss of revenue to the State Exchequer.

Every year in the month of November *nistar patrak* is prepared in which the volume of *nistar* and the area proposed for *nistar* supply are indicated. The quantity likely to be made available from 1st January to 30th June each year is communicated to the Collector and concerned Gram Panchayats and Tahsildars.

In January each year additional *ad hoc* coupes are thrown open for free removal of *nistar* for which the Tahsildar through Gram Panchayat issues free *nistar* passes. In addition, departmentally marked areas, e.g., survey line material are also opened for sale on concessional rates. Large sized logs, poles, and bamboos are cut departmentally, carted and kept at commercial depots and sold at concessional rates on the production of a certificate from Gram Panchayat or Gram Sabha.

It could be possible to meet the legitimate demands of the local people, but when the demands are inflated and are unreasonable they tell upon adversely on the forests. In the name of *nistar* people living in the vicinity of forests exploit the forest indiscriminately and ruthlessly. People do not restrict their demands to the areas prescribed for *nistar* supply but encroach upon adjoining areas as well. Any preventive or punitive action on the part of Forest staff taken in the larger interest of protection of forest wealth is not taken kindly by the villagers and more often than not interpreted differently. It is very necessary that the people should become forest-conscious so that they draw upon the annual forest growth only like the annual interest accruing from the bank account and the forests are protected for the benefit of posterity.

Plantations

Raising of plantations is one of the most important items of scientific working of forests undertaken with a view to rehabilitating the degraded forest areas. Plantation felling series have been formed for raising plantations of economic species. The Plantation Division created during the Third Plan is engaged in raising plantations of eucalyptus hybrid. The regular cashew and eucalyptus hybrid were also included in this programme.

The cultivation of tasar silk cocoons is concentrated in Champa area. A royalty of two rupees per house is charged for permitting this cultivation. *Saj* tree acts as the host.

Lac cultivation which was a flourishing industry in the past has almost died out. Whatever brood lac or stick lac is exploited is from natural multiplication of the lac insect. Men do not lend out their helping hand for the growth of this industry. *Palas* and *kusum* trees are the hosts for the activity of lac insect, but it is only the *palas* that is commonly met with, *kusum* being sparsely distributed.

The closed lac factories standing in all tahsil places or big villages are eloquent testimony to the once prosperous and lucrative lac industry which also brought invaluable foreign exchange.

Regional Research Centre, Bilaspur

The Regional Research Centre at Bilaspur was established in 1965 as an Eastern wing of the State Forest Research Institute, Jabalpur, mainly with a view to tackling the afforestation problems of *bhata* lands of Chhattisgarh. Since no compact site was available round about Bilaspur for locating the Centre, it is now scattered over four sites, covering a total area of 210.67 acres of land. However, it is intended to acquire additional land for conducting trials with poplars and Australian eucalyptus.

The Centre, created in the Eastern Sal Zone of the State, besides conducting research on the problems of *sal* forests, also conducts experiments for determining the most suitable exotic and indigenous species which may thrive in the climatic and soil conditions of the region. The Centre possesses a research nursery.

Various statistically designed experiments with eucalyptus, poplars and other indigenous species are in progress. Preliminary indications point out to the feasibility of growing eucalyptus-hybrid under the afforestation programme of the *bhata* plains of Chhattisgarh.

The Centre is under the charge of a Forest Ranger who is assisted by a Deputy Ranger and two Forest Guards.

State Assistance to Agriculture

Assistance extended by Government to the agricultural community is in the form of *taccavi*. It is a system of rural financing under which Government advances loans at a fair rate of interest to owners or occupiers of arable land for various agricultural purposes, namely, purchase of seeds, fertilizers, bullocks,

improvement of land, etc. Provision for advancing *taccavi* exists under two Acts known as Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

Loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act are intended primarily to relieve distress or to assist the poorer cultivators in financing their agricultural operations. In times of stress the object of granting these loans is to give cultivators such help as is essential to keep their cultivation going.

Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act are intended to encourage the improvement of agricultural land and need not in principle be restricted either to the poorer cultivators or to the time of distress. The main consideration in advancing such loans is the increased productivity or permanent improvement of the agricultural land.

The Table below shows loans granted from State funds (ordinary *taccavi*) under the two relevant enactments.

Table No. IV-6

Distribution of Taccavi

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act	(In Rupees)
		Land Improvement Loans Act
1950-51	77,732	—
1951-52	59,885	—
1952-53	95,490	39,775
1953-54	1,31,500	1,46,990
1954-55	4,34,210	1,51,250
1955-56	3,32,208	1,67,535
1956-57	2,77,385	92,050
1957-58	1,23,190	89,720
1958-59	2,22,862	1,42,149
1959-60	1,62,030	1,34,695
1960-61	—	—
1961-62	59,570	—
1962-63	—	—
1963-64	—	—
1964-65	—	—
1965-66	1,545	—
1966-67	2,95,430	—

Source:—Collector, Bilaspur.

The occurrence of the Bengal Famine in 1944 underlined the imperative need for increasing food production. The Grow More Food Campaign was intensified, the aim of the campaign being the extension of cultivation of food crops to the utmost and increase in production to the maximum. The measures advocated for stepping up agricultural production were promoted by the grant of *taccavi* and/or subsidies on favourable terms.

Taccavi distributed under Grow More Food Scheme is shown in the following Table.

Table No. IV-7

Distribution of G.M.F. *Taccavi*

(In Rupees)

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act	Land Improvement Loans Act
1960-61	3,07,194	Nil
1961-62	2,37,348	Nil
1962-73	1,25,834	Nil
1963-64	2,06,733	23,924
1964-65	1,80,467	1,56,427
1965-66	3,66,914	2,78,624

Evidently, *taccavi* advances (GMF) have been larger under Agriculturists' Loans Act. The purposes for which these loans were sought were for purchase of seed, manure, green manure seed and plant protection equipment and horticulture development. Land Improvement loans were for contour-bunding and purchase of bullocks and implements.

The passing of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, which established direct relationship between the tiller of the soil and Government after removing the intermediaries and the sustained efforts to bring down agricultural indebtedness have tended to make private capital shy and compelled Government to extend financial assistance to the agriculturists in larger measure. Though the steep rise in prices of agricultural produce has decreased the normal credit requirements of the cultivators, yet the strong desire on their part to achieve higher levels of agricultural production through the application of agricultural inputs has created the opposite effects. Steady increase in *taccavi* advances in recent years is the natural consequence.

Figures of *taccavi* loans distributed in the District by the Co-operative Central Bank are shown in the Table below.

Table No. IV-8

Distribution of *Taccavi*—Co-operative Central Bank

(In Rupees)

S. No.	Name of Scheme	Amount Distributed		
		1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
1.	Sinking of wells and repairs to old wells	3,13,404	2,20,500	20,29,804
2.	Installation of oil engine pumps	17,118	12,650	4,700
3.	—Do— electric pumps	1,500	—	2,480
4.	—Do— rahats	1,250	—	1,000
5.	Field bunding	8,555	17,400	25,710
6.	Agriculturists' Loans Act	1,78,422	2,35,000	53,030
7.	Land Improvement Loans Act	2,20,000	2,05,000	27,000
8.	Planning & Development	2,30,160	1,67,009	—
9.	Subsidiary	7,200	2,940	—
10.	Seeds	2,33,604	18,516	1,03,376
11.	Fertilizers	1,93,638	99,551	8,57,281

Source:—Bilaspur Co-operative Central Bank, Ltd., Bilaspur.

Famines

No regular reports of famine exist prior to 1868-69; but it is known that in 1828, a failure of both *kharif* and *rabi* crops occurred. The price of wheat and gram rose to 12 seers per rupee against a normal rate of that period of anything between 120 and 400 seers. Such a difference in prices must have necessarily produced severe distress. In 1833-34 owing to the distress in the north of the Province grain was exported from Chhattisgarh by Government agency and in the following year 1834-35 the paddy crop partially failed in Chhattisgarh itself. In spite of the prohibition of export, prices rose to 24 seers to the rupee or more and thousands of people were reported to have perished.

In 1845 the paddy crop failed for want of rain and prices rose to an unprecedented extent, rice being sold at 10 seers and wheat at 7 seers to the rupee.

Acute distress ensued. In 1856 again a scarcity was caused by high prices arising from the export of grain to the north of the Province.

In 1868-69 the rain failed in August and only a few showers were received at the end of September and nothing in October. Except in the black-soil tracts of Mungeli where half a crop was obtained, the outturn of rice was only nominal. On the good black soil of Mungeli the spring crops were fair, but elsewhere they yielded poorly, only slight showers being received in the cold weather. Considerable distress ensued and the bulk of the relief was afforded by village proprietors who undertook the construction or repair of tanks in 97 villages, affording employment to some 6,000 persons. Government opened three or four road-works on which 3,500 persons were employed, but the total expenditure was only Rs. 18,000. Poor-houses were established at a number of centres, supported partly by private subscriptions and partly by a Government grant.

A severe epidemic of cholera broke out in the hot weather, and it was reported that 618 deaths had been caused by starvation.

In 1877-78 the monsoon was abundant, but long breaks alternated with heavy falls of rain, and it ceased early in September. The paddy crop was short in the Mungeli Tahsil, and the *rabi* crops were injured by rust and caterpillars owing to cloudy and rainy weather in the winter months.

In 1886-87 the rainfall was short in August and September and the paddy crop was destroyed on high-lying fields and over a great deal of the yellow soil or *matasi* area. Good showers were received at the end of October and in November, and the *rabi* crop on black soils did fairly well. Some distress ensued, but was met by small road-works while many *malguzars* undertook the construction or repair of tanks or field embankments. In the following year, 1887-88, another long break in September and October did some injury to the paddy crop. Again in 1888-89 the monsoon failed at the beginning of September and very little rain was received during most of that month and October. In most of the high-lying tracts the paddy quite withered and was left to be grazed off by cattle. The *rabi* crops also suffered from lack of rain and were poor. Work was provided by the construction of the railway from Bilaspur to Katni and on some roads.

In 1894 heavy and prolonged rain during the last three months of the year did much injury to all the standing crops and damaged the rice harvest on the threshing floors. Wheat was partly and linseed almost entirely destroyed by rust, Mungeli Tahsil suffering most in this year. In the following year 1895-96, the monsoon failed abruptly at the beginning of the year, and with the exception of slight showers drought prevailed for the rest of the year. The rice harvest was less than half the average, and less than 50 per cent of the spring crop area could be sown. Bilaspur District fared worse than Raipur owing to its having

already had a bad year in 1894-95 and during 1896 severe distress, deepening into famine, prevailed over a large area. Owing to the changes of Deputy Commissioners and want of experience in famine work of the District officers the extent of the distress was unfortunately not fully realised. Some private works were undertaken by village proprietors and on Courts of Wards estates, but much larger measures were really required. The average price of rice was 12½ seers a rupee as against 16½ seers in the previous year. The death-rate rose to 47 per mille from 26 in 1895.

Bilaspur was thus ill-prepared to meet the even worse season which was now in store for it. The monsoon of 1896 gave heavy rain up till the end of August, but again failed abruptly in the beginning of September. For most of that month and October no rain was received. The cultivators had everywhere cut the embankments of their fields to prevent the paddy from being swamped, and under the influence of the hot sun and dry west winds during these months the paddy crop rapidly withered, while the ground became too dry for the *rabi* crop to be sown. The outturn of paddy was only 30 per cent, of an average harvest, and the area sown with cold weather crops was a little more than a quarter of that ordinarily placed under them. This was more unfortunate as good rain was received in November and January, and the small acreage sown gave an excellent outturn. Of the tahsils Mungeli was the most affected and Janjgir (or as it was then called, Sheorinarayan), the least. Certain areas in the north-west and south-west were as severely distressed as any part of the District owing to the natural poverty of the soil.

Relief works under the Public Works Department were opened from January 1897, the total number of charges being 14. New roads were made from Kota to Lormi, Bhatapara to Nandghat and from Bilaspur station and Champa station to the towns. Several other roads were also improved. The numbers on works reached a maximum of 44,000 in August, 1897. A number of tanks were also made under the civil Department, the principal ones being those at Bhatapara and Dhuma, while at Bilaspur an insanitary tank was filled up. A large number of tanks were also constructed or repaired by means of famine loans, or from the private resources of landowners, and it was estimated that as many as 70,000 persons were employed on these works in May, 1897. About two lakhs of rupees were advanced in Famine and Land Improvement loans. Special relief was given to weavers in many villages, advances of thread being made to them and the cloth purchased at five annas per seer. Poor-houses were opened. In March, 1897, the system of grading doles to incapable persons at their homes, known as 'village relief', was introduced and this afterwards assumed large proportions as the condition of the people grew worse. In September, 1897, a total of 90,000 persons or 8 per cent of the population were being supported in this manner, a figure which at that time was considered enormous. Kitchens for the distribution of cooked food were opened in the rains.

Relief measures of all kinds lasted from January to December, 1897, the highest number of persons in receipt of assistance being 1,49,000 or 13 per cent of the population in September, 1897. The expenditure on relief was Rs. 20 lakhs and in addition to this half the land revenue of the year, a sum of Rs. 3 lakhs, was suspended, more than a lakh was given out under the Agriculturists' Loans Act and three lakhs distributed from the Indian Charitable Fund. The mortality for the year 1897 reached the terrible figure of 101 per mille as against 47 in 1896. The death-rate was not very high up to April, 1897, but from that month it rose rapidly obtaining its maximum during the rains; the frames of the people had generally become enfeebled from the want of sufficient food, and when the trying period of the year came on they succumbed without a struggle to cholera, dysentery or malaria. The price of rice was between 9 and 10 seers a rupee between September, 1896, and March, 1897. From April it rose further and in August it reached the highest point of $7\frac{1}{2}$ seers to the rupee, an increase of 167 per cent, over the normal price of 18 seers.

In the following two years, i.e., 1897-98 and 1898-99 good paddy crops were harvested. The monsoon of 1899 broke in June and gave $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches in that month and the first part of July. After this a long break occurred, and though one or two good storms passed over the District in August, the monsoon was never again really established and died away altogether early in September. The paddy crop was also attacked by grasshoppers, and except in fields completely protected by irrigation, was totally lost. No rain fell from September to the end of the year and the spring crops were also very poor. A severe famine thus became inevitable. Village relief was given in September, 1899, and village works were started in all parts of the District to provide labour pending the completion of the Public Works Organisation. Nine regular work camps had been opened by December. The rush on the works at this time was overwhelming. The earthwork for the Bilaspur-Mungeli feeder line was carried out and ballast was broken for the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. The Pandaria-Kota road was completed and a new road was made from Nipania to Loharsi. Several other roads were constructed or gravelled. A large number of small works were carried out consisting almost entirely in the construction and improvement of tanks both for drinking water and for irrigation. The number of persons employed on village works rose at one time to 87,000 and altogether 663 tanks were constructed or improved. Grass-cutting operations were undertaken during the early stages of the famine. The cost to Government was about Rs. 20,000, and the grass was given for making huts on relief works and to needy cultivators for their cattle. Relief was given to weavers. A bulk of cloth was purchased by the Charitable Committee, the largest number of weavers employed at one time being about 1,600. Kitchens for distribution of cooked food were opened at an early stage of the famine and their number was gradually increased until in rains this became the principal form of relief; in August, 1900, a total of 719 kitchens were open and 1,44,000 persons were receiving cooked food.

Relief measures lasted from September, 1899, to December, 1900, and the maximum number of persons assisted was 2,81,000 or 24 per cent of the population in May, 1900, the total expenditure being Rs. 48 lakhs. Besides this, nearly three lakhs of rupees were distributed from the Charitable Fund and five lakhs given out in loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act. Practically the whole land revenue demand was suspended.

The mortality for the year 1900 was 43 per mille. The average price of rice during 1900 was $11\frac{1}{2}$ seers or about a seer cheaper than in Raipur. In the last months of 1899 it was as high as 10 seers but was brought down by the imports of Bengal rice. The price of wheat was also 10 seers.

After the famine of 1900 the District had a good harvest in 1901, but in the following year 1901-02 the later rainfall was insufficient and the cold weather nearly rainless. Both the paddy sown on yellow soils and the *rabi* crops were somewhat poor. A little relief was given in the hot weather in Janjgir Tahsil. In the following year 1902-03 a long break in the monsoon occurred from the last week of July to the last week of August, and this was aggravated by the early cessation of the rains in September. The crop gave only half an average outturn, the worst tracts being to the south of the District. Work was provided on some irrigation tanks by grants to the proprietors and about a quarter of the land revenue was suspended and village relief was given.

The next two seasons yielded beautiful harvests, but in 1905-06 the rainfall was again precarious and short and the crops were poor. Relief given was by way of opening tanks and road-works. After an interval of a year another bad season followed in 1907-08. This famine whose ill effects were felt throughout the Provinces was caused by the late and inadequate rainfall in June and July and again in September and October 1907. The paddy crop was only about half the average. The resulting distress was caused not so much by deficiency of food stocks as by high prices. The situation was aggravated by widespread famine conditions in the United Provinces and Central India and scarcity conditions in some parts of Bengal.

Bilaspur was enveloped by a famine of severe nature in 1918-19. This was caused by the abrupt cessation of the rains in September, 1918 and there was practically no rain until almost the end of November. The *kharif* crops were badly hit throughout the District.

Although crop failure was widespread and severe, the distress need not have assumed serious proportions but for two important factors. The first was the large exports of grain in the previous years. These depleted the reserves with the result that the prices had already risen to a height which would ordinarily be regarded as famine level. The second factor was the serious influenza epide-

mic which coincided with the *kharif* harvesting and *rabi* sowing and took a very heavy toll.

Part of Bilaspur District was engulfed by the famine of 1920-21 which was caused by the abrupt cessation of rains in the middle of September, 1920. From this time there was no rain till the latter half of January, 1921. The result was the severe failure of *kharif* crops. The prolonged drought coupled with excessive heat hardened the soil and gave rise to a marked shrinkage in the area sown with *rabi* crop.

Scarcity was encountered though not formally declared so in 1940-41. The severe crop failure was occasioned by the late advent of monsoon and scanty rainfall in September and October, and as a result *kharif* crops suffered.

Again, during the ensuing year, 1941-42, on account of scanty rainfall in June, July and August and prolonged drought in the months of September and October, there was a general failure of paddy crop in the Chhattisgarh Division.

In recent years, the District was again in the grip of a severe famine during 1965-66 and 1966-67. All possible help was given to the cultivators to face the acute hardships created by droughts. Scarcity works like construction and repair of roads and tanks, etc., were started in all the affected tracts where they could find employment. *Taccavi* loans were advanced to them for the construction and repair of wells, purchase of oil engines, electric pumps, etc. Crash programme for the maximum utilisation of tanks and other irrigation resources was launched for increasing agricultural production. Vegetable cultivation was propagated.

The long catalogue of poor and bad harvests recorded in this chapter has sufficiently shown the instability of the rainfall, especially in the all important late period of September and October, and the necessity of supplementing the natural supply with artificial storage by means of tank irrigation. This policy has now been definitely adopted by Government, and has produced results.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Population Dependent on Industries

By far the most important occupation of the population of this District is agriculture. The District is situated in the rice bowl of the State. Out of a population of 1,679,637 in 1951, 992,949 were "workers" as defined for purposes of the Census of 1961. The "workers" in agriculture in 1951 formed 82.75 per cent of the total number of "workers" from all occupational classes. As against this, "workers" in the occupational class "production other than cultivation" of 1951 Census, which may generally be taken as industrial class, formed barely 4.87 per cent of the total "workers" engaged in all occupational classes.

The total population of the District increased to 2,021,793 in 1961. The total number of "workers" from all the different livelihood classes in this year was 11,47,093 and the "workers" in agriculture formed 86.14 per cent of the total "workers". With the increase in population this increase in the percentage of "workers" in agriculture might be taken as natural in the predominantly agricultural economy of the District. However, percentage of "workers" in comparable industrial occupational divisions of 1961 also increased to 7.26 as against 4.87 per cent obtaining in 1951. This increase in the percentage indicates that the growing population of the District was also partly being absorbed in the industrial activities in the District. In absolute figures the number of "workers" in the class "production other than cultivation" was 48,392 in 1951. At the time of 1961 Census the "workers" in comparable occupational classes numbered 83,246. These figures give an idea of the extent of dependence for livelihood on industrial activities in the District for the decade 1951-61. This means on an average about 3,485 persons were annually being added to the category of "workers" dependent on industries. It may, however, be remembered that the figure is exclusive of the non-earning dependents or non-workers depending for livelihood on "workers" in industrial occupations.

Old Time Industries

In this connection the earlier District Gazetteer prominently refers to the tusser silk industry as being more important in Bilaspur than in any other

district. The quality of the silk produced was also better. Bilaspur proper, Khokra, Champa, Chhuri, Akaltara and Baloda were the principal centres of silk-weaving. The price of silk cloth varied from annas 12 to Rs. 2 per yard.

Rearing of tusser silk-worms was also an important occupation related to the tusser-silk weaving. Chamars and Kewats were mostly engaged in this occupation and at places this occupation was being carried on with the observance of religious rites, which were supposed to propitiate the worm and ensure a good crop of cocoons. For example, they did not wash, shave or drink liquor until the crop was gathered. Their meals consisted of salt and rice only. Sometimes they also abstained from conjugal intercourse. All this shows, how the occupation of rearing of silk-worms was taken seriously. About the middle of October, winter crop of cocoons used to be ready and was sold to the weavers for the production of silk.

Spinning and weaving of silk used to be done by the Koshtas. These people with their women-folk used to carry out all the processes leading to the gathering of filaments from the cocoons. For example, after receiving cocoons from the breeder, they were dried in the sun, then boiled and later cleaned with cold water. After this the outside silk could be pulled off and women gathered the filaments from cocoons. It was considered that 1,000 cocoons supplied enough silk for 12 yards of the thin cloth usually woven. The tusser silk cloth woven in the District was exported in small quantities to all parts of India and even to China.

Koshtas and some other castes like Gandas and Pankas were engaged in cotton cloth weaving of coarse type. Mill-spun yarn was generally used. Cotton cloth with borders of tusser silk was also produced. Bamnidih and Karnod were famous for weaving of best cotton cloth. Other weaving centres were Bilaspur, Chandarpur, Champa, Baloda, Takhatpur, Nawagarh, Mungeli, etc. There was no separate dyeing industry and the Koshtas either dyed their thread before weaving or purchased dyed yarn.

Prominent among the metal industries was the making of gold and silver ornaments. Bilaspur, Champa and Ratanpur were the important centres of this industry. Ratanpur was also an important centre, where household utensils out of bell-metal were manufactured. A light coloured polish that was given to the surface of the metal was a special feature of the vessels manufactured out of bell-metal.

Small quantities of iron-ore was smelted in some localities in the zamindaris, which was used in the manufacture of agricultural implements. Manufacture of glass bangles was carried on in Ratanpur, Mungeli and other villages. Lac bangles were made at Ratanpur. Village potters or Kumhars made earthen pots for cooking and storing water, while carpenters prepared wooden implements, wheels for carts, etc., required for agricultural purposes.

All these old time industries exist even now. Some of these happen to be organized on a co-operative basis, while some others are carried on in a traditional manner, especially in the countryside.

Power

History

It was in 1933-34 that the matter of supplying electricity to Bilaspur town was considered. In the next year license was given to the Lahore Electric Supply Company for supplying electricity to the town. In 1935-36, the license given to the Lahore Electric Supply Company was transferred to the Central India Electric Supply Company, Lahore. While giving this license, the State Government kept an option to purchase the Company's plant, etc., after a period of 30 years. Supply of electricity to Bilaspur town was started in the same year, i.e., 1935-36. Thermal power generating sets were established, and the installed capacity of the power house in 1936 was 688 k.w. Electricity sold in the same year was 0.542 million k.w. hrs. Thereafter in 1943 the sale of power increased to 0.676 million k.w. hrs.

In 1950 the installed capacity of the power house was 954 k.w., and the number of consumers of electricity by different categories 1,131. Consumption of electricity for industrial purposes was 0.351 million k.w. hrs., in this year. There was no demand for industrial power of high voltage in the District. Later, in 1957-58 the installed capacity of the power house reached 1,454 k.w. This was also the year in which power house at Bilaspur started taking bulk supply of power from Raipur power station. In this year consumption of industrial power, low and medium voltage, was 0.647 million k.w. hrs. This shows that consumption of industrial power in 1957-58 was little less than double that of 1950. Increase in the utilization of power for industrial purposes is an indication of the growth of industrial activity. As provided in the terms while granting licence to the Central India Electric Supply Co., the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board exercised their option and purchased the power house on the 4th of May 1964.

It has been stated earlier that the Central India Electric Supply Co. at Bilaspur began to supplement its power generation by drawing bulk supply of power from Raipur power station from 1957-58. While this Korba Thermal position continued, in 1957, work on the scheme for the establishment of Thermal Power Station at Korba was taken up under the Second Five Year Plan. This power station was established primarily for supplying power requirements of Bhilai Steel Plant, that of the coal mines at Jharandali belonging to the National Coal Development Corporation and other industrial establishments likely to be set up in and around the areas.

The Thermal Power House Scheme was conceived to be worked in two stages, the first stage was to comprise a power station with an installed capacity of 100 m.w., while the second stage was to be an extension station with a capacity of 200 m.w. The power station is located on the bank of the Hasdeo river, and is connected by an all-weather road from Champa.

The construction work of 100 m.w. power station was taken up on the 25th of June 1957, the corner-stone of which was laid by the then Chief Minister of Madhya Pradesh, Dr. K.N. Katju. It was on the 1st of March 1959 that this power station started distribution of power. This 100 m.w. station initially had three sets of 30 m.w. each and a 10 m.w. set was added later in 1963.

The construction work on the 200 m.w. extension was started in 1963. By the month of May, 1967, two sets of 50 m.w. each were commissioned. The first set of 50 m.w. was commissioned on the 5th of September 1966 and the second one on the 16th of May 1967. The construction work on the two remaining sets continued. The extension station is inter-connected with the 100 m.w. power station. Capital investment on the 100 m.w. power station, including transmission and distribution system was Rs. 12.34 crores. The expenditure on 200 m.w. extension station excluding transmission and distribution was estimated at Rs. 26.36 crores.

There were about 750 persons working at 100 m.w. power station from 1962 onwards. In 1967 about 2,500 persons were working at 200 m.w. power station, which included the number of workers engaged by contractors as well.

By 1967 the generating capacity at both the stations was 200 m.w. The energy generated on an average at both the stations are connected by a net-work of high tension, extra high tension and low tension lines feeding the entire Chhattisgarh region and parts of the central and western areas of Madhya Pradesh. The main consumers of power from these stations in the public sector

were Bhilai Steel Plant, and National Coal Development Corporation. Cement and Paper Mills were the important consumers of power from the private sector.

Korba Thermal Power Station was an important scheme of the Second Five Year Plan period, and the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board have executed it within specified time, as per planned details.

With the commissioning of the Korba Thermal Power Station, the Central India Electric Supply Company Power Station at Bilaspur was converted into a distribution centre. Besides this, there were 13 other distribution centres in the District in 1967 at Champa, Mungeli, Bilha, Akaltara, Korba Town, Korba Power House, Takhatpur, Pendra Road, Janjgir/Naila, Kota, Ratanpur, Katghora and Sakti.

In 1964-65, the demand for industrial power low and medium voltage, from 12 out of the 14 distribution centres, i.e., leaving Korba Town and Korba Power House, was 334,392 million k.w. hrs. The highest demand for this purpose, i.e., 155,324 million k.w. hrs., was from Bilaspur centre while lowest, i.e., 0.515 million k.w. hrs. was from Pendra Road centre. There was no demand for industrial power high voltage. The consumers of electricity for all purposes at these 12 centres were 8,962 in 1964-65, out of whom 4,769 were at the Bilaspur centre alone. It may, therefore, be inferred that electricity is being increasingly used in the District as a motive power for industrial production by the small and medium scale industrial units and that there is a concentration of industrial activity in and around Bilaspur centre.

Korba Thermal Power Plant entered the third phase of its extension during the Fourth Plan period, in 1970-71. Proposal for the installation of one 120 M.W. set at Korba was sanctioned to meet the promising Korba Power demand for power. The red letter day virtually dawned on Station Stage III the 27th April 1976, when the Plant, the biggest in the State, was commissioned and dedicated to the service of the Nation. On that very day the foundation stone of a 200 M.W. Super Thermal Power Plant on the right bank of the Hasdeo river was laid. With the commissioning of this unit, the generating capacity of the Plant has increased to 420 M.W. Major part of the Plant, the Turbine and Generator and other equipments were manufactured and supplied by the Bharat Heavy Electricals, Ltd., Bhopal.

The Korba Power Station Stage III when completed, cost Rs. 30 crores, about 8 crores more than the original estimates in 1971¹. Thus, along with the Thermal Power Station I and II, which were of 100 M.W. and 200 M.W.

1. Souvenir, Korba Power Station Stage III, M.P.E.B., p. 25.

capacity, the third Unit of 128 M.W. will help to meet the ever increasing demand from small and big industrial complexes. The highest one-day generation of Station I was 20,72,000 kwh on 31st November 1975. The generation of power, which was on an average 11 lakh units per day in 1974-75, increased to more than 16 lakh units (average for 4 months only: January to April, '76) per day on an average. During April 1974, the Plant I generated 303 lakh units, which increased to 347 lakh units in April 1975 and to 476 lakh units in February, 1976. The Power Station No. II, similarly, generated 76.15 million units in 1966-67, which increased to 1037.100 million units in 1975-76.¹

Rural electrification programme under different Five Year Plans was also being undertaken in the District.

By the end of the First Five Year Plan period only three villages were electrified in the District. This work also continued during the Second Five Year Plan when 20 villages in the District were electrified. Similarly, during the Third Five Year Plan period, 43 villages were provided electric power. Thus by the end of Third Five Year Plan period, there were 66 villages in the District getting the benefits of electric power.

Industries and Manufactures

Mining

In the context of old time industries a reference has been made to the smelting of iron-ore in some localities in the zamindaris of the District. In the earlier Gazetteer there is a reference of availability of iron-ore in all the hills to the north of the District and in Pandaria Zamindari. It is needless to state that quantity of iron-ore available was not so much as to make its exploitation economical. However, the District is favourably placed in respect of the other important minerals. Coal, bauxite, clays, limestone and dolomite are some other minerals available in the District that are being exploited.

Concentration of coal reserves in the District has been found in the Korba region. Coal mines are located at 24 miles north of the Champa railway station on the Eastern Railway. There is also a motorable road from Champa to Korba. The area of the Korba Coal Mines is 200 sq. miles. The mines working in this region are at Korba, Manikpur, Banki and Surakachhar. All these mines are being worked by the

1. *Vidyut Sewa*, April, 1976, pp. 41-43 (M. P. E. B. Jabalpur).

National Coal Development Corporation. At Korba there are three mines one of which is a pilot-quarry, open cast and other two are underground, designated as Incline Numbers one, two, three and four, respectively. Work on the pilot-quarry was started on the 1st of October, 1956. Three million tonnes of coal reserve was estimated at this quarry. Area of this quarry is 260.4 acres and total production from 1956 to March, 1976 was 28,75,046.20 tonnes. Average monthly production recorded for this period was 23,960 tonnes.

Incline Numbers one and two were being worked from the 14th December, 1957. Coal reserve at these two Inclines was estimated at 5.8 million tonnes within an area of 899.66 acres. Total production upto March, 1967 was 14,87,846.75 tonnes with an average monthly production of 13,300 tonnes.

It was on 19th February, 1951 that the work on Incline Numbers three and four was started. Estimate of the coal reserve was 3.1 million tonnes. Area of these two Inclines is 727.87 acres. Total production from 1958 to the end of March, 1967 was 2,95,034.82 tonnes. Monthly average production was 2,900 tonnes.

Preliminary work on Banki colliery was started in 1962, but it was declared as a mine on 16th January, 1963. Provision of Rs. 3,70,82,400 was made towards the working of this mine. On an average 1,250 persons were employed. This is still a developing mine and production in 1966 was 25,000 tonnes. During 1966-67, 43,794.10 tonnes of coal was supplied to the railways from this mine and 708.14 tonnes to private parties. Target of production at a fully developed stage was expected to be six lakh tonnes per year. The mine is being developed in collaboration with the U.S.S.R.

Manikpur mine was started on the 2nd of October 1966. On an average 313 persons were working at the mine. It supplied coal to the Korba Thermal Power Station.

Bauxite occurs in the Phutka hills, about 20 miles north-north-east of Korba in the District, on the top of a hill, 3,340 feet above sea level. Reserves of the mineral were estimated at four lakh tons. Fire-clay occurs at many places in the Korba coalfield of the District. A bed of fire-clay more than ten feet thick has been located to the north of Managaon near Korba. Besides this, fire-clay is available in the Dhajag Nala also at a location half a mile south-east of Kesla, and at half a mile south-east of Mahuadih, while clay occurs in a village named Jagisar in Bilaspur Tahsil. Out-crops of limestone are located in the southern part of the District and form a part of the continuous out-crop which extends in

Raigarh, Durg and Raipur districts. The main limestone quarries in the District are Hirri, Rank, Latia-Pakaria, Akaltara and Chittapandaria. The reserves at Hirri quarry were estimated at 464,640 tons; that at Rank quarry 60 lakh tons; at Latia Pakaria 27,88,000 tons; and at Chittapandaria quarry 2,90,400 tons. Reserves at Akaltara quarry were not ascertained.

In Bilaspur District the occurrence of this mineral extends from Bhanesar to Kasondi village. Quarries of dolomite are located at Parsoda, Khaira, Ramtola and Hardi villages. Reserves at Bhanesar quarry were estimated at 110 lakh tons, those at Parsoda 17.50 lakh tons, at Khaira 16 lakh tons, and at Hardi 35 lakh tons. Reserves at Ramtola were considered quite large.

From the details of the minerals in the District and estimates of the reserves as given above it may be said that coal, limestone and dolomite are available in sufficient quantities. Exploitation of coal deposits has already been undertaken by the National Coal Development Corporation. There are good prospects for the economic development of the District if exploitation of existing minerals and detailed prospecting are undertaken to ascertain availability of the mineral wealth of the region.

Coal from Korba region of the District is utilised by the Korba Thermal Power Station, Raipur Thermal Power Station and A.C.C. Ltd., Cement Works at Jamul in Durg District.

According to 1961 population Census, workers in the mines and quarries in the District increased to 4,979 as compared to only 260 workers a decade earlier, i.e., at the time of 1951 Census. This increase in the number of workers was attributed to the working of the Korba coal mines and exploitation of minerals from Hirri area in the District. Out of the 4,979 mine and quarry workers in the District in 1961, 4,060 workers were working in coal mines and 897 in the stone quarries.

Large-Scale Industries

Large-scale manufacturing might be said to have started in the District with the establishment of Bilaspur Spinning Mills and Industries Ltd. Construction work of the Mills was started in 1965. By 1967 the authorised capital investment was Rs. one crore and working capital Rs. 3.50 lakhs. With a view to setting up an installed capacity of the Mills at 25,000 spindles, the State Government had applied for a license to the Central Government in 1965 itself. By 1967 as many as 12,064 spindles were working in the Mills having an annual production of 12 lakh kilos of yarn. The average number of workers employed in the Mills was 550. Besides Madhya Pradesh, the yarn produced in the Mills was being exported to Bengal, Orissa, Bihar and Maharashtra State.

Bharat Aluminium Company, Korba

Taking advantage of Bauxite deposits of the area, the country's largest Alumina Plant was inaugurated on April 21, 1973 at Korba. Since then, the BALCO has progressed from strength to strength. A public sector, Bharat Aluminium Company Limited, built up a giant Aluminium Complex, comprising an Aluminium Plant with a capacity to produce two lakh tonnes of alumina per annum; a large Aluminium Smelter Plant with a capacity to produce 50,000 tonnes of aluminium metal; a Fabrication Shop to cast ingots, and to produce 10,000 tonnes of properzi rods for cables and conductors industry; a matching Carbon Paste Plant and two serial Ropeways.

The first phase of Smelter Plant, with a capacity to produce 25,000 tonnes of metal per year, was commissioned in May 1975. The second phase with 25,000 t.p.y. metal production capacity is also ready for commissioning in 1976. The Properzi Plant was brought into operation in February, 1976. The Ropeways were also built. The Plant has thus achieved cent per cent capacity utilization within a year of its commissioning. The metal now being produced at BALCO is of high quality electric-conductor grade. The properzi rods, etc., made by BALCO are utilized as raw material by cables and conductors industry for manufacturing overhead ACSR and AAC conductors.

Both Alumina and the Smelter Plant started exporting alumina and aluminium metal abroad within a year of their commissioning. Alumina is a non-traditional export item and BALCO was the first exporter to establish it as a foreign-exchange-earning material in international market. Even today, BALCO is the only exporter of this item.

Its quality was well received in the foreign markets too. During 1974-75, BALCO exported calcined alumina and alumina hydrate to USSR, Thailand, Indonesia and Spain. The export amounting to 39,000 tonnes of alumina was valued at Rs. 3.11 crores in 1975-76. Presently, BALCO is executing a massive export order of 40,000 tonnes of alumina, valued at Rs. 4.14 crores.

The Project has successfully tried the worker's participation scheme at all levels of the Plant and mines, which has yielded fruits in the shape of record production and restoration of complete industrial peace during the last 3 years of its working, so far. The welfare measures such as housing, supply of essential commodities through consumers co-operative shops, canteens, school facility, hospital facility, conveyance, leave encashment scheme, liberalized leave travel concession scheme, etc., have gone a long way in contributing to perfect industrial amity.

Lastly, a mention about the efforts towards developing country's own technology may be made. BALCO has entered into an agreement in August, 1975

with Metallurgical and Engineering Consultants (India), Limited (MECON) for providing total engineering and technological service in the field of aluminium.

Small Scale Industries

Small scale industries are generally agriculture and forest-based industries. Rice is the main agricultural produce in the District and a number of small scale factories, i.e., paddy milling units are working in the District, either as factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948 or as unregistered factories. It is, however, the number of registered factories under different industries that gives an authentic idea of small scale industries in the District. There appears to be no rice mill in the District registered under the Factories Act prior to 1924. The Factories Act of 1911 was amended and revised in 1922. It was under this amended Act that the first rice mill in the District was registered as a factory in 1934. This factory employed on an average 285 workers daily. After this beginning it was in 1930 that there were 10 rice milling units in the District registered under the Factories Act. All the 10 units taken together employed on an average 763 workers daily. The Factories Act of 1922 was again amended in 1934. In 1935 there is a mention of only four rice mills in the District registered under the Factories Act, 1934. The number of workers working in these four registered factories was 27 only. The Factories Act of 1934 was extensively amended and was generally replaced by the Factories Act, 1948. As in 1950, the number of registered rice mills in the District under the Factories Act of 1948, was 51. Later, in 1965, the number of registered rice mills under the Act increased to 78. One of the rice milling units was registered as not using power. In the same year 12 rice mills remained closed. The average number of workers employed in the working factories in 1965 was 2,400. This shows as to how over a period of about 40 years rice milling on a factory basis progressed in the District. It may be pointed out here that rice milling is an important small scale factory industry in the District.

This is another agriculture based industry in the District. Mention of an oil mill as a factory registered under the Factories Act appears in the list of registered factories for the year 1930. In this year there were two factories in the District under this industry and these two together employed about 37 workers daily. In 1935 the number of oil mills remained the same as in 1930 but average number of workers employed daily increased to 83. Later in 1950, there remained only one oil mill in the District as a factory registered under the Factories Act, 1948. The name of this factory was Guru Ramdas Oil and General Mills. During the period 1950 to 1965 the name of this single factory appears in the list of registered factories, but in the list for 1965 even this unit has been shown as closed. This indirectly reflects the growing insignificance of oil seeds as an agricultural product in the District.

Sawing of timber is a forest produce-based industry. Upto 1935 there was no mention of a saw mill in the District as a factory registered under the Factories Act. It was in the list of factories for the year 1947 that there was one saw mill in the District registered as a factory. By 1950 the number had increased to two. From 1950 to 1965, only one more saw mill was added to the number of registered factories. The number of workers working in these three saw mills was, on an average, 20 to 40.

Prior to the factory legislation of 1948 the bidi making factories used to be registered under the Central Provinces and Berar Unregulated Factories Act. This Act was repealed by the Factories Act, 1948, and the bidi factories were being registered under section 2 (m) (ii) of this Act or factories not using power. The number of bidi factories registered under the Factories Act of 1948 was 15 in 1950. From 1950 to 1965 the number of registered bidi factories remained fluctuating, and in 1965 there were eight registered bidi factories in the District. One of these eight factories was shown as a closed factory for the year. Out of these seven factories three were located at Bilaspur proper while the remaining four were at Champa, Baraduar, Ratanpur and Sakti, one at each place.

This is yet another forest produce-based industry in the District. The factories manufacturing shellac are also registered as non-power using units under section 2 (m) (ii) of the Factories Act, 1948. In 1950 there were four lac and shellac manufacturing factories in the District. By 1965, the number had increased to 11, but 4 out of this were shown as closed factories during the year.

Other industrial units, besides those mentioned above, registered in 1965 under the Factories Act 1948 were one Burma Shell Depot, one Stone Dressing and Crushing, two Metal Containers and Steel Trunks manufacturing, one Railway Workshop, one Motor Vehicle repair shop, one Ice Manufacturing and one Electric Light and Power unit.

Basing the assessment of the position of the District in the field of industries on the details of factories registered under the Factories Act, as above, it may be found that there are no industries in the District of any significance. Paddy milling from the agriculture-based industry, a little of saw milling, lac manufacturing and bidi-making, based on the forest produce, are the only industries in the District. However, this situation is likely to change under the implementation of successive Five Year Plans.

Household industries have also got an important place in the economic development and Bilaspur District is quite progressive in its household industries.

Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives

It has been mentioned earlier that the old time industries are still being carried on and a sizeable portion of the population is even now dependent for its livelihood on these industries. Handloom weaving is one such industry which has from the olden times a very important place in the rural economy, not only of Bilaspur District but even of the country. The handloom products in the District not only consist of coarse cotton cloth or cloth woven out of waste, but also fine mull, silk and *kosa* cloth. Manufacture of cotton *saries*, suitable for females in rural areas, silk *saries* as well as other varieties of handloom products is being carried on at different places all over the District. There are many places in the District where 100 or more families of handloom weavers are deriving their livelihood from this industry. Mungeli, Takhatpur, Ganiyari, Bilaspur, Ranigaon, Chandrapur, Rahod, Akaltara, Baloda, Champa, Seoni, Jaipur, Khokhra, Sakti, Southi, Adwar, Chhuri, are some such important centres of handloom weaving in the District.

Realising the importance of cottage industries sector in the economy of the country the Central Government initiated efforts to rejuvenate it by introducing co-operative movement in the field of cottage industries. This is a very important innovation in the absence of which cottage industries sector, as it was working on traditional lines, would have suffered a death-blow in competition with large-scale factory manufactures, leaving millions of workers without the means of livelihood. Handloom weaving being an important household industry from time immemorial, industrial co-operatives were formed in this industry everywhere. By 1965, there were 20 weavers' co-operative societies in Bilaspur District. The number of members in these societies was 1,486, and with the same number of handlooms Government also arranged training courses for weavers in new techniques and in the use of improved implements. Financial aid is also given to the societies.

Weaving of tusser silk cloth on handlooms is also being carried on in the District from olden times. There are references in the earlier Gazetteer regarding the high reputation of silk cloth manufactured in the District and the wide export market it enjoyed inside and outside the country. Even now places like Champa, Baloda, Mungeli and Chandrapur in the District are famous for the manufacture of handloom *kosa* cloth. Akaltara, Bilaspur and Khokhra are other places where handloom weaving of *kosa* cloth has been carried on but to a lesser extent. Rearing of cocoons in olden times was an important occupation of tribal population in the District which has since suffered a set-back. Supply of cocoons locally available being not sufficient, purchases are made from Chaibasa and Chakulia in West Bengal. However, Government have started farms one each at Korba and Katghora in the District. These are seed-farms and timely supply of better seeds is made to those engaged in the rearing of cocoons. The pro-

cesses leading to the reeling of yarn from cocoons were briefly referred to earlier. These processes are being performed without machines and there is much scope for improving the techniques. With this in view a centre for imparting training in spinning finer quality of silk yarn and making it available to the weavers in sufficient quantities has been started at Seoni near Champa. The *kosa* cloth manufactured in the District has not only a countrywide market, but efforts are being made to export it to countries like U.S.A. The exports are made from Champa in the District. Besides the training centre an exhibition centre has also been established at Seoni, the object of which is to demonstrate the methods of preparing good variety of *kosa* yarn and cloth.

Co-operative societies have also been established in this industry. Upto March, 1965 there were five societies of *kosa* cloth weavers in the District. These societies are located at Chhuri, Khokhara, Champa, Chandrapur and Balod, the membership of which was 277, with the same number of handlooms.

Besides the weaving of cotton and silk cloth, weaving of blankets out of the wool collected from sheep locally has also been carried on in the Development Blocks at Takhatpur, Mungeli and Pandaria. One co-Blankets Weaving operative society of wool weavers has been established at Takhatpur. In 1965 there were 89 members of this society, with the same number of handlooms.

Manufacturing of brass and bell-metal utensils is also one of the old-time household industries still in existence. Centres of this industry in the District are at Bilaspur, Champa, Sakti and Pendra Road. Bell-Brass and Bell-metal is not only used for making utensils but also for Metal Industry making ornaments for which there is a demand from the tribal population of the District. Craftsmen at Bilaspur, Pendra Road, Akaltara and Sakti generally prepare brass utensils. To a lesser extent this work is carried on at Mungeli and Takhatpur. Manufacture of *thalis* (large plates) and pots for keeping a preparation of rice known as *basi* are the special products of bell-metal from Champa and Sakti. At a place named Kulhadi in the District small bells, used by the dancers, which are usually tied on the ankles in bunches, are also manufactured. Bell-metal is an alloy of brass and tin, but these being in short supply bell-metal scraps in the shape of broken pots, etc., are purchased. These scraps will be melted and used again in the preparation of new bell-metal products.

Carving of the plates and pots is usually done by the females in the workers' families. They do this work without any obvious exertion. The utensils of brass and bell-metal manufactured in the District have a market outside the District as well. There are co-operative societies of workers in this industry also. The number of such societies was six in 1965 with a membership of 328.

While the country is having large-scale iron and steel machines and tools manufacturing factories, making of agricultural implements and household utensils of iron is still being carried on as a household industry. Blacksmithy is practically all over the country. The person engaged in this industry in the District are known as Aghariyas. This industry is concentrated at Pondi-uprora, Lafa and in some villages surrounding Korba. Iron is smelted with the help of charcoal and agricultural implements as well as iron utensils are prepared. Besides the Aghariyas, ordinary blacksmiths are also engaged in this traditional industry.

The District is having a large number of cattle, which makes it well suited for leather and leather goods industry. The cattle population of the District was estimated at over 15 lakhs. Taking the mortality among the cattle as 10 per cent of their population, the bones and hides from one and a half lakh of cattle become available. Leather and Leather Goods Bones and hides from the District are generally exported, especially to Madras and Kanpur. In spite of large exports of hides and skins, there are tanners in practically all the villages in the District engaged in tanning hides with their age-worn crude methods. Concentration of tanning industry in the District is found in Marwahi, Gourela, Pandaria and Katghora Development Blocks.

Efforts are being made to organise tanners on a co-operative basis and to make available to them the basic amenities for their industry and necessary training in modern techniques of tanning. Marwahi and Pandaria Development Blocks have such training centres. The material generally required for tanning of hides and skins is available easily from the forests.

Tanning of hides and skins is usually combined with the manufacture of leather goods, especially foot-wear suited to the requirements of rural population. Leather goods manufacturing is also being carried on in the urban centres of the District, but leather required for making shoes, etc., is imported from Kanpur and Madras. At a place named Masturi in the District, the State Government have started a training centre for the manufacture of leather goods. By 1965, there were nine co-operative industrial societies of tanners and leather goods workers in the District, the total membership of which was 192.

So far as the extraction of oil on a factory basis is concerned, it was seen earlier that in 1965 in the whole of Bilaspur District there was only one oil mill registered under the Factories Act, 1948. This single factory also remained closed during the year. However, oil seeds pressing by *ghanis* as a household industry is still practised in the District, to a small extent. It is the power-driven baby expellers, not coming under the purview of the Factories Act, which are being largely used in the manufacture of oil.

Earlier it was observed that rice milling in the District has been mostly carried on in the rice mills, and that there were 78 rice mills, registered under the Factories Act, 1948. In spite of this, hand-pounding of rice, as Hand-pounding of Rice was done in olden times in the absence of rice milling machines, has still been carried on, especially in rural areas. Rural population, mostly engaged in agricultural work, gets its requirements of rice by hand-pounding method, and considerable quantity of hand-pounded rice is also marketed. Hand-pounded rice is supposed to contain ingredients of higher nutritive value than those of the rice obtained by milling process. For this reason also hand-pounded rice is generally preferred to milled rice in the paddy growing area. That is why in spite of the existence of a number of rice mills, hand-pounding industry is also working side by side. Efforts have also been made to organise this industry on a co-operative basis.

In rural areas, houses usually have tiled roofs, and making of tiles is an important household industry. Kumhars or village potters combine earthen pot making with tiles-making. Manufacture of bricks for construction of houses has also been carried on by potters. Raw bricks Pottery Making are put into big ovens for baking. Charcoal, fire-wood and rice husk are used for activating these ovens. Traditionally, village potters prepare earthen pots used for storing water and cooking food which form part of the movable property in many a rural household even now. Co-operatives have been introduced in this industry as well. There are societies of potters, brick and tile-makers. Such societies in 1965 numbered 21, with a membership of 410.

Forests in the District abound in bamboo trees. Bamboos are, therefore, largely used in the construction of houses, walls as well as roofs. Besides this, large and small baskets, winnowing fans, mats and brooms Bamboo Work are also being prepared. A sizeable portion of population, especially in rural areas, remains dependent for its livelihood on this industry. The baskets prepared in the District have an outside market as well. The baskets are used for carrying headloads of clay, bricks, gravel, etc., at the construction works that are undertaken in different places under the Five Year Plans. There were nine industrial co-operatives in bamboo works industry in 1965. Membership of these societies was 107.

Village carpenter is an indispensable member of the rural community. He is as old as agriculture itself. As in the ages gone by the village carpenter is still seen preparing all wooden implements required in agriculture carts, wheels, etc. His prototype in urban areas prepares wooden furniture for household and office use, and some of the carpenters also prepare truck-bodies. There were six co-operatives of wood workers in the District in 1965 with 101 members.

Sugar-cane is cultivated in the District at certain centres like Bilaspur, Ratanpur, Takhatpur, Lormi and Sakti, where irrigation facilities are available.

Jaggery is manufactured out of sugar-cane at these places on a small scale. At Lormi Development Block, facilities exist for demonstrating the technique of manufacturing better quality of gur.

Making of ornaments of gold and silver is an age-old industry of the country. This industry was working without any difficulty till the middle of the 20th century. But, thereafter, these precious metals began to appreciate in value, and gradual depression set in this industry.

Gold and Silver-smithy Later, in 1963, the industry received a death-blow when the Government at the Centre, in order to conserve their foreign exchange resources, promulgated the Gold Control Order. A large number of gold and silver smiths and allied workers lost their means of livelihood all over the country. In so far as Bilaspur District is concerned, the Gold Control Order affected 735 goldsmiths. The hardships caused to the workers in this industry led to the modification of this Order, as a result of which about 435 goldsmiths in the District got licences to carry out their work. The unemployed goldsmiths were given financial help by the Government to the tune of Rs. 1,84,500 upto March, 1967. This help was given with a view to enabling goldsmiths to find out alternative means of livelihood. There is one co-operative society of goldsmiths in the District, the membership of which was 18 in 1965.

In addition to the industries mentioned above, some other industries in the District working on a co-operative basis as in 1965 were:—

Name of the Industry (1)	No. of Societies (2)	Membership (3)
1. Soap-making	4	54
2. Gramodyog	4	231
3. Tailoring	4	62
4. Fibre-making	3	60
5. Women's Tailoring Societies	1	14
6. Rope-making	1	10

Industrial Arts

It is difficult to conceive of the existence of any industrial arts and crafts in a region where the only industries happen to be the manufacture of materials for the basic needs of the population. However, in the brass and bell-metal

industry some carving on the plates, especially of bell-metal, was done at Bilaspur, Ratanpur, Sakti and Champa. These carved plates used to be in demand, especially during marriage season, as a sort of presentation articles. Toys made out of clay, paper and wood were prepared at Ratanpur in the District. Such toys had only a local market, especially at times of fairs and festivals.

Industrial Potential

The industrial development of a particular area is much dependent on the availability of basic minerals like coal, iron, manganese, etc., as well as cheap industrial power. Though the District has large coal and limestone reserves, other minerals like iron-ore, manganese, etc., are not available to the extent required for the setting up of a modern industrial complex. Industries based on agricultural produce like rice mills, oil mills and those based on forest produce like saw mills, lac manufacturing and bidi making are working in the District. With the increase in agricultural production and scientific exploitation of forest produce, the industries already in existence can prosper. With the availability of power from the Korba Thermal Power Station, coal and limestone resources in the District could be worked intensively. National Coal Development Corporation is exploiting the coal reserves in the District, but coal from Korba coal fields as well as power from the Korba Thermal Power Station are being mainly used for supplying the needs of Bhilai Steel complex in the nearby Durg district.

However, with the availability of power from the Korba Thermal Power Station, the establishment of a Spinning Mill was made possible at Bilaspur proper. Action has also been taken for augmenting the installed capacity of the factory. State Government has also approached the Government at the Centre for permission to set up a cotton waste plant for the utilisation of cotton waste available from the Spinning Mill.

The possibility of setting up a Chemical plant for the manufacture of synthetic fibre out of different coal gases also exists. As has been stated earlier, there are ample reserves of limestone in the District. Limestone constitutes a raw-material in the manufacture of cement. Other Potential Industries Efforts are being made to set up a cement manufacturing plant near about Akaltara and Champa in the District. Dolomite is one of the minerals available in the District, though not in sufficient quantity. this mineral is used in the steel manufacturing process and is being sent out of the District. However, this mineral can be used in the manufacture of refractories in the District itself.

Taking advantage of the Bauxite ore in the District, the construction of a two lakh tonnes per annum Alumina Plant was taken up in Korba in 1970, by

the Bharat Aluminium Company, the details of which have already been given earlier. Besides this the Fertiliser Corporation of India have already submitted to the Government of India their project for starting a coal-based fertiliser plant, near Surakachar Coal fields.

In the manufacture of aluminium, limestone and caustic soda are required in large quantities. Hence, a factory for the manufacture of caustic soda could also be established in the District. By 1970, the Government of India have conveyed their intention to the State Industries Development Corporation, Bhopal for starting a caustic soda plant with an annual capacity of 27,000 tons. Besides these, on the basis of iron and steel as well as industrial scrap available from the Bhilai Steel Plant, factories for the manufacture of steel castings and commercial steel could also be established in the District.

Over these metal and chemical industries are established, many subsidiary and ancillary industries for the manufacture of insecticides and the like could be set up without difficulty. Agriculture and forest based industries manufacturing non-traditional products could be others worth trying.

Work for the construction of an industrial estate in the District was started during the Second Five Year Plan period. However, as the work on the Scheme could not be completed by the end of the Plan period, a provision of Rs. 4.35 lakhs was made during the Third Five Year Plan towards its completion.

For the establishment of the Rural Worksheds at Naila and Gourela also a provision of Rs. 0.930 lakhs was made in the Third Five Year Plan. Development of tusser silk industry in the District was emphasised during the Third Five Year Plan period. Under the Scheme, for the establishment of tusser silk seed centres and cocoon markets at Korba and Katghora, as well as for the establishment and development of silk spinning centre at Bilaspur, a provision of Rs. 7.81 lakhs was made.

From 1962-63 to 1966-67 annual Government assistance to industries in the District amounted to Rs. 1,50,550; 75,775; 93,555; 1,90,395; and Rs. 1,19,405, respectively.

Labour and Employers' Organisations

As discussed earlier, the industries in the District are based on the agriculture and forest produce. Industrial employment mainly consists of workers in the rice mills and bidi factories. Majority of rice mills work on a seasonal basis when paddy crop is harvested and, again, a large number of them work only on account of the customers who bring their paddy to be milled. The agriculturists who bring their paddy for milling also bring their workers for getting the work

done. The permanent labour force in the rice milling industry, therefore, is quite negligible, consisting as it does of one driver and one oilman per factory. There are some rice mill owners who purchase paddy and mill it on their own. Such rice millers are, however, few and they combine rice milling with some other manufacturing activities to keep them engaged all the year round. For example, rice milling is often found combined with saw milling, *dal* milling, etc. The factories combining such manufacturing activities are few, and the number of workers employed in these is also not high. Because of all these reasons, trade union activity is practically absent in the rice milling industry in the District.

Labour situation in the bidi industry is, however, different. All the bidi factories registered under the Factories Act are located in urban centres and they work perennially. As a result, the workers in the industry could organise themselves into trade unions. There were three trade unions of bidi workers in the District in 1966, which were registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Out of these three, two located at Bilaspur proper were registered in 1964 while the third one at Sakti was registered in 1965. The total membership of the two unions at Bilaspur was 710 in 1966.

The condition of saw milling as an industry in respect of its labour force is more or less the same as that of the small rice milling units. There are hardly more than two persons employed on a permanent basis in any saw mill. As such, there is no trade union activity in this industry as well.

The Korba Thermal Power Station in the District in providing substantial employment both to skilled as well as unskilled labour. By 1965 there were three labour unions of electrical workers, located at Korba proper. All these three unions were registered under the Trade Unions Act in 1965.

National Construction, Engineering and Allied Workers' Union, registered in 1964, is also located at Korba.

The municipal workers at Bilaspur as well as at Champa have also organised themselves into trade unions. Bilaspur Municipal Workers' Union was registered in 1960, while the Union of Champa municipal workers was registered in 1962.

A large number of workers are engaged in mining of coal, dolomite, limestone, etc. By 1966, there were three unions of mine workers registered under the Trade Unions Act. One of the three unions is located at Korba. Dolomite Workers Union is at Baraduar, while Limestone Workers Union is at Dumarpara.

The P.W.D. Work-Charged Employees' Union was registered in 1964. This Union was at Bilaspur. Beside this, the Motor Kamgar Sangh, registered in 1961, was located at Bilaspur. There was also a union of goldsmiths, namely, Rashtriya Swarnkar Shramik Sangh, registered in 1966.

Thus by 1966 there were 16 trade unions in the District, registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. The state of trade unions in different industries in the District as referred to in the foregoing pages indicate dearth of industrial activity.

Welfare of Industrial Labour

It was after the formation of National Government at the Centre that that much of the labour welfare work was taken up on a statutory basis. Prior to this, the industrial labour or, more correctly, the factory labour was being given certain protection facilities under the Indian Factories Act. But the provisions of the Act mainly referred to the hours of work, leave with pay, protection from machinery, etc. The Indian Factories Act, 1934 was exhaustively amended by the National Government and was replaced by the comprehensive legislation known as Factories Act, 1948. Under this Act, there is a separate chapter devoted to the welfare of labour. In factories employing a specific number of workers, provision of canteens, hot mid-day meals, rest shelters, and chreche for the children of working women are being made compulsory. Even so, the Factories Act remains a protective legislation only for working conditions within the factory premises.

The first important step for the provision of statutory labour welfare was taken by the Central Government by enacting the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948. Under this Act, the Employees State Scheme has been framed, which provides medical as well as cash benefits to the industrial workers and their families. The Act and the Scheme were being applied in stages to different industries. Sickness and disablement benefits are the main features of this enactment. This Act and the Scheme were not made applicable to any industrial centre in the District up to 1967.

The next stage in the statutory labour welfare was marked by the enactment of the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952. Under this Act, the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme is framed to serve as a model. The Act was made applicable to the industries in the District and, by 1966, the workers in 75 industrial units, consisting of rice mills, printing presses, electricity generation and distribution centres, cinema houses, etc., were covered under the Act. Majority of the industrial establishments covered under this Act are from the rice milling industry.

Both the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, are central legislations. From amongst the State Government labour welfare legislations might be mentioned the Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefits Act, 1958. Under this Act, the women employees working in the factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948, get pre-natal and post-natal medical care and cash benefits.

There is also the Madhya Pradesh Fixation of Minimum Wages Act, 1962. Under this Act the Scheduled Industries like rice, *dal*, oil mills, bidi factories, stone-breaking and stone crushing, building and road construction, printing, motor transport, lac, tanning, Local Government, and agriculture, are covered for the purpose of fixation of minimum wages for their employees. Before the State Government's legislation of 1962, minimum wages were being fixed under the Minimum wages Act, 1948 of the centre. The minimum wages in the Scheduled Industries fixed under the Act of 1948, as in 1959, were deemed to have been fixed under the State Government legislation of 1962. However, the minimum wages fixed in the year 1959 for different categories of bidi workers were revised upward in 1966. Again, in 1966, the provisions of the Act were made applicable to the shops and establishments, hotels, and saw-mills in the District by a notification under the Act.

It becomes obvious from the foregoing account, that labour welfare work is mostly carried on a statutory basis under the Central and State Government legislations. The industrialists have perforce to undertake welfare measures for their employees under these legislations. The trade unions in the District have no welfare programme for their members. Even so, a welfare centre has been organised by the Motor Workers' Union in the District for its members, to which the Labour Department of the State Government is giving a grant. This Centre provides indoor and outdoor games and recreation facilities.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

Banking and Finance

The successful functioning of the various financial institutions and credit organisations largely helps the progress of agriculture, trade and industry. The purpose of this part of the Chapter, in main, therefore, is to provide a general description of capital and credit organisations of Bilaspur District. The scope of the Chapter is limited to an analytical and, wherever possible, a comparative study of different financial agencies catering credit to the District, sources and total amount available, different channels of investment of available credit and returns of different types of investment.

From the earliest times of human civilisation when private property rights were accepted as a part of the established social order, the urge for its accumulation and extension has been steadily at work. One can note it even in the remote past of feudal age. The use of accumulated capital was then confined primarily to money-lending and expansion of trading and other commercial activities. Gradually, by the end of the Middle Ages, there emerged a primitive capitalist class of financiers and merchants with their concentration in the small medieval towns and trading centres controlling bulk of the economy. This was almost a worldwide phenomenon to which Bilaspur District was no exception. In fact, in all agricultural economies some financial agency is necessary to provide credit facilities for the continuance of agricultural operations.

Indigenous Banking in Early Days

The age-old institution of money-lenders, thus, has traditionally been the main agency meeting the credit requirements of the rural sector of economy in the past and it continues to enjoy even today more or less the same prominent position in that field in spite of vigorous efforts by Government to develop and enlarge alternative sources of credit and to control and regulate the business activities of money-lenders by various legislative measures. The enquiries were undertaken and the report published thereafter in 1954 by the All India Rural Credit Survey Committee, appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in 1951, reveals that 93 per cent of the total borrowings of cultivators is financed by non-institutional or private agencies of which most important is money-lenders or

Sowkars who account for nearly 70 per cent of total borrowings. The sample survey undertaken by the Committee further reveals that in Bilaspur District about 69 per cent of the debt of cultivators was financed through private agencies.

Such a predominant position would have meant no harm to our rural economy had the money-lenders refrained from indulging in unhealthy practices and charging exorbitant interest. But in spite of all these evil practices which are known to all, including debtors, money-lenders still continue to enjoy almost the same predominant position in the rural economy of the District as in the past. This is due to the fact that the methods employed by them in dealings, though objectionable in other ways, have the advantage of being extremely flexible, such as making available funds promptly, and for all purposes and sometimes without any kind of legal formalities. This is exactly what Government or co-operative credit agencies have not been able to do in the context of prevailing peculiar characteristics of our rural economy. Hence the dependence on money-lenders.

The earliest authoritative source of information about money-lending and banking business, as well as system of providing credit under Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturist Loans Act, in British times could be the District Gazetteer compiled and published as far back as 1910. The old District Gazetteer records the names of Pahlad Sao and Kasondha Bania of Bilaspur as principal banking firm. Bhondu Sao and Ghasiram Sao of Ratanpur were other big money-lending firms. Ghasiram Sao carried on money-lending business on a large scale among the zamindars and *talukadars* of the District. Jailal Sao Kasnodha Bania of Pipartalai near Kota, Thakur Bhagwan Singh, Baghel Rajput of Pandaria, Deonath Tiwari, Chhattisgarhi Brahman of Ganiari, Parasram Singh of Jagtaha near Mungeli were the leading bankers in Mungeli tahsil. In Janjgir tahsil Kheduram Sao, a Kasarwani Bania of Seorinarayan, had the most extensive transactions, and next to him Darshan Singh, Daraiha Rajput of Sunad. Other prominent men were Gautam Das Mahant, Bairagi of Seorinarayan, Baj-nath Agharia of Karari in Chandarpur, Hari Singh Daraiha Rajput of Thathari, Keshri Singh of Mulmula, and Nilkanth Daraiha Rajput of Rasota.¹

The agriculturist in Bilaspur District obtained credit from *malguzars*, who had taken to money-lending as a subsidiary occupation, and from professional money-lenders or indigenous bankers, called *Sowkar* or *Mahajan*. An attempt has also been made in the old District Gazetteer and by the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee in 1929-30, to trace out the system and rate of interest on private loans. Interest on deposits was 6 to 10 per cent a year. The rate of interest in cash varied from 6 to 24 per cent, according to the status of the borrower. Compound interest was also charged in many places. For rice the most common rate was *deorhivadhi* or *dedhibadih* or 50 per

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 150.

cent, while *Sawaivadhi* or 25 per cent was charged from substantial borrowers or from friends.

When a man borrowed a grain loan, he was to pay to the Kotwar or village watchman one *anja* or handful for measuring the grain and, when the payment was made, instead of 10 *kathas* (equal to 6 lbs. of unhusked rice) interest per *khandi* of 20 *kathas* he was to pay 11 *Kathas* to the money-lender and 1 *kathas* to the Kotwar. The rice repaid at harvest remained somewhat damp and one or two *kathas* were subsequently lost by dryage. If only *Sawai* or 25 per cent interest was charged, the lender deducted one *Katha* in the *Khandi*, or 5 per cent in consideration of the low rate of interest. And another half *Katha* per *Khandi* was deducted for the measure. At the time of payment again the lender was to take back 27 *Kathas* per *Khandi* of 20 *Kathas*, charging one *Katha* extra on account of the low rate of interest and one for the measuring done by Kotwar. Thus, in the end the borrower was to pay the interest at the rate of about 50 per cent per annum.

The practice of purchasing the crops in advance while they were on the ground was found in Janjgir tahsil, where it was known as *damkari* or *laoni*. The lender was to give grain value at the high rates prevalent before harvest, but it had to be repaid in the equivalent cash value at the low grain rates following the new harvest. Thus it happened that a lender gave a loan at 6 *Kathas* to the rupee and was repaid after harvest at the rate of 18 *Kathas* to the rupee for each 6 *Kathas* advanced. But such a case as this was, of course, very rare. The word *damkari* means one who is at the point of losing his breath since the need of money is urgent, and signifies aptly the nature of the transaction. In other words the rate of interest remained high.

Some times in place of interest some plots of land or some fields were made over to *sowkar* who sowed them and took the produce. Standing crops were also placed as security in some cases. Other conditions on loan were that if the loan was not paid in time, the interest may be double or the security may be sold. Sometimes the effect of taking advance was that the crop was sold at a cheaper rate than *bazar* rate and the loss was great.

The period of loan was generally one year for small sums, say, upto 50 rupees. Big debts were repaid normally within three or four years, but the period of repayment was longer in the case of bigger items. Sometimes they were compelled to sell part of their holdings or they mortgaged it again to a new money-lender.

Indigenous banker in the District granted loans on mortgage of property or ornaments of gold and silver, on personal credit of debtors, on grain stores, and on stamps. The stamps were more in vogue. The method of granting loans

was by getting a deed executed by the borrower. Such deeds or stamps were duly registered if the sum exceeded a certain limit.

The main purposes for which the loans were received from the indigenous bankers or *mahajans* were for the purchase of plough cattle, for doing business in plough-cattle, buffaloes and bullocks, purchasing land or share of village, etc. The loans were spent according to the need for seeds, weeding out the grass, and on manure and fodder for cattle. Sometimes when season was bad or when there was a marriage the agriculturists were forced to borrow to meet their current demands. Very few agriculturists, however, effected improvement resulting in the productive capacity of the land.

It is clear from the brief description given above that non-interference in the economic matters, which the British Government adopted almost as a policy in that period, resulted in absolute freedom of contract to the individual to fix any rate of interest. The system of justice and administration introduced by the British also provided indirectly an additional coverage for money-lenders' action in the early period.

However, of late, Government realised the need for proper control of money-lenders and attempts were made to enact several Acts such as Usurious Loans Act 1918, and the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders' Act 1932. These attempts were directed towards eliminating usury and other malpractices through a system of registration and compulsory maintenance of *bahikhata* or accounts, and redemption of debts. But the attitude of the money-lending class on the whole had been one of indifference and they appeared generally to be left alone to carry on their business according to their old-fashioned methods. They continued in their old ways without profiting from new experiments and the new methods of modern credit and finance. Though the craft of the indigenous banker was rendered obsolete, yet they cannot be ignored from the banking, trade and other commercial activities. As long as rural economy of the District remains in all its uncertainties and vagaries money-lender in one form or the other will remain firmly rooted.

Indebtedness

There has been no systematic study of the problem of indebtedness, either in rural or urban areas of the District. The old Gazetteer of the District and its first settlement Report (1927) are silent over this matter.

According to Central Provinces Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, the total estimated indebtedness of *malguzars* and tenants in Bilaspur District was Rs. 36,89,646 and Rs. 38,91,600, respectively totalling to Rs. 75,81,246. The *malguzars'* debt represented 14 per cent of the value of the property which they held, while tenants' debt represented Rs. 2½ per cent, and Rs. 22 per family. The

intensive survey undertaken by the Committee in the District reported that the total debt in the villages surveyed was Rs. 49,416 and out of it hopelessly indebted cultivators were only 1 per cent owing 10.3 per cent of the total debt. While 44 per cent of cultivators were not indebted beyond their means, owning 89.7 per cent of the total debt, about 55 per cent of them were free from debt in the villages surveyed in the District. The report struck a very high-sounding note regarding the District in respect of indebtedness and noted with content that the ordinary cultivator, who does not actually borrow, keeps in hand at least sufficient means for his agricultural needs. These cultivators who borrowed money were in the habit of taking short-term seasonal loans during the agricultural year, most of which was repaid at harvest time when the crop was normal. Considerable portion of the disclosed debt was merely the ordinary seasonal short-term loan due at harvest. As Chhattisgarh had been fortunate enough to have a succession of good years and normal harvest since 1920, it is not surprising to find such observations.

It was also reported¹ that in Bilaspur Khalsa, Bilaspur Zamindaris, known as Satgarh zamindaris, which included Kanteli, Pandaria, Kenda, Pendra, Matin, Bapha, Uprora, Korba, Churri and Champa zamindaris, debt under one hundred rupees was Rs. 2,27,726 in each and 99,687 *Khandis* in grain. Debt above one hundred rupees was Rs. 6,46,527 in cash and 70,503 *Khandis* in grain. These figures mainly refer to the agricultural indebtedness of the aboriginals and indicate that about 24 per cent of the tenants were under debt and the incidence of indebtedness was surprisingly low.

It has also been reported that "the indebtedness of malikan-makbuza and tenants holding more than 2 acres of land each in the Khalsa of the Mungeli tahsil and 6 groups out of 7 in the Khalsa of the Bilaspur Tahsil so far rent rated, that 62 per cent in the former tract and 63 per cent in the latter were free from debt, and only 8 per cent owed sums over Rs. 100 each."² And in Bilaspur Khalsa (Bilaspur and Mungeli Tahsils) approximately "62 per cent tenants were free from debt numbering to 32,789 while total number of tenants was 52,548. Statement showed that 13,416 tenants were indebted under Rs. 100 and 4,124 tenants were indebted above Rs. 100. The amount was Rs. 6,76,645 and Rs. 10,65,731, respectively. Indebtedness only in grains was 30,468 *Khandis* for 2,210 tenants."³ The burden of debt was considerably light, because during that period the District had good harvests for eight years in succession. However, one has to keep in mind that the Settlement Officer and various Revenue Officers enquiring into the living conditions of the people in different times made observations which indicate only the general feature.

An important landmark in this direction had been made in 1950-51, when All India Rural Credit Survey Committee was appointed by the Reserve

1. Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, Vol. IV, p. 910.
2. *ibid.* p. 910.
3. *ibid.* pp. 914-915.

Bank of India. The Committee made detailed and exhaustive sample survey of rural indebtedness in Bilaspur District. Their observations are given in a brief and condensed form in the following paragraphs.

According to the report, indebtedness per cultivating family showed an increase of 600 per cent from Rs. 21 in 1929-30 to Rs. 147 in 1950-51. The debt per indebted family increased from Rs. 66 in 1929-30 to Rs. 288 in 1950-51; that is, an increase of 333 per cent. In all 46.5 per cent families were having outstanding debt, among whom cultivators were 51.3 per cent, and non-cultivators 14.5 per cent. The average debt per family of both cultivators and non-cultivators was Rs. 131. On the other hand, average debt per indebted family was Rs. 283. The total outstanding debts of upper strata numbered 8963, out of which 4396 or 74.4 per cent were for one year or less, while debts of lower strata of cultivators numbered 11,076, out of which 7,693 or 69.5 per cent were for one year or less.

The following Table gives a picture of indebtedness among the four classes of cultivators in 1951-52:—

Table No. VI-1

Indebtedness among Cultivators

Class of Cultivators	Proportion of indebted families (per cent)	Share in total outstanding debt (per cent)	Average debt per family (Rs.)	Average debt per indebted family (Rs.)
Big	35.9	19.1	266	740
Large	46.4	43.4	209	447
Medium	52.0	32.1	126	242
Small	55.2	24.5	113	205

It can be noticed from the above Table that, 55.2 per cent families of small cultivators were indebted, which was highest among the four classes of cultivators. The large cultivators, however, shared largest outstanding debt, which was 43.4 per cent. Average debt per family as well as average debt per indebted family was highest among the big cultivators, being Rs. 266 and Rs. 740, respectively.

During 1951-52 the growth of debt showed slight upward trend in the District. The average growth of debt per family was Rs. 50, i.e., an increase of 61 per cent from the preceding year.

The amount of outstanding debt at any point of time is the result of a number of transactions that has taken place in the past. The outstanding debt at the end of a year is the net result of borrowings and repayments during the year adding to or subtracting from the total outstanding debt at the beginning of the years. About 43.4 per cent of the total families in the District borrowed money in 1951-52 (48.3 were cultivators and 10.7 per cent non-cultivators). The average amount of borrowing per family was Rs. 75 (Rs. 84 for cultivators and Rs. 19 for non-cultivators).

Borrowings among the four classes of cultivators in the District are given below.

Table No. VI-2

Borrowing among Cultivators

Class of Cultivators	Proportion of borrowing families (per cent)	Share in total borrowings (per cent)	Average amount borrowed per family (Rs.)
Big	43.5	19.1	150
Large	47.6	52.1	142
Medium	49.2	31.8	71
Small	48.0	16.1	42

The Table indicates that while the proportion of borrowing families was almost at par in all the four categories of cultivators, the largest share of total borrowing being 12 per cent was made by large cultivators. Big cultivators, however, borrowed highest amount, average per family being Rs. 150.

The purpose of borrowing (all families) as percentage to total borrowings was as under:—

Table No. VI-3

Purpose of Borrowing

Particulars	Total borrowings	Capital exp. on farm	Current exp. on farm	Non-farm business exp.	(Amount in Rs.)	
					Family exp.	Other purposes
Per family	75	24	06	01	42	03
		(32)	(6)	(0)	(56)	(4)
Per reporting Family	1168	190	80	560	131	207
		(16)	(7)	(48)	(11)	(18)

(Figures in brackets denote percentage of total borrowings).

The above Table shows that borrowing (per family) for productive expenditure was about 40 per cent, while non-productive expenditure was about 60 per cent. However, as far as reporting family was concerned, about one-half of the borrowings consisted of non-farm business expenditure, while borrowings for productive expenditure constituted only 23 per cent. Though, on an average, borrowings for meeting family expenditure per family was highest, i.e., 56 per cent, it constituted only 11 per cent in case of reporting families.

The Table given below gives an interesting picture of borrowings and outstandings in cash and kind for all cultivators.

Table No. VI-4

Borrowings and Outstandings among Cultivators

(Amount in Rs.)

Particulars	Proportion of families reporting (per cent)	Value of borrowings per family (per cent)	Value of borrowings per borrowing family (Rs.)	Value of outstandings per family (Rs.)	Proportion of value, borrowings in grain to borrowing in cash (per cent)	Proportion of value of out-standing grain to out-standing in cash (per cent)
Grain Loans	28.6	23	80	31	28.40	31.00
Cash Loans	45.8	81	177	100	—	—

As far as sources of finances for repayment were concerned, the report mentioned that current income, sale of assets and borrowings constituted 77.5, 16.1 and 5.0 per cent, respectively, of total repayments by all families. It shows that if bad years continued for a considerable time, a lot of difficulties may spring up for meeting even the current expenditure of the families. It may be noted in this context that the share of past saving remained almost negligible in repayment of old debts. The securities which they can offer remained immovable property.

This brief review of rural indebtedness in Bilaspur District reveals the fact that since most of the persons were living on a marginal subsistence level, their ability to save was almost negligible. The report mentioned that the gross

capital formation, which is the result of savings, for all families was only Rs. 71 per year (cultivators Rs. 81 and non-cultivators Rs. 3 only). The above description presents a case for strengthening the credit and financial institutions in this District so that hidden productive wealth of the District may be harnessed.

At this stage it should be remembered that since no enquiry and survey were undertaken either for agricultural labourers or factory labourers in the District, a complete and clear picture of indebtedness in its totality cannot emerge and one has to be contented with whatever information is available.

General Credit Facilities

An attempt has been made in the following few paragraphs to assess the present position and the role of various agencies supplying credit in rural areas to cultivators and non-cultivators as well as in other fields in Bilaspur District. The agencies which supply credit may be grouped into four categories: (1) Agriculturist money-lenders, Professional money-lenders and Commission Agents, or non-institutional private individual agencies, (2) Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks, (3) Joint Stock Banks and other organised financial institutions and (4) Government. According to the Rural Credit Enquiry Committee, 1954, the relative position of these four main groups in the District in 1950-51 was as follows:—

Table No. VI-5

General Credit Facilities

Particulars	(Amount in Rs.)		
	Families		Non-Cultivating families
	All families	Cultivating families	
A. Total Borrowings	75	84	19
B. Agencies	69	76	19
1. Money-lenders	(99.6)	(90.4)	(99.6)
2. Co-operative	6 (8.4)	07 (8.7)	— (0.4)
3. Commercial Banks	—	—	—
4. Government	1 (0.9)	01 (0.9)	—

(Percentages are given in brackets).

All these figures are self explanatory and give a fair idea of the hold of money-lenders. It is also to be remembered in this context that the rate of interest charged by them in comparison to other institutional credit agencies remained very high.

Money-lenders

As evident from the foregoing description, money-lenders had a dominant position in the rural economy of the District. As a matter of fact, money-lending was the main form of investment. Except government servants everybody who could save some amount took to money-lending. In towns, apart from professional money-lenders, money-lending was resorted to by some traders, shop-keepers, brokers, etc., who were able to save and lend. *Sowkars* used *hundis* and kept deposits at nominal rate of interest. The next step was the advent of the petty trader who was generally a Musalman, Banjara, Naik, Kalar or Bani-Pathan or Punjabi money-lender and dealer in ready-made clothes, in remote tracts. In most backward villages, *malguzars*, *gaontias* or village headmen and a few cultivators, besides professional money-lenders, advanced loan to those in need. New and struggling tenants of these villages obtained seed from the *gaontia*. This was generally given without interest, but the tenant was expected to work in the *gaontia's* home farm, almost as a servant. Sometimes, in place of interest some plots of land or some fields were made over to the *Sowkar*, who sowed them and appropriated the produce. Besides the mortgage of landed property with or without possession, there seemed in vogue the practice also of service-mortgage, particularly in lower and backward castes.

The situation has, however, changed during the last sixty years considerably. Only a few persons are now found to follow money-lending as a sole profession of life. Most of them combine with money-lending some other business, or cultivation. Money-lenders now include urban money-lenders, goldsmiths and dealers in ornaments who specialise in loans secured by pledge of ornaments, *mahajans*, shroffs and other persons dealing in *hundis*, merchants, commission agents and *dalals*, and the like.

In this District a large number of money-lenders were found indulging in certain questionable practices, especially with the agriculturists who are in the grip of poverty and starvation. In these circumstances it was found necessary to regulate the business of money-lenders by appropriate legislative measures, resulting in the enactments of the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934 with amendments in 1937, 1939 and 1940, the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders (Supplementary) Act, 1939, and the C.P. & Berar Protection of Debtors Act, 1937. Subsequently the Government described the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, 1939, in the Statute book. The Courts were given wide and far-reaching powers to give relief to the debtors.

Now, registration and licensing of money-lenders and maintenance of accounts in prescribed form was made compulsory. Furnishing of periodical statement of accounts to debtors and issue of receipts to them for every payment received was made necessary for the money-lenders. The Acts also specify the maximum rate of interest allowed on a secured and unsecured loan. It is 12 per cent simple and 10 per cent compound interest on secured loans and, 18 and 10 per cent on unsecured loans, respectively. The following Table shows the number of registered Money-lenders in the District.

Table No. VI-6

Registered Money-lenders in the District

Year	Name of Tahsils				
	Bilaspur	Sakti	Katghora	Mungeli	Janjgir
1950	81	1	Nil	41	—
1955	189	31	10	94	44
1960	209	36	7	107	59
1965	270	57	10	131	106
1966	247	62	9	106	104
1967	290	70	6	126	125
1968	268	81	12	113	146

Debt relief and money-lending legislation was viewed with alarm by private money-lenders. They took a gloomy picture of their risks and hesitated in providing loan facilities to cultivators. Thus, a vacuum was created in the rural credit structure. Government took a serious view of the situation and co-operative movement was intensified in the rural areas.

Co-operative Credit

The Co-operative credit movement in Bilaspur District was started in 1902 when the first society was registered even before the passing of the Co-operative Societies Act 1904. However, the movement gained momentum in the District with the establishment of Bilaspur Co-operative Central and Land Mortgage Bank in 1915, with a share capital of Rs. 5,000. At the beginning its business was only to finance credit societies. In 1916 the share capital of the Bank increased to Rs. 45,700 with 29 co-operative societies having a total membership of 5,621 affiliated to it. The Bank advanced loan to the tune of Rs. 23,782 to these societies in that year. By 1928 the share capital of the Bank increased to Rs. 68,860. The number of societies affiliated also increased

to 195 with a total membership of 3,119. By 1931-32 the number of societies affiliated to the Bank was 295 with a total membership of 4,647. The progress of the co-operative movement in the third decade of the century was so rapid and the working of the Bank was so efficient that the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, remarked that the Bilaspur Central Bank was to stand first for efficiency in the Central Provinces.¹

In 1940 its share capital, however, decreased to Rs. 59,336 in spite of the fact that the number of societies affiliated to it increased to 506 with a total membership of 7,964. The loans advanced to these societies, however, remained steady, being Rs. 2,26,293. However, by this time its functions enlarged and its working also extended to non-agricultural sphere. In 1942-43 it had under its jurisdiction 542 co-operative societies, including 15 non-agriculture societies, with a total membership of 9,371 (8,241 of agricultural societies and 1,130 of non-agricultural societies).

The co-operative movement in the District gained a new spirit in the post-Independence era. With the introduction of the Five Year Plans a new role has been assigned to these societies. The existing societies were converted into large size societies with a view to linking credit with marketing of agricultural produce belonging to the members.

All the co-operative credit societies may be grouped into (i) Central Bank, (ii) Land Mortgage Bank, (iii) Agricultural Credit Societies, and (iv) Non-agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies. The details regarding these co-operative credit agencies in the post-Independence period, particularly during the Plan period, has been dealt with in the following lines.

There is only one Central Co-operative Bank, namely, the Bilaspur Co-operative Central and Land Mortgage Bank, which is working since 1915. The Sakti Central Bank (Tahsil Bank) was amalgamated with Bilaspur Co-operative Central and Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., and thus, the area of operation of the Bank extended over the entire District of Bilaspur. Before the Plan era, there were only six branches of the Bank at Janjgir, Pendra Road, Mungeli, Akaltara, Champa and Bilaspur. By the end of Second Plan, six more branches at Katghora Sheorinarayan, Takhatpur, Kargi road, Sakti and Lormi were established. The movement got momentum during the Third Plan period, when 16 branches at Korba, Pandaria, Balha, Pali, Masturi, Dabhra, Maswahi, Patanpur, Pamgarh, Baloda, Pandi Uprora, Patharia, Jaijaipur, Malkhareda, Kartala, and Loharsi were established. The District was, thus, served with 28 branches of the Bank, with its headquarters at Bilaspur, by the end of June, 1967.

1. C.P. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, Appendices, Vol. II, p. 265.

The details of working of the Bank, as given in appendix, shows the significance of the Bank in catering to the credit needs of the District. Between the period from 1951-52, i.e., the beginning of the Plan era and 1965-66, i.e., the completion of Third Plan, the Share Capital and the Working Capital of the Bank had increased from Rs. 1.38 lakhs and Rs. 23.61 lakhs to Rs. 30.42 lakhs and Rs. 288.39 lakhs, respectively. Similarly, deposits of the Bank increased from a meagre sum of Rs. 14.64 lakhs in 1951-52 to Rs. 101.61 lakhs in 1965-66. In 1951-52 only Rs. 19.99 lakhs were distributed as loans, while the amount touched Rs. 206.25 lakhs in 1965-66. However, the burden of outstanding loans against the societies also increased from Rs. 10.92 lakhs in 1951-52 to Rs. 209.92 lakhs in 1965-66. By the end of June 1967 the number of societies affiliated to the Bank was 715. The share capital, working capital, deposits, and loans given were Rs. 33,05,388, Rs. 3,04,93,414, Rs. 98,80,833 and Rs. 2,21,89,289, respectively, during the same period. The loans outstanding against the societies amounted to Rs. 2,70,47,846 by the end of June 1967.

The Bank continued to borrow short-term loans for agricultural operations from the Reserve Bank of India and the State Co-operative Bank. The general banking transactions are also being undertaken by the Bank. The Bank extended financial assistance to small-scale industries in the District to the tune of 54,453, Rs. 1,29,191, Rs. 1,13,707, Rs. 2,81,861, and Rs. 3,53,442, respectively, during the years from 1961-62 to 1965-66. However, advances against Warehouse Receipts remained nil during this period. The Bank had ceased to provide long-term loans to agriculturists with the establishment of a separate Land Mortgage Bank on the 1st of April, 1963.

During 1967-68 and 1968-69 the Bank showed sufficient progress in all respects. A detailed statement regarding the working and financial position of the Bank is given below:—

Table No. VI-7

Central Co-operative Bank at a Glance 1967-69

S. No.	Particulars	(Amount in lakh Rs.)	
		As on	
		(30.6.68)	(30.6.69)
1.	No. of Branches	28	28
2.	No. of Credit Societies;	714	716
	Non-Credit Societies	56	58
3.	Members in Societies	1,51,632	1,53,951
4.	Share Capital of the Bank	38.15	45.36

5. (A) Reserve fund of the Bank	6.70	3.63
(B) Other Reserves	7.39	11.33
6. Reserve Funds of Societies	11.32	11.75
7. Deposits of the Bank	113.59	114.31
8. Deposits of Credit Societies	34.10	37.01
9. Working Capital	318.32	341.12
10. Total loan outstanding against socs.	272.37	293.12
11. Total loans outstanding against members	297.05	326.22
12. Advances:—		
Agriculture loans to Credit Societies	232.09	249.10
Non-Agricultural loans to Industrial and other Societies	23.30	40.70

Prior to the registration and working of this Bank, the long-term financing was done by the Land Mortgage Bank section of the Bilaspur District Co-operative Central and Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., Bilaspur. The Bank started its working from the 1st April, 1963. The area of operation of this Bank is the whole of Bilaspur District with headquarters at Bilaspur. The long-term loans are provided by the Bank on the mortgage of land for expenditure of capital and permanent nature to be incurred primarily on agricultural operations, at the rate of interest of 9 per cent per annum. A statement regarding the working and financial position of the Bank from 1962-63 to 1969-70 is given below.

Table No. VI-8

Working of the Bilaspur District Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank

Year	Membership	Share Capital	(Amount in Rs.)
			Working Capital
1962-63	263	6,590	1,13,387
1963-64	3,381	70,763	14,41,838
1964-65	5,205	1,13,852	28,35,800
1965-66	7,597	1,69,420	42,00,500
1966-67	10,017	2,20,097	43,12,959
1967-68	13,565	2,91,615	55,13,097
1968-69	15,870	3,51,075	64,84,945
1969-70	17,530	3,97,643	74,04,564

The statistics given above reveal that in a short span of separate existence, the Land Mortgage Bank of the District has shown sufficient progress in its working and that the needs of the long-term financing of agricultural sector would be fulfilled by the Bank.

Agricultural Credit Societies

These societies raise the necessary funds through (1) issue of shares (2) acceptance of fixed and saving deposits from their members and non-members and (3) loans from the district central financing agencies. The societies provide short-term and mid-term finance to cultivators. Most of the advances sanctioned are for productive purposes. Maximum borrowing limit of each member is generally fixed at ten times the amount of shares standing at his credit in the society. The position of these societies may be summarised as under:—

Table No. VI-9

Agricultural Credit Societies in the District

(Amount in Rs.)				
Year	No. of Societies	Membership	Share Capital	Working Capital
1962-63	1,693	95,165	20,50,339	1,93,24,748
1963-64	867	1,09,669	24,33,510	2,16,20,851
1964-65	867	1,20,468	27,04,693	2,44,03,890
1965-66	867	1,40,000	37,51,116	2,94,24,204
1966-67	718	1,45,204	45,75,579	3,67,75,967
1967-68	715	1,51,622	53,55,260	3,81,44,812
1968-69	715	1,53,951	61,77,283	4,22,00,018
1969-70	715	1,56,113	69,06,446	4,90,67,428

The position of non-agricultural credit societies is as under:—

Table No. VI-10

Non-Agricultural Credit Societies in the District

(Amount in Rs.)				
Year	No. of Societies	Membership	Share Capital	Working Capital
1962-63	8	1,196	2,16,090	4,25,512
1963-64	6	991	1,65,033	4,34,407
1964-65	6	1,006	1,96,938	4,24,288
1965-66	6	1,028	1,96,689	4,35,090
1966-67	6	1,099	1,95,701	4,60,711

Joint Stock Banks

The commercial banks, which form the main component of modern banking structure, specialise only in certain phases of economic activities, because of their structure, method of business, etc. Their interest in agricultural credit is not so much in the field of production as in marketing of agricultural produce. Thus, the location of commercial banks is necessarily guided by the large concentration of places of agricultural produce, industry and trade, which are mainly the characteristics of urban centres.

The first commercial bank office to be opened in the District was a branch of Laxmi Bank, Akola, established at Bilaspur in 1942, which later went into liquidation. The second Bank in succession to open a branch was the Central Bank of India, which established its branch at Bilaspur in 1945. The Co-operative Central Bank also transacted commercial and banking business in the District during the pre-Independence period. However, the rate of borrowing from these banks remained negligible. In 1950-51 among cultivators the average borrowing from commercial banks for agricultural purposes was only Rs. 5.50 per family, and its percentage to total borrowings in the District was only 6.8 per cent per family.¹ There were no borrowings for short-term, and the entire borrowings from commercial banks were for long-term agricultural purpose. Borrowings for other purposes remained nil. The rate of interest charged by these commercial banks was 3½ to 7 per cent and cent per cent debts were secured by immovable properties.²

In the post-Independence period, Punjab National Bank and State Bank of India opened their branches at Bilaspur in 1954 and 1957, respectively. Later the State Bank of India started its branch-office and pay-office at Janjgir and Mungeli. Thus, the District was being served by three commercial banks with their five branches in the District at the close of 1966. It meant that there was only one branch for a population of about for lakhs in the District.

The total volume of business of all the banks in a consolidated form as on 31st December, 1966, is as follows:—

(In lakhs Rs.)		
Place	Deposits	Advances
Madhya Pradesh	87.91	58.83
Bilaspur District	1.90	57
Bilaspur	1.41	51

1. All India Rural Credit Survey Committee Report, 1929-30, pp. 654-655.

2. *ibid.* p. 658.

Government Finance

The uncertain and uneven rainfall remained the dominating factor in the economy of the District. According to the old District Gazetteer there were no regular reports of famine existing prior to 1865-66, but from oral enquiries made in 1867 it was reported that in 1828, failure of crops had occurred. In 1845, 1868-69 and 1886-1887 the rains were inadequate. There were heavy and prolonged rains in 1877, 1894 and 1896-97. Since the second famine of 1900, the uncertainty of monsoon became a regular feature of the agricultural economy of the District. All this led the Government to come forward to the rescue of cultivators. The loans provided by Government for agricultural improvements were chiefly directed toward, the construction of tanks and field-embankments. Thus a sum of Rs. 14,000 was released between 1874 and 1891, while that between 1891 and 1896 amounted to a little less than Rs. 11,000. During the following two years, which covered the famine of 1897, Rs. 1.25 lakhs were advanced without interest and subject to remission of one fourth of the principal. In the next famine year of 1900, it was found that the series of bad years had left them so heavily involved that the proprietors were not in a position to incur any fresh obligations, a large number of village works being undertaken with Government funds. An amount of Rs. 1.96 lakhs was advanced under the Acts and amounts of Rs. 1.26 lakhs and Rs. 13,000 as principal and interest, respectively, were recovered.

The advance made under the Agriculturists Loans Act remained short of requirements upto the period of the famine of 1897, by about Rs. 1.20 lakhs. But in 1900-01 a sum of Rs. 5.5 lakhs was advanced free of interest. Again in 1902-03 and 1905-06, amounts of Rs. 1.29 lakhs and Rs. 1.01 lakhs, respectively, were advanced. The total amount of loans made under the Act from 1888 to 1906 was Rs. 10.40 lakhs, of which Rs. 7.35 lakhs were recovered and Rs. 1.91 lakhs remitted. The bulk of the loans were given without interest, only a sum of Rs. 23,000 having been received as interest.

With the inception of Co-operative movement in the District in the second decade of the present century, the responsibility of financing agriculturists has been undertaken by the Central Co-operative Bank, on behalf of the Government. The financial assistance provided by the Government under various schemes and Acts in the District from 1950-51 to 1966-67 is given in the Appendix.

This short and descriptive account of the main purveyors of credit in the District, including Government efforts, clearly reveals the fact that looking to the credit needs in the field of production and distribution during the gestation period of their operation, the assistance given remained insufficient.

Small Saving Schemes

The organisation attracting and mobilising the small savings in the District in the main is the Post-Office Saving Schemes in various forms such as (1) Post-Office Saving Bank Account, (2) 12 Year National Plan Certificates, (3) 10 Year Treasury Savings Deposits, (4) 15 Year Annuity Certificates, and (5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

The gross and net deposits in Post-Office Schemes in the District for the years from 1962-63 to 1969-70 are given below.

Table No. VI-11

Small Saving Schemes in the District

(Amount in Rs.)

Year	Gross Deposits	Net Deposits
1963-64	50,76,375 (64,16,087)	11,95,609 (5,51,448)
1964-65	50,63,870 (50,76,375)	6,17,375 (11,95,609)
1965-66	58,52,131 (50,63,870)	8,28,201 (6,17,375)
1966-67	56,12,466 (53,52,131)	1,56,644 (8,28,201)
1967-68	64,74,183 (56,12,466)	76,88,234 (1,56,144)
1968-69	70,36,179 (64,74,183)	9,06,210 (7,38,334)
1969-70	78,35,644	9,62,296

Note:—(The figures given in brackets are those of Reserve Bank of India, rest are from Head Post Office).

The net small savings per capita at the 1961 population rate in the District, thus, appears to be very low during all these years. This indicates the fact that the ability to save is conspicuous by its absence and reflects upon the subsistence level of living of the masses in the District.

Life Insurance

The other important source of attracting the savings of general public is Life Insurance policies. Life Insurance Corporation of India opened its branch in Bilaspur only in August, 1955. The following table gives the business completed and number of policies issued by the Life Insurance Corporation since 1958.

Table No. VI-12

Life Insurance Business in the District

Year	Business Completed (Rs.)	No. of New Policies issued	Amount of average policy issued (Rs.)
1958	50,70,200	600	8,450
1959	51,77,000	1708	4,810
1960	55,19,250	3293	1,673
1961	82,95,750	2107	3,950
1962	87,57,400	2073	4,170
1963-64	1,12,06,500	2517	4,482
1964-65	1,21,80,250	2298	5,396
1965-66	1,41,48,000	2540	5,659
1966-67	1,38,05,250	2164	6,275
1967-68	1,47,03,750	1969	7,464
1968-69	1,38,28,000	1972	6,505
1969-70	1,26,92,000	1950	6,509

The Life Insurance Corporation of India has also undertaken now fire, marine, and other general insurance business with effect from 1st April, 1964. The general insurance companies operating in the District are New India Assurance Company, Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company, Hindustan General Insurance Co., Hindustan Ideal Insurance Co., and Jupiter General Insurance Company. The yearly income by way of premium of the companies was about Rs. 2 lakhs in 1966-67. Most of these companies operated in the District through their Inspectors, their headquarters being at Raipur.

Currency and Coinage

There is no available record to throw light on the local currency or coinage when the region was ceded to British India. It seems that coins prevalent in British territories were extended to this region also. Only the standard currency prevailed in the District. Decimal system of currency is in operation since 1957, and all transactions are now being made in new currency.

Trade

In the pre-Independence period (particularly upto 1931) most of the transactions were carried on in grain in this District, which shows that the economic system had emerged only from the state of barter. Agricultural labourers were paid in grain, and beyond sale and purchase of certain articles

of clothing and jewellery, there were few purposes for which money was used. Peasants kept with them sufficient supply of grain for their food and other requirements, and usually sold grain in small quantities to the local petty traders when money was required. In other words, marketable surplus of their produce was negligible and, thus, exchange economy was insignificant. It is not possible to give the accurate trade figures, because a very large proportion of the grain that left the District was exported from stations outside the District limits. However, during this period, the trade of the District consisted in the outflow or export of the agricultural produce, chiefly rice, wheat and oil seeds, and the inflow or imports of articles required as a consequence of Five Year Plan projects.

The Census statistics of 1951 and 1961 reveal that Trade and Commerce provided a primary source of livelihood to 11,326, and 18,497, persons, respectively. It means in the decade of 1951-1961, trading and commercial activities increased by 64 per cent. The number of persons engaged in wholesale trade, retail trade, and miscellaneous trade and commercial activities in 1961 increased to 876, 16,979, and 642, respectively. The share of this activity in the occupational pattern of livelihood in the District remained very insignificant, being less than 1.6 per cent of the total workers in the District.

Since the individual economic entity of the District is fast disappearing with the rapid increase in the means of transport and communications, particularly of road transportation, it is difficult to mention in absolute terms the outflow or exports and inflow or imports of the commodities from and to the District. However, the following tables show the outward and inward transmission of some important commodities at the railway station of Bilaspur during the years 1964-65 and 1965-66.

Table No. VI-13

Exports of Important Commodities from Bilaspur Railway Station

Names of principal commodities exported	1964-65	1965-66
	Weight in Qtls.	Weight in Qtls.
1	2	3
Bones	563	165
Bidi leaves	4,050	4,087
Konda	1,498	915
Gram and pulses	1,618	785
Rice	9,464	11,421

Hides	94	70
Lac	268	742
Kerosene oil	170	109
Other oil	238	556
Oil-cake	521	624
Dry battery	260	281
Petrol	485	98
Timber	370	384
Wheat	1,863	10,222
Mahua leaves	905	387
Other goods	4,838	6,287

Table No. VI-14

Imports of Important Commodities on Bilaspur Railway Station

Names of principal commodities imported 1	1964-65	1964-66
	Weight in Qtls. 2	Weight in Qtls. 3
Onions	2,552	2,416
Coconuts	901	779
Dry Bettery	302	452
Flour and Atta	1,391	1,573
Potatoes	3,199	3,864
Gram and pulses	4,301	2,506
Rice	2,381	2,831
Wheat	1,464	4,954
Cement	13,536	9,342
Jaggery	304	212
Kerosene oil	4,821	1,776
Other oils	796	5,341
Groundnut oil	2,887	2,412
Petrol	4,161	6,902
Salt	1,571	1,846
Soda	1,312	330
Ammonium sulphate	2,381	2,091
Sugar	1,856	3,146
Timber	661	1,562
Other goods	22,312	26,806

Trade Centres.

Though efforts were made to regulate the business transacted at important *mandis* or markets, results were not very effective. The District had only one regulated *mandi* till 1966-67.¹ A bird's eye-view of the arrivals in the municipal area of important places in the District namely, Bilaspur, Champa, Mungeli and Janjgir, for the years from 1956-57 to 1965-66 as given in Appendix show the quantity of marketable surplus of produce of the District to a certain extent. It shows that a very insignificant portion of total produce reaches the regulated *mandis* and still most of the produce passes through village or town traders and private agencies.

The important wholesale and retail market centres of the District are Sakti, Baradur, Champa, Naila, Akaltara, Bilaspur, Kota, Janjgir, Jairamnagar, Chakrabhata, Ganyari, Mungeli, Takhatpur, Katghora, Korba, and Pendra Road.

Fairs

Fairs and *melas* play an important role in business transactions. Though the District has no fair of all-India or State-wide importance, quite a good number of them are being held in the District. The names of the important *melas* and fairs held in the District alongwith other details are given in Appendix.

Co-operative Marketing

It is increasingly recognised that the co-operative form of organisation can play a significant and predominant role in improving the system of agricultural marketing. The importance of co-operative agency has assumed significance in view of the decision of the Government to undertake large programme of procurement of foodgrains and putting emergency levy on producers suitably graded to the size of holdings.

Co-operative marketing is of recent origin in the District. Till the end of the First Five Year Plan it did not exist in the true sense of the term. It was only during the Second Plan period that the organisation of marketing societies was taken in hand and since then remarkable progress has taken place in the sphere of co-operative marketing. The society was established in the District as a result of the report of Rural Credit Survey Committee in 1957. By the end of 1966-67, there were eleven co-operative marketing societies including the one organised under special multi-purpose tribal block scheme. The name, date of establishment, and area of operation of these marketing societies are given in Appendix.

1. According to Madhya Pradesh Krishi Upaj Mandi Adhiniyam, 1960, the regulated *mandis* at Bilaspur, Pendra Road, Kota, Sakti, Naila and Champa were proposed in the District in 1967.

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1. According to Madhya Pradesh Krishi Upaj Mandi Adhiniyam, 1960, the regulated *mandis* at Bilaspur, Pendra Road, Kota, Sakti, Naila and Champa were proposed in the District in 1967.

These marketing societies advance pledge loans to the members to the tune of 75 per cent of the market price of their produce. They also arrange to sell the produce of their members at better prices. The financial assistance extended to these societies for different purposes in the initial period of development, i.e., from 1957-58 to 1961-62 are given in Appendix.

These societies deal mainly in food-grains, pesticides and insecticides, agricultural implements, hardware, kerosene oil, and *kirana* articles. Some of them are also distributing fertilisers on behalf of the Apex Marketing Society, Jabalpur.

Warehousing

A branch of the Madhya Pradesh Warehousing Corporation was established in this District at Janjgir on 10th October, 1963. The details of total deposits of different commodities for the years from 1963 to 1967 are given in Appendix. On production of their Warehouse Receipts the agriculturists and businessmen can take loans to the extent of 70 to 75 per cent from the commercial banks. The amount of loan demanded against Warehouse Receipts is, however, insignificant and warehouse is resorted to only as a safe godown.

State Trading

Wheat was procured by the District Marketing Officer, Bilaspur on behalf of the State Government at the ratio and rate fixed by the Government. It was distributed through the fair price shops on ration cards against district allotment, duly approved by the Director of Food and Civil Supplies.

Rice was, however, procured by the Central Food Department against 100 per cent levy scheme and was distributed against the allotment of the district, sanctioned by the Director of Food and Civil Supplies, in the same manner as in the case of wheat. Price of paddy, rice, wheat and gram were fixed, in 1966 under the Madhya Pradesh Paddy (Price Control) Order, 1965.

Wheat was procured at Mungeli tahsil only against Madhya Pradesh Wheat Levy Order, 1955. The target was 5572 quintals against the procured 1599 quintals. No jwar was procured in this District. The retail rate of jwar to the consumers was Rs. 60 per quintal at Bilaspur and Rs. 59 per quintal at other centres of the District. Paddy was procured through the Madhya Pradesh State Government Marketing Society. The procurement of paddy against levy during the year 1965-66 was 1,64,000 quintals.

In 1966-67 the number of fair price shops in each tahsil was as under:—

Bilaspur	—	119
Janjgir	—	46

Mungeli	—	20
Sakti	—	60
Katghora	—	52

There are seven Government godowns in the District at Bilaspur, Jairamnagar, Akaltara, Naila, Champa, Baraduar, and Bilha, and a temporary godown at Mungeli. Two private godowns at Sakti and Pendra Road were also used for storing the procured grain.

The uniform rationing system was introduced in Bilaspur and Korba, and approximately 35,000 and 3 000 ration cards were issued, respectively. The quantum of ration per unit was fixed as 3 kg. rice and 5 kg. wheat per month.

Merchants' and Consumers' Associations and Labour Organisations for Dissemination of Trade News

In this District people have formed associations for their routine working. These associations are Grain Merchants' Association, Kirana Merchants' Association, Cloth Merchants' Association, etc. But these are not registered. As far as Consumers' Associations are concerned, the District is being served by a Consumers' Co-operative Whole-Sale Stores at Bilaspur, with a total membership of 1,158 in 1966-67. In the same year the share capital and the working capital of the Stores was Rs. 1,82,518, and Rs. 4,97,816, respectively. The number of Primary Co-operative Consumers Stores, which was only 15 with 1400 members and Rs. 34,134 as share capital in 1962-63, rose to 27 in number with 3807 members, Rs. 2,09,980 as share capital, and Rs. 2,72,650 as working capital. The District suffers yet from the lack of an organ or newspaper for dissemination of trade news.

Weights and Measures

There were amazing differences in the local weights and measures in Bilaspur District. The measures, such as the *mani*, *kuro*, *khandi* and *kaiha* had different significance in different villages. It was found that these measures varied in size and weight from one village to another. Such variations in weights and measures from village to village and from market to market were bound to prejudice the interests of sellers and to hamper trade and commerce.

According to Bilaspur District Gazetteer of 1910, the following scale of measures was employed in grain transactions in the District:—

Chauthia	—	18½ Chittaks
Kaiha	—	4 Chauthia or 4 seers 9 chittaks (about 9½ lbs.)

* <i>Khandi</i>	— 20 <i>Kathas</i> (about 2½ maunds)
<i>Gara</i>	— 20 <i>Khandis</i>

In Bilaspur town grain was sold by weights. The wages of farm servants were paid by a smaller measure, known as the *Chaltua* or *bhutia katha*. In Chandarpur, Sambalpur measure of *tanbi* was used in 1910 which had a capacity of 2 seers. The *Khandi* contained 20 *tambi* and was equivalent to Government maund.

The above equivalents in weight were for husked rice. The varying quantities of other grains equal to a *katha* measure are given as follows from Carey's Raipur Settlement Report:—

	Seers	Chittaks
Unhusked rice	3	4
Wheat	4	5
Gram	4	6
Til	3	11
Husked Kodon	3	9
Juar	4	0

The ordinary *katha* thus contained 4 seers 9 *chittaks* of husked rice and 3 seers 4 *chittaks* of *dhan* or seed rice. A *khandi* of *dhan* gave 10½ *kathas* of husked rice and the difference in measurement was about 50 per cent. But as shown above a *khandi* of *dhan* weighed 65 seers or 130 lbs. at 3 seers a *chittaks* per *katha*. It gave 10½ *katha* of husked rice, that was nearly 48 seers 9 *chittaks* per *katha*. The loss in weight was therefore 26 per cent.

Barter of lac for rice, salt and gur was common in remote villages. In this area, the *Gondi Kos* measured from 2½ to 3 miles and the Government *Kos* of 2 miles was known as the *Sarkari Kos*. Thus no uniform weights and measures were in use in this District.

This problem was brought to the notice of Government and the provincial Legislative Council. Though Weights and Measures Act, 1878 was in force in the area, their uniform application was made more effective with the introduction of Weights and Measures of Capacities Act (II of 1928). This Act laid down the units of weights and measures, and empowered the Government to secure standardization by notifying areas for the purpose of this Act. Accordingly, the primary standard of weight was a *seer*, a weight in metal, when weighing in vacuum 14,400 grains as determined under section 14 of the Weights and Measures Act, 1878. The multiples and sub-multiples of primary standards of weights were as under:—

1 Man	— 40 Seers or Sers
1 Ser	— 16 Chhitaks
1 Chhitak	— 5 Tolas
1 Tola	— 12 Mashas
1 Masha	— 3 Rattees

The multiples of dry measures of Capacity were Kuree, Paili, Tambi, Chouki and Chutki.

A landmark in the history of weights and measures was, however, made with the introduction of Madhya Pradesh Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, in 1959. The Provisions of the said Act in respect of "unit 1.4 of mass" (metric weights) were made applicable in this District from Ist April, 1961 and was made compulsory from Ist April, 1962. In the same manner, Metric Measures of Length were introduced and were made compulsory from Ist April, 1962. The Metric Capacity Measures (Conical and cylindrical *lota*) were introduced with effect from Ist April, 1962 and their use was made compulsory on Ist April, 1963. Provisions of the Act in respect of volume and area were introduced in the District from Ist October, 1962, with a transitional period of six months, whereafter both these units were made compulsory from Ist April, 1963, excluding transaction regarding land in case of the unit of area. The Seer, the Yard and the Seer for liquid measure were replaced by the kilogram, metre, and litre. In the following table, dry measures and their equivalents given approximately are specially in use in grain particularly in rice called *luchai*:—

Table No. VI-15

Dry Measures and their Equivalents

Dry measures	In old weights (Approx)	In new or metric weights (Approx)
Kuree	2 Seers and 7½ chhataks or 2½ Seers App.	2 kg. and 27 gram. 940 g.
Paili	16 chhatkas	
Tambi	1 Seer and 13 chhataks	1 kg. and 754 g.
Chouki	1 Seer and 1½ chhataks	1 kg and 25 g.
Chutki	6 Tolas	69 g.

The use of all the old weights and measures has been stopped throughout the District. The majority of the traders in the town area are making all their transactions in metric weights only. Though the masses are illiterate, they have adopted the system in toto from the very beginning without the help of conversion. The old dry measures are vanishing from the market speedily. The switch-over to metric system is a smooth one and the reaction of the public in this area is satisfactory. The traders have understood the Act and Rules, and they produce all their weights and measure instruments for the periodical reverification and stamping when due to the authorities concerned.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Ancient Routes and Highways

In the ancient period Bilaspur was a part of *Dakshina* or Southern Kosala. The fact that the celebrated Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang had visited southern Kosala in the middle of 7th century A.D. and that he had observed an old monastery with an Asokan tope¹ there establishes the fact that this region must have been connected by some means with other regions. The discovery of four square copper coins from the Mahanadi river at Bilaspur (a village of the District) provides yet another proof to establish the existence of the Southern Kosala.² During the reign of the Satkarni or Satavahana rulers, the people of Bilaspur might have carried a maritime trade with foreign countries, especially with Rome. Some Roman coins of gold have been found in numbers in various parts of the District and also a few copper Kusan coins, suggesting the Kusan rule over this region.³

History of Road Development

The expression 'road' in its true meaning is meant to represent a metalled highway, constantly and completely open at all seasons for purposes of traffic. If the word 'road' is taken in the above sense then there did not exist any road in the District in 1860. However, there were a number of tracks which acted as trade channels guiding the directions of trade.

Till 1868 there were five main traffic routes in the District. Three out of these routes were rugged, inaccessible and quite unfit for wheeled carriage, and trade was carried on by masses of track-bullocks during six months of the year. The remaining two routes were leading in Northern direction, one going from the Chhattisgarh Plain through Kend Pendra and Sohagpur to Rewa and the other through Laps, Churi Uprora and Surguja to Mirzapur. At that time both these routes were nothing more than cart tracks passing across the hills and through jungles along which travellers could not dare to move except in groups. They traversed through a difficult area extended over a great length. The importance of the route diminished much owing to the

1. Thomas Walters, *On Yuan Chawan's Travels in India*, Volume I, pp. 200-201.

2. *Indian Archaeology, A Review*, 1955-56, p. 72.

3. *Utkirna Lekh*, p. 3.

Railway line from Jabalpur, and the direction of the trade was diverted towards the west. At that time a strong necessity was being felt for the construction of a road from the plains of Chhattisgarh to Jabalpur via Mandla. The moving 'Banzaras' followed a line of routes much resembling the northern routes though it was a circuitous track over hills and valleys intersected by numerous streams. This hilly and difficult country extended over a distance of about hundred miles. It was felt most urgent that if this length, even if not metalled, were properly levelled throughout its length, with the *ghats* properly sloped and the small streams bridged, so as to allow passage of cart traffic, an outlet could be afforded for the surplus produce of this District. But much progress in this direction could not be achieved owing to the paucity of Local Funds. Whatever was possible to achieve with the meagre resources was done in the District and the Chilpee *Ghat* which was the first heavy ascent from the plain was opened out and the road was properly made and aligned. Though efforts were made whole-heartedly, the fact remained that comparatively little was achieved till 1868 for creating a new opening for the produce of the District.

The remaining two routes led to Sambalpur and Raipur. The expenditure on all repairs and improvements was met by Local Funds. The roads were aligned throughout and raised in all difficult places and some drain bridges had also been, at the same time, constructed.

But during the period 1868-1892 the lines of communication had been considerably improved. Before the railway line was extended to this District, the traffic was carried on (as indicated in the previous pages) by the following routes.

(2) The southern road from Bilaspur to Raipur via Chaukuri and Nandghat which ran for a distance of 31 miles in this District and terminated at Nandghat on the Sheona river.

(2) The western road from Bilaspur to Mandla which passed through Mungeli tahsil and the former Kawardha feudatory state.

(3) The road from Mungeli to Raipur via Nandghat, meeting route No. (1) at Nandghat.

(4) The northern road from Bilaspur to the former Rewa state and Mirzapur which passed through the village of Ratnapur Katghora and over the Komoghat.

(5) The eastern road from Bilaspur to Sambalpur passing through Seorinarain.

(6) The south-western road from Seorinarain to Raipur direct.

In addition, several fair weather roads were also made from Bilaspur¹ to Baloda Bazar passing through the Kandra Mopka groups.² There was a road from Gariyari to Pandaria passing through the Lorme taluka and another from Bilaspur to Korba. A fair weather road led to the south of the Mahanadi traversing the Katangi, Bilaigarh and Bhatgaon Zamindari and the Tundra group of villages connecting the Sarsiwan group of Seorinarain tahsil. Another road crossing the Hasdeo near Karnod, connected the town of Seorinarain with the former Sakti state.

At the same time the District was opened on three sides by the former Bengal Nagpur Railway and Katni-Umaria railway lines. "Since the completion of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway, shortly after the expiry of the settlement the district has been placed in a particularly favourable position for export, it being now connected by rail with Calcutta and Bombay by the main line, and with the northern India by the Katni-Bilaspur extension. The 20 years during which the Settlement of 1868 lasted thus saw a considerable rise in the price of produce in the District, and a great increase in the prosperity of the people and there can be no doubt that with the increased facilities for transport now available, there will be a rapid and steady expansion of trade".³

By 1908 Bilaspur town was connected by a metalled road with Mungeli and by gravelled roads with Seorinarain, Raipur and Ratanpur. The feeder roads were those from Akaltara to Baloda and Ramgarh and from Champa to Bamitidihi. The northern zamindaris were till then badly provided with roads barely passable for carts, and with the exception of timber, produce was generally transported on pack-bullocks. The total length of metalled roads in the District was 27 miles and of unmetalled roads 275 miles; and the annual expenditure on maintenance was Rs. 38,000. The Public Works Department was in charge of 256 miles of roads and the District Council, 45 miles. There were avenues of trees on 280 miles.⁴

By 1910 the old trunk routes had been superseded by the railway and some of them were little more than grass-grown tracks. But they are marked by some of the finest avenues of trees to be found in the Province. As already mentioned, at the Settlement of 1868, traffic followed five principal routes, of which three were rugged and inaccessible, quite unfit for wheeled carriage and only admitting export or import by means of pack-bullocks during six months of the year.

1. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1886-1890, p. 17.

2. *ibid.* p. 2.

3. *ibid.*

4. *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. VIII, p. 230.

Of these two were northern routes, one leading from the Chhattisgarh plain through Kenda Pendra and Sohagpur to Rewa, and the other through Lapha, Chhuri, Uprora and Surguja to Mirzapur. Both these routes were, for a great portion of their length, simply tracks across the hills and through the jungles, along which few traders or travellers ventured alone. The place of the former was by then taken by the Katni-Bilaspur Railway. The first part of the Mirzapur road was the tract between Bilaspur and Ratanpur, maintained as a gravelled road and works for metalling it were being contemplated. The road ran along the bank of the Arpa river and was famous for its scenery and avenues. Beyond Ratanpur the road could be called a village track. There were plans to gravel the 34 miles length from Ratanpur to Chhuri. Ratanpur was formerly an emporium for the forest produce of the north of the District, but this is now taken to Ghutku station.

The third of the old tracks was that from Bilaspur to Mandla through Mungeli, Setganga, Kawardha and Borla. By 1910 a gravelled road was made for 40 miles from Bilaspur to Setganga and this was gradually being metalled. The road crossed numerous streams, e.g. the Ghonga, Nerbudda, Maniari and Agar, all of which were unbridged and caused considerable difficulty for passage of carts in the rains. Double ferry-boats were provided there which had the capacity to carry carts and horses across the river in the heaviest floods. There was a village track running from Setganga to Kawardha border (a distance of 14 miles) which was little used except for droves of cattle coming from Saugor and Damoh. The other two main routes were those leading to Sambalpur and Raipur. The Sambalpur road was little used, traffic being taken by feeder-roads to Akaltara and Champa stations. The southern road to Raipur through Nandghat was superseded by the railway which ran parallel to it only a few miles from it. The road was gravelled and had a length of 20.50 miles in the District.

"The total length of metalled roads consist only of short lengths on the Bilaspur-Mungeli and other roads and of a few railway feeders. The Public Works Department are in charge of 219 miles of road and the District Council the remainder. The maintenance of Public Works Department roads costs Rs. 33,000 and of those under the District Council about Rs. 3000".¹

By 1914, the District headquarters town of Bilaspur became the centre of a net-work of roads in different directions.

(1) The Bilaspur-Mungeli-Setganga road which ran for about 40 miles—gravelled throughout and metalled for more than half its length.

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 181.

(2) Bilaspur-Raipur road which proceeded further to Durg and Rajnandgaon, ultimately reaching Nagpur—gravelled throughout, running more or less parallel to the railway.

(3) The road from Bilaspur to Seorinarayan—gravelled throughout its length and metalled in places, one branch proceeding as an aligned fair-weather road along the left bank of the Mahanadi through the south of Janjgir tahsil and onwards to Sambalpur, and the other crossing the Mahanadi, proceeding to Sambalpur by another route through the eastern Zamindaris of Raipur district.

From the main Bilaspur-Sambalpur road at Setganga, where it entered the Pandaria Zamindari, another gravelled road with a length of about 10 miles reached Pandaria. At Pandaria it met another gravelled and partially metalled road which ran from Kota (Kargi Road) on the Katni Branch of the Bengal Nagpur Railway, through the north-west of Bilaspur tahsil and the north of Mungeli tahsil and then proceeded onwards via Khairagarh and Chhuikhadan to Dongargarh which was a railway station. The extreme south-west corner of Bemetara tahsil was traversed by a road leading from Kawardha to Raipur from which feeder road ran to Durg and Rajnandgaon stations.

From Mungeli another gravelled and metalled road went southwards to the station on the main line of the railway at Bhatapara (in Raipur district). The road had a length of 32 miles and left the area of Bemetara tahsil at Nandghat where there was a ford over the Sheonath where it crossed Bilaspur-Raipur road. From Bilaspur again another road, mostly metalled, ran northwards for a length of 16 miles to Ratanpur, beyond which point it continued as a fair-weather track through Kenda to Pendra. From the railway at Akaltara went two feeder roads having a length of nine miles and gravelled throughout and metalled in places, one in the north-eastern direction to Balod in the north of Janjgir tahsil and the other southwards to Pamgarh where it joined the Bilaspur-Seorinarayan-Sambalpur road. From the Champa railway station another feeder road, gravelled throughout and metalled in places, ran southwards via Bina. There it crossed the branch of the Sambalpur road which followed the north bank of the Mahanadi, and passed across the river. The road met the other branch of the Bilaspur-Sambalpur road at Bhatgaon.

In 1914, besides the above metalled roads there were a number of well recognised fair-weather tracks, which linked the interior with the main roads and the railway. The principal of them was the aligned fair Unmetalled Roads weather road which connected Loharsi in the south-east of Bilaspur tahsil with the railway station on the main line at Nipania (in Raipur district). From Jondhra, the village next to Loharsi, and

connected with it by an aligned village cart-track (formerly a main road), another aligned fair-weather road, formerly a length of the Raipur-Sambalpur Road, went eastwards to Seorinarayan. From Seorinarayan an aligned fair-weather road ran north-eastwards across Janjgir tahsil to Sakti and crossed the Champa-Bina road at Bamnidih. Two more aligned fair-weather District council roads connected Bilaspur with Baloda in Janjgir tahsil (the terminus of Akaltara-Baloda feeder road) and with Akaltara on the railway, and a third running due south from Bilaspur to Baloda Bazar in Raipur district was joined about 12 miles from Bilaspur, by a short fair-weather road running to the railway at Belha, and crossed the Nipania-Lohari road just across the river Seonath. Another aligned fair-weather road went in north-west direction from Ratanpur for a few miles and then passed on to Chhuri where it met another fair-weather road running southwards via Korba to Champa on the railway. From the section of Bilaspur-Sambalpur road which followed the left bank of the Mahanadi another aligned road took off at right angles at Hasod, a village about 6 miles east of Bina, and ran southwards via Sarsawan in Raipur district (where it crossed the other branch of the Bilaspur-Sambalpur road), to Phuljhar in Raipur district.

Besides the above aligned roads there were a number of well recognised village cart-tracks some of them being maintained by the District Council. The principal among them being (1) the Lormi-Mungeli road (Lormi being situated on the Kota-Pandaria Road to the north; (2) the road connecting Mungeli with Nawagarh in the Bemetara tahsil (now in Durg) to the south-west, where it met an important fair-weather track running from Semaria on the Kawardha-Simga-Raipur road in the extreme south-west of the area via Nawagarh and Patnakakapa (where it crossed the Mungeli-Bhatapara Road) to Maro, where it proceeded to Bhatapara, crossing the Seonath and Amaldha in the Naro-Nandghat group of Bemetara tahsil; (3) the road connecting Mungeli with Katholia in the group of that name in Bemetara tahsil; (4) the cart-track connecting Kargi on the Kota-Pandaria road with Takhatpur on the Bilaspur-Mungeli road from where it went in south-western direction via Patharia on the Mungeli tahsil to the Mungeli-Bhatapara road at Tendwa; (5) the road connecting the crest of the ridge between the Aspa and Ghongha rivers from Sakri, five miles east of Bilaspur on the Mungeli-Bilaspur road; (6) the cart-track running eastward for Kota via Ratanpur and Nargora to join the Bilaspur-Baloda Road at Hindadih in the north-east of Bilaspur tahsil; (7) the road running from Khamaria, about 10 miles west of Bilaspur on the Bilaspur Mungeli Road and west north-west, via Murpar where it crossed the Maniari into the Mungeli tahsil to Maro in Bemetara tahsil where it met the Miro-Bhatapara Road; (8) the road running through the north-east of the Baloda group of Janjgir tahsil which connected Baloda with Korba; and (9) the road connecting Jondhra and Loharsi (above mentioned)

in the north-east of Bilaspur tahsil with Masturi, 11 miles from Bilaspur on the Bilaspur-Sambalpur road.

Thus in 1914 it is evident from the Bilaspur Settlement report, that Bilaspur and Janjgir tahsils were fairly well served in the matter of railways and main roads, and that even in the rains the village-tracks along the gravel crests of the high ridges were fairly passable for wheeled carriages.¹

The Indian Roads Congress was created in 1934 by the Government of India to promote interchange of ideas and the pooling of experience in road construction and maintenance. It prepared a 20 year Road Development Programme (1961-81). The following are the salient features of this programme:

1. No village should be away from a metalled road by more than 3 miles.
2. No village should have a distance of more than 1.5 miles from an unmetalled road.
3. All administrative units of a district should be inter-connected and with headquarters which, in turn, should be connected to adjacent district headquarters.
4. Railway mileage should not be taken into consideration while assessing the road requirements as the two systems have distinctly separate functions to perform.

The famous Nagpur Plan of roads was evolved in December 1943. For the first time in the history of roads in India, this plan gave a systematic classification of roads into National Highways, State Highways, District Roads and Village Roads.

The Nagpur Plan has become the basis of road development plans in the country. Moreover, the objective of this plan was that no village in a well developed agricultural area should remain at a distance of more than 5 miles from a main road, while in non-agricultural area no village should remain more than 20 miles from a main road.

On 1st April 1956, the District had 489 miles of roads, 345 miles of which were class I. Most of the road length of the District was in its southern half, the northern and especially the north-eastern parts were more or less

1. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1914, pp. 5-7

roadless in the real sense. Some of the northern parts of Katghora and Bilaspur tahsils became inaccessible during the monsoons and even otherwise are accessible only with difficulty.

In May 1957 the Government of India prepared a 20 year Road Development Plan (1961-1981) which was to commence from the Third Five Year Plan. The achievements of the targets envisaged in the New Plan will raise the average road mileage to 52 miles per 100 square miles of area. The objective of the Plan is to bring every village (i) in a developed and agricultural area within 4 miles of a metalled road and 1.5 miles of any road, (ii) in a semi-developed area, within 8 miles of metalled roads and 3 miles of any road; (iii) in an under developed and un-cultivable area within 12 miles of a metalled road and 5 miles of any road. In the Third Plan period efforts were made to implement these commitments.

The Table below shows the details of different categories of roads upto the end of 1961.¹

Table No. VII-1

Categories of Roads

Category	Length in Miles	Surface
1. Major District Roads	63.75	Black topped and a Water Bound Macadam.
2. Other District Roads	214.00	1. Black topped. 2. Water bound macadam. 3. Moorumi Road.
3. Municipal Roads	53.24	15.97 miles unmetalled.

From the above table it is clear that there were no National Highways or State Highways in Bilaspur District. However, there are Major District Roads and Other roads in the District.

Major District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District in 1961 was 63.75 miles (102.60 km.). These roads are being maintained by the Public Works Department. The following two roads are falling under this category.

1. Bilaspur-Raipur Road with a length of 23.37 miles.
2. Bilaspur-Mandla Road with a length of 40.38 miles.

1. Bilaspur District Census Hand Book, 1961,

It is an old important road connecting the headquarters of the two districts. Starting from Bilaspur southwards, it proceeds to Raipur as a metalled all weather road via Chandkuri, Nandghat and Simga. Bilaspur-Raipur Road From Nandghat, across Sheonath river, a metalled road connects it to Baloda Bazar via Bhatapara railway station. From Simga a metalled road goes to Tilda and the other to Kawardha via Bemetara. The road has a total length of 23.37 miles. The important places traversed by the road are Chandkuri (23 miles) Nandghat (30 miles) and Simga (43 miles), out of the total length 19.00 miles are black topped and the remaining length is water bound macadam.

The road is very important as it carried heavy quantity of forest produce to Kota and Bilaspur markets. The total road length in the District is 40.38 miles, out of which 24.50 miles are black topped.

Bilaspur-Mandla Road

Other District Roads

The total length of the roads falling under this category on 31st March 1961 was 229 miles (366.86 km.). All these roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department.

The following important roads fall under this category.

Table No. VII-2

Other District Roads

S. No.	Name of Road	Length (miles)	Nature of Surface
1.	Akaltara-Pamgarh	10.50	Black topped
2.	Bilaspur-Mandla	13.87	Black topped
3.	Bilaspur-Sheorinarayan	37.62	Black topped and water bound macadam
4.	Champa-Korba	17.62	Black topped and water bound macadam
5.	Tarod-Janjgir	14.50	Black topped and water bound macadam
6.	Nandghat-Mungeli	9.00	Water bound macadam
7.	Sakti-Ganiari-Kota	15.00	Water bound macadam
8.	Akaltara-Baloda	8.62	Water bound macadam
9.	Pandaria-Setganga	12.00	Water bound macadam
10.	Mungeli-Lormi	15.00	Earthen

Municipal Roads

The total length of the Municipal roads in the District on 31st March 1961 was 53.24 miles. Their municipality-wise length is shown below:

Table No. VII-3

Municipal Roads

Sl. No.	Name of Municipality	Total length unmetalled	Total length metalled (Miles)	Surface
1.	Bilaspur	8.12	14.37	Bituminous 5.62 miles water bound macadam 8.75.
2.	Mungeli	2.00	4.50	Concrete 0.50 mile water bound macadam 4.00 miles.
3.	Sakti	2.10	11.15	Concrete 1.00 mile Bituminous 5.00 miles water bound macadam 5.15 miles.
4.	Champa	—	7.00	Concrete 2.12 miles water bound macadam 4.88 miles.
5.	Kota	3.75	0.25	Water bound macadam 0.25 mile.
Total:		15.97	37.27	

New Roads under Construction

The following new roads were also under construction in the District.

Class I

1.	Katghora Ambikapur	36 miles Upto District border.
2.	Ganrella-Venkatnagar	14.1/2 miles
3.	Kotmi Marwahi	16.3/8
4.	Korba Katghora	19.1/2
5.	Janjgir Kera	22.7/8
6.	Jairamnagar Jondra	24 Work in first 2 1/2 miles upto Masturi is in hand.
7.	Belha Bartori	8.3/4
8.	Sheorinarayan Kera	8
9.	Champa Saragaon	6.13/16
10.	Bodri approach road class II	11/16

Class II

1.	Naila Panthora	19.5/16
2.	Seora Dhanpur Bhariband	13.1/2
3.	Marwahi Parasi	5
4.	Kargi Khapri	9
5.	Fatehpur-Kunda (Setganga)	5.5/1
6.	Chirula-Patharia	6.7/8
7.	Kota-Belghana	12

Vehicles and Conveyances

The principal means of conveyance and transport in the District are the automobiles, bicycles, horse-driven tongas, cycle-rickshaws and bullock carts.

Automobiles

The total number of automobiles registered with the Regional Transport Officer, Bilaspur, was 91 in March 1966. The category-wise and yearwise growth in the number of vehicles is shown below.

Table No. VII-4

Number of Vehicles

Year	Cars	Buses	Trucks	Motor-cycles	Taxis	Others
1961-62	16	11	27	30	7	3
1956-66	17	3	21	24	1	1
1970-71	532	171	318	914	33	154
1971-72	545	188	344	1143	58	202

Source:—Regional Transport Officer, Bilaspur.

Bicycles

These two-wheelers have gained much popularity with the people with in the rural and urban areas of the District due to their multifarious uses, and cheapness. The total number of Bicycles registered by the different Municipal Committees of the District by the end of March, 1966 was 1770. The table below gives the number registered by each Municipality.

Table No. VII-5

Number of Bicycles

Name of Municipality	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Bilaspur	1392	1368	1276	1206	1277	1153	1019	98
Mungeli	166	153	159	197	—	—	—	—
Kota	145	145	164	164	164	—	—	—
Sakti	443	432	411	398	—	—	—	—
Champa	355	330	312	335	329	—	—	—

Source:—Municipal Committees.

Horse-Driven Tongas

These vehicles are used for the transport of goods as well as passengers for local distances. Their number is, however, diminishing gradually due to the popularity of the quicker and cheaper mechanical means of transport. Their total number in the District on 31st March 1966 stood at 149.

The following table shows the municipality-wise details.

Table No. VII-6

Number of Tongas

Municipality	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Bilaspur	114	123	120	105	105	116	104	100	158
Sakti	20	21	16	18	—	—	—	—	—
Champa	31	29	40	58	58	44	—	—	—

Source:—Municipal Committees.

Cycle Rickshaws

These are three wheeled vehicles drawn manually and utilized for transport of people. They are also gradually becoming popular in the urban areas. The following table shows their number in different municipalities of the District.

Table No. VII-7

Number of Cycle Rickshaws

Name of Municipality	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Bilaspur	400	600	600	600	600	602	978	1118	1140
Mungeli	5	15	12	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sakti	3	8	10	18	—	—	—	—	—
Champa	5	5	13	34	36	—	—	—	—
Kota	1	1	1	1	1	—	—	—	—

Source:—Municipal Committees.

Bullock-carts

The bullock-carts are used in the urban areas mostly for the transport of grain and heavy goods within the town, while in rural areas they are used as a means of conveyance also. The municipalities levy annual road tax on these vehicles and the number indicated in the table below is based on those collections of revenue.

Table No. VII-8

Number of Bullock-carts

Name of Municipality	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Bilaspur	744	787	896	431	314	351	266	226	112
Mungeli	99	99	95	23	—	—	—	—	—
Sakti	12	19	19	19	20	—	—	—	—
Champa	23	24	24	23	22	—	—	—	—
Kota	90	90	109	109	109	—	—	—	—

Source:—Municipal Committees.

Public Transport

In this District public-owned and privately owned Transport services are plying to meet the traffic requirements of the District population.

(1) Privately owned Transport Services

Private operators have amalgamated their individual transport firms into joint stock companies in order to form vehicle units of transport undertakings. There are two such concerns in the District, namely, (1) Sudarshan Transport Services operating in Janjgir and a portion of Katghora Tahsil having 26 vehicles for operating services, and (2) Combined Transport Service operating in Bilaspur, Katghora, Mungeli and Sakti tahsils having 68 vehicles plying in the District.

In addition to this company, the buses of the Raipur Transport Company, Combined Transport Services Private Limited, Bilaspur, the Madhya Pradesh Transport Company, Raipur, the Ashok Bus Services, Bilaspur, and the Narmada Motor Transport Co-operative Society Limited also ply in the District. In all, the buses of these private companies ply over 75 routes.

Railways

Bilaspur, the District headquarters, is situated on the South Eastern Railway's broad-gauge main line, i.e., Bombay-Calcutta line via Nagpur. The other, also a broad-gauge line, is the Bilaspur Katni line passing through Kota, Belghana, Khodri, Khongara and Pendra. Both these railway lines fall under the jurisdiction of the South Eastern Railway with Divisional headquarters at Bilaspur. Recently a branch line has been opened from Champa to Korba as a branch on Nagpur-Calcutta route.

The dates of opening of the various sections of Railways are given below.

Section	Date of opening	Length in miles
1. Bilaspur-Raipur	10th October, 1881	68.79
2. Bilaspur-Raigarh	10th February, 1890	82.23
3. Bilaspur-Birsinghpur	1st February, 1861	141.58
4. Bilaspur-Korba	20th December, 1956	23.00

History of Development and Construction

At the time of its formation the Nagpur-Howrah section was constructed as a metre-gauge line and was called the Nagpur-Chhattisgarh State Railway. After the formation of the Bengal Nagpur Railway in 1887, the management of the Nagpur Chhattisgarh State Railway was taken over by the Bengal Nagpur Railway with the agreement for its conversion into a broad-gauge line. The idea of this system was first mooted in 1867 when Sir Richard Temple, the then Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces recommended the construction of a light tramway from Nagpur to Chhattisgarh. The

project was again considered and eventually in 1878 sanction was accorded to the construction of a metre-gauge line which was opened in this District in 1881 and 1891 as stated above. In November, 1888, the conversion of the Nagpur-Rajnandgaon section in a broad-gauge line was completed. The Bengal-Nagpur Railway was brought under direct management on 1st October, 1944. Later, on 14th April 1952, the Eastern Railway Zone was formed and the railway lines under the management of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway was merged into this Zone.

"Since the completion of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway, shortly after the expiring of the settlement, the District has been placed in a particularly favourable position for export, it now being connected by rail with Calcutta and Bombay by the main line, and with north of India by Katni-Bilaspur extension. The 20 years during which the settlement of 1868 lasted thus saw a considerable rise in the price of produce in the district, and a great increase in the prosperity of the people, and there can be no doubt that with the increased facilities for transport now available there will be a rapid and steady expansion of trade and a corresponding increase in the price of agricultural produce".¹

Bilaspur and Janjgir Tahsils were traversed by the main line of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway with six stations, namely, Belha, Bilaspur, Paraghat, Akaltara, Naila and Baraduar, and a seventh, between Naila and Baraduar at Champa. The line entered the District in the south-east of Bilaspur tahsil and proceeded towards north and north-east to Bilaspur where it turned to the east, in which direction it continued for the rest of its length in the District. From Bilaspur a branch line, 197 miles in length, went in a northern direction to Katni on the former East Indian Railway. The first station on the branch line was situated about 9 miles from Bilaspur at Ghutku and the second, Kargi Road, at Kota. The survey of a narrow-gauge line from Bilaspur via Mungeli, the former Kawardha state and the Chilpi pass to Chiraidongri near Mandla on the Nainpur-Mandla section of the Satpura branch of the same railway was completed and the construction of the Bilaspur-Mungeli section was being undertaken. It was intended to place stations somewhere near Kathakoni, about 9 miles west from Bilaspur, at Takhatpur and at Mungeli on this section.²

At present, the total mileage of the railway line (all broad-gauge) in the District is 162 miles, out of which 65 miles (106 km.) length is on Bombay-Nagpur line, 82.25 miles (137 km.) on Bilaspur Katni section and 23 miles (37 km.) on Champa-Korba section.

1. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1893, p. 2.
2. *ibid.* 1914, p. 5.

The main Howrah-Nagpur-Bombay line enters the District boundary at Sakti which is the first railway station within the District, followed by Baraduar, Champa, Naila, Akaltara, Katni, Sonar, Jairamnagar, Gatora, Bilaspur, Dudhipara, Bilha, and Dagori.

The Bilaspur-Katni section of the South-Eastern Railway, also broad-gauge, runs for 74 miles in the District, the railway stations within the District being Uslapur, Ghutku, Kargi Road, Belghana, Tenganmada, Khaongsara, Bhonwar Tonk, Khodri, Pendra Road, Venkat Nagar, Nigaura, Jaithari.

The Champa Korba section of the railway was opened on 20th December, 1956. It was also a broad-gauge line and had much significance due to coal fields and thermal power station at Korba. From Korba coal can be sent by this line to Bhilai easily and cheaply. There are also plans for laying double line between Durg and Korba. The Champa-Korba section of the railway extends only within Bilaspur District. The railway stations falling within the District are Balpur, Kothari Road, Saraghundia and Korba.

Waterways, Ferries and Bridges

The Sheonath is the most important river in the District though there are other rivers like the Arfa, Lilkar Maniari and the Kharum. Most of them either dry up or become quite shallow in summers.

Some roads in the District are obstructed by rivers during the rainy season when water level goes up. Then the ferries can ply for crossing the river. But sometimes during the period from October to December the water level comes down so low that neither ferries can be applied nor temporary crossings (made of bamboos, earth, etc.) provided.

The location of crossing on such roads is listed in the Table below.

Table No. VII-9

Location of Crossings on Submergible Roads

S. No.	Tahsil	Name of crossing	Mileage on which situated	Name of Road	River on which situated
1.	Bilaspur	Darrighat	8-2	Bilaspur-Seorinarayan	Arpa
2.	Mungeli	Pendrighat	47-0	Bilaspur-Mandla	Hap
3.	Janjgir	Basanpurghat	24-0	Champa-Bamnidihi-Bhatgaon	Mahanadi
4.	-do-	Seorinarayan	40-3	Bilaspur-Seorinarayan	-do-

5.	-do-	Champa	18-2	Tirod-Janjgir-Champa	Hasdeo
6.	Katghora	Gerwaghat	1-0 (from Korba)	Korba-Chhuri-Katghora	-do-
7.	-do-	Durpaghat	1-0 (from Korba)	-do-	-do-

Ferries

In rainy season traffic on some of the roads is held up due to submergence of the low level causeways. On the more important crossings the ferries are maintained by Janapada Sabhas to clear the traffic. The Janapada Sabha, Bilaspur, maintains 24 ferries within its area, out of which 11 ferries are on the river Sheonath, 2 on the Lilagar, 2 on the Maniari, 2 on the Kharoon and the remaining 7 on the Arpa River. The Janapada Sabha Janjgir maintains 19 ferries. Out of this 5 were on the Mahanadi and 10 on Hasdeo. The remaining ferries are on the three large streams, namely, the Lilagar nala (1 ferry) Borsi nala (1 ferry) and Kanji nala (2 ferries). Janapada Sabha, Sakti also maintained 11 ferries. Out of these 5 were on the Mahanadi, 4 on Son and 2 on the Borai Nala. There are 4 ferries in the Katghora tahsil, 3 of which are on Hasdeo river, and one on Arpa.

Travel and Tourist Facilities

There are a number of rest-houses and dak bungalows in the District for affording staying facilities to the travellers and Government officers touring on duty. At present there are 24 rest-houses and one circuit house (at Bilaspur) in the District. Their details, such as, situation, accommodation provided and distance are given in the table below:

Table No. VII-10

Rest Houses, etc.

District	Name of Road	Place	Mileage	Category
1	2	3	4	5
Bilaspur	1. Champa Rly. feeder road	Champa	Near Rly. Station	Rest House
	2. Naila-Janjgir Road	Janjgir	1 1/2 miles from Naila	-do-
	3. Bilaspur-Mandla Road	Bilaspur	At commencement of mile No. 1 in 5th mile.	Circuit House

4.	—do—	Narbada	15½ miles from Bilaspur.	Rest House
5.	—do—	Mungeli	305/8 miles from Bilaspur.	—do—
6.	Akaltara-Pamgarh road	Akaltara	In 1st Mile near Railway Station	—do—
7.	Kota-Lormi-Fandaria road	Kota	3/8 mile from Kota Rly. Station.	—do—
8.	—do—	Tendea	10½ miles from Kota.	—do—
9.	—do—	Bomi	21¾ mile from Kota	—do—
10.	—do—	Pandaria	41¾ mile from Kota	—do—
11.	Bilaspur-Ratanpur Road	Ratanpur	16-3/8 mile from Bilaspur	—do—
12.	Bilaspur-Seorinarayan	Pamgarh	25-3/16 mile from Bilaspur.	—do—
13.	Bilaspur-Seorinarayan	Seorinarayan	39½ miles from Bilaspur Inspection Officers rooms in police station house.	—do—
Champa 14.	Champa-Bamnidi Bhatgaon road.	Bamnidi	9-3/8 miles from Champa Rly. Station.	—do—
15.	Ratanpur-Katghora	Pali	14¾ miles from Ratanpur.	—do—
16.	Ratanpur-Katghora Road	Katghora	34¼ miles from Ratanpur	—do—
17.	Gourella-(Pendra) Keonchi Road.	Gourella (Pendra Rd)	In the 1st mile	—do—
18.	—do—	Keonchi	13¾ mile from Gourella	—do—
19.	Keonchi Kabirchabutara Road	Kabirchabutara	25 miles from Gourella	—do—

20.	Bilaspur-Raipur Road	Chandkhuri	23-3/8 miles from Bilaspur on Bilaspur-Raipur Road	Bungalow
21.	Raigarh-Sarangarh Road via Chandrapur	Chandarpur	23½ miles from Kharsia Rly. Station	Rest House (Since transferred to Raigarh for maintenance.
22.	Durg-Bilaspur Raipur Road	Nandghat	31 miles from Bilaspur	Inspection bungalow
23.	Sakti-Jarwaya Road	Sakti	1 mile from Rly. Station	Rest House
24.	Kota-Keonchi Road	Achanakmar	In mile 15	—do—
25.	—do—	Chhaparwa	In mile 23	—do—

Hotels

In addition there are a number of petty hotels and eating houses situated in the towns which offer food, light refreshments as well as tea, coffee, etc.

Posts, Telegraph and Telephones

With the advent of the British the postal system was reorganised. The Postal Act of 1854 was replaced by Act XIV of 1856 and this in turn by Act VI of 1898¹ which became the legal sanction for the working of post offices. It was concerned with the working and control of Imperial post only. The system of postal communication in the interior of the District was different which was known as the District post. The District post line was mainly to provide communication between the headquarters of a district and revenue and police stations in the interior. For this internal postal system, general rules of the Imperial Post Office were adopted. The Nazir of the District Court used to be the Officer in charge of the District post. The police writers at station houses were the District Post Masters and at each District post office there used to be a delivery peon for the postal sub-division of the district, which corresponded with the police limits of the station house. *Dak* runners conveyed the *dak* to the interior. Deputy Commissioners were responsible for the efficiency of this internal postal system. Police officers performed the duties of Inspector of

1. Statistics of British India, Pt. III, 1908.

Post Office. The expenditure was met partly by District post cess at the rate of eight annas per cent on the land revenue assessment and partly by income derived from bearing and stamped letters. This system was followed in Bilaspur District also.

In 1961, under the present set-up, there were 288 Post Offices in the District out of which one was head office.

Table No. VII-11

Number of Post Offices

Tahsil	Head Office	Branch Office	Sub-office	Telegraph office
Bilaspur	1	77	9	5
Janjgir	—	68	6	3
Sakti	—	40	3	2
Mungeli	—	44	3	1
Katghora	—	34	3	2
Total:	1	263	24	13

Source:—Superintendent of Post Offices, Bilaspur.

As regards the distribution of sub-offices, there were 11 sub-offices in urban areas while the rest were located in rural areas of the District. In 1961 13 of these sub-offices had telegraph facilities.

Telephone Offices

The telephone facilities in the District were formerly reserved exclusively for Government business. Imperial post offices were linked by telephone with main places within or without the Province. Recently, the facilities were made available to the public also. Now all the main places in the towns as well as District are linked by telephones. The yearwise number of telephone connections installed in the District from 1961 to 1967 was 218, 282, 283, 290, 374, 436 and 443, respectively.¹

1. Figures supplied by S.D.O. Telephones, Bilaspur.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

Other services' forming about 3.57 per cent of the entire working force in the District in 1961, form the subject-matter for this Chapter. Comprising in its fold the miscellany of the entire occupational structure, these cover a wide range of essential services, viz., public service, education, medicine, law, engineering and a host of other domestic services in its fold. According to 1961 Census, this sector of economic activity accounts for 40,998 workers (29,822 males and 11,176 females).

In point of participation size, this category is fourth in importance in the District, the first three being "cultivation", "agricultural labourer" and "household industry". The largest concentration of "workers" in this category was in Bilaspur Tahsil with 19,194 or 46.8 per cent of the working force, figures for other tahsils being. Janjgir with 7,155 or 17.4 per cent, Mungeli Tahsil with 5,215 or 12.7 per cent, Katghora with 5,114 or 12.5 per cent and Sakti Tahsil with 4,320 or 10.5 per cent. It may be noted that about 27 per cent of the workers in other services were females.

The period covered under the three Plans has been eventful, characterized by the adoption of planning as a creed for economic development. It resulted in mobilisation of resources—man and material—at all stages and sectors of economy. With this increased the dimensions of occupations and services during this period. An attempt has been made in the following pages to review the position of miscellaneous occupations and services falling under category IX, other services, mainly based on Census 1961, and Employment Market Reports.

Public Administration

The services under the government, quasi-government organisations and local bodies, forming the scaffold for the entire structure of public administration, played a pivotal role in the past. They have now been called upon to shoulder the intricate responsibilities of executing successive Plans of the developing economy. With this, there has been an appreciable spurt in the

ranks of public services, engaged in the efficient execution of Plans and their preparations. In 1961, the number of persons engaged in public services in the administrative departments of the Central Government, State Government, Quasi-Government and Local Bodies offices in Bilaspur District was 7,542 (7,432 males and 110 females). Separately, the employees of the Central Government in 1961 numbered 251 (all males) against 244 in 1951, those of State Government 5,017 (4,931 males and 86 females) against 583 in 1951, and employees of quasi-Government organisations, municipalities, local bodies etc., numbered 1,329 (1,312 males and 17 females) against 735 in 1951. The remaining 945 persons were in the public service in Police.

According to Employment Market Report for the quarter ending March 1965, the number of persons engaged in public service in administrative departments of Central Government was 410, of State Government 2,129 and of quasi-Government Organisation, municipalities, local bodies, etc., 1,876.

The effect of the emergence of Korba and Bhilai industrial complexes over the socio-economic life of this region has been studied. But the resulting rise in the cost of living has undoubtedly hard-pressed the persons being fixed income earners in service. As amongst themselves, till recently, the employees of the Central Government appear to be economically better off than those under the State Government or local bodies. The one factor responsible for the disparity was the regular neutralization of rise in cost of living by the Central Government from time to time.

Amenities for State Government Employees

Apart from dearness allowance, the State Government employees in Bilaspur, as in other parts of the State, enjoy a host of special amenities and concessions, which have been dealt with as under. These facilities are old age pension, family pension, residential accommodation, educational concessions, General Provident Fund contribution, medical reimbursement, etc. Under the head of Dearness Allowance the various categories of Government employees get dearness allowance which is enhanced by State Government from time to time.

In recent years, the rules for old-age pension have been liberalized by State Government. However, the rules for the age of compulsory retirement of Government servants other than class IV was raised to 58 years from 55 years, and this rule came into force from 15th December, 1967. Recently the Government has ordered that any employee may be compulsorily retired after attaining the age of 55 years in public interest and no reason need be given for this decision of the Government.

As a measure of social security, the State Government have framed a new scheme of Family Pension to its employees. It ensures the payment of pension for life at different rates, depending upon the pay to the widow/widower/children of the regular Government employees who have completed minimum one year of continuous Government service.

The State Government have endeavoured to provide residential accommodation to the maximum number of employees. It is also provided that in lieu of the Government residential quarter, house-rent allowance be given to them without any limitation of basic pay. The rate of house-rent for the occupation of unfurnished quarter has also been lowered considerably in case of non-gazetted employees of the State with effect from 1st October, 1966.

The State Government have also conferred with effect from the 1st October, 1966 some educational benefits on the State employees of class III and IV categories for their children studying in the educational institutions in Madhya Pradesh. The benefit provides for the exemption from payment of tuition fees upto the 1st Degree class. Fifty per cent of the fees is also exempted in respect of technical education. Now this Concession has also been extended to officers drawing basic pay upto Rs. 620 p.m.

As for the contribution to the General Provident Fund, new rules were framed, in 1965, which came into force from 1st May 1965. Accordingly, all Government servants (temporary or permanent) who have put in not less than one year's service, and who are likely to continue in service are required to contribute to the General Provident Fund not less than three per cent upto the pay of Rs. 100 per month, and six per cent of the pay where it is more than Rs. 100 per month.

The facility for re-imbursement of expenses on medical treatment of self and family is also being enjoyed by the Government servants. The scope of the term "family" which hitherto was restricted to wife and children of the employees, has now been extended to include the wholly dependent parents, legally adopted children and step-children.

The facility of obtaining loans at concessional rates for the construction of residential houses and purchase of vehicles also exists for permanent Government employees.

Loans

Learned Professions

Among the occupations in the nature of learned profession and services, a place of prime importance goes to educational and scientific services. Vigorous drive for the expansion of educational services during the Plan periods has created vast potentialities for the technical and non-technical teachers at different stages of education. The Census 1961 records the number of persons engaged in educational and scientific service at 6,055 (5,374 males and 681 females) against 1,208 in 1951. Of these, 402 persons were engaged in educational services such as those rendered by technical colleges, technical schools and similar technical and vocational institutions; 5,609 in educational services such as rendered by colleges, schools and similar other institutions of non-technical type, and 44 in scientific services and research institutions. Classified by occupations, the number of teachers in 1961 was recorded as 4,969, comprising 60 college teachers, 392 secondary school teachers, 4,198 teachers in primary and middle schools, 15 in nursery and kindergarten schools and 300 other teachers in the District. The number of teachers in higher secondary and middle including primary and pre-primary schools in 1965-66 was 923; 5,485 and 23, respectively.

The State Government have also been trying to improve the service conditions of the persons in this profession. From the 1st October, 1963 for the purposes of pay and allowances, the Government have taken over the services of primary and middle school teachers who were under the employ of local bodies. Thereby these teachers were also given the benefit of revised scales of pay, the basic of which now ranges between Rs. 85 and 95 as compared to Rs. 40 and Rs. 50 previously. Similarly, the scales of pay of graduate teachers, lecturers (non-collegiate), lecturers and Assistant Professors have been revised.

Medicine

With increased emphasis on the improvement of public health and popularizing the family planning programme in the successive Plans, the medical profession has assumed an important place among the galaxy of learned professions. The Census 1961 enumerated 1,895 persons (1,375 males and 520 females) in medical and public health services. With regard to the services rendered by organisations and individuals such as by hospitals, sanatoria, nursing homes, maternity and child welfare clinics, as also by *Unani*, *Ayurvedic*, *Allopathic* and *Homoeopathic* practitioners, the figures enumerated were 1,788 (1,268 males and 520 females). Veterinary services rendered by organisations and individuals numbered 107 (all males). Classified by occupations, the Allopathic

physicians and surgeons numbered 151, Ayurvedic physicians 261, homoeopathic physicians 27, other physicians 25, and dentists 8 in the year 1961.

Legal

The Census 1961 enumerated 300 persons (all males) in the District who were engaged in legal services. Of these 213 persons were practising in urban areas. They included the services rendered by barristers, advocates, solicitors, *mukteers* (mukhtyars), pleaders, *mukurie* and *munshis*. Classified by occupations, there were 16 judges and magistrates, 141 legal practitioners and advisors, one law assistant and 50 other jurists and legal technicians (including petition-writers) in the District in the year 1961.

Engineers, Architects and Surveyors

The number of persons enumerated in 1961 Census pursuing these occupations was 275, comprising 151 civil engineers including overseers, 22 mechanical engineers, 17 electrical engineers, 3 metallurgical engineers, 4 mining engineers, 21 surveyors and 57 others engaged in similar other engineering pursuits.

Apart from these, a number of professional, technical and related "workers" were engaged in various other occupations. Their number in 1961 is given in the following Table:—

Table No. VIII-1

Category of Workers 1961

Occupation	Number of workers		
	Persons	Males	Females
1. Chemists, physicists, geologists and other physical scientists.	29	28	1
2. Biologists, veterinarians, agronomists and related workers.	51	51	—
3. Social scientists and other related workers.	299	246	13
4. Artists, writers & related workers.	655	562	93
5. Other professional, technical and related workers such as religious workers astrologers, geographers etc.	631	612	19

Personal Services

Almost equally numerous with workers in "public services" were workers in "personal services", contributing about 25 per cent to the working force in category of "services". The Census 1961 enumerated 7,566 workers (5,104 males and 2,462 females) in this category who render services to households in the capacity of domestic servant, governess, tutor, private secretary, persons serving in hotels, boarding houses, laundry services, hair-dressing, photographers, etc.

Domestic Servants

The services rendered to the household such as those by domestic servants, cooks, etc., comprised the bulk of the workers in category of "personal services". Forming about 47 per cent of the entire working force in "personal services", they were constituted of 1,789 males and 1,766 females. Almost one-half (1,713) of the total workers were enumerated in urban area, a bulk of them (1,020) being females. In 1951, 3,059 persons were enumerated as employed in domestic services.

Governess, Tutors, Private Secretaries

The persons in this category only numbered 46 (31 males and 15 females) according to 1961 Census. Majority of these (33) centre round the urban areas where some scope exists for their employment.

Hotels, Boarding-Houses, Restaurants, etc.

The services rendered by hotels including the eating-houses, cafes, and similar other organisations providing lodging and boarding facilities, accounted for 744 persons (701 males and 43 females) in 1961. In 1951, their number was 500. The number of waiters, bar-tenders and related workers were enumerated to be 168, including 8 women. The low female participation in these services shows the continued prevalence of social inhibition against females working in these services. Whatever participation is forthcoming is mostly from urban areas. Largely, these are being run by the proprietors themselves on a small scale. The number of hotels, restaurants and eating houses registered under Shops and Establishment Act, 1908 in Bilaspur town was 134 in the year 1966.

Laundry Services

Forming about 14 per cent of the workers engaged in "personal services", the laundry services rendered by organizations and individuals includ-

ing all types of cleaning, dyeing, bleaching and dry-cleaning services accounted for 1,044 persons (406 males and 638 females). In 1951, their number was 1,110 (908 males and 202 females). Almost one-half of these were enumerated in urban areas in the District. Large female participation in these services is a characteristic feature of this occupation.

Hair-Dressing

Traditionally, the persons engaged in these services belong to the *Nai* caste, who enjoyed a place of distinction and ritual and functional importance in the social and religious life of Hindus. But as the occupation now does not conform to traditional caste pattern, it includes others also. Forming the second largest group among the workers in "personal services", the persons engaged in services rendered by organisation and individuals such as those by barbers, hair-dressing saloons and beauty-shops numbered 2,703 (all males) or 27.4 per cent of the workers in "personal services". In 1951, the number of barbers and persons engaged in beauty shops was 1,226. The occupation has witnessed considerable modernization in urban areas.

Photographers, etc.

In 1961, the number of persons engaged in services rendered by portrait and commercial photographic studios was 104 (all males).

Tailors, Cutters, Furriers, etc.

Total workers in this category of occupation numbered 2,981 (2,602 males and 379 females, according to Census 1961. They form an inevitable part of the occupational structure in urban areas, where tailors, etc., numbered 1,156 (1,036 males and 120 females). Of these, about 96 per cent were tailors, dress-makers and garment-makers. The rest of four per cent covered workers in upholstery and related work (23), pattern-makers, markers, cutters, etc. (3), sewers, embroiderers and darners, textile and fur-product (23) and others in the category (79). In 1951, the number of persons enumerated in occupation relating to "wearing apparel" (except foot-wear) and made up textile goods was 845.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

According to 1951 Census, the population of the District was 1,679,637.¹ This increased to 2,021,793 during a period of ten years i.e., in 1961. Taking the "self-supporting" persons and "earning dependents", the latter in respect of their secondary means of livelihood as equivalent to the "workers" for 1961 Census, the number of "workers" in agriculture in 1951 was 821,649.² In 1951, the total "workers" from different livelihood classes was 992,949, while "workers" in agriculture formed 82.75 per cent of this total. In 1961, the "workers" in agriculture, namely, those classified as "cultivator" and "agricultural labour" numbered 988,115. The total number of "workers" from all the different livelihood classes adopted for purposes of 1961 Census was 11,47,043. The agricultural "workers" formed 86.14 per cent of the total. This shows that agriculture in the District was the largest single source of livelihood in 1951 as well as in 1961. It may be said that with an increase in population from 16.79 lakhs in 1951 to 20.21 lakhs in 1961, the land is made to bear the burden of supporting the increased population.

The livelihood class "production other than cultivation" of 1951 Census, which may be generally called industrial class, formed 4.87 per cent of the total number of "workers". Obtaining its equivalent for 1961 Census by addition of the livelihood classes III, IV and V, i.e., mining and quarrying, etc., household industry and manufacturing other than household industry, respectively, the percentage of "workers" in the industrial class was 7.26 of the total "workers". This increased percentage in 1961 over 1951 indicates that part of the increased population was absorbed in the industrial activities as well.

In the 1961 Census "construction" was treated as a separate livelihood activity, which, in the 1951 Census, was included in the livelihood class

1. Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1951.

2. Note.—In computing number of "workers" in agriculture for 1951 Census, the number classified under class IV non-cultivating owners of land, etc., has been excluded as per instructions in Appendix I of Census of India, Paper No. I of 1962.

VIII "other services and miscellaneous sources". However, "workers" in this class in 1961 formed only 0.55 per cent of the total "workers". In absolute figures the number for the District was 6,307 only.

The livelihood class VI "commerce" of 1951 Census had 2.20 per cent of the total "workers" in that year. In 1961 the "workers" in the equivalent of that class, namely, class VII "trade and commerce" formed 1.61 per cent of the total "workers". This means a decline in the number of those earning livelihood from commerce and trade in 1961.

This phenomenon is rather difficult to explain in view of the fact that percentages of "workers" in two important sectors of the economy have recorded a rise over 1951. The trade and commercial activities are generally bound to increase along with an increase in agricultural and industrial activities. It may, however, be true that increase in the percentage of "workers" in agriculture does not necessarily mean an increase in agricultural activity. It may simply mean sharing in the same piece of land or the product thereof by more persons because of the lack of opportunities to earn one's livelihood elsewhere. But this cannot be said about the percentage increase in the industrial class of livelihood. However, in the industrial class also the percentage increase cannot be said to be very substantial which may result in an increase in the commercial activity. But even if there is no increase there need not be actual decline in the percentage as it actually happened in 1961 Census. The reason for the decline also cannot be attributed to the conceptual difference in the livelihood class "commerce and trade" for the two Censuses. As a matter of fact, this class happens to be most comparable.

The percentage of "workers" in the livelihood class "transport" was 0.64 of the total "workers" in 1951. There was an increase in the percentage of the equivalent class of 1961 Census which was 0.86 of the total "workers".

The percentage of "workers" in "other services and miscellaneous sources" class of livelihood in 1951 was 9.47 of the total "workers". In 1961 it was only 3.58 per cent. This decline may be attributed mainly to the deflation of this livelihood class for 1961 Census.

The pattern of livelihood in the District, therefore, remains unchanged as may be seen from comparing the percentages of "workers" in different livelihood classes for 1951 and 1961 Census. The livelihood classes of these two censuses are not exactly comparable, but this does not alter the basic fact of predominance of agriculture as a source of livelihood, with a little diversion to industries, which is inevitable as whole of the increase in population cannot possibly be absorbed in agricultural activities. Moreover, Government's efforts through Five Year Plans for economic development, naturally have re-

sulted in creation of job opportunities for certain number of "workers" in industries in the District.

The Census data of 1951 and 1961 about "workers" and "non-workers" are significant of the economic condition in the District. In 1951, the number of "self-supporting" persons plus "earning dependants" in respect of their secondary means of livelihood was 992,949, which were "workers" as per economic classification of 1961 Census. As against this economically active members of the population there were 6,76,613 persons as "non-earning dependants" as per 1951 Census classification, termed as "non-workers" in 1961 Census. This figure is inclusive of persons in the category of Agricultural Class, i.e., non-cultivating owners of land and rent receivers, etc. This gives a proportion of 0.68 dependants per "worker" in the District in 1951. The number of "workers" in 1961 was 11,47,043 while "non-workers" were 874,750. The number of "non-workers" worked out to 0.76 per "worker" in 1961. The fact of increasing proportion of dependants per "worker" is one of the indications of stagnating economic conditions with increasing population.

Of the total population of the District 96.13 per cent was rural and 3.87 per cent urban at the time of 1951 Census. As against this, in 1961, rural population declined to 91.67 per cent and urban population increased to 8.33 per cent of the total. As seen earlier, there was a percentage increase in the number of "workers" in industries in 1961 as compared to 1951. Increase in the percentage of urban population and in the percentage of "workers" in industries to the total "workers" points to the progress of industrial activity, but decline in the percentage of rural population cannot be attributed to the shifting of population from agriculture to industries. As a matter of fact, as compared to 1951, percentage of "workers" in agriculture has substantially increased in 1961.

According to latest 1971 Census the District population has increased to 24,40,962. In this period the percentage of urban population had gone up roughly by one per cent to 9.32 per cent. However, the proportion of 'workers' to total population had gone down to 44.1 per cent as against 56.7 per cent of 1961. To some extent, it may be due to classificational changes also. The agricultural sector still claimed 84.1 per cent of their total workers while all other workers come to 15.9 per cent as against 19.9 per cent of 1961. Thus, pressure of growing population on agriculture for livelihood remained.

Prices

Rice is the staple foodgrain of the District, but wheat, gram and linseed are some other important crops. In 1963-64 the area under paddy crop was 15,37,184 acres, while acreage under wheat was 73,289. The prices which

affect the masses are those of necessities of life and, from amongst these, foodgrains most. As such price trends of foodgrains in the District are of special value.

In the last decade of nineteenth century, the lowest retail price of rice in the District was 21.29 seers a rupee in 1891, while the highest retail price in the same decade was 10.27 seers a rupee in 1897. The reason for high price of rice in 1897 might be attributed to the season and crop condition in the District. Upto the month of August in 1896 there were heavy rains, which ceased abruptly at the beginning of September. There were no rains at all in the months of September and October. The cultivators had everywhere cut the embankments of their fields to prevent the rice from being swamped and, under influence of the hot sun and dry winds the crop rapidly withered during these months, and the ground became too dry for spring crops. As a result, the yield of crop was only 30 per cent of an average harvest. The year 1897 was declared a famine year. Consequently the price of rice was the highest in 1897. Price of wheat too was the highest in this year, i.e., 8.6 seers a rupee. Lowest price of wheat in the same decade was 21.1 seers a rupee in 1894. Price of gram was highest in 1897, being 7.9 seers a rupee, while in 1891 it was the lowest i.e., 23.7 seers a rupee.

At the dawn of twentieth century, i.e., in 1900, the retail prices of rice, wheat and gram in the District were 11.53, 10.1 and 10.1 seers a rupee, respectively. Taking the period from 1900 to 1909, the highest price of rice was 8.54 seers a rupee in 1908. The highest prices of wheat and gram were also in the same year being 8.30 and 8.04 seers a rupee, respectively. The reason for the high prices of all foodgrains in the District was again the adverse season and crop conditions. During 1907-08 season the rains had started late and stopped before time, as a result of which the paddy crop suffered and the yield was only 50 per cent of the average. The retail prices of rice, wheat and gram from 1910 to 1913 were as under:

Table No. IX-1

Retail Prices of Foodgrains (1910-13)

Year	(In seers per Re.)		
	Rice	Wheat	Gram
1910	12.94	12.25	15.5
1911	13.75	12.80	16.00
1912	11.77	12.31	13.37
1913	10.13	11.63	11.63

From the figures given above it becomes apparent that the year 1911 was one of lowest price for all foodgrains in the District. The season and crop conditions in 1910-11 in the whole of Chhattisgarh Division were satisfactory because of timely and well-distributed rains. As a result, rice and wheat produce was good. Yield of linseed in the whole of Chhattisgarh Division was 120 taking 100 as normal. Decline in the price of linseed, therefore, was substantial in 1911, compared to the prices in other three years.

The price trends during nineteenth century and upto the outbreak of the First World War given above bring into bold relief the fact that the conditions of production of foodgrains mainly caused fluctuations in the prices. This is not to say that under present conditions production has no relevance to the prices, but it has lost its importance as the sole determining factor of prices as it was in the period so far dealt with.

In 1914, the prices of all foodgrains in the District increased substantially. Rice which was retailed at 10.13 seers a rupee in 1913, was sold at 8.59 seers a rupee in 1914. Price of wheat increased from 11.63 seers a rupee in 1913 to 8 seers a rupee in 1914. Similarly, price of gram too increased from 11.63 seers to 8 seers in rupee. The year 1914 was the first year of the First World War. It is difficult to say that increase in prices of foodgrains in 1914 as compared to 1913 was the result of increase in demand of foodgrains to meet the War-time needs. Impact of the War conditions in Europe could not have been so immediately felt in India. This may happen in the present conditions when the world economy has become extremely sensitive, but this was not the case at the time of First World War. The truth of the statement can be testified from the price trends obtaining in subsequent War years. The reason for general increase in prices of foodgrains in 1914, once again, may be attributed to the season and crop conditions. The agricultural season of rice and wheat in the whole of Chhattisgarh Division was unfavourable in 1913-14. Scanty and untimely rains caused the decrease in production of rice as well as wheat as compared to the previous year. Naturally, therefore, there was an increase in prices. In the years 1915, 1916 and 1917, there was gradual decline in prices of rice, and in 1917 the prices of rice wheat and gram were 11.2, 9.12 and 11.64 seers a rupee, respectively. During all these years, War was being waged in Europe and yet prices were on the decline as compared to the first year of the War, i.e., 1914. This means War-time demand of foodgrains, if any, had no effect on the prices of foodgrains in the District, and it was the season and crop conditions obtaining from year to year that determined prices. This can be substantiated from the price trends that obtained in the District after the cessation of hostilities in Europe in 1918. In the event of any War-time demand of foodgrains and its effects on prices thereof the same would have petered off no sooner hostilities ceased in 1918 and thereafter. On the contrary, the prices of foodgrains in the District began to soar from 1918. The price of

rice which was 11.12 seers in 1917 increased to 9.06 seers. In 1919 the price of rice again increased to 5.81 seers, and in 1920 the price was 5.29 seers a rupee. Wheat which was 9.12 seers a rupee in 1917, increased to 6 seers in 1918, and 5 seers a rupee in 1919. Prices of gram were similarly on the increase. In 1917 the price of gram which was 11.64 seers a rupee increased to 6 seers in 1918 and to 4.75 seers in 1919. Prices of rice continued to increase upto 1920, while those of wheat and gram upto 1919. The reasons for this increase in prices were obviously famine conditions obtaining practically all over the Province and outbreak of influenza in an epidemic form, which not only took heavy toll of lives, but emaciated the working population, thereby affecting the cultivation of land in the following years. From 1920 to 1924, the prices of rice in the District were falling. Wheat and gram prices declined in 1920 but again increased in 1921. Prices of rice, wheat and gram in 1924 were lower than those obtaining in all the preceding years upto 1919. In 1925, the prices of rice, wheat and gram were 8.10, 9.85 and 11.79 seers a rupee, respectively. From 1925 to 1929 prices of rice remained more than 7, but less than 8 seers a rupee. Wheat prices during the same years were more than 7, but less than 9 seers a rupee; and prices of gram more than 6, but less than 11 seers a rupee.

In 1930 price of rice was 8.50 seers, price of wheat 13.10 seers and that of gram 9.96 seers a rupee. In 1931, prices of rice, wheat and gram declined considerably, the rates being 14, 17 and 11 seers a rupee, respectively. From 1931 to 1939 the lowest price of rice was 17 seers a rupee in 1933. Wheat was sold at the lowest price of 17 seers in 1931 and gram also the lowest, i.e., 15 seers a rupee in 1937. Taking the period from 1900 to 1939 it was only in one year, i.e., 1904 that the price of rice was 17.52, a little lower than 17 seers, which was the price in 1933. On the contrary, price of wheat during the period 1900 to 1939 was lowest only in 1931, i.e., 17 seers a rupee. As in the case of rice the price of gram was still lower in 1904, i.e., 19.20 seers a rupee in 1937 which was the lowest price during the period from 1931 to 1939. The period from 1931 to 1939 was one of worldwide economic depression, which was closely followed by another worldwide catastrophe in the shape of the Second World War. During the War period, i.e., from 1939 to 1946, the prices of foodgrains in the District were as shown below:

Table No. IX-2
Prices of Foodgrains (1939-46)
(In seers per Re.)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram
1938-39	16	14	12.5
1939-40	12.5	10.5	9.0
1941-42	7.0	7.4	10.0

1943-44	4.5	4.1	3.5
1944-45	4.0	3.75	4.50
1945-46	4.0	3.60	..

There is an essential difference between the price trends in the District during the Second World War period and that during the period covered under the First World War. As seen earlier, the prices of foodgrains in the years subsequent to the beginning of the First World War were on a downward trend while prices were continually rising during the Second World War years, as compared to the year of its beginning. This in a way hints at the changed world economic conditions which became more sensitive in between two World War period. Moreover, this time the War was actually carried to the doors of Indian sub-continent as it were and the price situation became acute on account of the War-time demand. It may, however, be mentioned here that unlike the prices of foodgrains during the First World War, the prices during the Second were not the free market prices. As is well known, during the Second World War, Government had taken control of purchase and distribution of all essential commodities in short supply, and the prices were fixed by the Government. Upto 1941 there was sufficient increase in the prices of foodgrains, especially that of rice. However, in the absence of any country-wide policy decision by the Central Government for controlling prices, the State Government too did not introduce price control measures upto 1941. In 1942, the Central Government passed the Foodgrains Control Order, 1942 and the State Government started taking action under that Order. The State Government on their part passed the Central Provinces and Berar Foodgrains (Control and Distribution) Order, 1943, the Central Provinces and Berar Foodgrains Export Restriction Order, 1943 and the Central Provinces and Berar Rice Mills Licensing Order, 1943. Action under these Orders regarding levy, procurement and distribution of foodgrains as well as licensing of authorised dealers and fixation of prices of foodgrains, etc., was initiated. Looking to the aspect of foodgrains production in the District during Second World War period as per anna notation, the production of rice was the lowest, i.e., 6 annas in 1942. In all other years production remained at 12 to 14 annas. The lowest production of wheat, i.e., 8.5 annas was also in 1942. In other years production varied from 9 to 13 annas. Production of gram was lowest in 1944 and that of linseed in 1942. Looking to the production trends of foodgrains in anna notation given above, the sharp increase in the prices of foodgrains after 1942 can justifiably be attributed to the excess of War-time demand for foodgrains inside the country and from abroad.

The period immediately after the cessation of hostilities on account of the Second World War was one of extreme stresses and strains for the country as a whole. Political independence brought alongwith it partition of the

country and consequent unsettled conditions on account of communal conflict and large-scale exchange of population. The difficult price situation during War period remained as its legacy to the country, as the scarcity of foodgrains persisted owing to the neglect of land by cultivators who were running away for their lives. Under the circumstances the National Government decided to review the foodgrain policy and recast it in such a way as to minimise the difficulties of the people. Accordingly, by the end of 1947, the Central Government decided upon the policy of gradual decontrol of foodgrains. In accordance with this policy of the Centre, the State Government introduced some relaxations in its monopoly purchase scheme. Inter-district ban on the movement of foodgrains was removed. Rationing and distribution of foodgrains through Fair Price Shops was stopped. However, the State Government continued to purchase 40 per cent of the rice and *jowar* stocks from licensed dealers.

After taking stock of the working of the policy of gradual relaxation of controls on foodgrains, in the second quarter of the year 1948, the Central Government declared that their decontrol had proved a failure. The State Governments were, therefore, advised to pursue control measures.

For the State of Madhya Pradesh the year 1948-49 was unfavourable from the point of view of foodgrains production. As such 40 per cent levy of rice and *jowar* was raised to 60 per cent and, later, in August 1949, levy of rice was further raised to 75 per cent. Foodgrain prices from 1946-47 to 1951-52 were as under.

Table No. IX-3

Prices of Foodgrains (1946-47 to 1951-52)

Year	Rice	Wheat	(In seers per Re.)
			Gram
1946-47	4.3	3.3	3.2
1947-48	3.5	1.8	2.3
1948-49	2.75	2.0	3.75
1949-50	2.5	2.5	3.5
1951-52	2.5	2.1	3.2

The prices quoted above indicate a continually rising trend over the price level obtaining during the War period. Considering the production of these foodgrains in the District it is observed that during the post-World War period production was not in any way lower, so as to cause such a rise in prices. As per anna notation, the lowest production of rice during the years

from 1947 to 1952 was 12 annas. The production of wheat was the lowest, i.e., 6 annas only in 1947. Lowest level of production of gram and linseed was 9 annas during this period. As against these minimum production notations, the maximum production of rice and wheat during the period was 13 annas, while that of gram and linseed 12 annas. These notations of production of foodgrains in the District rule out the possibility of low production becoming the cause of increase in prices. The reasons for these high prices might be sought as elaborated earlier, in the unsettled conditions resulting from the partition of the country, stoppages of imports, especially of rice, from Burma and, added to these, the perpetuation of scarcity conditions in one or the other part of the country, thereby putting pressure on the foodgrain resources of the regions in a comparatively better position.

From 1951-52 the country entered an era of planned economic development. Keeping in view the difficult food situation in the country, increased production of foodgrains was decided to be the objective of First Five Year Plan activities. During this Plan period the prices of foodgrains in the District were as under:

Table No. IX-4

Prices of Foodgrains during First Five Year Plan

(In Rs. per maund)				
Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1951-52	15.60	18.69	11.69	15.50
1952-53	16.45	18.00	17.86	—
1953-54	15.75	16.00	11.50	14.00
1954-55	15.69	12.94	8.37	11.19
1955-56	13.94	14.12	10.31	16.00

Note:—Retail price series of foodgrains being not available from 1951-52, average farm harvest prices are being utilised.

The data regarding prices given so far were retail prices data and hence cannot be effectively compared with the average farm harvest data that are being available from 1951-1952 onwards. However, comparison of price trends of the First Five Year Plan period with that of the subsequent Five Year Plan periods in the District will be of much interest, as it is likely to reflect success or otherwise of the efforts of the Government at planned economic development and raising the standard of living of the people.

From the prices in the Table given above it appears that during First Five Year Plan period there was neither a continually declining nor rising trend in the prices of any of the above foodgrains in the District. However, it becomes apparent that as compared to the first year of the First Five Year Plan, the prices of foodgrains in the last year, barring that of linseed, were favourable in 1954-55. Rice was, however, available at the lowest price in 1955-56.

The position of foodgrain production in the country as whole remained satisfactory during the First Five Year Plan period because of the favourable season and climatic conditions. Government, therefore, could claim to have achieved their planned objective of improving foodgrain production. Production of different foodgrains in the District during the Plan period was as under:

Table No. IX-5

Production of Foodgrains during First Plan

(In '000 tons)				
Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1951-52	401.3	8.0	9.7	5.2
1952-53	411.5	13.8	9.5	6.4
1953-54	441.8	7.0	6.9	4.9
1954-55	425.3	9.2	8.7	5.5
1955-56	505.6	9.5	10.4	6.6

Comparing this Table of production of foodgrains with that of the Table giving prices thereof, it cannot be said that prices of foodgrains, high or low, were the result of decline or increase in their production. Even so, the highest production of rice in the District was in 1955-56 and this was the year in which its price was also the lowest as compared to other years. Except for this single exception, for no other foodgrain it can be said that increase in its production might have led to the decline in its price or decline in its production has led to the rise in its price. For example, the highest production of wheat in the District was in 1952-53, but the lowest price recorded was not of that year. Its price was lowest in 1954-55. This is the case regarding the prices of other foodgrains also.

The Second Five Year Plan began with the year 1956-57. The prices of foodgrains during this Plan period are given in the Table below:

Table No. IX-6

Prices of Foodgrains during Second Plan

(In Rs. per maund)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1956-57	20	16.75	13.25	—
1957-58	—	16.39	—	—
1958-59	15.63	21.22	17.52	19.59
1959-60	10.28	15.19	12.62	18.05
1960-61	13.37	19.54	—	—

In comparing the First Five Year Plan period prices with the prices in the Table given above, it appears that price trend of rice during the Second Plan period was generally favourable for the consumers as compared to the First Five Year Plan period. The lowest price of rice during the Second Plan period was Rs. 10.28 per maund as against Rs. 13.93 of the First Plan period. Excepting the first two years of the Second Plan period the prices of wheat were on high side as compared to the last three years of the First Plan period. Prices of gram and linseed also remained at higher level during the Second Plan period. Maximum price of rice during the Second Plan period was Rs. 20 while it was Rs. 16.46 per maund during the First Plan period. Thus, prices of foodgrains in the District during the Second Plan period were high as compared to the prices during the First Five Year Plan period. The following Table will give figure regarding the production of these foodgrains in the District from 1956-57 to 1960-61.

Table No. IX-7

Production of Foodgrains 1956-57 to 1960-61

(In '000 tons)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1956-57	532.6	9.4	10.7	6.1
1957-58	366.1	4.6	8.0	2.4
1958-59	556.7	9.8	10.8	5.7
1959-60	479.6	12.8	12.7	5.8
1960-61	559.4	12.9	10.6	6.3

Comparing the production of foodgrains during the Second Plan period as shown above with that of the First Plan, the production of practically all foodgrains appears to have been higher during the Second Plan, especially production of rice which was on a progressive scale. Even in the case of other foodgrains, with the exception of one or two years, production remained at higher level during the Second Plan period as compared to the First Plan. All the same, prices of foodgrains during the Second Plan period were generally high. One of the reasons for this may be sought in the stepping-up of investment and expenditure by the Government and the fiscal and monetary policies adopted to accelerate the pace of development activities.

In the first year of the Third Plan, i.e., 1961-62 the price of rice in the District was Rs. 19.46 per maund. This figure was in excess by Rs. 6 per maund as compared to the price of rice obtaining in the last year of the Second Plan. Price of wheat in 1961-62 was Rs. 16.62 per maund, that of gram Rs. 16.04 and linseed Rs. 19.48. Price of wheat was at a lower level in this year as compared to the last year of the Second Plan. Prices of foodgrains from the year 1962-63 (onwards) were as under:

Table No. IX-8

Prices of Foodgrains 1962-63 to 1968-69

(In Rs. per quintal)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1962-63	58.27	44.31	37.50	49.96
1963-64	55.72	50.70	55.67	65.73
1964-65	60.07	56.40	—	73.54
1968-69	100.63	—	75.24	112.31

The figures given above indicate the continually rising trend in the prices of foodgrains in the District.

Economic conditions have changed vastly and factors like developmental planning and deficit budgeting, etc., have brought about the present phenomenal planning and deficit budgeting, etc., have brought about the present phenomenon of unusually high and continuously rising prices. Thus in this context it would be of common interest to have a look at the unbelievably cheap text it would be of common interest to have a look at the unbelievably cheap prices of yester-years of some other commodities of every day use. To quote from the old District Gazetteer, "For the thirteen years prior to the abolition of the customs line in 1874, the price of salt averaged 12 lbs. per rupee. During the next twenty years it remained fairly steady at 15 to 17 lbs. and in consequence of the recent reductions of duty it fell to 21 lbs. in 1903, 21 lbs. in

1905 and 23½ lbs. in 1907. Salt is obtained both from Bombay and Ganjam. Indian sugar, known as Mirzapuri, is now principally consumed and the imports of foreign sugar have considerably declined. Mirzapuri sugar sells at 6 lbs. and foreign sugar at 8 lbs. to the rupee. Gur or unrefined sugar is also largely obtained from northern India and can be had at 14 or 16 lbs. to the rupee, whereas the local product of Ratanpur which is considered to be better, sells at only 12 lbs. The price of ghi, melted butter, is from 1½ to 2 lbs. to the rupee. Milk is 16 to 20 lbs. for a rupee in towns and 32 lbs. in the interior. Grass costs about two rupees a thousand bundles and rice-straw four rupees a cart load. Firewood is two maunds to the rupee.”¹

Wages.

In the wake of the current century, i.e., in 1900, the monthly wage of an able bodied agricultural labourer in Bilaspur District was Rs. 4. The skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith were all on par in respect of their monthly wage which was Rs. 15-8-0. In 1901 the monthly wage-rate of all skilled workers simultaneously increased to Rs. 16 per month, but the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer remained at Rs. 4 per month upto 1905. In 1906, the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer increased to Rs. 6 per month. It further increased to Rs. 7 in 1907. All this while, i.e., from 1901 to 1909 the wage-rate of all skilled workers remained unchanged at Rs. 16 per month. In 1908 there was a fall in the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer from Rs. 7 of the previous year to Rs. 6, which remained unchanged in the following year. In 1910, there was again a decline in the monthly wage-rate of an agricultural labourer from Rs. 6 to Rs. 4 per month. From amongst the skilled workers the wage-rate of carpenter only increased in 1910, while the wage-rates of mason and blacksmith continued to be Rs. 16 per month. In 1911 there was again a change in the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer which increased from Rs. 4 of the previous year to Rs. 5 per month. Mason and carpenter continued to get Rs. 16, while carpenter got Rs. 20 per month. It was in 1912 that the wage-rates of all skilled workers became Rs. 20 per month. In this year there was an increase in the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per month. Thus the year 1912 was one of general increase in the level of wages. This was the year in which prices of foodgrains were higher than those in 1911, but increase in foodgrain prices was not so high as to effect an increase of Rs. 4 per month simultaneously in the wage-rate of mason and blacksmith. As a matter of fact carpenter was already getting Rs. 20 per month and there was no increase in his wage-rate in 1912. In so far as the prices of foodgrains are concerned, the level of prices was much higher in 1908 as compared to 1912. In 1908 prices of rice and wheat were 8.54 seers and 8.30 seers a rupee, respectively. As against this, in 1912, price of rice was 11.77 seers and wheat 12.31 seers a rupee. However,

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer* p. 157.

in spite of the higher prices of foodgrains in 1908, the rate of wage of skilled workers was Rs. 16 per month and that of an agricultural labourer Rs. 6 per month.

Considering the rates of wages of skilled workers and agricultural labourers from year to year, it is observed that in 1910 there was a rise in the wage-rate only of carpenter amongst skilled workers from Rs. 16 of the previous year to Rs. 20 per month. The rise was substantial. However, there was a fall in the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer in 1910 from Rs. 6 of the previous year to Rs. 4 per month. In 1911 there was a rise in the wage-rate of agricultural labourer to Rs. 5 per month while wage-rates of skilled workers remained unchanged. These erratic changes in the wage-rates from year to year cannot be explained away by changes in the prices of foodgrains. While prices of foodgrains and other necessities of life might affect the wage-rates, yet the demand and supply of a particular type of labour in the local conditions at a particular time has to be reckoned as a major factor in determination of wage-rates.

An year prior to the outbreak of the First World War, i.e., in 1913 the wage-rate of an agricultural labourer was Rs. 6 per month, while the skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith were getting a uniform wage-rate of Rs. 20 per month. In the first and second years of the War, there was no change in the wage-rates of either skilled or unskilled workers. It was in 1916 that the wage-rates for all categories had increased. Increase in wage-rate was the highest in the case of blacksmith. From Rs. 20 in 1915, the blacksmith's wage-rate increased to Rs. 27-8-0. Mason's wage-rate increased to Rs. 25 from Rs. 20 and carpenter's wage-rate from Rs. 20 to Rs. 22-8-0 per month. Thus, while the increase in the rates of wages in 1916 over 1915 ranged from Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 7-8-0 in the case of skilled workers, wage-rate of an unskilled agricultural worker increased by annas 0-8-0 only, i.e., from Rs. 6 per month in 1915 to Rs. 6-8-0 in 1916. How far these wage-rates were the result of the war-time demand for labour of all categories is difficult to say, but looking to the price of foodgrains, the position in 1916 was much better than that obtaining during the preceding two years of the War. Rice, wheat and gram prices were actually much lower in 1916 than in 1914 and 1915. Increase in wages in 1916 might, therefore, have been due to increase in demand for the labour. In 1918, the year of termination of hostilities in Europe, an agricultural labourer was getting Rs. 8 per month. Mason and carpenter were on the wage-rate of Rs. 25 per month and blacksmith Rs. 27-8-0.

It was observed while treating the topic of price level in the District that the price of foodgrains actually increased after the termination of the War, rather than during actual War period. The same general trend was found in the case of wage-rates too. In 1919, a year immediately after the

cessation of hostilities, the wage-rates, especially of the skilled workers, increased substantially. A mason and a carpenter whose wage-rate was Rs. 25 per month in 1918 began to get Rs. 30 per month in 1919.

The increase in the wage-rate of blacksmith was still higher, i.e., from Rs. 27-8-0 in 1918 to Rs. 35 per month in 1919. Prices of foodgrains in 1919 were higher than that in 1918. In 1918 rice and wheat prices were 9.06 and 6 seers a rupee, respectively, while in 1919, price of rice was 5.81 seers and wheat 5 seers a rupee. Price of gram in 1919 was 6 seers a rupee, which increased to 4.75 seers a rupee in 1919. If the rise in wage-rates of skilled workers has to be explained as a result of rise in prices of foodgrains the rise in the prices could not have affected only the skilled labour. In spite of the rise in prices of foodgrains there was no change in the wage-rate of agricultural labourer in 1919 as against 1918. However, there was an increase in the wage-rate of agricultural labourer in 1920 instead of 1919. The wage-rate of agricultural labourer in 1920 was Rs. 10 per month. But in this year the wage-rate of mason had fallen to Rs. 25 per month as against Rs. 30 in 1919. The price of rice in the District in 1920 was more than in 1919. There was a little decline in the prices of wheat and gram in 1920 as compared to 1919. Changes in the wage-rates in the same year for the same category of workers can only be ascribed to the state of supply and demand of a particular type of labour in a particular year. Foodgrain prices or prices of necessities of life might raise or lower wage-rates only in the long run, as the long term price trend is either rising or falling.

In 1921 there was a fall in the wage-rate of blacksmith from Rs. 35 to Rs. 30. In the following two years all skilled workers were getting Rs. 30 per month as wages while agricultural labourer got Rs. 10 per month. In 1924, the wage-rates of skilled workers ranged from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 and that of agricultural labourers from Rs. 10 to 12 per month. In 1925 the range of wage-rates of skilled workers became Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 per month. These rates remained operative upto 1927. In 1928 and 1929 the range of wage-rates of skilled workers became Rs. 25 to 45 per month and those of agricultural labourer Rs. 10 to 12 in 1928 and Rs. 6 to 12 per month in 1929, respectively.

The thirties of the present century saw a world-wide economic depression, the spell of which was broken up by the rumblings of the Second World War. The tremors of the collapse on Wall Street in America were felt in every niche and cranny all over the world. Unemployment became rife, because there was no demand for manufactured goods. Because of unemployment, purchasing power of the people was at its lowest ebb and prices of all commodities had slumped. Consequently, wage levels were also affected. Against this background of the world economic conditions, in 1930, the wage-

rate of agricultural labourers in Bilaspur District ranged from Rs. 6 to Rs. 16 per month. The range of mason's wage-rate was from Rs. 25 to Rs. 54. Carpenter's and blacksmith's wage-rates ranged from Rs. 25 to 60 and Rs. 30 to 54 per month, respectively. The wage data given above are available in minimum to maximum range and it is difficult to state whether actually the wage-rates were lower or higher. For example wage-rate of agricultural labourer in 1929 ranged from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 per month while in 1930 the range was from Rs. 6 to Rs. 16 per month. However, the wage-rates of skilled workers appear to have been generally higher in 1930 as compared to those in 1929.

For the period 1930 to 1938 daily wage-rates series are being used, the monthly wage-rate series being not available. Taking the period from 1930 to 1938, the wage-rates of agricultural labourer were lowest in 1936, 1937 and 1938. For all these three years his wage-rate was annas 0-1-6 to annas 0-5-0 per day. Wage-rates for skilled workers too were the lowest in these years. Mason's daily wage ranged from annas 0-8-0 to Re. 1 in 1936 and 1937. In 1938 the range was from annas 0-6-0 to Rs. 1-4-0 per day. Carpenter's wage rate was annas 0-12-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day in 1936 and 1937, but in 1938 the range was from annas 0-8-0 to Rs. 1-8-0. Blacksmith's wages ranged from annas 0-7-0 to Rs. 1-4-0 in 1936 and 1937, while in 1938 the range was from annas 0-8-0 to Rs. 1-4-0. Working out the figures for 30 days in a month the agricultural labourers' monthly wage appears to have ranged from Rs. 2-13-0 to Rs. 9-6-0 per month for the years 1936, 1937 and 1938. Monthly wages for skilled workers during these three years might be taken to have ranged from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30, Rs. 37-8-0 and Rs. 45 for different categories.

The wage-rates for skilled and unskilled workers in the District during the War period from 1939 to 1945 are tabulated below:¹

Table No. IX-9

Wage Rates (1939-45)

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Agricultural labourer	Mason	Carpenter	Blacksmith
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1939	5-8-0 to 19-0-0	12 to 30	12 to 70	15 to 80
1940	5-8-0 to 17-0-0	15 to 30	15 to 70	10 to 80
1942	3-10-0 to 15-0-0	15 to 30	15 to 70	10 to 80

1. The prices and wages figures are from old District Gazetteer, Vol. B, and from Statement of Rural and Urban wages prevailing in the Central Provinces and Berar for the years 1937 to 1945.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1943	5 to 17	22 to 45	22 to 70	15 to 80
1944	17 to 42	30 to 60	30 to 70	30 to 80
1945		15 to 60	20 to 90	60 to 90

From the above Table, it appears that there was a definite improvement in the wage-rate of agricultural labourer in 1939 as compared to 1938. It is difficult to say the same about mason's wage-rate, because working out the daily wages for 30 days in a month, the monthly wage for mason for 1938 works out to be from Rs. 11-4-0 to Rs. 37-8-0. In 1939 the range was from Rs. 12 to 30. Taking the minimum level, there appears to be some improvement, but maximum level had deteriorated. Carpenter's wage-rate on the monthly basis as worked out above ranged from Rs. 15 to 45 in 1938. In 1939 there was an improvement in the maximum. Similarly blacksmith's wage-rate in 1938 ranged from Rs. 15 to Rs. 37-8-0. In 1939 the range was from Rs. 15 to 80. Thus, except for the wage-rate of mason it may be said that the level of wages in 1939 was higher as compared to 1938. It is difficult to attribute this change categorically to the War-time conditions. From the wage data given above, it becomes difficult to state clearly whether wage-rates were declining or rising in the subsequent War years. However, from 1943 onwards generally an upward trend in wage-rates might be said to have set in. It may be mentioned here that, 1943-44 was also the year from which general increase in the prices of foodgrains had set in as has been pointed out earlier in this chapter while detailing price trends in the District.

As in the case of First World War, after the Second World War also the wage-rates were on the increase, and in 1949 the wage-rate of agricultural labourer was Rs. 25 to 60 and that of mason Rs. 30 to 120 per month. Carpenter's wage-rate in the same year ranged from Rs. 45 to 100 and that of blacksmith from Rs. 45 to 150 per month. Taking the pre-War minimum wage-rate of agricultural worker which was Rs. 2-13-0 or about Rs. 3 per month the minimum wage-rate in 1949 was Rs. 25 per month. This gives an increase of about eight times. Increase in the minimum wage-rate of skilled workers, however, was not much, but maximum limit of pre-War wage-rate became generally the minimum limit in the post-War years.

The rates of wages of agricultural labourer and different skilled workers in the District from 1950 to 1955 were as under.

Table No. IX-10

Rates of Wages (1950-1955)

(In Rs. per month)				
Year	Agricultural labourer	Mason	Carpenter	Blacksmith
1950	30 to 45	—	55	55 to 100
1951	30 to 60	55	55	55 to 100
1952	20 to 45	45 to 120	45 to 150	30 to 120
1953	20 to 45	50 to 100	70 to 100	80 to 100
1954	20 to 45	55 to 130	55 to 130	55 to 130
1955	45	90	120	135

The maximum limit of monthly wage of an agricultural labourer in 1949 was Rs. 60. During the period from 1950 to 1955 it was only in one year, i.e., 1951 that maximum limit was Rs. 60. Generally the maximum remained lower than that obtaining in 1949. Similarly the maximum limit of wage-rate for mason in 1949 was Rs. 120. It was only in 1954 that this limit was exceeded during a period of six years from 1950 to 1955. Carpenter's maximum wage-rate in 1949 was Rs. 100. During the six year period given above this maximum had reached Rs. 130 and Rs. 150 per month. There was a definite decline in the maximum wage-rate of blacksmith during the period mentioned above, as compared to the wage-rate in 1949.

The period from 1950 to 1955 was generally a period falling under the First Five Year Plan of economic development. During this period production of foodgrains in the country remained satisfactory and prices were at lower level. The rates of wages during this period have not declined as a result, but there was also no increase in wage-rates. There was no downward trend in wages, because of the tendency of wage-rates to stick to a level once reached. Downward or upward trend in wage-rates is a long-term phenomenon as has been stated earlier.

The wage-rates data utilised above related to the urban areas, and with the exception of a period from 1930 to 1938 the monthly wage-rates series was used. From 1956 onwards urban monthly wage-rates series being not available, rural daily wage-rates series are used. As a result, it is not possible to establish effective comparison between the wage-rates obtaining during the First Five Year Plan and subsequent Plan periods. However, a comparison between wage data during Second Plan period and subsequent

years can still be of interest. From 1956 onwards the rates of wages in the District were as under.

Table No. IX-11

Rates of Wages (1956 onwards)

(In Rs. per day)			
Year	Agricultural Labourer	Carpenter	Blacksmith
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1956	1.0	2.50	2.0
1957	1.25	2.00	1.50
1958	1.25	2.00	1.42
1959	1.00	2.00	1.62
1960	1.25	2.50	1.69
1965	1.12	3.00	2.32
1969	1.25	3.25	2.25

Note.—Daily wages as above are for the month of June in every year.

From the figures quoted above it is observed that in rural areas the wage rates of carpenter were generally at a higher level than those of blacksmith. It may be said that by 1960 an upward trend in rural artisan's wage-rates was established.

Standard of Living

The pattern of livelihood in the District dealt with in the earlier pages shows that agriculture remained a predominant source of livelihood in the District, and that, in 1951, the percentage of "workers" in agriculture to the total "workers" was 82.74, which increased to 86.14 per cent over a decade in 1961. Some idea of the economic condition of this very substantial portion of population in the District can be had from the results of the Agricultural Labour Enquiry conducted by the Government of India, Ministry of Labour, during 1950-51.

For purposes of Agricultural Labour Enquiry, Bilaspur District formed part of the Rice Zone, and agricultural labour conditions for the zone as a whole are *ipso facto* taken to be conditions of agricultural labour in the District.

Taking self-supporting persons under category III of Agricultural classes, i.e., cultivating labourers plus earning dependants in respect of their secondary means of livelihood of 1951 Census as equivalent to "workers" in category II i.e., agricultural labourers of 1961 Census, there was a substantial decline in the population of this class over a decade. In 1951 the number of persons was 388,692, while in 1961, it was 218,273. The percentage of agricultural "workers" to total "workers" in all the different occupational classes for 1951 was a little over 39, and the results of the Agricultural Labour Enquiry for Rice Zone might be taken to be representative of this portion of the population of "workers" in the District.

As a background of agricultural economy in the Rice Zone which practically included all the districts in Chhattisgarh Division, it was stated that out of the total area in the sample villages, 38.9 per cent was not sown and that 41.7 per cent was under forests. Irrigation in the Zone was considerable; it covered about 18.9 per cent of the sown area. Of the total area under principal crops 84 per cent was under paddy cultivation during the period of the Enquiry. Some 30 villages and 479 agricultural labour families were intensively surveyed in this Enquiry from Rice Zone. This Zone had the highest percentage of agricultural labour families holding land. It will, however, be interesting to know here that out of the total of 354,226 agricultural holdings in 1951 in Bilaspur District 95,313 agricultural holdings were not exceeding one acre each and 55,672 exceeding one acre, but not exceeding two acres. This nature of agricultural holdings in the District explains the highest percentage of agricultural labour families holding land in Rice Zone.

For Rice Zone, size of the agricultural labour family was 4.6 and earning strength 2.6, out of which the number of wage-earners was 2.5. The difference between the average earning strength and the number of wage-earners is to be accounted for by the earners who were employed on their own land and in non-agricultural work. Thus an earner employed on his/her land or engaged in non-agricultural work for Rice Zone per family was 0.1.

Agricultural labour was divided into two categories, casual workers and attached workers. The extent of employment for casual workers in agricultural labour in Rice Zone was 214 days for men and 95 days for women. Employment in non-agricultural labour was 11 days for men and the same number of days for women. Attached workers were employed for the whole year or for shorter periods of 3 to 6 months. The average days of unemployment for adult male worker were 47 in Rice Zone.

Average daily wages in Rice Zone in agricultural labour were Rs. 0-11-4 for men and Re. 0-8-4 for women. In non-agricultural labour, while

wage-rate for men was the same as in agricultural labour, for women workers the wage-rate was Re. 0-6-5.

The average annual income per family of agricultural labourer, casual and attached with an earning strength of a family of 2.6 persons was Rs. 324. Out of this, income from cultivation of land was Rs. 31, while that from agricultural labour Rs. 261. From non-agricultural labour income was Rs. 23. Occupations other than farming brought in Rs. 8 while income from other sources Re. 1. Income from agricultural labour formed 80.5 per cent of the average annual income per family.

As against an average annual income of Rs. 324 per family of 4.6 members, annual expenditure per family on consumption was Rs. 340 and on ceremonies Rs. 2. In per capita terms the annual income was Rs. 70.5 while expenditure was Rs. 74. Thus the total annual deficit per family was of the order of Rs. 18.

The proportion of expenditure on food was 91.4 per cent of total expenditure. Such a high proportion of expenditure on food is indicative of the low level of living of the labour families. As a matter of fact, diet of a labourer consisted of the main cereal, i.e., rice, which was usually consumed in the form of *pej*, a kind of rice soup prepared with slightly fermented rice-flour boiling in water in an earthen pot. Wheat, gram, jowar, kodo-kutki and pulses of tur, lakhoori and urd were also consumed, but in meagre quantities. During the months of April and May when workers were not fully employed, *mahua* fruit, beans, etc., mixed with salt and chillies were consumed. Proportion of expenditure of clothing and footwear was 4.6 while that on services and miscellaneous group was 3.1 per cent of the total expenditure. Fuel and lighting claimed 0.8 per cent while house-rent and repairs 3.1 per cent.

Average debt per indebted family in Rice Zone was Rs. 32. Loans taken from employers formed 41 per cent of the total, 0.6 per cent from shopkeepers, 1.2 per cent from co-operative societies, 11.2 per cent from money-lenders and 46 per cent from other sources.

Taking the above data about the economic condition of agricultural labour in Rice Zone as representative of the condition of agricultural labour in Bilaspur District it may be stated that about 40 per cent of the total "workers" were perpetually in debts even for the satisfaction of the bare necessities of life like food and clothing.

Besides agricultural labour, the cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned formed a substantial portion of the agricultural class. It formed 43.59 per cent of the total "wor-

kers" in all the occupational classes in 1951. The All India Rural Credit Survey of 1951-52 conducted under the auspices of the Reserve Bank of India covered Bilaspur District in its sample for the purpose of this Survey. The cultivators as a class were divided into four classes, namely, big cultivators, large cultivators, medium cultivators and small cultivators. The proportion of the total area of holdings held by big cultivators was 47.5, while the large cultivators held 71.8 per cent, medium cultivators 22.0 per cent and small cultivators 6.2 per cent. The proportion of indebted families from each of the four classes of cultivators was 35.9 from big, 46.4 from large, 52.0 from medium and 55.2 per cent from small cultivators. These figures indicate that percentage of indebted families was lowest from big cultivators and highest from small cultivators. However, average debt per family was highest, i.e., Rs. 266 for big cultivators and lowest, i.e., 113 for small cultivators. Average debt per family of large cultivators was Rs. 208 and medium Rs. 126. Though the percentage of indebted families was lowest in the cultivation class, yet debt per family was the highest there. Similarly, for the small cultivating class, though the debt per family was lowest, the proportion of indebted families was the highest. The proportion of borrowing for family expenditure was the highest, i.e., 55.2 per cent of the total borrowings. Next in order of magnitude was the borrowing for capital expenditure on farm, i.e., 33.0 per cent. Borrowing for current expenditure on farm was 7.6 per cent. The items included in family expenditure were constructions and repairs of residential houses and other buildings, purchase of household utensils, furniture, etc., death ceremonies, marriage and other ceremonies, medical expenses, educational expenses, expenses on clothing, shoes, bedding, etc. Average expenditure per family on these items was the highest, i.e., Rs. 1,145 for big cultivating class and the lowest, i.e., Rs. 124 for small cultivating class. The average total investment, capital expenditure in agriculture, repayment of old debts, capital expenditure in non-farm business and financial investment was Rs. 567 for big cultivators. Average total disinvestment, i.e., borrowings and sale of assets was of the order of Rs. 300. Average net investment by this class was Rs. 267. For large cultivating class the total investment was Rs. 308. Average total disinvestment was Rs. 204. The average net investment was Rs. 114. In the case of medium cultivators, however, average disinvestment was higher, i.e., Rs. 87 than average total investment, i.e., Rs. 69. The average net disinvestment was Rs. 18. In the case of small cultivators also the average net disinvestment was Rs. 18. This shows that amongst cultivators it was only big and large cultivators who were above the subsistence level of existence.

Next to agricultural class there are "workers" in industries whose proportion was 7.26 per cent of the total "workers" in the District in 1961. This included the workers in mining and quarrying, household industries, and manufacturing industries other than household. The single largest industry in the District is rice milling which is seasonal in nature. In

1965 there were 153 rice mills, out of which 77 were covered under the Factories Act, 1948. Next to rice milling is *bidi* manufacturing. There were 20 *bidi* factories in 1965, out of which 11 were covered under the Factories Act. Other industries were oil milling, saw milling, *dal* milling, furniture making, etc. There were only one oil mill, one *dal* mill and seven saw mills covered under the Factories Act, 1948. Under the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962 minimum wages were fixed for rice, *dal*, flour and oil mill workers, as well as for *bidi* workers. Minimum wages for unskilled workers in Bilaspur District were Rs. 1.50 per day for male and Rs. 1.25 for female. For skilled and semi-skilled workers, the rates were 3.25 and Rs. 2.50 per day. A clerical worker in these factories got Rs. 60 per month as a minimum wage. Minimum wage for rolling 1,000 *bidis* as revised in 1966 was Rs. 2.20. For a worker in-charge of issuing tobacco and *tendu* leaves or receiving *bidis* or checking and sorting them, the monthly wage was Rs. 95. For a worker engaged in loading and unloading trucks, packing and bagging of *bidis* the monthly wage was Rs. 65. For *Bhattiwalla* the monthly wage was also fixed at Rs. 65. Minimum wage-rate for workers employed on construction and maintenance of roads or in building operations was also fixed at Rs. 1.50 per day for male unskilled worker and Rs. 1.25 for unskilled female worker. Wages for skilled and semi skilled workers were fixed at Rs. 3.25 and Rs. 2.50 per day. Minimum wages for drivers and conductors in public motor transport were fixed at Rs. 90 and Rs. 80 per month, respectively. Wage-rate for unskilled workers in public motor transport was fixed at Rs. 50 per month. Thus a large part of the workers in industries and transport services was covered under the minimum wage legislation. Social welfare legislations in the Central as well as State Government spheres like Employees Provident Fund Act, 1952, Employees State Insurance Act, 1948, Workmen's Compensation and Maternity Benefits Acts, provide certain benefits to the industrial workers wherever these enactments are applicable and, to that extent, help increasing the real wages.

Besides the workers in agriculture and industries, there are those engaged in different services and who are generally classified as fixed income earners. All persons in this category are facing the rigours of the increasing cost of living and finding it difficult to maintain the living standards to which they are accustomed.

The data given above from the enquiries conducted on regional basis by the Government of India and the Reserve Bank of India relate to the early 'fifties. However, in the absence of fresh enquiries into the economic conditions of the people, it is difficult to state as to whether the conditions have improved or deteriorated. But looking to the economic conditions generally, it may be said that the lower and middle class people are experiencing great difficulties in maintaining the standard of living appropriate to each class.

General Level of Employment

Earlier, in the section on pattern of livelihood, it was found that, in 1961, only 7.26 per cent of the total population of "workers" in the District was engaged in mining and quarrying, household and manufacturing other than household industries taken together. The "workers" in services and miscellaneous occupations formed 3.58 per cent of the total "workers". The highest proportion of "workers" was, however, engaged in agriculture.

The proportion of "workers" in agriculture in the District had increased to 86.14 per cent in 1961 from 82.75 per cent in 1951. This, however, does not mean that agriculture offers additional employment opportunities. It is only because there are no employment opportunities in other sectors. There is no full-time employment in agriculture. As a matter of fact, underemployment is a characteristic feature of Indian agriculture to which the agricultural sector in the District cannot be an exception. Even this overcrowded field of employment has failed recently on account of the two successive years of drought, i.e., 1965-66 and 1966-67. This can be seen from the fact that for the quarter ending 30th June, 1966, employment in relief works due to scarcity condition in the District was of the order of 13,45,770. By 30th September, 1966, employment on relief works had fallen to 2,84,803. This was reportedly due to the suspension of relief work during rainy season.

According to quarterly Employment Market Report there was decline in employment both in Public and Private sector establishments in the District in the quarter ending September, 1966 as compared to June 1966. Combined employment index which was 99.7 in June 1966, declined to 97.7 in September 1966.

An idea of the extent of employment available in the District at a point of time in mining, manufacturing industries and services can be had from the Employment Market Report for the quarter ending September, 1966, salient features from which are given below.

Employment in coal mining was 4,005 and in dolomite mining 314. In the field of manufacturing industries, rice milling, *bidi* making and cotton spinning were important from the point of view of providing employment. Rice milling establishments employed 152 persons, *bidi* making 433 and cotton spinning 467 persons. Employment in industries like spinning and weaving of *kosa*, sawing of wood, manufacture of pulp, printing and publishing, manufacture of soap and other manufactures together was 188. It may, however, be

noted here that the figures of employment refer to the number of reporting establishments only.

In services sector the highest employment was in educational services, rendered by schools and colleges. The number was 6,631 as on 30th September, 1966. The total employment in the services group was 15,936, which, besides the Central and State Government employment, included services rendered by Local Bodies, scientific, medical, welfare, business, community, recreation and catering services, as well.

Employment Exchange

Employment exchange organisation is working in the District since March, 1958. Originally the jurisdiction of the Exchange, besides Bilaspur, extended over Raigarh district as well. From January 1962, with the opening of a separate Employment Exchange for Raigarh district, the jurisdiction of the employment exchange is restricted to Bilaspur District only.

The Employment Market Information Scheme in the public sector was introduced by the Exchange with effect from the 1st of May 1958 and was subsequently extended to cover establishments in the private sector from the month of December, 1961. Under this Scheme data regarding employment and unemployment trends in the District are collected on quarterly basis and manpower requirements of different industries and occupations assessed.

From the 1st of July 1964 the Vocational Guidance Unit also started functioning in the Exchange. The Unit assists employment seekers in making a choice of occupations as well as careers by providing information regarding training facilities, etc.

The Employment Information and Assistance Bureau is also functioning at Malkharoda Block in the District since 1st January, 1962, as a sub-office of the Employment Exchange. The Bureau functions as an agency for disseminating information regarding employment opportunities available to the population in the Block area and helps in preventing the shifting of rural population to urban areas in search of employment.

An idea of the working of the Employment Exchange can be had from the number of employment seekers registered at the Exchange, their placement, etc., given below:

Table No. IX-12

Working of Employment Exchange

Year (1)	Registration (2)	Placement (3)	No. on Live Register (4)
1960-61	6,140	1,171	2,142
1961-62	8,644	1,497	1,846
1962-63	8,353	1,370	2,199
1963-64	8,356	1,399	2,448
1964-65	10,553	2,068	2,905
1965-66	10,658	1,638	3,403

If the number of registrations and the number on Live Register of the Exchange are any guide to the employment position in the District, they indicate growing unemployment. However, with the establishment of a cement factory at Jairamnagar, an Aluminium Plant at Korba in collaboration with the Hungarian Government and a 100 to 200 M.W. Thermal Power Station in the Hasdeo Project Circle, employment opportunities are likely to be created on a large scale. Industrial development of Korba area in the District is progressing and with it the employment prospects are also likely to improve.

National Planning and Community Development

Under the Community Development Programme Bilaspur District had its first two Development Blocks at Masturi, in Bilaspur Tahsil and at Lormi in Mungeli Tahsil, both established on the 2nd of October 1953. Masturi Block had an area of 857.29 sq. km., with 177 villages and 107,534 people. Lormi Block, similarly, covered an area of 523.18 sq. km. with 234 villages and a population of 67,000. In the next year, on 1st April 1954, two more Blocks were established, one at Nawagarh (Janjgir) in Janjgir Tahsil and the other at Sakti in Sakti Tahsil. Nawagarh Block had an area of 647.50 sq. km. with 111 villages and 99,100 population, while Sakti Block covered 213.39 sq. km. having 124 villages and 66,415 population. During the First Five Year Plan period there were thus four Community Development Blocks in the District.

During the period 1956 to 1960, 13 more Blocks were established at different places in the District as detailed in the Table below:

Table No. IX-13

Location and Population of Development Blocks (1956-60)

S. No.	Name of the Block	Date of Establishment	No. of Villages	Area in sq. km.	Population
1	Katghora	1-4-56	158	468.79	55,328
2	Pondriuprora	2-10-56	219	2,447.54	54,390
3	Mungeli	2-10-56	276	598.29	74,241
4	Marvahi	2-10-56	100	776.99	52,604
5	Akaltara	2-10-56	82	391.09	61,044
6	Malkharoda	2-10-57	113	349.65	70,971
7	Takhatpur	1-4-57	181	742.97	90,845
8	Pamgarh	1-4-58	78	448.07	63,545
9	Pandaria	1-4-58	287	836.57	60,028
10	Gaurela	2-10-58	125	774.41	58,959
11	Jaijaipur	1-4-59	101	429.94	74,787
12	Champa	1-4-60	82	347.06	71,360
13	Korba	2-10-60	154	839.16	48,344

By the end of the Second Five Year Plan period there were, in all, 17 Blocks which covered a little over 58 per cent of the total population of the District according to 1961 Census.

During the Third Five Year Plan period, upto the year 1963, seven more Blocks were opened, making a total of 24 in the District. The particulars of these seven Blocks are given below:

Table No. IX-14

Development Blocks Opened during Third Plan

S. No.	Name of the Block	Date of Establishment	No. of Villages	Area in sq. km.	Population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Bilaspur	1-4-61	181	864.99	1 03,703
2	Pali	2-10-61	139	989.38	71,488
3	Kota, (Kargi Road)	1-5-62	164	813.26	79,400

4	Patharia	1-4-62	159	515.41	72,295
5	Baloda	1-4-62	198	383.32	69,906
6	Kartala	2-10-62	122	572.39	58,841
7	Dabhara (Chandrapur)	2-10-62	126	424.76	91,449

With the addition of these seven Blocks the population covered under Block Development activities increased to a little over 85 per cent of the total population as per 1961 Census.

Block Development activities aim at the economic and social betterment of the rural masses. As such development of agriculture, provision of education, public health facilities, promotion of co-operatives, etc., are some of the important activities that are undertaken under the Community Development Programme. The work done in these different spheres of activities was as follows.

Agriculture

In order to improve agriculture, stress has been laid on the provision of improved seeds, chemical and other fertilizers, provision of irrigation facilities and demonstration of better methods of cultivation.

During the Second Five Year Plan period the quantity of improved seeds distributed for all the Blocks existing during that period was 65,055.61 quintals and chemical fertilizers 1,05,212.76 quintals. The number of agricultural demonstrations given during the same period was 13,168.

Under the minor irrigation facilities which include provision of well and tank irrigation, 363 new wells were constructed and 133 old wells renovated. Irrigation tanks constructed during the Second Plan period numbered 14. The land brought under cultivation was 2,797.59 hectares.

For the first two years of the Third Five Year Plan, i.e., 1961-62 and 1962-63 the quantities of improved seeds distributed was 17,874.20 and 32,835.01 quintals, respectively. In addition to this, quantities of improved seeds other than those of cereals distributed during 1961-62 and 1962-63 were 576.33 and 891.75 quintals, respectively. Similarly, quantities of chemical fertilizers distributed in 1961-62 and 1962-63 were 26,019.41 and 29,914.52 quintals, respectively. Besides chemical fertilizers, other fertilizers distrib-

ed amounted to 170.95 quintals in 1961-62 and 969.39 quintals in 1962-63. In 1961-62 a total of 3022 agricultural demonstrations were given in the Block areas. The number of such demonstrations in 1962-63 was 3,786.

For irrigation purposes, 273 new wells were provided in 1961-62. The number of such wells in 1962-63 was 881. As many as 110 and 239 wells were renovated in 1961-62 and 1962-63, respectively. The number of new tanks constructed for irrigation purposes was 49 for these two years. Besides the construction of new irrigation tanks 52 old tanks were repaired in 1961-62 and 174 in 1962-63.

Under the programme of improvement in agriculture, land reclamation activity was taken up during the Third Plan period. In 1961-62, 1052.59 hectares of land was reclaimed, while in 1962-63 the land reclaimed was 3,339.87 hectares.

Some of the activities other than those mentioned above undertaken in the Block areas for agricultural improvements were distribution of improved implements, setting up of seed multiplication farms, terracing and bunding of land, etc.

Public Health

The rural areas being notoriously deficient in the availability of drinking water facilities, emphasis was rightly placed on construction and renovation of wells for drinking water in the Block areas. The new wells constructed during the Second Plan period for providing drinking water numbered 619, while old wells renovated were 254.

Another public health activity was the establishment of primary health centres and sub-centres in Block areas. During the Second Plan period the total number of such health centres and sub-centres was 24.

In the first two years of the Third Plan, i.e., in 1961-62 and 1962-63, the number of new drinking water wells constructed was 207 and 173, respectively, while those renovated numbered 528 and 61.

The number of primary health centres and sub-centres functioning in the Block areas was 13 in 1961-62 and 15 in 1962-63. In addition, there were 58 rural dispensaries functioning in 1961-62 and 68 in 1962-63. There were also 21 maternity and child welfare centres functioning in 1961-62 and 24 in 1962-63.

Provisions of soakage pits, rural latrines, construction of drains, etc., were some other activities in the Block areas under public health programme.

Education

Activities in this sphere were directed towards establishment of adult literacy centres, and provision of reading rooms and libraries. During the Second Plan period a total of 331 literacy centres were established in the Blocks. The number of adults made literate during the period was 4,824. The number of reading rooms and libraries established was 270. Fortyone literacy centres were established in 1962-63 as against 32 in 1961-62. The number of adults made literate in 1961-62 and 1962-63 was 361 and 615, respectively. The number of reading rooms and libraries started was 46 in 1961-62 and 73 in 1962-63. Some ordinary and basic type schools were also functioning in the Block areas during this period. Such schools in 1961-62 numbered 785 with an enrolment of 48,722 students. As against this the number of schools in 1962-63 was 942 with 75,240 students.

Co-operation

A large number of co-operative societies are being started in the Block areas. Besides co-operative credit and marketing societies, many cottage industries like handloom weaving, tanning and shoe-making, oil-seeds crushing, etc., are being worked on a co-operative basis. During the Second Five Year Plan period the number of all types of co-operative societies in the Block areas was 1,323. In 1961-62 and 1962-63, the co-operative societies functioning in the Block areas were 1,454 and 1,252, respectively. The number of co-operative societies newly started was 191 in 1961-62 and 135 in 1962-63.

Communication

Construction of roads and culverts to connect rural areas with main transport routes has also been undertaken in the Block areas. During the Second Five Year Plan period a total of 1,459.68 km. of *kutchha* roads and 87 culverts were constructed. This activity does not appear to have continued during the Third Five Year Plan period.

Social activities in Block areas included setting up of recreation centres, organisation of youth clubs, youth camps, children's camps, farmers' unions, *mahila samitis*, etc.

Expenditure incurred by the Government on all Block Development activities during the Second Five Year Plan period was Rs. 88.96 lakhs. Value

of people's contribution towards these development activities during the same period amounted to Rs. 17.12 lakhs.

In 1961-62 the expenditure incurred by Government was Rs. 24.20 lakhs with people's contribution amounting to Rs. 4.96 lakhs. In the following year, i.e., 1962-63 Government's expenditure was Rs. 31.50 lakhs and people's contribution Rs. 9.17 lakhs. The various development activities undertaken by the Government did have beneficial effects on the socio-economic conditions of the rural population in the areas covered under different Blocks.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

For the purpose of general administration Bilaspur District has been divided territorially into five sub-divisions, namely, Bilaspur, Mungeli, Janjgir, Katghora and Sakti. It forms part of Bilaspur Division.

Before 1956 Bilaspur District was in the charge of a Deputy Commissioner, later known as Collector. When the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh was constituted, it was considered expedient that in such a large State where different areas have their own characteristic problems there should be an effective intermediary authority between the Government on the one hand and the Collectors (the then Deputy Commissioners) on the other. Accordingly, the posts of Commissioners at Divisional level were revived from the 1st November 1956. Under this set-up, Bilaspur Division came into existence, comprising the districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja.

Commissioner's Office

The Commissioner is principally the Head of the Revenue Department in his Division. In so far as the needs and exigencies of the District administration are concerned, he is expected to keep himself abreast of all political happenings, outbreaks of lawlessness, and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as, serious mal-administration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machinery. He is at the same time responsible for making periodical inspections of the offices of all revenue officers in his charge. He has the powers to hear appeals or revise orders passed by the subordinate executive magistrates under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1959, Arms Act, and Explosives Act. The Commissioner is entrusted with the execution of the schemes connected with the planning and development, and he coordinates activities of various departments in this sphere. As in 1967 five posts of Gazetted Officers have been created in the Division to assist the Commissioner in his work. They are Development Assistant, Assistant Director of Small Savings, Assistant Director of Food Supplies, Accounts Officer (Revenue), and Accounts Officer (Development). In addition there is one Superintendent and Six Assistant Superintendents with usual staff to carry out the day-do-day work of the Commissioner's Office.

District Administration

The District is the basic unit of administration. The Collector, as the head of the district administration, is the key functionary of the Government, having large powers and wide responsibilities. In many ways he is the chief custodian of law and authority, the pivot on which the local administration turns. He is the chief executive officer of the District and as such he exercises general supervision over various departments of the Government with regard to their non-technical work. Coordination of the activities of various departments, control over local self-governing bodies with power to intervene, if necessary, contact with the public in committees, or during interviews with visitors, execution of Government schemes like National Savings Campaign and Grow More Food Campaign, miscellaneous functions, such as panchayats, census, election and relief measures in time of emergencies like floods, epidemics, etc., also come within his purview. In recent years the position of Collector, as the head of district administration, has become one of expanding responsibilities.

Collectorate

The Collector of Bilaspur had, in 1968, 12 Deputy Collectors, 3 Assistant Collectors, a Treasury Officer and an Excise Officer to assist him. One of the Assistant Collectors is in charge of Bilaspur sub-division, while the four sub-divisions of Katghora, Janjgir, Mungeli and Sakti are in the charge of a Deputy Collector each. The headquarters of Sub-Divisional Officer, Katghora is located at Bilaspur. One of the Deputy Collectors is designated Administrator, Municipal Committee, Bilaspur, while another functions as Food Officer. The remaining six Deputy Collectors and two Assistant Collectors assist the Collector in the work relating to Law and Order, Development, Election and other branches of the Collectorate. The narrative on the organisational set-up of the Collectorate may be divided into three main heads: (i) Land Revenue and Land Records, (ii) Law and Order and (iii) Development.

For the administration of the first group of subjects Bilaspur District is divided into five tahsils, each tahsil also constituting a sub-division. Each sub-division is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer of the Land Revenue rank either of an Assistant Collector, or a Deputy Collector. Land and Land Records They are also Sub-Divisional Magistrates. Each Sub-Divisional Officer is in charge of the Janapada Sabha of the Tahsil and is styled Chief Executive Officer while discharging duties pertaining to that Body. There are two Tahsildars each posted at Bilaspur, Katghora and Sakti, and one Tahsildar each at Mungeli and Janjgir. Besides, one Additional Tahsildar each is posted at Pendra in Bilaspur Tahsil and Koiba

in Katghora Tahsil. The Tahsildars and Additional Tahsildars are assisted by Naib-Tahsildars, who number seven in Bilaspur tahsil, five each in Mungeli and Janjgir tahsils and three each in Katghora and Sakti tahsils.

At the village level, the Land Revenue and Land Records work is carried on by the Patwari whose office in the past was hereditary. There are, in all, 530 Patwaris in the District. There are 32 Revenue Inspectors supervising the work of the Patwaris. The following Table gives the tahsil-wise details of their number and the villages in their charge.

Table No. X-1.

Revenue Circles

Sl. No.	Name of Tahsil	No. of Revenue Inspectors Circle	No. of Patwari Circle	No. of Villages
1	Bilaspur	10	152	929
2	Mungeli	6	92	956
3	Janjgir	6	116	447
4	Katghora	6	90	792
5	Sakti	4	80	464
Total		32	530	3588

At the district level a Superintendent of Land Records, assisted by four Assistant Superintendents of Land Records, supervises the work of Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris.

There is a Consolidation Officer, attached to the Collectorate, who is assisted by a compliment of staff almost all of whom are drawn from the Revenue Department.

The Collector is also the District Magistrate. In the maintenance of law and order the Collector as District Magistrate is assisted by the Magistracy and the Police. There is one Additional District Magistrate, posted at the District headquarters, and five Sub-Divisional Magistrates at the Tahsil headquarters. Besides, on need other Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars with magisterial powers are deputed for the work. The police force of the District is headed by a Superintendent of Police.

The Collector is assisted by a Deputy Collector in the work relating to the Development Section of the Collectorate. There are 24 Community Development Blocks in the District. Each block¹ is provided with a team of Extension Officers drawn from various departments including Agriculture, Veterinary, Industries and Social Welfare. In addition there are village level workers, both men and women known as *Gram Sevaks* and *Gram sevikas*, in each block.

In order to secure effective participation of the people in planning and execution of development programmes, a Block Advisory Committee is constituted at each Block, the pattern of which is uniform throughout the State. Headed by the Collector, the Committee consists of the local members of Parliament and State Assembly, Chairmen of the Janapada Sabhas and member of Gram Panchayats, etc. The Committee advises the formulation of working Plans and Development Programmes of the Block, reviews the progress made, and promotes people's participation and co-operation.

The Collector is also associated with a number of other committees in the District, namely, District Advisory Committee, District Complaint Committee, Vivekanand Shila Smarak Samiti, etc. Important District Level among these is the District Advisory Committee. The Collector is the Chairman of the Committee which consists of

- (i) All Members of Vidhan Sabha elected from constituencies in the District.
- (ii) All Members of Parliament from the District.
- (iii) All Chairmen of Janapada Sabhas in the District.
- (iv) All Presidents of Municipal Committees of the District.
- (v) The President of the District Co-operative Bank.

The District and Divisional level officers of various Departments, Administrators of Municipal Committees and Chief Executive Officers of the Janapada Sabhas are also associated with the District Advisory Committee, while other concerned officers are specially invited.

The Collector appoints one of his assistants as Secretary of the Committee. The meeting is convened at least once in every two months. The functions of this committee are advisory in nature. Problems purely of local importance are discussed by this committee.

1. Prior to 1st January 1966 each block was headed by a Block Development Officer, but the posts have since been abolished.

Statutory Powers of Collector

The Collector is also vested with statutory powers under Excise Act, so as to enable him to implement the Excise and Prohibition Policy of the Government. He is also responsible for the excise administration and collection of excise revenue in the District. For this purpose there is a Special Excise Staff headed by the District Excise Officer, assisted by the Sub-Divisional Officers and Tahsildars. The District Excise Officer is also assisted by a complement of Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Constables and usual office staff. The District is divided into 9 Excise Circles each of which is placed in the charge of an Excise Sub-Inspector. Supervising their work is the District Excise Officer who is assisted by two Excise Inspectors. There is one Special Duty Sub-Inspector with headquarters at Bilaspur in order to safeguard revenue under fiscal Acts, such as Entertainment Duty, Tobacco, etc. There are also three Ware-Houses in the District located at Bilaspur, Mungeli and Gaurella, under the charge of a Sub-Inspector each.

The control of the District Treasury is vested in the Collector. An Officer of the Madhya Pradesh Accounts Services looks after the work of the District Treasury at Bilaspur. The work of the sub-treasuries located at Janjgir, Sakti, Mungeli, Pendra Road and Katghora is looked after by the Tahsildars of that place, who are *ex-officio* Sub-Treasury Officers.

The Collector is also charged with authority under Registration Act. The District Registrar's Office is located at Bilaspur. The Sub-Divisional Officer, Bilaspur, also functions as the District Registrar. There are seven offices of the Sub-Registrars, located at Bilaspur, Mungeli, Janjgir, Sakti, Katghora, Pendra-Road and Korba under the over-all supervision of the Collector, Bilaspur.

The Collector is also assigned the work relating to many other miscellaneous subjects, such as Elections, Food and Civil Supplies, etc. For the work relating to Food and Civil Supplies, there is no separate Food and Civil Supplies Office in the District. The District Food Officer is a Deputy Collector. He is assisted by 2 Assistant Food Officers, 15 Food and Civil Supplies Inspectors, 5 Assistant Inspectors, 4 Store keepers and usual staff.

The Collector works as an agent to the State Government in the District and is the chief co-ordinating authority at the district level. In order to strengthen his position as the Chief Administrator of the District, the State Government conferred many powers on him in 1966. The Collector has been

authorised to issue instructions to any Officer at district level, excepting those of Judiciary, Labour and Sales Tax Departments almost of mandatory nature. But in the event of the District Officer concerned feeling that the instructions issued are either wrong technically or impracticable, he could refer the matter to the Commissioner of the Division; the Commissioner having been authorised to take the final decision in consultation with the Head of the Department concerned. The Collector has also been empowered to inspect the district level offices. Further, every important scheme to be implemented in the District has to be brought to the notice of the Collector, so that he could keep an eye on the work being done.

Other Important District Offices

The following list of important district level officers, who are administratively under the control of their own heads of departments, gives an idea of the different departments of the State Government functioning in the District.

1. Superintendent of Police, Bilaspur
2. District and Sessions Judge, Bilaspur
3. Civil Surgeon, Bilaspur
4. Employment Officer, Bilaspur
5. Senior Medical Officer, National Leprosy Centre, Champa
6. Superintendent, District Jail, Bilaspur
7. Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (B & R), Bilaspur
8. Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (B & R), Construction Division, Bilaspur
9. Executive Engineer, Hasdeo Dam Division, Korba
10. Executive Engineer, Hasdeo Barrage Division, Korba
11. Executive Engineer, Hasdeo Canal Division, Korba
12. Executive Engineer, Public Health Division, Bilaspur
13. Executive Engineer, Kharung Division, Bilaspur
14. Chairman, Project Implementing Committee, Pamgarh
15. Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bilaspur
16. Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur
17. Divisional Forest Officer, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur
18. Divisional Forest Officer, North Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur

19. Divisional Forest Officer, Plantation Division, Bilaspur
20. Fishery Officer, Bilaspur
21. District Live Stock Officer, Bilaspur
22. District Publicity Officer, Bilaspur
23. Company Commandant, Home Guards, Bilaspur
24. Assistant Director of Industries, Bilaspur
25. Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, Bilaspur
26. Consolidation Officer, Bilaspur
27. District Excise Officer, Bilaspur
28. District Education Officer, Bilaspur
29. District Statistical Officer, Bilaspur
30. District Organiser, Tribal Welfare, Bilaspur
31. District Welfare Officer, Bilaspur
32. Sales Tax Officer, Bilaspur
33. Superintendent, Land Records, Bilaspur
34. Executive Engineer, Electrical and Mechanical Division, Bilaspur

Divisional Offices

Bilaspur being the Divisional headquarters, the following Divisional Offices are also located here.

1. Commissioner, Bilaspur
2. Joint Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur
3. Superintending Engineer, P.W.D. (B & R), Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur
4. Regional Transport Officer, Bilaspur
5. Divisional Commandant, Home Guards, Bilaspur
6. Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Bilaspur
7. Assistant Controller of Weights and Measures, Bilaspur
8. Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur
9. Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur
10. Deputy Director of Health Services, Bilaspur Region, Bilaspur

11. Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bilaspur
12. Deputy Director of Land Records, Bilaspur
13. Divisional Superintendent of Education, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur
14. Divisional Welfare Officer, Bilaspur
15. Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Bilaspur
16. Deputy Director, Tribal Welfare Department, Bilaspur
17. Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Circle, Bilaspur

Government of India Offices

For the purpose of publicity of Plans and other activities through the media of publicity material, film show, song and drama programmes, group discussions, public meetings, etc., an office of the Field Publicity Officer is functioning in the District. The office has jurisdiction over the districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. The Field Publicity Officer is assisted in his work by a Projectionist, Driver and usual staff. Administratively, the Publicity Officer is under the control of Regional Officer, Directorate of Field Publicity Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, with headquarters at Bhopal.

To purchase surplus rice of the State on behalf of the Central Government, the Madhya Pradesh Procurement Unit under Joint Director (Food) was established at Bilaspur in 1958. The procurement operations extend to the districts of Bilaspur, Raipur, Raigarh, Durg, Balaghat and Mandla. As far as Bilaspur District is concerned, the Joint Director in his field work is assisted by one Deputy Director (Food), one Assistant Director (Food) and a team of subordinate staff including Supervisors and Quality Inspectors.

On the office side the Joint Director is assisted by one Deputy Director (Food) who is responsible for the whole procurement unit's administration. He is assisted by an Assistant Director (Administration), an Assistant Director (Movement), a Movement Inspector and usual staff. A Central Laboratory is also attached to the Joint Director's Office for the analysis of rice, etc.

The office of the Joint Director (Food), Bilaspur functions under the Directorate of Procurement, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

With a view to evaluating the community development programme and other intensive schemes, a Project Evaluation Office was established at Bilaspur in August, 1960, as in other parts of the country, working under the general guidance and direction of the Project Evaluation Office, Planning Commission. The actual functions of the office, developed over the years, are as follows.—

1. To study the progress of a programme and to measure its impact on the socio-economic life of the rural people.
2. To ascertain reasons for the success or failure in respect of different items of the programme.
3. To indicate the direction in which improvement may be sought.

The office is headed by a Project Evaluation Officer who is assisted by an Economic Investigator and usual staff. The Project Evaluation Officer is mainly responsible for reporting on the working and progress of the development programme in the area of his jurisdiction which extends over Bilaspur and Raipur Divisions. Administratively, the Project Evaluation Officer works under the control of the Regional Evaluation Officer, Central Region, with headquarters at Lucknow. The over-all control of the department lies with the Director, Programme Evaluation Organisation with headquarters at New Delhi.

To assist the State government and others with technical personnel, plant protection machines, pesticides and vehicles for the control of pests and outbreaks of diseases of agricultural crops, the Central Plant Protection Station at Bilaspur was established in March, 1957, as in other parts of the country. The Station is in the charge of a Plant Protection Officer who is assisted by a Store Keeper-cum-Clerk, two Technical Assistants, a Caretaker Mechanic, a Driver and usual staff. The Station is directly under the control of Directorate of Plant Protection, Quarantine and Storage, New Delhi, which in its turn is an attached office of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

There is no jurisdiction specified for the Central Plant Protection Station. It assists the State Department of Agriculture or the Community Development Blocks wherever and whenever required. A large number of extension workers and village leaders have also been trained in Plant Protection work by way of this station.

For collecting Statistical data in regard to Socio-Economic-demography, vital statistics, rate of economic growth, etc., and to help formulation of

certain policies at the Cabinet level of the Government of India an office of Superintendent, National Sample Survey, Government of India, New Delhi was established at Bilaspur in 1957 as in other parts of the country. The Office functions under the control of the Chief Director, National Sample Survey, Government of India, New Delhi. The office has jurisdiction over the districts of Bastar, Raipur, Durg, Balaghat, Bilaspur, Raigarh, Surguja, Shahdol, Sidhi, Rewa, Satna, Jabalpur, Mandla, Seoni, Betul, Chhindwara, Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur. The Superintendent is assisted in the work by five Assistant Superintendents, nine Inspectors, thirtysix Investigators and usual staff.

The Department is conducting land utilisation survey and is also collecting the yield acreage in respect of seven specified cereal crops, namely, rice, wheat, barley, bajra, jowar, maize and ragi through circular cut with the help of supplied crop-cutting machine. The yield-statistics help the Government of India to assess its food position. Apart from this, the field staff is also collecting prices of essential commodities usually consumed by middle class, working class, and agriculture labour for preparing price indices. The Department had completed 21 rounds till the close of June, 1967 each round covering a multipurpose survey and some topics of current interest.

The Superintendent of Post Offices, North Chhattisgarh Division, Bilaspur works under the administrative control of the Post Master General, Bhopal. His jurisdiction extends over the three districts of Bilaspur, Surguja and Raigarh. He controls the functioning of 2 post-superintendent of offices, 58 sub-post offices and the offices of the Inspectors in Post-Offices, North his Division. The Head Post-Office is located at Bilaspur Chhattisgarh Division and Raigarh under the charge of a Post-Master each. The sub-post-offices are looked after by the sub-post-masters. The accounts of the branch post-offices are maintained by the sub-Post-Masters, although the Branch Post Masters are responsible for their own work. The accounts of the sub-post-offices are checked and field investigations are done by six Inspectors of Post Offices at Jashpur, Ambikapur and Manendragarh Sub-Divisions. The number of ministerial staff in the whole division is 262.

During the last five years ending 31st March, 1968, the following extension of postal services has taken place.

(1) Post-offices upgraded	10
(2) New post-offices opened	8
(3) New branch post-offices opened	77
(4) New telegraph offices attached to the post-offices	8

The Telegraph Sub-Division, Bilaspur, was opened in 1963. The office is headed by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Telegraphs, Bilaspur, who looks after the extension and maintenance of telegraph and telephone installations in Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja districts and a Division, Bilaspur part of Shahdol district. Presently, work-charge in this area extends over four lines. They are from Bilaspur to Jharsuguda, Bilaspur to Ambikapur via Manendragarh, Bilaspur to West Cabin and Bilha, and Bilaspur to Bilalgarh via Sheorinarayan. At a lower level the work and lines have been placed in the charge of six E.S. The charge are those of (1) Phones, Bilaspur, (2) Phones, Raigarh, (3) Telegraphs, East Bilaspur, (4) Telegraphs, North Bilaspur, (5) Telegraphs, Ambikapur, and (6) Trunk, Bilaspur. In addition to the above and the office staff the Sub-Divisional Officer is assisted by 4 Phone Inspectors, 22 Sub-Inspectors, 5 Monitors, 98 Telephone Operators and 171 Linemen in field duties all over the Sub-Division.

The Income Tax Office, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur, was established in 1953. The main functions of this office are assessment and investigations of Income Tax, Wealth Tax, Expenditure Tax, Gift Tax and collections thereof. The office is headed by an Income Tax Officer. The jurisdiction of the Income Tax Office, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur, extends over Bilaspur, Mungeli and Katghora tahsils of Bilaspur District. It excludes Janjgir and Sakti tahsils, and Naila area, besides the cases of Government employees of the whole District. The superior offices which control and inspect the Circle Office, Bilaspur, are those of the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax, Jabalpur Range, Jabalpur and the Commissioner of Income Tax, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

A Divisional Office of the South Eastern Railway functions at Bilaspur within the Railway premises of Bilaspur Railway Station. This Division deals with all administrative, financial and technical matters and controls their smooth functioning. The Division comprises the following Sections of railway lines.

1. Nagpur to Jharsuguda via Raipur and Bilaspur (Broad-Gauge),
2. Itwari to Ramkona (B.G.),
3. Bhandra to Tiroda (B.G.),
4. Bhilai to Dalli-Rajhara (Goods only),
5. Champa to Korba (B.G.),
6. Bilaspur to Katni—Murwara (B.G.),

7. Anuppur to Karonji-Kunda and Bistrampur with branches to Chirimiri, and
8. Raipur to Rajim-Nawapara (Narrow Gauge) branching from Raipur-Dhamtari Branch-line at Abhanpur Railway Station.

The Divisional Office is controlled in all respects by the Divisional Superintendent, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur, South-Eastern Railway. He looks after the public safety, efficiency, development, and all other matters related to the railways in his Division. To carry out the work in his Division, he has a team of senior associate officers with separate offices in the same premises. They are the heads of their respective departments at Divisional level and are specialists in technical and semi-technical matters. The fifteen important departmental offices of the South-Eastern Railway functioning at the Divisional level at Bilaspur are those of the Divisional Personnel Officer, Divisional Operating Superintendent, Divisional Commercial Superintendent, Divisional Accounts Officer, Divisional Audit Officer, Divisional Mechanical Engineer (P.), Divisional Mechanical Engineer (C and W), Divisional Electrical Engineer, Divisional Superintendent (T.E.), Divisional Superintendent T.E. (M/W), Divisional Engineer-I, Divisional Engineer-II and Divisional Engineer-III, Divisional Medical Officer, and Divisional Safety Officer.

The Divisional Personnel Officer deals with all the establishment work and is assisted by two Assistant Personnel Officers. The Divisional Operating Superintendent controls the movements of trains and the Controllers and Assistant Controllers in his office regulate the movements of trains all the twenty-four hours in the busy main lines falling in the jurisdiction of the Division. There are two Assistant Operating Superintendents to assist him. The Divisional Commercial Superintendent is assisted by two officers, who ensure the smooth and efficient movement of goods and parcels besides ensuring promotion of goods and passenger traffic. To assist other divisional officers there are two Assistant Mechanical Engineers, two Assistant Superintendents T.E., and one Assistant Divisional Accounts Officer at Bilaspur. The Estate Officer and thirteen of the twenty-five Assistant Medical Officers in the Division are also posted at Bilaspur because of a large colony of Railway employees at Bilaspur. Some other officers lesser than the Divisional rank are posted at important stations in the Railway Division, e.g., Bhilai, Raipur, Raigarh, etc.

The work of all Railway department is looked after by junior staff of various cadres in all Railway Stations, the charge of which is either with an Assistant Station Master or a Station Master. The Divisional Superintendent is controlled by the General Manager, South-Eastern Railway, Calcutta.

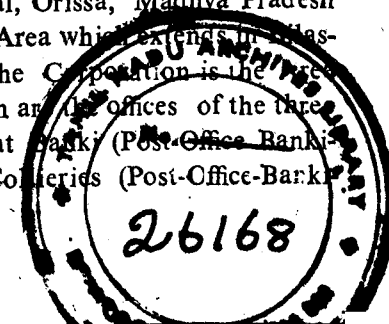
Other Divisional Officers, on the side of their technical work, are subordinate to the respective chiefs of departments working in the headquarters of the South-Eastern Railway, e.g., the Chief Commercial Superintendent, Chief Operating Superintendent, Chief Mechanical Engineer, etc.

For production and supply of dolomite lumps and chips to the Bhilai Steel Plant and other plants of the Hindustan Steel Limited, the office of the Mines Manager, Hirri Dolomite Mines, was established on Hirri Mines, Hirri the 28th of August 1958 at Bilaspur and on the 29th of September 1959 at the Mines Site. The office functions under the control of the Agent-cum-S.G.M.D. Bhilai Steel Plant, Bhilai. The total area under this mine is 473.28 acres and the extent of working is 71,435 square metres. The Mines Manager is responsible for watching the production process of dolomite mines and observing that all the statutory obligations under the Metaliferrous Mines Act, Mines Act, Factory Act, and Rules and Regulations framed thereunder are properly carried out. Similarly, Payment of Wages Act and Mines Regulations are also complied with in respect of the labourers employed in the mines.

In his work the Manager is assisted by a Technical Assistant, Mining, a Chargeman (Mechanical), a Chargeman (Civil), seven Supervisors, and a number of other subordinate technical staff. In addition, the offices of the Labour Welfare Officer, Medical Officer, Assistant Accounts Officer and Assistant Geologist of the Hindustan Steel Ltd., Bhilai Steel Project, located at Hirri Mines are subordinate to the Mines Manager for purposes of Mines Act. However, they are also under the technical control of their respective chiefs of the Concern.

The total production and despatch of dolomite lumps and chips during the years 1962 to 1966 have been 2,26,475; 3,97,614; 43,692; 1,82,662; and 2,77,761, metric tonnes respectively.

To extract the coal reserves on conservative and scientific lines the National Coal Development Corporation, Ltd., was formed in September 1956. This is the largest single coal-producing unit and one of the major public sector undertakings having collieries in five States, namely, Bihar, Bengal, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. In the Korba Area which extends in Bilaspur District the chief officer of the Corporation is the General Manager, N.C.D.C., Korba. Under him are the offices of the Deputy Superintendents of Collieries, one each at Banki (Post-Office Banki), Mogra), Korba Collieries and Surakachhar Collieries (Post-Office-Banki).



Mogra). The Deputy Superintendent of Collieries is the executive head of the Project which consists of several underground and open cast mines and subordinate offices of the corporation in his jurisdiction. He is responsible for over-all supervision and control of the different mine-workings of the Project.

The important and technical officers heading an office, separately under each one of the Deputy Superintendents, are the Colliery Manager, Executive Engineer (Electrical and Mechanical), Executive Engineer (Mechanical) for Heavy Machinery Section of the open cast mines, Civil Engineer, Labour Welfare Officer and the Medical Officer. They are also assisted by one or two junior officers of their line, e.g., Assistant Manager, Under Manager, Assistant Engineer, Assistant Medical Officer, etc. In the offices of the Deputy Superintendents of Collieries, an Administrative Officer each is attached to assist in dealing with administrative problems. An Accounts Officer or Assistant Cost Accounts Officer is also attached to the Deputy Superintendents' Offices.

The Korba Collieries office was opened on the 1st of October 1956. In 1967 there were 18 officers, 95 ministerial staff, 105 subordinate executives (Technical), 53 Class IV staff and 2 work-charged employees. During the period of five years from 1962-63 to 1966-67 about 32,49,748 tonnes of coal was extracted from these mines.

The Banki Colliery Office was opened on the 16th of January 1963 and employed 13 officers, 56 subordinate executives (Technical), 64 ministerial staff and 1115 workers of whom 208 are work-charged and 907 regulars. The mines produce about 50,000 tonnes of Gr. I coal per month, which is the fixed target. The Colliery has got a full-fledged township with its own water-works, hospital, co-operative stores, etc.

The Colliery Office at Surakachar was opened on 15th April, 1963, and the colliery being in an underdeveloped stage, production to its full target was expected to be achieved in 1970. There are 18 officers, 170 ministerial, technical and other staff, and 1,329 weekly paid employees (as on 15th September, 1967).

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Very little is known about the revenue administration of this District during the early period. Previously, the District appears to have been divided into *taluks* held by relations or influential followers of the Ratanpur dynasty. The *taluks* were made up of a number of villages, each held by farmers who paid the rents collected from the cultivators to the *talukdars*, who in turn remitted a percentage of their collections to the Raja at Ratanpur. A revenue paper of the time of Raja Kalyan Sai (A.D. 1560) represents the revenue collections of the Chhattisgarh kingdom which amounted to over seven lakhs of rupees, and the details for the old Bilaspur District were as follows¹ :—

Pargana	No. of Villages	Annual Revenue Collections
		(Rs.)
Bilaspur	941	1,19,532
Mungeli	482	65,000
Seorinarayan	145	33,300
	<u>1,568</u>	<u>2,17,832</u>

It is reported that till the Maratha conquest in 1740, the country was in a fairly settled and prosperous state. With the beginning of nineteenth century, the administration of the country came to be entrusted to a succession of *subahs* appointed by the Nagpur Government, who after their appointment were subject practically to no control². Their tenure of office was, however, extremely short and their main object appears to have been to enrich themselves as speedily as possible before they were superseded by some new favourite of the Nagpur Raja. The Chhattisgarh country under their methods of administration was described

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 204 and Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1868, p. 90.

2. *ibid.*

by Colonel Agnew, who became Superintendent of Chhattisgarh in 1818 when the administration of the Nagpur kingdom was assumed by the British Government during the minority of Raghuji II, as "One uniform scene of plunder and oppression uninfluenced by any consideration, but that of collecting by whatever means the largest amount possible". These conditions resulted in considerable agricultural deterioration. Villages were deserted and cultivation decreased with the result that, during the ten years previous to 1818 the revenue collections did not exceed Rs. 3.60 lakhs as compared to Rs. 7 lakhs in the best days of the Huihayavansi Rajas.¹

It is for the years subsequent to 1818 alone that reliable revenue details exist.

Under the Maratha rule the province under the charge of the *Subah* was divided into several parganas administered by officials subordinate to the *Subah* called *Kamaishdars*.² The pargana was again divided into villages, each in the charge of a *gaontia* or headman, usually an influential cultivator, who made himself responsible for the collection of the village assessment and received in remuneration for his services one plough of land revenue-free in every eight paying revenue to Government, and an allowance for village expenses of one plough of land in sixteen, which was sown with his own seed, but was tilled by the village community. He also received some trifling dues on the sale of agricultural produce in his village.

The revenue assessment was subject to annual revision and the total demand was fixed in accordance with instructions from Nagpur. The *Subah* apportioned it between the various parganas in the light of the previous year's collections. The pargana assessment was apportioned between the various villages by the *Kamaishdar* and the distribution of the village assessment was left to the *gaontia* and cultivators to settle among themselves.

The methods by which the revision of settlement was carried out are described by Sir Richard Jenkins. Towards the end of August, the *Kamaishdars* of parganas were instructed to collect one-third of the annual revenue according to assessment of the previous year and to remit the amount to the public treasury before the 5th *Ashvin* (October). This was collected with the assistance of Patels or *gaontias*. The Patels or *gaontias* were also asked to collect more if *Kamaishdar* thought that the conditions warranted an enhancement. The second instal-

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 204-6.

2. Report on Nagpur Territories (1827): Extract from pages 143 to 150 and Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1868, p. 91.

ment also of one-third was collected by a precisely similar process except that *Kamaishdars* sent the revenue peons under their authority. The amount was collected and by the 5th of *Pus* (January) it was paid into the treasury.¹

Between the collection of those two *kists* (instalments), the *Kamaishdars* usually made a tour of their parganas, in order that they might be prepared on the coming of the *Subahdar* to give him the fullest information demanded of them particularly as to the truth or otherwise of the various representations made to them by the Patels and *gaontias*. The third instalment or the remaining third was payable on the 5th of *Chait* (April) and was collected in the same manner as the second.

The *Subahdar* having received the second instalment of the revenue, commenced his tour generally about the end of January. He previously apprised the *Kamaishdars* of his approach and directed them to assemble all the Patels and *gaontias*. On arrival he called upon the *Kamaishdars* and accountants and checked the rough account of the collections made in the previous year and heard all that the Patels and *gaontias* or ryots might wish to state. From their representations, from the report of the *Kamaishdars*, from his own public and secret enquiries and adverting to the orders he had received from Nagpur, he proceeded to confirm or alter the assessment settled by the *Kamaishdar*.

Going through all the objections and enquiries, the balance of account and the whole assessment of the current year were finally fixed and a copy of the settlement taken by the accountant of the pargana. However, if the ryots had complaints of oppressions, etc., against Patels and *gaontias*, the complaints were heard, investigated and redressed to the extent which accorded with the views and habits of the *Subahdar*.

The revised revenue demand was not announced to the *gaontias* until seven months of the year had passed and until two instalments of revenue, the amounts of which were based on those of the preceding year, had been actually paid by them. It was necessary, therefore, to devise a system by which the relative responsibility of each ryot for the payment of the revenue could be fixed irrespective of the amount of which such payment might consist. In Chhattisgarh, each of the more well-established ryots of the village made himself responsible for a share in the revenue, proportionate to the number of 'plough' of land which he held. A 'plough' of land was an elastic measure the actual extent of which varied largely in different tracts, but which was intended to represent the area which one plough and four oxen could cultivate. In most of Chhattisgarh in general, and in the east and the centre of Bilaspur District in particular, there

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 206.

is considerable diversity of soil and in order to ensure fair distribution it was necessary that each 'plough' should contain samples of all the various sorts of soil of which the village lands comprised. The village lands were accordingly divided into blocks, each of which was considered to be of uniform value; a certain proportion of each of these blocks was appropriated by the *gaontia* for his own cultivation and the rest was divided by the ryots among themselves in accordance with the number of 'plough' of land, for which each was responsible. Besides the better established ryots of the village, there were a number of others who were unable to make themselves responsible for a share of the assessment, but held land broken up from waste outside of the main cultivated area of the village, for which they paid rent in cash or kind.

The modification of the Maratha revenue system introduced by the British regency in 1818, mainly took the form of the abolition of supplementary revenue demands forming no part of the regular assessment, the fixation of times for the payment of instalments at periods convenient to the ryots, the grant of receipts for payment to the *gaontias*, the abolition of the revenue officials' unauthorised perquisites and the fixation of their salaries which in the case of the *Kamaishdar* amounted to one and a half per cent on the gross collections. No radical change in the method of assessment was attempted owing to the fact that it was then expected that the British administration would only be temporary. During the currency of the protectorate the revenue collections of the *khalsa* (villages held under the Government of which the State is the manager) of the District rose from Rs. 95,935 in 1818 to Rs. 99,285 in 1829. On the termination of the British protectorate, the village assessments were generally light, for, in as much as the total cash receipts of the village were generally appropriated by the Government and the village profits were mainly confined to the *gaontia's* home-farm, there was little outside competition for villages; and undue severity of assessment would have resulted in relinquishment in view of the absence of attachment by the people to the soil. After the resumption of administration by Raja Raghuji II, the revenue increased from Rs. 1,08,625 in 1830 to Rs. 1,46,867 in 1851, when the District lapsed to the British Government. On the occurrence of the latter event, the difference in value between the Nagpur and the Company's rupees produced an apparent decrease of the assessment to Rs. 1,22,016. Thereafter, three summary settlements at intervals of three years enhanced the demand to Rs. 1,43,202. In order to get the total assessment of the District, before the first regular settlement of 1868, there must be added to this figure the sum of Rs. 7,968 being the assessment of the Bhutia and Sarsiwa tracts transferred from Sambalpur district in 1865 and Rs. 13,495, being the assessment of the zamindaris. The latter were held on light, quit-revenues more of the nature of feudal tribute than of

land revenue. Their payments were fixed in 1820 and were not revised until the Settlement of 1868.

The total revenue demand of Bilaspur District, as then constituted, amounted to Rs. 1,64,921 before the first regular Settlement of 1868.¹ The operations then undertaken under the charge of Chisholm included in the *khalsa* the delimitation and survey of each village, the First Regular Settlement of 1868 classing of the soil on a simple system, and the preparation of an exhaustive record of rights. In pursuance of the decision of the Government to confer proprietary rights on the village *gaontias* who had hitherto been, as their alternative name of *malguzars* implied, more or less in the position of farmers, enquiries were instituted in each village with a view to ascertaining the person or persons entitled to the grant; and the persons, in whose favour a finding was arrived at, were given a formal patent conferring proprietorship upon them. The length of the tenure of holding by each ryot was also investigated and, as a result of the enquiry, he was invested with the status of an absolute occupancy, occupancy or ordinary tenancy as the case was; or in cases where the immemorial character of his tenure or other special circumstances gave him a claim to the proprietorship of his holding superior to that of the *gaontia* of the village in which it was situated, he was declared to be plot-proprietor. An administration paper was also drawn up for each village setting forth the system of village management and of the division of the profits, the conditions of rent or revenue-free assignments, the respective rights of the proprietors and tenant with regard to the principal matters of every day importance to the village community and the details of special village customs. The conferral of fixity of tenure coupled with the increasing demand for land, as the area of waste diminished, entirely changed the attitude of the people towards land. Simultaneously with the settlement, enquiries were instituted into the title to the large waste areas which existed in the north of the *khalsa*, and proprietary right was only conferred in respect of the cultivated area of each village, together with an additional area of waste, sufficient for the requirements of the people. The excess waste areas which amounted to about 4,43,500 acres or seven per cent of the total area of the District constituted Government forest.

The revision of the revenue assessment was carried out in which the previous methods of Maratha Government were modified.² The aggregate revenue was calculated for the pargana or group by the application of an all-round average rate per acre, which was arrived at by enhancing the acreage incidence of the existing revenue to a degree, which seemed warranted by the appreciation of the value of agricultural produce since the last revision and by the circumstances of

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 214.

2. *ibid.* p. 215, para. 178.

the tract. The assessment of the pargana was then distributed over its component villages by means of soil-rates, which were based upon the relative productivity of the various classes of soil as ascertained from the statements of the people and by actual experiment. These rates, modified where necessary in view of special village conditions, were applied to the areas of the different classes of soil in cultivation in each village and the result was to give the revised village assessment. This having been determined, the Settlement Officer proceeded to fix the revised rents payable by each tenant to the proprietors, having regard to the soils included in his holding and his own financial status. The fixation was carried out in the villages in the presence of *malguzar* and tenant and was generally arrived at by mutual agreement, rents being fixed only judicially in case of dispute.

As regards the zamindaris, no detailed survey was attempted except in Kanteli. Their outer boundaries were mapped by means of rough measurements.

Estimates of the area in cultivation were prepared and to this area was applied a low acreage rate from which was deduced an estimate of the revised rental valuation of each village. Half of this sum, unless special circumstances rendered modification necessary, was taken as the full demand or *kamiljama* of the village, which the zamindar actually received from inferior proprietors, and might expect to receive from villages held by lessees. These village *kamiljama* together with the rental valuation of the zamindar's own home-farm formed the estimate of their regular income from land, the assessment imposed on which absorbed from about 25 to 33 per cent of the estimated receipts. In addition to these, the zamindars derived considerable incomes from their forests, and from various miscellaneous sources of revenue, such as, excise and *pandhri* (a sort of income-tax) which, in view of their semi-independent status, they had from time immemorial been allowed to appropriate by the Government, and their lump *takoli* (a lenient assessment) or tribute. It was ruled that they should continue to reap the advantage of administering these miscellaneous items of revenue, and that the proportion fairly realisable by the State should be included in their revised *takoli*. To attain this end these items of income were assessed at 50 per cent of the average net assets.

The settlement operations, besides the reassessment of the revenue demand, included inquiries into the claims of the village lessees' holding from the zamindars to protection from arbitrary eviction. In 231 villages they were granted the status of inferior proprietors mainly on grounds either of relationship to the zamindars or of having founded their villages or held them uninterruptedly for long periods. In 65 villages they were created plot-proprietors of their homefarm and in 93 were declared to be entitled to the rights of occupa-

ncy tenants in their home-farm in the event of future dispossession from the lease of the village.

Besides the zamindaris there were two large estates in the District, namely, Lormi and Tarenga, called *tahuts*, which were held on conditions somewhat similar to those of the *tahukdari* tenure. These estates were included in the *khalsa* and were settled village by village in the same manner as ordinary *malguzari* villages, and the *tahutdars* were liable to pay the full revenue demand assessed. In the case of Tarenga the estate was, in accordance with family custom, declared to be impartible for so long as the then *tahutdar's* family held it. No such restriction was imposed on the subdivision of the Lormi estate. In these estates and in the rest of the *khalsa* the claims of village lessees to protection were enquired into. In 125 villages they were created inferior proprietors, and in 111 were declared to be entitled to absolute occupancy rights in their home-farm in the event of dispossession from their leases.

The general result of the revision of Settlement was to enhance the revenue demand of the *khalsa* from Rs. 1,51,170 to Rs. 2,51,934 and that of the zamindaris from Rs. 13,495 to Rs. 25,077.¹ In the *khalsa* the revised demand absorbed 57 per cent of the assets and the incidence of revenue per cultivated acre was 4 annas 1 pie, while the incidence per acre of the payments of plot-proprietors and tenants were, respectively, Re. 0-5-2 and Re. 0-7-3.

The Settlement of 1868 expired in 1888. The custom of *lakhbata* (periodical redistribution of land) had entirely disappeared before the second settlement in 1888 and the remarks in the 1868 Settlement Report on the unsettled nature of cultivation in this District became matters of curious historical interest. In enquiries preliminary to its revision it was found that the 1868 Settlement maps which had, to start with, been prepared without a traverse, had not been brought up to date, and that the annual village papers were unreliable and defective and it was decided to resurvey the *khalsa*.²

The survey was made by the Survey of India who, in this District, not merely laid down a traverse, but also carried out the details of the cadastral survey. The operation lasted from 1884 to 1889 and their result was to give this District an unusually accurate set of maps. Attestation was started in 1886 and was completed in 1890. The operations were started by L. S. Carey and were concluded by R. B. Purshottam Das. The usual system of soil classification was adopted, the simple scale of soil-factors adopted in the homogeneous tract of Mangeli being very considerably elaborated in the more diverse areas of Bilaspur and Seorinarayan tahsils.

The acreage incidence of the payments of protected tenants had risen considerably since the 1868 Settlement, despite the legal prohibition of the en-

1. *ibid.* p. 217.

2. *ibid.*

hancement of the rents of absolute occupancy tenants and the restriction imposed by law on the enhancement of the rents of occupancy tenants during the currency of the Settlement. The acreage incidence of absolute occupancy rents was found to have risen from Re. 0-7-6 to Re. 0-8-4 and that of occupancy rents from Re. 0-7-3 to Re. 0-8-4. These results were due to extensive rent concealment practised at the 1868 Settlement, which was subsequently discovered. The spontaneous rise of the acreage incidence of ordinary rents was from Re. 0-7-1 to Re. 0-9-3. This increase was, besides rent concealment in 1868, due partly to natural development and an increased demand of land, for between 1868 and 1888 the area occupied for cultivation expanded from 51 per cent to 68 per cent of the total area. The effect of the revision of Settlement on the payment of plot-proprietors was to raise their acreage incidence from Re. 0-5-2 to Re. 0-7-7. The acreage incidences of the rents of the various classes of tenants underwent the following enhancements:—¹

Table No. XI-1

Rental Enhancement

	Rs.	From As.	P.	Rs.	To As.	P.
Absolute occupancy tenants	0	8	4	0	9	10
Occupancy tenants	0	8	4	0	9	7
All classes of tenants	0	8	9	0	9	9
Village Assets	In 1868			As revised		
	Rs.			Rs.		
Payments or tenants and plot-proprietors	3,31,158			6,80,641		
Rental valuation of home-farm and land let free of rent by privileged tenants	1,08,688			1,71,774		
<i>Siwai</i> (Miscellaneous) income	3,290			25,549		
Total	4,43,136			8,77,964		

The revenue demand was enhanced from Rs. 2,51,737 to Rs. 4,74,678 and its incidence per cultivated acre was raised from Re. 0 4-1 to Re. 0-5-6. The revised assessment absorbed 55 per cent of the total assets.

Six small villages which had been excised from Government forest were surveyed and settled on the ryotwari system. The assessment imposed on the occupied area amounted to Rs. 457 with an acreage incidence of Re. 0 6-1.

1. Bilaspur Settlement Report, 1886-90, Para 67.

The Zamindaris

As regards zamindaris, no survey was undertaken, but a summary settlement was made on the basis of existing receipts. The payments to be made by inferior proprietors were determined, and in the case of villages held direct by the zamindars or by lessees the *kamiljamas* (complete assessments) were fixed at approximately 60 per cent of the assets. The aggregate *kamiljamas* of all villages amounted to Rs. 1,19,893 or 58 per cent of the assets (Rs. 2,04,309). The revised land revenue *takoli* assessed on the zamindars amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 42,000 or 21 per cent of the gross village assets and 35 per cent of the revised *kamiljamas*. In addition to the land revenue *takoli*, the receipts of the zamindars from their forests, from excise monopoly, and from *pandhri* were separately assessed as shown below.

Table No. XI-2

Receipts of Zamindaris from Different Sources

	Income Rs.	Takoli Rs.	Percentage of takoli on Income
Excise	11,861	5,570	47
Forests	42,279	14,310	34
Pandhri	1,657	802	48

In the case of these items the Settlement was declared liable to revision after three years, but as a matter of fact in the case of the forest *takoli* no revision was undertaken until the expiry of the land revenue settlement. In two zamindaris, Champa and Kanteli, which were almost completely surrounded by *khalsa* villages and which formed undesirable centres of smuggling, the excise rights were resumed. In certain zamindaris the police employed in the estate were maintained by the zamindars, in others by Government. From the owners of the latter estates an additional contribution towards the cost of the force amounting in the aggregate to Rs. 3,960 was levied. The total effect of the revision of settlement was thus to increase the demand from the zamindars from Rs. 25,077 to Rs. 66,642.

The total revised revenue demand of the District thus amounted to Rs. 5,41,777. This represented an increase of Rs. 2,62,843 over the corresponding figure of the previous Settlement.

The total expenditure incurred on this Settlement (excluding the salaries of Patwaris and Inspectors) was Rs. 5,35,492, which gave a rate of Rs. 169-7-2

or Rs. 170 per square mile.¹ The expenditure was expected to cover more than two years' increase in revenue. The terms of the Settlement proposed for the various portions of the District varied from 10 to 12 years.

The Settlement of 1886-1890 expired in 1900-1901, but had to be given a fresh lease of life due to unavoidable circumstances. The operations for the next regular settlement were begun in 1899 and preliminary assessment proposals for Mungeli Tahsil were approved, but owing to serious agricultural deterioration, caused by a series of bad seasons, culminating in the famines of 1896-97 and 1899-1900 resettlement was postponed for three years. Mungeli Tahsil suffered more severely in the famines than any other part of the District. Other important events which occurred since the former Settlement may also be noted.²

- (1) The Survey of zamindaris was carried out between 1891 and 1897.
- (2) The revision of settlement of the Bandhi group of Mungeli Tahsil in 1900, when a short-term settlement resulting in a reduction of revenue by Rs. 936 was made in consequence of the serious deterioration of the tract in the famines.
- (3) The temporary abatement of rents and revenue in the neighbouring zamindari of Pandaria was made for similar reasons which resulted in the reduction of the zamindar's *takoli* by Rs. 7,000 for the three years 1900-01, 1901-02 and 1902-03.
- (4) The resumption of the excise rights previously held by most of the zamindars of the District in 1893, the abolition of *pandri* in 1903, and the resumption in 1893 by the Government of the management of the zamindari police in the estates which had previously maintained their own forces, were made and the levy of the contributions was prescribed towards the maintenance of the force provisionally fixed by the Settlement Officer in 1888 in anticipation of this event.
- (5) The abolition of the additional rate in 1905 and the patwari cess in 1906.

The effect of the above changes was that, in 1904-05, the total regular revenue demand actually realisable was reduced to Rs. 5,26,256. Further, in 1905-06, the changes of the District boundary owing to the transfer of Sambalpur district to Bengal and creation of the new Durg district resulted in the reduction of the demand to Rs. 4,08,816 (zamindaris Rs. 56,009, *malguzari* Rs. 3,52,406, *ryotwari* Rs. 401). This sum increased by the announcement in 1906

1. *ibid.* p. 107, para. 121.

2. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 221.

of the revised assessment of the tract transferred to this District from Sambalpur in 1905, and by the lapse of certain revenue-free assignments. The total land-revenue demand of the District as standing in 1907-08 was Rs. 4,16,533 (zamindaris Rs. 56,009, *malguzari* Rs. 3,60,121, *ryotwari* Rs. 403). Operations were resumed in 1905, but as the year 1905-06 was one of scarcity, the staff remained busy in preparing reports on prospects of the crops. However, operation work was carried on till 1910-11. Soil-classification was made and the village administration papers were prepared.

The result of the Settlement operations now concluded bore evidence to the recovery which the District had made in the past decade. The population which had fallen by 13 per cent since 1891 as a result of the famines increased again by 16 per cent in 1901. The occupied area of the *khalsa* portion of the District under report expanded by 67,958 acres since the previous Settlement and in Mungeli Tahsil there was practically no room for extension of cultivation, while in Bilaspur and Jajgir Tahsils only poorer soil could be cultivated. It was reported that prices had increased since Settlement and cultivating profits were high. The price of rice had risen from 27 seers to the rupee since last regular Settlement and from 80 seers at the first regular Settlement to 18½ seers at this Settlement, while the rise in the average acreage rate was only 35 per cent since the first regular Settlement and nil since the previous Settlement in 1892.

According to this Settlement (1904-1911) the total assets of the District as revised and announced in comparison to the last Settlement are given below.¹

Table No. XI-3

Total Assets of the District

	At last Settlement Rs.	As Revised and Announced Rs.
Payments of <i>malik-makbuzas</i> (Plot-proprietors)	15,024 •	23,732
Tenants' payments	6,01,065	7,62,745
Valuation of home-farm and land held by privileged tenants	1,57,395	2,95,735
<i>Shwai</i> Income	11,535	34,180
Total	7,85,019	11,16,392

1. *Bilaspur (Khalsa) Settlement Report, 1904-11, p. 2.*

Thus, there was an increase of Rs. 3,31,373 in the gross assets over those of the previous Settlement. On these assets a *kamiljama* of Rs. 5,90,775 was assessed which fell at 53 per cent as compared to 54 per cent taken at the last Settlement and which gave an increase of Rs. 1,64,323 or 39 per cent over the existing revenue. The rental enhancement amounted to Rs. 1,70,895 and the *malguzars* gained Rs. 6,572 by resettlement. The reason for the smallness of this sum is the increase in home-farm, the valuation of which with that of land held by privileged tenants amounted to 26½ per cent. Out of the revised *kamiljama* a sum of Rs. 14,617 was assigned, leaving a net realisable demand of Rs. 5,76,158, an enhancement of Rs. 1,57,756 or 38 per cent on the present realisable revenue.

The all-round enhancement of rents sanctioned was 20 per cent for old Mungeli Tahsil, 25 per cent for Bilaspur Tahsil and 33 per cent for Janjgir Tahsil.

For avoiding too sudden an enhancement of revenue only 20 per cent of the assumed assets were taken as revenue for the first 5 years, 30 per cent for the next 5 years and 40 per cent for the remaining years of Settlement.

Home-farm and land held by village service tenants or as charitable grants were valued at the sanctioned village rate almost invariably. The acreage rate of the revised valuation of home-farm came to Re. 0-14-4 as against Re. 0-12-10 for revised tenants' rent and as the unit-incidence was only 0.96 against 1.00 for tenants' rents the value of the land included in the home-farm was considerably superior to that held by tenants.

Siwai income was estimated at Rs. 33,318 for purposes of assessment as against Rs. 11,535 at the previous Settlement. This increase was mainly due to the spread of lac cultivation, the income from this source having risen from Rs. 91 at the previous Settlement to Rs. 15,271 at attestation. The greatest care was taken in assessing the *malguzar's* income from lac, and very large margins were given to allow for rotation of trees and for fluctuations in price and outturn.

It is estimated that the total cost of the Settlement amounted to Rs. 4,64,028 and this might have been recouped by about three years' revenue enhancement. The term of this revised Settlement was fixed for a period of 20 years except in one *ryotwari* village of Janjgir Tahsil, where on account of a large portion of the village being destroyed by fire, the revised demand was postponed for a year and the Settlement ran for 19 years.

The Zamindari Settlement

The Settlement effected during the years 1906-10 was the first regular settlement of the zamindaris. The first two settlements of 1868 and 1891 were of a summary nature. The ground for this Settlement was prepared when 1,242 villages were cadastrally surveyed in the years 1891-97. Subsequently, 40 more villages were surveyed making a total of 1,282 at the conclusion of the Settlement. But in the remoter and less developed portions of these estates, operations scarcely amounted to a regular Settlement, since rents were not fixed. The Settlement was on orthodox lines as it was possible for the first time to work on the basis of the pitch of existing rents. A complete Settlement record of rights, village by village, was prepared. But the villages were not all sufficiently developed to require detailed processes of assessment, based on a classification of cultivated land. Regular methods were, therefore, confined to the open and better developed areas only. Regular methods extended over an area of 1,937 sq. miles containing 1,039 villages and summary methods over 831 sq. miles containing 243 surveyed villages. In the unsurveyed area known as the 'Waste Land Mahal' with its 262 wholly undeveloped and primitive villages no settlement operations affecting the tenants were undertaken and existing assets were merely recorded.

The assessment was rough and ready, but the value of the Settlement operations lay in the fact that village maps were as far as possible brought up-to-date in all the surveyed villages, a Settlement record of rights was prepared, a village *wajib-ul-arz* (villages administration paper) was promulgated and each village was placed with its map, records and assessment papers, complete in every respect as a separate unit in matters of revenue administration. The total rents were fixed at Rs. 2,79,796. The home-farm lands and lands held by privileged tenants aggregated 1,22,831 acres, and were valued at Rs. 75,475. *Siwai* was important. As the zamindari forests were well-situated to supply the needs of the open country, large incomes were derived from them by the proprietors, the chief items being timber, lac and grazing. The income to be assessed was estimated as Rs. 1,23,289.

The total assets were computed as Rs. 4,30,678. The *kamiljamas* were fixed falling at 50 per cent all round and amounted to Rs. 2,15,470. The proprietors, however, in consideration of the antiquity of their tenures and the previous revenue history of their estates paid to the Government not the *kamiljamas*, but portions thereof known as *takolis*. The fixation of *takolis* depended upon a number of factors of which the principal were the proportions *takolis* bore to net incomes and the effect the revision of them would have on the proprietors' cash receipts, the circumstances and past history also being given due consideration.

The next and the last resettlement of the *Khalsa* portion of Bilaspur District was carried out during 1927-32.¹ It was felt that during the 20 years preceding Settlement, the growth in prosperity and general development had been marked. Since last Settlement, though there was little room for expansion of cultivation, the occupied and cropped areas had increased by three per cent each. So also 73 per cent of the total village area was then occupied, of which 97 per cent was under cultivation. Fallowing was insignificant. Simultaneously, the net cropped area had expanded by four per cent and formed 90 per cent of the occupied area. With the extension of cultivation, the standard of cropping had also improved. The population had increased by 21 per cent since the Census of 1911, Janjgir Tahsil being one of the most thickly populated and closely cultivated parts of the then Provinces. It was further reported that the tenants were a strong and stable lot of men, 60 per cent being entirely free from debt, while the indebtedness of the remainder was light. Proprietors were generally well-to-do.

The Settlement operations were executed in strict conformity with the provisions of the Central Provinces Settlement Act, VI of 1929. The staff was posted in 1927 for settlement operations and the attestation work was carried out in 1927-28 in Mungeli Tahsil, in 1928-29 in Bilaspur Tahsil, in 1929-30 in old Janjgir Thasil and Malkharoda and Padampur groups of the Sambalpur territory and in 1930-31 in Chandrapur group of Sambalpur territory. A uniform system of soil-classification was introduced in the whole of Chhattisgarh and a uniform scale of factors was also similarly applied. It is reported that special care and attention was taken to secure an accurate record and to make full enquiries into the rights over communal lands, the relations between proprietors, *gaontias* and tenants and into village customs. The results were entered in the *Wajib-ul-arz*. It was hoped that there would be fewer opportunities for disputes and friction in future. The practice initiated at the last Settlement of reserving land for grazing purposes and non-recognition of the old custom of *bhet-begar* was retained.

The Table below shows the distribution of the total occupied area in different rights and the extent to which changes took place during the course of the expiring Settlement and at the beginning of the new Settlement of 1927-30.

1. Re-settlement Report of the *Khalsa* of Bilaspur District, 1927-1932, pp. 2 and 26.

Table No. XI-4

Distribution of Total Occupied Area—Settlement of 1927-32

Tenure	Area at Settlement 1904-11 • 1927-32		Percentage of Total Occupied Area	Percentage Variation Since last Settlement
	Acres	Acres		
<i>Sir</i> including <i>bhogra</i>	1,80,899	2,21,254	17	+22
<i>Khud-kasht</i> including <i>gaontiahi</i>	1,19,288	1,08,653	8	— 9
<i>raiya</i> land				
Total	3,00,187	3,29,907	25	+10
<i>Malik-makbuza</i> including	28,197	29,274	2	+ 4
<i>bhogra bhogi</i>	177	145	—	—
Total	28,374	29,419	2	+ 4
Absolute Occupancy	83,216	76,887	6	— 8
Occupancy including <i>raiya</i>	8,41,150	8,55,685	65	+ 2
Total	9,24,366	9,32,572	71	+ 1
Tenancy				
Service land	30,324	19,189	2	—37

At the last Settlement 77 per cent of the land was held by tenants and 23 per cent by *malguzars*. The total area of home-farm had since increased by 10 per cent. The increase was shared by all tahsils. The increase in the area held by *bhogra-bhogis* was due to some *bhogra* land having been permanently transferred and recorded in this right in Sambalpur territory. The area of service land fell by 37 per cent on account of resumption of service grants by *malguzars* and inclusion of the area in their home-farm.

The total *malguzari* assets of the District were:—

	Rs.
Tenant's payments	9,14,912
Valuation of home-farm and land held by privileged tenants	3,70,833
* <i>Siwai</i> Income	40,544
Total	13,26,289

The home-farm lands were rated as if they were tenants' lands and their total valuation was increased from Rs. 2,69,104 to Rs. 3,71,882. *Siwai* income was relatively unimportant and was increased to Rs. 40,544 and fell at only Rs. 0-1-11 per acre of tree forest and scrub-jungle.

Tenants' rent was enhanced from Rs. 6,80,870 to Rs. 9,14,912 or by 35 per cent, but part of this was due to fixation on land without rent and the net enhancement was 33 per cent only. The average tenancy acreage rate was increased from Re. 0-11-0 to Re. 0-15-4, but the level of revised rents remained appreciably lower than in the adjacent Raipur and Durg *khalsa* portions. The net realisable revenue was increased from Rs. 5,01,958 to Rs. 6,89,114 or by 37 per cent. Proprietors had gained Rs. 65,198 in cash as a result of the resettlement. Deferred enhancements were granted where necessary.

The all-round enhancement of rents was sanctioned as given below.¹

Tahsil	Enhancement	
	Excluding fixation on land held without rent	Total (Per cent)
Mungeli	26	30
Bilaspur	32½	35
Old Janjgir	34½	37
Sambalpur Territory	—	100

The settlement operations lasted for four years and 4½ months from 16th October, 1927, to 29th February, 1932. The new assessments were announced to run for 30 years so as to expire by the 30th of June 1959, 1960 and 1961 in different parts of the District. The cost of the resettlement was Rs. 5,52,960 with the net increased revenue of Rs. 1,87,156 per year and thus could be recouped in nearly three years.

The previous Settlement expired on the 1st of July 1928 for Kanteli, 1st of July 1929 for Kendar, and on the 1st of July 1930 for the remaining eight zamindaris. But as a measure of convenience the terms of Settlement of the first two zamindaris were extended, so that the term may expire uniformly on 1st July, 1930.

The twenty years preceding the close of the Settlement witnessed steady expansion and growing prosperity in the tract. The population increased rapidly, in spite of a slowing down of the rate of increase as a result of the terrible

1. *Ibid.* p. 27.

influenza epidemic. The occupied area rose from 5,94,387 acres to 7,34,215 acres or by 23 per cent, and the area under crop from 4,00,161 acres to 5,68,175 acres or by the same percentage. The standard of cropping also showed improvement. Special enhancement proceedings were carried out in 1925-26 in three estates in pursuance of the Settlement officer's recommendation that, a system of regular intermediate rent enhancement be introduced to avoid sudden and severe *per saltum* increase. Even with these enhancements rents remained at a low level when compared to those prevailing elsewhere and moderate increases in rent were fully justified.

The settlement operations covered an area of 4,165 sq. miles, out of which only 1,147 sq. miles were occupied for cultivation, most of the unoccupied area being under high forest. The zamindari forest or Waste Land Mahal covered 1,422 sq. miles, the bulk of it being in Satgarh.

As regards survey and map correction operations, there was comparatively little new ground to break. It was decided to assess all surveyed villages by regular methods. *Masahati khasras* and maps (i.e., rough maps by chaining) were prepared for unsurveyed villages, land held without rent in such villages being assessed at rough acreage rates and rent *parchas* (papers) issued to every single tenant holding land even in the remotest mountain clearing. The zamindari estates were thus finally brought into line in details of revenue administration with the more advanced parts of the District, at this Settlement. The soil classification and factors evolved at the expiring Settlement were found to be suitable and were adopted almost without modifications.

Malik-makbuza (plot-proprietor) lands were insignificant covering 835 acres, all of which were valued at village rates applied to tenancy land. The home-farm lands and land held by privileged tenants were also relatively unimportant covering 1,02,998 acres. They were valued at village rates adopted for tenancy lands, resulting in their valuation being increased from Rs. 75,475 (as at the expiring Settlement) to Rs. 94,727 or by 25 per cent. *Siwai*, as before, was important, and the income to be assessed was valued at Rs. 1,51,771 or 23 per cent higher in comparison to the last Settlement.

The total assets at this Settlement (1928-30) aggregated Rs. 6,13,863 as detailed below.

	Rs.
Tenants' payments	3,66,663
Valuation of home-farm, etc.	94,727
<i>Siwai</i>	1,51,771
Total <i>malguzari</i> assets	6,13,161

Malik-Makbuza payments	702

Total assets	6,13,863

As at the last Settlement, an all-round *kamiljama* of 50 per cent was fixed which amounted to Rs. 3,06,159 or 42 per cent higher than the corresponding figure of the previous Settlement. The rise in *takoli* payment was Rs. 71,137 and the zamindaris thus received 22 per cent of the enhanced revenue.

The term of the Settlement was for the statutory period of 30 years for the three open estates and 20 years for the Satgarh, where there was ample scope for the extension of cultivation and agricultural development. The pitch of rents was also unduly low there.¹ The new Settlement came into force on 1st July, 1930.

The *malguzari* and zamindari system came to a close with the application of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951) when all the proprietary rights in estates and *mahals* were resumed by the State Government as on the 31st of March 1951.

Though the revision of land revenue settlement became long overdue yet such operations were not started, and land revenue continued to be paid at the old rates till the abolition of land revenue itself. Lands not previously subject to land revenue were assessed by the Collector in accordance with the provisions contained in Land Revenue Code, 1959.

In the previous settlement reports some details are available regarding *muafi* (an area of land held revenue free) lands. From time to time enquiries were made into the rent-free claims. During the course of the land revenue settlement (*khalsa*) of 1868, it was found that in all there were 55 villages held rent-free in the District, covering an area of 70,000 acres and representing a revenue of Rs. 9,115. Some of the *muafidars* had held their villages rent-free since the days of Haihaivanshi dynasty, *sanads* granted by Raja Kalyan Singh in the 16th century being still extant. The great majority of holders, however, were Maratha Brahmins, who had been in continuous possession from the previous century. The revenue rent-free plots were neither numerous nor important. There were altogether 57, involving a *jama* (assessment) of Rs. 518, of which 28 were released and 27 resumed. As regards rent-free villages, during the course of 1868 Land Revenue Settlement, 14 villages were released in perpetuity (involving a revenue of Rs. 2,215), 22 villages for life or the period of Settlement (Rs. 3,490), 9 villages for 2 lives (Rs. 2,150),

1. Revision of Land Revenue Settlement of Bilaspur Zamindaris, 1928-30, p. 3.

4 villages at half *jama* (Rs. 45) and 4 villages at old quit-rent of Rs. 81. Two villages, involving a revenue of Rs. 400 were resumed. During 1886-90 Settlement of 16 villages were resumed on the demise of their holders and 37 grants of whole villages were assessed at Rs. 13,262 (26 whole villages involving a revenue of Rs. 11,845 held revenue-free and 11 villages which yielded an annual revenue of Rs. 1,417).

During the Settlement of 1904-11, 18 whole villages (15 in Bilaspur Tahsil and 3 in Janjgir Tahsil) and shares in seven more (6 in Bilaspur Tahsil and 1 in Bemetara Tahsil) were held free of revenue on various conditions specified in the District *Muafi* Register, which was revised and brought up-to-date at the revision of the assessment. There were also a few individual holdings in the village of Ratanpur which were held free of revenue as against Government.

At the Land Revenue Settlement of 1927-32, there were 22 plots (147 acres) and 34 villages (35,883 acres) held revenue free. The *kamiljama* and *jama* assigned to 22 plots were Rs. 124-5-0 while the corresponding figures in respect of the villages were Rs. 11,756 and Rs. 11,048, respectively.

The *muafi* grants have been discontinued under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948 (XXXVII of 1948) and in their place provision has been made for the payment of annual monetary grants.

Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses

The following Table shows the annual demand and collections of land revenue for the period 1958-59 to 1965-66.

Table No. XI-5

Annual Demand and Collection of Land Revenue

Year	Demand	Collection
1958-59	33,23,833	19,93,565
1959-60	30,28,631	17,57,477
1960-61	30,98,071	18,19,098
1961-62	31,05,291	16,62,422
1962-63	32,68,453	13,08,987
1963-64	37,91,302	26,87,941
1964-65	30,17,003	20,84,450
1965-66	25,33,132	8,07,630

Some notable events connected with the realisation of land revenue are mentioned below.

During 1938-39 the rental assessment was reduced by 12½ per cent to relieve the small land holders having land below 12 acres. This was found to be necessary to reduce the heavy financial pressure which was brought about by the abnormal fall in the prices of agricultural produce since 1930-31. With the settling up of the popular Government the percentage of land revenue on the total *malguzari* assets was raised to 75 per cent from the agricultural year 1947-48 under the Central Provinces and Berar Revision of Land Revenue of Mahals Act, 1947. This resulted in increasing the total *malguzari* land revenue accruing to the State. The resumption of *muafis* under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948, also tended to revise the land revenue receipts upwards.

The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (1 of 1951) was an epoch-making legislative measure. It meant the establishment of the *ryotwari* system under which cultivators hold land directly from the State. As such, the entire assessment of rents on the tenancy lands became realisable direct by the State. The home-farm lands owned by the ex-proprietors were assessed to land revenue. All the *bila-lagan* (without rent) lands and the lands given out on favourable terms without any rent were made liable to the payment of rent to the State. Tanks and groves left with the ex-proprietors were also assessed. Lands which were being diverted to non-agricultural purposes after Settlement came to be reassessed at enhanced rate. Besides this the *siwai* income, which so long swelled the purses of the intermediaries accrued to the Government. The Act thus meant greater inflow of income in the shape of land revenue.

By the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code (Amendment) Act, 1967 (No. 6 of 1967) land revenue on all uneconomic holdings, meaning all agricultural holdings not exceeding 7.5 acres or holdings with a land revenue not exceeding five rupees was abolished.

As a further measure of relief, Madhya Pradesh Government abolished Land Revenue with effect from 1st July, 1968 by promulgating the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code (Amendment) Ordinance, 1968 (No. 10 of 1968). However, simultaneously it also promulgated the Madhya Pradesh Krishi Bhocmi Vikas Kar Adhyadesh, 1968 (No. 11 of 1968), under the provisions of which Agricultural Land Development Tax has been levied. It is payable in respect of each holding used for purpose of agriculture, which is in excess of ten acres. The rate of the tax is the same as that of Land Revenue.

Previous to the abolition of the *malguzari* system, the responsibility for the collection and depositing of land revenue rested with the *lambardar* who was either proprietor or one of the proprietors of the villages. In the event of his death his son succeeded to his post subject to the approval of the Government.

In case a *lambardar* was a minor or a female or became unfit due to any infirmity in body or mind, a *gomashia* was appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. The abolition of the proprietary rights in land in 1951 also sounded the deathknell of the *lambardar* system. *Lambardars* were replaced by Patels by the Government. The Patels are paid a commission on the land revenue collections made by them. The Table below shows the amount of commission paid to Patels during the period from 1959-60 to 1965-66.

Table No. XI-6

Commission Paid to Patels

Year	Amount (in Rs.)
1959-60	1,88,378
1960-61	1,94,027
1961-62	1,25,660
1962-63	1,29,946
1963-64	1,11,134
1964-65	1,30,221
1965-66	1,28,739

In some places Gram Panchayats have been entrusted with the work of collection of land revenue as an experimental measure.

The village Patwari prepares the demand list in *kistbandi B-I assamiwar* form by 15th December each year. On the basis of demand list he prepares a list in Form B-5 known as Patel's list and is given to the Patel for recovery. The land revenue is recovered in two instalments, i.e., first instalment falls due on 15th January and the second on 15th April. A month after the due date a defaulters' list is prepared in Form B-7 and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

In addition to land revenue some cesses were levied on the proprietors by the Government from time to time. At the Second Settlement (1886-90) the following cesses were payable: road, school and post cess at 5½ per cent on the land revenue; additional rate (a contribution towards the expenditure on famine relief under Act X of 1878) at 2 per cent; and Patwari cess at 6 per cent. To the last two of these cesses the tenantry were also called upon to contribute. All tenants paid Patwari cess at the rate of one anna per rupee of their rents and the village proprietors were authorised to levy from absolute occupancy and occupancy tenants a contribution towards the additional rate of ½ per cent on their rents.

At the Settlement of 1904-12, the cesses payable by the proprietors amounted to 13½ per cent on the revenue demand as follows: road, school and post cess at 5½ per cent, Patwari cess at 6 per cent, and additional rate at 2 per cent. The abolition of the additional rate in 1905 and of the Patwari cess in 1906 reduced these additional demands from proprietors to 5½ per cent on the land revenue. They thus amounted before this revision to Rs. 23,455 or excluding the assigned and waste land villages to Rs. 23,012. In the villages in which the full demand is payable the revised demand for cesses amounted to Rs. 31,781. The enhancement of cesses in the fully assessed villages thus amounted to Rs. 8,769.

The levy of cesses later came to be governed by the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act (IV of 1920). Section 48 of the Act laid down that the proprietor of every estate, *mahal*, or *malik-makbuza* plot, and every holder of a survey number shall be liable to pay a cess at the consolidated rate of six and a quarter per cent on the land revenue or *kamiljama* assessed thereon for the maintenance of schools, roads or for any other purposes of the Act. In accordance with this provision the practice of payment of cesses by the tenants of the villages of the Chandrapur-Padampur estate whether held *kham*, i.e., directly by the proprietor or through a *gaontia* was abandoned. The cess was made payable by the *gaontias* on the revenue (not rental) value of their *bhogra* land, and by the ryots of the *khalsa* or Government villages outside the estate (which were of the status of Government *ryots* and were so recorded in the record of rights) on their revenue assessments.

Another change took place in 1946 when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947), payable at the rate of six pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants, respectively, in respect of land held by them in the Gram Panchayat area. The proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned. When District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapad cess was imposed under Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948). This was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned. Panchayat and Janapada Cesses are still levied in the District. Under Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act, 1960 a cess at the rate of 10 paise per rupee is being levied at the Panchayat level. The Table below shows the annual demand and collection of cesses in the District during 1957-58 to 1965-66:—

Table No. XI-7
Annual Demand and Collection of Cesses

Year	Demand	Collection
1957-58	7,01,559	2,71,527
1958-59	9,28,225	4,91,049

1959-60	7,61,241	3,11,033
1960-61	7,75,183	2,93,525
1961-62	8,06,788	3,07,837
1962-63	8,26,966	2,24,405
1963-64	9,31,939	4,21,568
1964-65	7,86,618	3,64,454
1965-66	7,45,124	1,91,673

As regards the *Siwai* income, it is reported that it was not substantial. The *Siwai* income constituted receipts of various descriptions from forests and village waste lands, namely, *mahua*, lac, mango trees, grazing, thatching grass, and forests and amounted to Rs. 25,549 at the Settlement of 1886-1890. During the course of Land Revenue Settlement of 1904-11 and 1927-32, the *Siwai* income increased to Rs. 33,318 and Rs. 40,544, respectively, of the *khalsa* portions. The *Siwai* income was of greater importance in zamindaris. The following Table shows the receipts from miscellaneous *Siwai* income from 1958-59 to 1965-66:—

Table No. XI-8

Receipts from Miscellaneous *Siwai*

Revenue Year	Amount in Rs.
1958-59	43,233
1959-60	45,130
1960-61	40,042
1961-62	22,792
1962-63	39,691
1963-64	33,004
1964-65	36,837
1965-66	64,303

Relation Between Landlord and Tenants

When the British rulers undertook the management of Chhattisgarh in 1818, it had been under Maratha rulers for 80 years, whose sole aim was the collection of maximum possible revenue irrespective of the means.¹ There was no security of land tenure. The cultivators had no right in the land they cultivated, nor any such order of things was even heard, on which such a claim could be founded.² This was the system prevalent when Colonel Agnew took

1. J. F. Dyer, *Introduction to the Land Revenue Settlement System*, p. 15.
2. *ibid.* p. 17.

charge as the first British Superintendent. In the earlier years of British administration, villages continued to be settled with the lessees.

Amongst the various administrative reforms were those strengthening the position of *gaontia* or village headman, and curtailment of the powers of the Patels against whom many complaints were received. *Gaontia* was treated merely as a village headman, who was to collect the tenant's payment. The proprietary rights conferred on him were limited to his home-farm or *bhogra* land and the ryots were secured in the possession of their holdings without the right of transfer so long as they paid the assessment on their land to the *gaontia*¹. The rights and privileges of a *gaontia* were not defined in the Land Revenue Act and were determined by executive orders of Government or custom. The villages were settled with the lessees. The disadvantages of this system became manifest and it was decided to replace it by a settlement on the basis of the proprietary rights by the formal conferral of the proprietary title on suitable persons. But with the grant of proprietary rights to the *gaontias* (*malguzars*) in the eighteen sixties, change in the status of the cultivators from village ryots into the *malguzar*'s tenants followed as a necessary consequence and, therefore, the cultivators' relations with the *malguzars* became those of a tenant with a landlord. Claims for *nistar* and *begar* and cultivation of the wasteland by the *malguzars* emerged as the chief causes of friction between *malguzars* and the tenants.

The conferral of proprietary rights on the *malguzars* or *gaontias* 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 and the need to protect the tenantry soon became apparent. The need was first met by the extension to this Province in 1864 of Act X of 1859 which laid down that a person who had cultivated the land for 12 years had a right to occupancy and by the issue to Settlement Officers of a set of instructions known as Government Circular. It was in consequence of this Circular that the absolute occupancy tenure came into existence.

These first steps to confer some stability of tenure on the cultivators were followed by the creation of other classes of tenants in course of time. In 1883, the first tenancy law came into being, which defined the Tenancy Law, 1883 rights and liabilities of the already recognised classes of absolute occupancy and occupancy tenants and gave the status of ordinary tenants to those who had previously held the status of tenants-at-will with a defined status and protection from arbitrary ejectment. A further class, namely, that of sub-tenants was also added. Important questions of the transfer of holdings, enhancement of rents, ejectment of tenants, rights and improvement in holdings were dealt with. The Tenancy Act of 1883 was

1. Resettlement Report of the Khalsa of Bilaspur District, 1927-32, p. 20.

amended in a few particulars in 1889. The Act was extended to the scheduled districts, and a modification affecting *sir* land was necessitated by the simultaneous amendment of the Land Revenue Act. Later experience disclosed the necessity for alteration in some matters of importance, notably the fixation of tenant's rents. This was provided in the Act of 1898 which repealed the Acts of 1883 and 1889. It empowered the Settlement Officers to fix rent authoritatively at the settlement. This further strengthened the position of ordinary tenants. Thus, the rents deemed excessive by the Settlement Officer could be reduced by him. This Act remained in force till 1920.

Thus, the tenancy law has been freely amended and modified from time to time according to exigencies of time or as administrative considerations and at the necessity of affecting adjustments between landlords and tenants demanded. The Central Provinces Tenancy Act 1920 & Provincial (I of 1920) completely re-enacted the tenancy law. It brought out an important change in respect of the class of ordinary tenant which was abolished, and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants.¹ This Act with some minor amendments in later years remained in force till 1940, when important changes in the privileges and rights of tenants and landlords were introduced. After the introduction of the Provincial Autonomy (1937-38) and the assumption of office by the Congress, the Congress Ministry undertook a series of measures to protect the tenants. A committee known as Revenue Committee was appointed in August, 1938, for overhauling the tenancy and land revenue system in the Central Provinces on well considered and comprehensive lines.² In pursuance of the recommendations of this Committee, the following changes were made.

- (I) A servant to whom land was granted as remuneration for his services was excluded from the definition of tenants.
- (II) Under sec. 101, no tenancy rights could be acquired in Reserved forests or in the area which is the property or is in occupation of a local authority. Similarly, if under sec. 102 the Provincial Government exempted any area in occupation of a company from the provision of the Act, the company could settle labourers on the land and permit them to cultivate the land on terms which were unaffected by the tenancy law.
- (III) The old class of ordinary tenants was merged in the occupancy tenants, while the ordinary tenants of *sir* land were declared as sub-tenants.
- (IV) The village service tenant of the old law was redefined as a village servant and his holding as a village service land. He thus ceased to

1. J.F. Dyer, op. cit., pp. 94 to 96.

2. Report of the Revenue Committee, 1938, p. 1.

be a tenant under the Act, though provisions were made defining his rights.

- (V) The classes of tenants with which the Act now dealt with were absolute occupancy tenants, occupancy tenants and sub-tenants. The 1940 Act provided means by which tenants of the first two classes ceased to be such by acquiring *malik-makbuza* rights.
- (VI) The Act of 1940 enlarged the rights of transfer previously enjoyed by the absolute occupancy tenants under the Act of 1920 by giving them the right to bequeath their interest by will in accordance with their personal law. It reduced the period for which they could sub-lease from ten to five years. The right of pre-emption was maintained, but more detailed and compact procedure was laid down. The consent money payable to landlord was also determined under the Act of 1940 in case the landlord did not want to pre-empt.
- (VII) The law regulating succession to the holding of occupancy tenants was brought at par with absolute-occupancy tenants.
- (VIII) The rights of an occupancy tenant in regard to transfer of his holding were laid down in section 12. The right to sublet was extended to five years. He might transfer his holding to his co-tenant or heir any right in his holding. Transfer by simple mortgage was excluded. He was given the right to transfer by sale to any person, but his landlord had right of pre-emption analogous to those possessed by an absolute occupancy tenant. Similarly, under section 12-B, in case of involuntary transfers, co-tenants and heirs had a similar right of pre-emption. A co-tenant or heir or landlord had a right to set aside a transfer in contravention of section 12. The co-tenant was given, however, a priority as he had laboured along with the transferring tenant to reclaim the land or improve it.
- (IX) The provision was made for enhancement of rent which might be affected by agreement between the landlord and the tenant.
- (X) The landlord was given special lien on the produce of the holding for arrears of rent, but it lasted only till the produce was on the ground or on the threshing floor or was stored in the village in which the holding was situated or in which the tenant resided and it could not be pursued further.
- (XI) The provision for the ejectment of tenant for arrears of rent by a revenue officer under the Act of 1920 was deleted under the Act of 1940, but he could be ejected for diversion of land to non-agricultural purposes.

- (XII) Under the old law, an occupancy tenant or ordinary tenant was presumed to have surrendered holdings in certain circumstances. This presumptive surrender was now called abandonment which set three conditions essential before a landlord could take possession of a holding as abandoned.
- (XIII) Sub-tenants were virtually tenants-at-will and the terms of their tenure were determined by their agreements with the landlord, subject to which, their rights on their death passed by inheritance or survivorship in accordance with their personal law.
- (XIV) In recognition of the fact that the conferral of increased rights of transfer on tenants under the Act of 1940 carried with it the danger of the growth of a new class of middlemen and of their rack-renting sub-tenants or the actual tillers of the soil, section 40 was stiffened with a view to putting a check on the growth of this new class of middlemen and discouraging habitual sub-letting. A Revenue Officer could take action *suo moto* and it was provided that on the conferral of occupancy rights on a sub-tenant (who held land from a tenant), the rights of the original tenant would be extinguished.
- (XV) Provisions were made for conferral of occupancy rights on sub-tenants of *malik-makbuza* or *sir* lands.
- (XVI) Surrender of holding could be made only by a registered deed.
- (XVII) Special provision regarding the right of tenants in trees on their holdings was made in the Act of 1940. The right in trees went with the right in land and there should not be different owners or users.

Mention may be made of the Central Provinces Land Alienation Act, 1916 (II of 1916) which was enacted to protect the backward tribes of the District from the rapacity of the money-lending class. It placed restrictions on the transfer of agricultural land held in proprietary rights from aboriginal to non-aboriginal classes.

The Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 was enacted for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, for the protection of tenants from ejectments, etc. The year 1951 brought about revolutionary changes in the tenancy system. The proprietary rights conferred on the *malguzars* were abolished in 1951 by Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951) as from 31st March, 1951. Under section 45 of the said Act, the absolute occupancy and occupancy tenants became tenants of the State. Further, any person holding lands on favourable

terms from the outgoing proprietors (other than *sir* land) were granted occupancy tenancy right over it. The outgoing proprietors holding land as *sir* and *khud-kasht* became its *malik-makbuza* on the abolition of proprietary rights and the lands that were brought under cultivation by such proprietors after the agricultural year 1948-49 but before the date of vesting became their occupancy tenancy lands.

Consequent on the abolition of proprietary rights, the tenants were given free rights of transfer of land. Restrictions over the enjoyment of *nikar* rights and grazing in the village forests were removed and concessions of free picking of *mahua* flowers and taking of a limited quantity of timber for the repairs of houses and agricultural implements of cultivators were further extended.

In order to consolidate all land laws and for simplification of the then existing multiplicity of land tenures, the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955) was enacted and brought into force from 1st October, 1955. The two classes of tenure holders emerged as *bhumiswami* and *bhumidhari*. The *bhumiswamis* were those who previously held lands as a *malik-makbuza* or a plot-proprietor, holder of *abadi* site, land held as a *raiya malik* and land held as absolute occupancy tenant. The *bhumidharis* were those who held as occupancy tenant, as a *raiya* or *raiya sarkar*. A *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government. Moreover, an occupancy tenant of a *bhumiswami* and a *bhumidhari* could acquire ownership rights on payment of premium at 10 and 7 times of the rent, respectively.

The position of land tenures and tenancy reforms was again reviewed after the new State of Madhya Pradesh was constituted. The result was the enactment of a unified Land Revenue Code, 1959 (XX of 1959). It came into force from 2nd October, 1959. It provides for only one class of tenure, namely *bhumiswami* i.e., the *bhumidhari* under the previous Code was merged in *bhumiswami*. A *bhumiswami* has rights of transfer subject only to one restriction that such transfer does not either create a holding above the prescribed limit or an uneconomic holding below 10 acres. Subject to certain restrictions, he has full rights over all kinds of trees in his holdings. A *bhumiswami* has also a right to mortgage his land both by simple and usufructuary mortgage. Thus, the Code aims at eliminating tenancy and bringing into existence peasant-proprietorship based on owner cultivation. An occupancy tenant can be conferred *bhumiswami* rights on his paying 15 times the land revenue in five equal instalments. To protect the existing occupancy tenants of *bhumiswami* from being rack-rented, it has been laid down that the maximum rent payable by an occupancy tenant shall not exceed four times the land revenue in case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in case of land under *bandhas* and two times the land revenue in other

cases. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted, except in very emergent cases, once in three years, or by certain classes of persons, such as, widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

Consolidation of Holdings

In Chhattisgarh, the practice of *lakhbata*, a device to equalise the holdings of lands by a periodical redistribution of fields in the village so as to ensure that each cultivator got his share of different kinds of land was very commonly followed before the British administration. It was one of the principal factors that created a large number of scattered and fragmented holdings in the District. Some attempts in the direction of consolidation of holdings were made without the help of Government, mostly in the home-farm area of the *malguzars*. However, first official measure to remove the bane of fragmentation of holdings was taken as long back as in 1905 when H.M. Laurie, the Commissioner, Chhattisgarh Division, attempted the experiment in one village Nangal (now transferred to Durg District), where the consolidation work was carried out by the Settlement Officer in 1906. However, it had to be abandoned during 1907 due to lack of support from the farmers. In 1912, a new attempt was made by H.F.E. Bell, Deputy Commissioner of Bilaspur District and he succeeded in completing consolidation (*chakbandi*) of three small villages. In 1913, it was impossible to carry out the work without legislation and the matter was dropped from 19th March, 1915.

J.F. Dyer, Commissioner of Chhattisgarh Division, started afresh the consolidation work in 1928. He alongwith Sir Geoffrey Burton, Deputy Commissioner of Raipur, forcefully brought the need of the consolidation of holdings before the Royal Commission of Agriculture. Largely with their efforts the Central Provinces Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1928 (VIII of 1928) was passed. Early attempts at consolidation of holdings on a voluntary basis were, though not very successful, helpful in bringing out the peculiar difficulties involved in the work. The simple procedure of valuation of fields in terms of relative productivity, easily understood by the cultivators was introduced. The Act solved legal difficulties and reduced the chances of obstructive tactics of any unreasonable minority. The Act provided for the cultivators obtaining clear and undisputed right in the land received in exchange and encumbrances, if any, are transferred to the new holdings. The Act empowered the Settlement Commissioner to confirm a scheme if he found the objections to be either unreasonable or unfounded. This helped in accelerating the progress of the work. The Act has been repealed, vide chapter XVI of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954. There was no change in procedure and the technique also remained unchanged.

The consolidation work was started in the District during the field seasons of 1930-31, 1931-32 and 1932-33 by R.G. Chourey, Consolidation Officer, Chhattisgarh Division, Raipur. He succeeded in consolidating 18 villages cover-

ing an area of 14,733 acres, out of which 17 villages were of Bilaspur Tahsil and one of Janjgir Tahsil. As there was great demand in Durg district the work was closed in the years from 1933-34 to 1935-36. The operations were again started from 1st December, 1937, in full swing when a new Consolidation Officer in charge of the District was appointed. A total of 398 villages with an area of 3,42,875 acres were consolidated in this District till the end of 1944-45, when the operations had to be stopped due to the pressing problems created by the Second World War.

Under the Second Five Year Plan, the consolidation operations were again started from 1956-57 in the District, when a Consolidation Officer was posted at Bilaspur with 20 Chakbandi Inspectors and 20 Chakbandi Madadgars. The party completed 89 villages covering an area of 47,805 acres upto the 31st of August, 1959.

It has been recognised that the extreme fragmentation of land holdings in this District was a serious obstacle to economic cultivation throughout the whole of paddy area. The tenants are now becoming alive to the benefits of consolidation. The following Table shows the progress of the consolidation work in the District from 1930-31 onwards.

Table No. XI-9
Progress of Consolidation Work

Year	No. of Villages for which Schemes were Prepared and Confirmed	Area Consolidated (Acres)	Khasra Numbers before Chakbandi	Khasra Numbers Excluded for Chakbandi, i. e., baris-kothars	Net Khasra Numbers After Chakbandi	Percentage Reduction
1930-31	7	4,315	4,149	642	1,783	33
1931-32	11	10,420	14,138	1,385	3,993	20
1937-38	53	50,252	79,712	13,596	31,450	73
1938-39	66	65,562	1,03,483	21,892	45,970	71
1939-40	73	63,582	1,03,354	24,653	49,391	72
1940-41	22	18,935	25,887	4,205	13,213	58
1941-42	62	54,370	90,184	18,486	41,387	68
1942-43	59	52,490	85,972	17,336	39,563	68
1943-44	58	37,740	52,079	7,280	21,616	56
1944-45	5	2,944	4,222	517	2,093	50
1956-57	6	1,647	4,616	772	788	83
1957-58	41	22,473	44,117	11,242	11,452	74
1958-59	51	27,106	36,970	4,477	15,593	58
1959-60	49	27,092	36,845	5,485	11,737	53
1960-61	27	14,052	18,927	3,887	6,715	65
1961-62	26	13,076	24,216	3,866	8,471	65
1962-63	19	12,540	15,443	2,810	12,633	51
1963-64	37	27,606	32,223	16,725	15,498	50
1964-65	17	10,031	15,117	7,344	7,771	49
1965-66	12	7,138	10,558	1,945	3,945	49
1966-67	7	5,378	9,667	930	4,742	54
1967-68	39	21,430	37,128	6,945	21,355	42
1968-69	3	4,556	4,809	741	3,346	30
1969-70	11	5,296	7,648	2,076	4,813	37

There has been no legislation to prevent fragmentation of holdings in the consolidated villages. The tenure holders enjoy full rights of transfer over their land. They can partition their holdings, or transfer them by sale and gift.

Bhoodan Movement

The *Bhoodan* movement or *bhoodan yagna* (land-gift movement) was initiated in the country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave with a view to making available cultivable land to landless persons through voluntary donations from intending land owners. For facilitating this movement in the State, Madhya Pradesh Bhoodan Yagna Act, 1953 (No. XV of 1953) was enacted under which a Bhoodan Yagna Board was constituted with headquarters at Nagpur. It was later on transferred to Narsimhapur, and it serves only Mahakoshal Region in the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh. It receives an annual grant from the Government.

The movement assumed its real shape when the workers of the Board started *padayatra* from village to village. Revenue and other officers of the Government as well as village officials rendered the desired assistance to the workers. From the inception of the movement till 1966-67, land donations amounted to 8,792 acres from 7,581 donors in the District. A total of 6,656 acres of land only was distributed during the period.

Rural Wages and Condition of Agricultural Labour

A.E. Nelson has reported in the old Gazetteer about the condition of wages of the labourers in the early twentieth century. The rates of cash wages for labour in Bilaspur were same as were prevalent in Raipur. The then existing rates for casual labour in Bilaspur Town were three annas a day for a man and two annas for a woman while in villages they were two annas and six pice, respectively. In 1909 or so, there was some rise in the wage rates and a man's wage went up to four annas in Bilaspur. The great majority of the agricultural labourers of the District were paid in kind. *Saonjias* were the class most usually employed and their remuneration consisted of a share, usually a quarter, of their master's crop, which was divided among all the *saonjias* whom he maintained. They were engaged in March for the year and received a measure of unhusked rice a day which amounted usually to half and sometimes to three-quarters of the usual unit of grain measurement, the *lambari* (or standard) *katha*.¹

The second class of agricultural servants was called *ponrhars* who like the *saonjias* were engaged for the year in March. The *ponrhar* used to receive

1. The usual unit of grain measure in Chhattisgarh was the *lambari katha*. This amounted to 4 *seers* 9 *chattaks* of wheat or husked rice or 3 *seers* 4 *chattaks* of unhusked rice. The *chaltu* (common) or *bhutia* (labourers') *katha* was half and the *majhla* (medium) *katha* three quarters of this. The table of measurement prevalent at that time was:—20 *kathas*—1 *khandi* or 'portion'; 20 *khandi*—1 *gara* or cartload.

an advance of about Rs. 10 in cash, which he used to pay without interest when his services terminated. He was given as remuneration a *chaltu* or sometimes a *majhla katha* of unhusked rice a day, which of course he had not to repay. His employer also set apart for him a small area of land which was cultivated with the rest of the employer's holding, the employer supplying seed, plough-oxen and labour, but to which the labourer was allowed to give extra cultivation in his spare time and of which the produce was given to him. At the harvest time, the *ponrhar* was given 4 *kathas* extra as reward for the extra labour involved in threshing and winnowing which continued in the case of rice harvest, concurrently with the sowing of the spring crops and in the case of the *rabi* harvest, concurrently with the preliminary ploughing of the rice land which was to be sown in *khurra*.

A *barasia* or *naukar* or a servant engaged for the year used to receive a monthly wage of Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-8-0. Or, they are given at the beginning of the year, i.e., in March an advance varying between Rs. 35 and Rs. 40 for the year.

Most *malguzars* of any standing maintained in each village where they had any appreciable area of home-farm a foreman-ploughman who was called a *chirohi*. He received about Rs. 3 monthly, his food and a pair of shoes. Besides these regular labourers, there were casual labourers known as *banihar* or *bhutia* paid one and a half *kathas* of unhusked rice for a man, one *katha* for a woman and half *katha* for a child, yielding 4½, 3 and 1½ lbs. of husked rice, respectively. Women are usually employed for weeding and harvesting the rice crop. The period of least demand for labour is represented by the months of January and February after the harvesting of the rice crop and May and June from the time when the spring crops have been threshed till the weeding of rice begins.

The Settlement Report of Bilaspur (*Khalsa*) for 1927-1932 reports that *bhutias* were paid on an average at the rate of one *lambari* or standard *katha* at the time of harvesting and weeding and one *manjhla katha* and, in the remote parts of the District, even one *bhutaha katha* at other times. Wages were seldom paid in cash but whenever it was found necessary to engage a labourer on a cash wage, the usual rate for a male labourer was Re. 0-4-0 a day at harvesting and weeding and Re. 0-3-0 at other times. The rates for female labourers were Re. 0-3-0 and Re. 0-2-0, respectively. On account of the economic depression of that time, the rates of wages were reduced by nearly 50 per cent.

The average wages paid to the different categories of agricultural and rural labourers prevalent in the District are as under.

Table No. XI-10

Average Wages Paid to Agricultural and Rural Labourers

Year and Month	Ploughmen	Sowers and Transplanters	Weeders	Reapers and Harvesters	Herds-men	Other Agricultural Labourers
June, 1955	1.00	0.75	—	—	0.62	0.74
June, 1956	1.25	1.00	0.75	—	0.75	1.00
June, 1957	1.50	1.25	—	—	—	1.25
June, 1958	—	—	—	—	1.00	1.25
June, 1959	1.25	—	—	—	1.00	1.00
June, 1960	1.50	—	—	—	1.50	1.25
June, 1961	—	—	—	—	—	—
June, 1962	1.50	—	—	—	—	1.12
June, 1963	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
June, 1964	1.12	1.00	—	—	1.22	0.94
June, 1965	1.25	—	—	—	1.25	1.12

Other Sources of Revenue—Central and State

Government of India Act, 1919, based on the recommendation of Montague and Chelmsford, introduced complete separation of revenue heads between Central and Provincial Governments. This separation obtains even today. The important items of Central revenues are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty. Some particulars about these revenues, as far as they concern Bilaspur District, are given below. The receipts (except Union Excise) are shown in Appendix.

Union Excise Duty

The main excisable commodities in the District are tobacco, vegetable non-essential oils, cotton fabrics, package tea, electric fans, electric motors, China wares, etc. The annual receipts in the District from each of the above commodities from 1959-60 to 1963-64 are given in the Table below.

Table No. XI-11

Annual Receipts from Excisable Commodities

Year	Tobacco	Package Tea	V.N.E. Oil	Patent Medicines	Copper & alloy	Electric Wire
1958-59	919,840	867	—	—	—	—
1959-60	662,603	1300	23,860	—	—	—
1960-61	686,402	1323	34,240	—	4,269	—
1961-62	684,086	1044	20,147	4,449	43,054	—
1962-63	819,847	795	20,240	4,384	47,039	1,237
1963-64*	973,020	576	—	4,496	39,173	1,954

* No duty on oil since March, 1963.

Income Tax

Income Tax was in force in the former Central Provinces as far back as 1861-62. It was abolished in 1865-66, reintroduced in 1869-70 and again abolished in 1873-74. It was revised in 1887-88 and has been in force since then. At present the assessment and collection of Income Tax in the District are the duty of the Income Tax Officer Bilaspur. He has also been entrusted with the assessment and collection of three more taxes, namely, Wealth Tax, Gift Tax and Expenditure Tax which have been brought into force subsequently.

Certain important source of State revenue, besides Land Revenue, are State Excise, Forests, Sales Tax, Stamps, Taxes on Motor Vehicles and Registration.

State Excise

The old Gazetteer reports that the Excise income was derived from licence fee for sale of foreign liquor, country spirit, *ganja* and opium and from the duty on *mahua* used at the *sadar* distillery and on drugs sold to licensed vendors. Prior to 1920, there was fixed-fee system. Then the Reforms of 1920 were introduced and the whole of the District was converted into supply system. The shops were sold by auctions. Ware-houses were established, from where liquor was issued to the contractors on payment of price in accordance with the issue prices of the areas. In the latter half of 1937, the Provincial Government decided to adopt the policy of total prohibition of liquor. To implement this policy, the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act was passed and brought into force from the 1st of April 1938. Prohibition was extended in Janjgir Tahsil

from the 1st of October, 1946 and, consequently, all the liquor shops were closed and a shopless Zone area round about Janjgir Tahsil with a radius of 10 miles was created. From the 1st of January 1948 the Provincial Government prohibited possession and sale of intoxicating drugs, namely, opium *bhang* and *ganja*. Thus, all the opium, *bhang* and *ganja* shops were closed in Janjgir Tahsil, only the addicts of opium who could not do without it were issued opium on registration as opium addicts.

Sales Tax

This Tax was introduced in the District on 1st June, 1947, under the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947 (XXI of 1947), which has since been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act, 1958 (II of 1959). The latter Act was brought into force from 1st April, 1959. The Central Sales Tax has also been introduced in the District from 1st July, 1957, under the Central Sales Tax Act of 1956. Both these Acts are administered by the Sales Tax Officer. The increase in sales tax receipts from 1959-60 onward is due to the introduction of first point taxation.

Taxes on Motor Vehicles

The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles and issue of licences to drivers, conductors, etc.

Stamps

The old Gazetteer of Bilaspur District reports that there were 49 unofficial licensed vendors of stamps, including school masters, shopkeepers and one postmaster at Bilaspur. The vendor at the court building used to make a living out of the sale of stamps only. The discount paid to the licensees in 1908-09 was Rs. 1,549. The receipts from the sale of document stamps and court fee stamps was Rs. 25,008 in 1880-81, which increased to Rs. 49,352 in 1890-91, Rs. 52,673 in 1900-01, Rs. 77,280 in 1910-11, Rs. 1,66,038 in 1920-21, Rs. 2,18,197 in 1930-31 and Rs. 1,57,548 in 1940-41. The receipts have further increased to Rs. 30.04 lakhs in 1969-70.

Registration

The Deputy Commissioner was appointed as the District Registrar in 1904 in this District to register documents and there were three sub-registrars under the District Registrar with offices at Bilaspur, Mungeli and Janjgir. The number of documents registered in 1890-91 was 905 which increased to 1923 in 1897-98. The receipts also increased from Rs. 952 in 1880-81 to Rs. 3,125 in 1890-91, Rs. 5,218 in 1910-11, Rs. 9,219 in 1920-21, Rs. 9,423 in 1930-31 and Rs. 9,085 in 1940-41. After Independence, the revenue receipts from registration increased from Rs. 1.56 lakhs in 1957-58 to Rs. 2.15 lakhs in 1961-62 and Rs. 5.55 lakhs in 1969-70.

Forest

The income from forests has always been a substantial source of revenue of this District. The receipts from forests was Rs. 17,184 in 1880-81, which increased to Rs. 26,285 in 1890-91, Rs. 20,045 in 1900-01, Rs. 40,863 in 1910-11, Rs. 59,743 in 1920-21, Rs. 1,33,170 in 1930-31 and Rs. 1,09,532 in 1940-41. The income further increased after the Independence of the country, i.e., from Rs. 8.45 lakhs in 1951-52 to Rs. 27.11 lakhs in 1961-62 and Rs. 146.31 lakhs in 1969-70. The recent increase in the receipt from forests is due to the nationalisation of forest produce.

Entertainment Tax

The entertainment tax was first imposed under the Central Provinces and Berar Entertainment Duty Act, 1936 in the District and was looked after by the Excise Authorities. As per available figures the receipts are increasing year by year, from Rs. 1.16 lakhs in 1954-55 to Rs. 3.17 lakhs in 1960-61 and Rs. 25.75 lakhs in 1969-70.

The following table will show the location, territorial jurisdictions and powers of the various courts in the District according to the Act of 1865.

Table No. XII-1

Early Judicial Structure (19th Century)

S. No.	Court	Territorial Jurisdiction	Original Jurisdiction	Appeallate Jurisdiction
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Tahsildar Grade II	Tahsil	Cases upto Rs. 100 in value	—
2	Tahsildar Grade I	"	Cases upto Rs. 200 in value	—
3	Assistant Commissioner Grade III	Part of District	Cases upto Rs. 500 in value	—
4	Assistant Commissioner Grade II	"	Cases upto Rs. 1000 in value	—
5	Assistant Commissioner Grade I	"	Cases upto Rs. 5000 in value	—
6	Deputy Commissioner	District	Cases above Rs. 5000 in value	Appeals from courts at 1 to 4
7	Commissioner	Division	No original Jurisdiction	Appeals from courts at 5 & 6
8	Judicial Commissioner	Province	"	Appeal from courts at 7 and appellate cases from courts at 6 and 7

It will be seen that the courts of the Deputy Commissioner, Commissioner and of the Judicial Commissioner were exercising appellate powers. However, it was laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure that in cases where two or three lower courts had concurred in the decision, appeals should be admitted purely on the merit of the case.

Thus the civil judicial powers were vested in the revenue officers of the District. Since these officers were to look after the civil, magisterial and revenue

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

Early History

The system of administration of justice during the period of Marathas was simple and flexible in Bilaspur District. The law was not codified and procedure was uncertain and informal. The judicial system was based on the old Sanskrit treatises on law like *Mitakshara* and Manu's code and the procedure was dependent upon old customs. The law already prevailing was not strictly enforced in civil suits. Legal exactitude was not their ideal. Amicable settlement was encouraged, and an attempt was always made to give a suitor every facility of proving his case.

Having been a part of the former Nagpur Provinces, the system of Civil Justice prevalent in the District, roughly from 1818 to 1861, was the one according to the Punjab Civil Code; and "Justice was administered, not by a separate judicial staff, but by the District Officers and their Assistants and in the interior of Districts by the Tehseeldars or local revenue officers in charge of sub-divisions of District." So, when the Punjab Code was prescribed as a manual for general guidance throughout the Province in 1861 no complete revision of the existing system had to be effected in this area. The uniformity in the system of judicial administration was further ensured by making the Civil Procedure Act No. VIII of 1859 applicable to the whole Province. This was followed by the introduction of other Laws which were hitherto implemented partly at various places. In 1861 the District was placed under the Commissioner of Chhattisgarh Division of the newly constituted Central Provinces. To begin with, under the new system of Civil Judiciary, Courts of the Deputy Commissioner and his Assistants, i.e., the Assistant Commissioner or the Extra Assistant Commissioner were established at the headquarters and the courts of Tahsildars at the tahsil places. The Deputy Commissioner, the District head, tried suits with no pecuniary limits. Subordinate to his courts were the 'tahsildaree courts' at tahsil headquarters. The court of the Deputy Commissioner was empowered to hear appeals from the decisions of the subordinate civil courts of the District as specified in Act XIV of 1865. The Divisional Commissioner, Chhattisgarh, with headquarters at Raipur, was the next superior court of appeal while the Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur enjoyed the status of a High Court.

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1862, p. 15.

duties the disposal of even minor cases became a prolonged affair. In order to obviate this difficulty it was decided, according to a suggestion from Judicial Commissioner J. Strachey that, "the whole of the suits at the central station of each district (save those suits which come before the Deputy Commissioner), shall ordinarily be tried by one officer whose court will be called the station court.....they will be known to the people as the court devoted to Civil Justice."¹ This court, established at the headquarters of the District was presided over by an Assistant Commissioner.

Yet another step taken to make the Civil Judiciary more effective was the periodical checking of the various courts. The Deputy Commissioner scrutinised a certain number of cases decided by the Tahsildars under him every month and the Commissioner in turn looked into a similar proportion of cases handled by the Assistant Commissioners under him. The supervising officers issued necessary instructions to the subordinates and recorded procedural defects in the disposal and judgements that he could detect in the course of scrutiny.

In 1868 a rule was also introduced that both at headquarters and outstations the disposal of civil business should be restricted whenever possible to one court which would be presided over by the best officer available. Consequently more than one officer, if posted at one place, exercised the same powers. Yet another defect of the system was that the Assistant Commissioner who presided over the Station Court at the headquarters of the district was invested with the highest powers an assistant could legally exercise so that no case should normally be beyond his competency. As such, the Tahsildar at headquarters had no civil judicial work to execute. Appeals from decisions of the Station Court also lay to the Commissioner, thereby depriving the Deputy Commissioner of the opportunity to keep a watch over the judicial functions of his best assistant whose services were totally lost to him. It was, therefore, directed by the Chief Commissioner through Book Circular II of 1873 that "there shall not be either at headquarters or at an outstation more than one officer exercising simultaneously the same class of judicial powers, unless exceptional circumstances shall compel a departure from the rule.....Tahsildars at the headquarters of a district shall in future take up all civil suits within their competency to the extent to which the Deputy Commissioner thinks they conveniently can. At the headquarters of every district there shall be a Station Court presided over by an Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioner who shall have the powers of a court of the 3rd or 4th class under the Central Provinces Courts Act, i.e., shall have powers to hear all suits upto Rs. 500 or Rs. 1000 in value. This officer will hear all suits above the competency of the Tahsildars but within his own and such suits within the competency (as regards primary jurisdiction) of the headquarters Tahsildar as the Deputy Commissioner may wish to assign to him so as to relieve the Tahsildar. Suits above Rs. 1000 in value will be laid

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1863-64, p. 30.

in the smaller district in the court of the Deputy Commissioner himself, and, in the larger districts, in the court of an Assistant Commissioner invested with the powers of a court of the 5th class."¹

With the appointment of Naib Tahsildars invested with Civil Judicial powers under section 6 of Act XIV of 1865 (Central Provinces Courts Act) to try and decide suits not exceeding Rs. 50 in value in the 1870's, the sphere of civil judiciary was further extended. It also lessened the burden of still higher courts, for suits of a petty character were disposed of by these courts. The first court of Naib Tahsildar appears to have been established at Bilaspur sometime about 1874, though the Deputy Commissioner had strongly pleaded for the same in 1873. As a rule the Naib Tahsildars were required to pass the prescribed examination in Civil Law and Procedure. In 1877 the Civil Procedure Code was modified (Act X of 1877) by extending the jurisdiction of the Courts of small causes followed by the appointment of more Naib Tahsildars, thus reducing the rush of civil work at the district headquarters.

During the period that followed, the question of separating Civil Judiciary from the Executive received active consideration. Steps were also taken to reorganise and strengthen the civil judiciary. This resulted in the emergence of the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act 1885 (Civil Courts Act XVI of 1885) which came into force on 1st January 1886. The Act chiefly aimed at providing (1) the power (to the local government) to appoint Judicial Assistants, Civil Judges and Munsiffs, with all or any of the powers of Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners and Tahsildars respectively and (2) the charge regarding the revenue appeals which is now determined by the nature or value of the suit.² And in 1887 a Senior Assistant Commissioner of Bilaspur was invested with the powers of a Civil Judge temporarily. So also one Munsiff's Court presided over by Raja Rupnarain of Sakti and one Tahsildar's court presided over by the Manager of the Pandariah State were established in Bilaspur, in accordance with the practice of appointing prominent local gentlemen as honorary judges. Subsequently, when the Local Government procured the services of trained Civil Judges from the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, one such Civil Judge was appointed at Bilaspur, affording great relief to the Deputy Commissioner. Consequently, one court of the Assistant Commissioner at Bilaspur ceased to function.

The year 1891 was signalised by the appointment of two Judicial Assistants to assist the four Divisional Commissioners in civil judiciary—yet another step towards the separation of civil judiciary from the executive. A move for the separation thus started with the appointment of Civil Judges and Munsiffs materialised with the amendment to the Civil Courts Act and the formal with-

1. *ibid.* 1872-73, p. 8.

2. *ibid.* 1886-87, p. XII.

drawal of civil judicial powers from the executive. This resulted in the change of designation of the Judicial Assistant, Civil Judge and Extra Assistant Commissioner selected for civil work as Divisional Judge, District Judge and Subordinate Judge, respectively.

Thus the Deputy Commissioners were relieved of all civil judicial work. The court of the Civil Judge was declared independent of the control of the court of the Deputy Commissioner. To each district there was assigned a Civil Judicial staff of Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners distinct from that to which the disposal of Criminal judicial and Executive work was allotted. The District thus had a separate civil judicial staff for the first time in 1902.¹

Civil Judiciary

The Bilaspur District Gazetteer (1910) reports that the civil judicial staff of the District consisted of a District Judge and a Subordinate Judge at headquarters; one Munsiff each at tahsil headquarters and a second Munsiff at Bilaspur. The Assistant Commissioners and Tahsildars functioned as Additional Judges in the courts of the Subordinate Judge and Munsiffs, respectively, in the trial of civil cases relating to Tenancy Act. The one Honorary Assistant Commissioner of the District also exercised the powers of an Additional Judge in the court of the Subordinate Judge.

The Judicial Department was reorganised in 1917. Consequently, the courts of the Divisional Judges were abolished with effect from the 14th of May 1917 and the whole Province was divided into nine Civil Districts, each under a District and Sessions Judge. The District and Sessions Judge at Raipur had jurisdiction over the revenue district of Bilaspur.

With the passage of the Central Provinces Courts Act (VIII of 1924) the designation of Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs were changed to Subordinate Judges, class I and Subordinate Judges, class II, respectively. The pecuniary jurisdiction of the latter was also raised to Rs. 5000.

Another important feature of civil judiciary was the establishment of linked courts during this period. A linked court was thus established between Bilaspur and Mungeli with effect from 1st October 1929. This link, however, ceased to function since 1941. Another link was introduced between Baloda Bazar and Bilaspur in 1944. Again, in 1946, another regrouping and linking of courts was effected breaking the Bilaspur-Baloda Bazar link replacing it by another link between Bilaspur and Janjgir. In 1947 there was further accumulation of Civil appellate work. To remove the congestion of work further, a

1. *ibid.* 1901-02, p. 77.

Second Additional Class I Judge was posted to Bilaspur from January 1950. Following the closure of the court of the Civil Judge Class I, Raigarh, a triple link was also introduced connecting Bilaspur, Ambikapur and Baikunthpur. The Second Additional Class I Judge at Bilaspur was put in charge of this link. But owing to the rush of sessions work at Bilaspur, the judge could not visit the other two places as scheduled. Consequently, Ambikapur was detached from this link and the Bilaspur-Baikunthpur link was allowed to continue. The Bilaspur-Janjgir link which was discontinued from January, 1950 was revived from March, 1950.

Meanwhile the Court of the Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur became a Chartered High Court with effect from 9th January, 1936.

In 1945 the designation of Subordinate Judge was changed into Civil Judge. In 1956 consequent on the Reorganisation of States the High Court at Nagpur was shifted from Nagpur to Jabalpur. The Munsiffs' Courts were abolished. The Central Provinces Court Act 1917 was replaced by the Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act 1958.

Administration of Criminal Justice

The early history of criminal judiciary in the District is very much similar to that of civil judiciary, for the same officers performed both duties in addition to functioning as revenue officers.

The first step taken in the direction of systematising criminal judiciary was the extension of the Code of Criminal Procedure (Act XXV of 1862) being an Act to amend the Code of Criminal Procedure investing the Judicial Commissioner singly with all the powers of a 'Sudder Court'.

As mentioned earlier, the Executive staff of the District enjoyed magisterial powers according to their ranks. The Deputy Commissioner as head of the District functioned as the District Magistrate. He was assisted by the subordinate magistrates who were Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioners on the revenue side at headquarters, and Tahsildars in the interior of the district. The Divisional Commissioner of Chhattisgarh as in the case of Civil Judiciary, was invested with the powers of a Sessions Judge, the Judicial Commissioner (Nagpur) being the final appellate authority.

Under the Criminal Judiciary also the Tahsildars were invested with magisterial powers. The Assistant Commissioners and Extra-Assistant Commissioners were invested with powers of a subordinate Magistrate of the first or second class. The Deputy Commissioner exercised special powers to try all offences not punishable with death and to inflict punishment not exceeding seven years' imprisonment. He also heard appeals on convictions by his subordinate

Magistrates. All those courts were presided over by the respective magistrates singly. However, when the Deputy Commissioner tried certain cases as sessions court under his special powers, two Assessors assisted him in trying each defended case. So also while trying sessions cases the Commissioner was assisted by two Assessors. The Judicial Commissioner heard appeals from the orders of the Sessions Court, in addition to exercising powers of revision under the Criminal Procedure Code (Act XV of 1862).

The system of Honorary Magistrates was introduced on the criminal side. These Honorary Magistrates generally enjoyed magisterial powers of the third class. During the early years of the present century Benches of Honorary Magistrates were functioning at Bilaspur, Ratanpur and Seorinarayan, besides 7 other Honorary Magistrates in the District, four of whom were Zamindars. Two of these magistrates exercised second class powers, and the rest third class.

The appointment of Naib Tahsildars in the 1870's further reduced the rush of criminal work of petty nature in the courts of Tahsildars. The Naib Tahsildars were invested with subordinate magisterial powers of the Second Class. Here also the magistrate presided over his court singly.

The practice of an officer presiding singly over a court was slightly modified by Act X of 1872 which ruled that in the trial of important cases the magistrates should be assisted by juries consisting of three persons. The Criminal Procedure Code was amended accordingly. Under section 36 of the Code, the Deputy Commissioner and his immediate assistants in Magistracy, i.e., the Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioners were empowered to exercise 'Summary powers'. These powers were also extended to the Honorary Magistrates. This was followed by other minor amendments provided by Act X of 1882 and Act III of 1884.

In January, 1892 Additional Sessions Judges were appointed to assist the Commissioners of Divisions in Sessions work. The Additional Sessions Judge for Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Divisions looked after the Sessions work of Bilaspur. Consequent on the amendment of the Central Provinces Courts Act 1904 by Act No. XI of 1910, appeals from persons sentenced to death were to be heard by Benches of two Judges. The same provision was applicable to confirmation of death sentences as well.

Certain important events connected with criminal judiciary in the subsequent years included the conversion of the court of Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur into a High Court in 1936 and its transfer to Jabalpur in 1956 consequent on the states reorganisation, the abolition of all courts of Honorary Magistrates in 1948;¹ and the complete separation of the Criminal Judiciary from the Executive in the District with effect from 16th August, 1963.

1. Certain stations were, however, permitted to retain such courts as a special case.

Incidence of Crimes

A perusal of the statistics in this regard will perhaps reveal that there has not been any abnormal increase in the number of various crimes during 1960 to 1966. On the other hand considering the size and population of the District, it has to be presumed that the crime situation was under strict control during this period. Crimes of an organised nature are, however, not uncommon in the District. Dacoity, robbery, murder and other serious crimes occurring in the District are often found to be influenced by gangs of criminals imported from adjacent districts. The crime situation in the past is described thus in the old Gazetteer: "Crime is not heavy in the District in proportion to the population and statistics show a very decided decrease since 1901 compared to the previous ten years. The average annual number of offences reported to the police in the years 1891 to 1900 was 228, in the subsequent five years 1298, and 1104 in the three years since the redistribution of the District in 1906. The average number of cases not cognisable by the police was 624 for the ten years previous to the reduction of area of the District in 1906, and 515 for the subsequent three years. The bad famine years showed a large number of offences 2853 in 1900, 3104 in 1806 and 5138 in 1897".¹

Thus, the crime history also shows that the frequency of crimes is closely associated with natural calamities, such as crops failure, famine conditions, etc. The following table shows the crime statistics relating to the years 1960-1966.

Table No. XII-2

Incidence of Crime (1960-66)

Year	Decoity	Rob- bery	Mur- der	Riot	Burgl- ary	Cattle theft	Theft ordi- nary	Kidna- pping	Misc. IPC crimes	Total
1960	7	32	62	91	771	147	1,589	19	859	3,577
1961	3	23	52	78	835	135	1,415	11	908	3,461
1962	5	30	44	84	925	164	1,466	15	892	3,625
1963	4	22	54	82	1016	150	1,536	13	783	3,660
1964	3	16	56	50	938	142	1,405	23	808	3,441
1965	6	23	63	74	901	126	1,401	14	934	3,542
1966	3	30	89	75	1267	198	1,593	13	943	4,211

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 227.

Dacoity

Starting with 7 in 1960 (the highest) the number of such crimes came down to 3 in 1966, with the years 1962 and 1965 recording 5 and 6, respectively.

Robbery

The number of such crimes varied from 16 (in 1964) to 32 (1960). The years 1962 and 1966 also registered 30 each. However, it can be observed that since 1960 this branch of crime only showed a declining tendency.

Murder

The highest number of murders occurred in 1966 (19) followed by 63 in 1960. The other years during this period registered lesser number of offences. Though the figures appear to be large during the course of one year, yet they are not proportionately high considering the size and population of the District.

Riot

Crimes under this head number 91 in 1960 (the highest). As against this, subsequent years, i.e., 1961 to 1966 registered 78, 84, 82, 50 (the lowest), 74 and 75 respectively.

Burglary

In 1966 there were 1,267 offences under this class. Except for 1963 with 1,086 such offences, all other years during this period recorded downward trend in this field. As mentioned earlier incursion of offending criminals from outside the District are also partly responsible for this rise.

Cattle Theft

The District had a bad crime history in respect of cattle theft though the figures of recent years are not appalling. A certain class of the local population have been professional criminals in this respect in the past. The Bilaspur Gazetteer of 1910 also reports that the District had a bad name for cattle poisoning by chamars. However, the gravity of this crime has been reduced considerably since then, its number varying between 126 (the lowest in 1965) and 198 (the highest) in 1966.

Thefts (Ordinary)

Ordinary thefts constitute the highest number to crimes in the District. During the past seven years their number varied between 1,401 (in 1965) and 1,593 (in 1966). In famine conditions grain thefts alone contributed a sizeable number to the total number of offences under this class.

Other offences such as kidnapping, Miscellaneous I.P.C. crimes, etc., do not warrant special comments though not negligible in number.

The investigation, trial and conviction of cognizable crimes in the District from 1963 to 1966 presents the following statistics.

Table No. XII-3

Cognizable Crimes in the District

Year	No. of cases reported	No. of cases investigated	No. of cases sent up for trial	Persons tried	Persons acquitted or discharged	Persons convicted
1963	3660	3378	1619	3526	1184	1968
1964	3441	3192	1564	3303	1665	1178
1965	3542	3341	1392	2756	1336	1230
1966	4211	3973	1410	3466	1724	1507

As mentioned earlier, the number of ordinary thefts numbered 1,589 in 1960; 1,415 in 1961; 1,466 in 1962 and 1,536 in 1966. The amount of property involved in these cases was to the tune of Rs. 1,51,939; Rs. 1,23,759; Rs. 1,79,499; Rs. 2,12,051; Rs. 2,73,985; Rs. 1,35,644 and Rs. 2,05,425, respectively. This being so in respect of ordinary thefts, the following table will show the number of cases of all classes involving property and the recovery effected thereof.

Table No. XII-4

Details of Property Stolen.

Year	No. of cases in which property stolen	No. of cases in which property recovered	Total value of property stolen Rs.	Total value of property recovered Rs.	Average value per case Rs.
1960	2,482	1041 (41.9)	4,34,895	1,45,449 (33.4)	175
1961	2,161	861 (39.6)	3,39,813	73,201 (21.5)	157
1962	2,524	1,040 (41.2)	4,77,764	1,28,504 (26.8)	189
1963	2,645	1,011 (38.3)	5,14,068	1,68,607 (32.7)	140

1964	2,464	896 (36.8)	5,73,992	2,15,499 (37.4)	167
1965	2,338	870 (37.2)	3,88,696	86,965 (22.4)	109
1966	2,974	1,164 (39.1)	5,83,958	1,34,685 (23.0)	138

Note.—Figures in brackets in col. 3 show percentage of col. 3 to 2 and those in col. 5 show percentage of col. 5 to 4.

The theft cases involving property tabulated above include thefts of cattle, copper wire, cycles, motor vehicles and accessories, fire arms, etc.

Apart from the crimes discussed so far, there are certain other offences against the special and local laws which include Excise Act, Gambling Act, Prohibition Act, etc. Number and persons committing such offences present the following statistics.

Table No. XII-5

Offences under Special or Local Laws

Year	Excise Act		Gambling Act		Prohibition Act	
	Cases	Persons	Cases	Persons	Cases	Persons
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1960	329	350	327	2,077	372	391
1961	261	289	371	2,465	277	289
1962	271	283	235	2,323	318	227
1963	222	238	289	1,964	309	304
1964	165	169	418	3,132	280	278
1965	249	263	465	3,016	359	371
1966	181	194	367	2,242	227	243

Organisation of the Police Force

In 1861-62 the District got its share of the reorganised civil police of Central Provinces when the Nagpur Regular Force, which almost had the bearing of a military body and the former Civil Police consisting of a body of

Horse riders called 'Moolkee' and of foot constables called 'Burkundazes', were broken up under the scheme of revision (Act V of 1861) of the entire police force in the various territories. The zamindars in the remote parts of the District continued to maintain their own police force, the 'Zamindaree police'. The general supervision and control, however, rested with the Police Officers.

The head of the police force of the Central Provinces was the Inspector-General. He was assisted by two Deputy Inspectors-General. These two posts were abolished in 1864. The District Superintendent of Police was the chief police officer at district level. Assistant Superintendents were posted to some important districts whenever such appointments were fully justified. Next to him were the Inspectors who were in charge of the foot and mounted constabulary.

The 'Village Kotwar' or the 'Village Watchman' constituted yet another body to prevent crime in the interior of the District. They were not counted into the regular police cadre and were in the employ of the landholders and petty proprietors who enjoyed limited police authority prescribed by common law in the prevention and detection of crimes. They also assisted the regular police in tracing out culprits connected with serious offences.

In 1863 the pay of the lowest grade of foot constable was raised from five to six rupees per mensem. Arrangement was also made to educate the illiterate policemen. Selected policemen were given training in Law and Procedure at the Normal Schools of Sagar and Nagpur. Within a decade the efficiency of the police was boosted up satisfactorily.

In 1888 a scheme for establishing a well-armed and well-trained Reserve at the headquarters of certain districts got the approval of the Chief Commissioner.

A reorganisation of the 'Zamindaree police' in the District also received active consideration during this period. "It has been arranged that in the later and more remote Zamindaris in which it would be both difficult and expensive for the government to maintain a force of regular Police, the present system, under which the Zamindars maintain and supervise their own police is to be continued; while the smaller Zamindaris, in which it is impossible for the Zamindars, on account of want of means, to maintain an efficient police force, and a few others in which, in consequence of their position with reference to the Khalsa and of other considerations, it would be impracticable to allow the present system to remain in force without impairing the general efficiency of the Police administration, and to be brought under the control of the regular Police. At the same time it has been laid down that in the event of any of the former class of Zamindars neglecting their police duties, or showing themselves incapa-

ble of performing them, their estates will at once be brought under the management of the regular Police.¹

The duties and responsibilities of the Police were manifold. Besides their legitimate duties connected with the prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of law and order they had to serve summons, supervise and contract conservancy arrangements in municipal towns, collect vital and mortuary statistics, escort treasures and prisoners, manage cattle-pounds and distribute medicines and disinfectants during outbreaks of epidemics.

Though maintenance of discipline and general control rested with the higher-ups in the police department, the District authorities were made responsible for keeping a vigil over their executive functions. The District Magistrate was to detect the errors or malpractices of the police officers. Efficiency was always encouraged by promotions, and punishments were inflicted for neglect of duty and abuse of power.

In 1891 the pay-scales of subordinate police were revised ensuring better prospects in service. Another important feature of the reform introduced in the same year was the provision of residential accommodation to the police staff attached to Police Stations.

As already stated there were no Rural Police in the Central Provinces. However, when found necessary, Punitive Police were employed. Thus in 1904 a punitive police force consisting of one Head Constable and four constables was employed in one of the villages of Bilaspur District.

Alongwith the other recommendations of the Police Commission, in 1907, the number of special armed reserves was increased. Among the reforms introduced as a result of the Police Commission scheme was the interesting and so far successful experiment of appointing Deputy Superintendents of Police and an inauguration of the system of self-contained station house circles. In 1908 there were 29 station houses in Bilaspur District at the rate of one to every 3,879 persons. The total cost of police amounted to Rs. 1,56,660. The number of police stations in the District was 26 in 1951 while, at present (1972) there are 29 police stations. Under the recently organised system the District Head is known as Superintendent of Police. The following Table shows the sanctioned strength and cost of civil police since 1961.

1. *ibid.* 1888-89, p. 15.

Table No. XII-6

Strength and Cost of Police

Year	Supdts., Asstt. Supdts. & Dy. Supdts.	Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors	Sergeants and Head-Constables	Foot (including Water) Constables	Total	Cost of Police (Rs.)
1961	4	63	114	627	808	11,49,911
1962	5	66	115	636	822	11,52,393
1963	5	74	126	682	877	12,06,658
1964	5	74	126	681	886	14,88,646
1965	5	75	129	691	900	16,02,340
1966	5	76	130	692	904	17,50,700

Home Guards Establishment

The Home Guards Organisation was started in the District in October 1947 with the passing of the Central Provinces and Berar Homeguards Act (Act XV of 1947). The purpose of the scheme is to train able-bodied young men between the age of 19 and 25 on a quasi-military footing so that they may prove useful in supplementing the police force in situations of emergency. The trainees undergo training in drill, weapon, map-reading, *lathi*, field-craft, musketry and guard duties. They are also given elementary ideas of legal powers of *Nagar-sainik* for a period of three months. Regulation of traffic and first aid to the injured also form part of their training. In case of emergency, retrenched *Sainiks* can also be called back to active service. Certain candidates are selected from among the *Sainiks* for training as Non-Commissioned Officers. From 15th November, 1947 to 31st July, 1948, 108 persons of urban area of this District were sent to M.P. Home Guards Training Centre, Nagpur for undergoing Urban Home Guards Training. During 1949, 72 men of urban area were also sent to Nagpur for the said training.

A scheme of conducting Rural Home Guards Training Centres in the District was started on 12th October, 1948. Training for the first batch of Rural Home Guards *Sainiks* thus started under the Scheme at Pendra, Akaltara and Mungeli lasted upto 12th January, 1949. Thirty-six persons were recruited in each of the centres and in all 108 were trained. The number of trainees differs every year.

As regards Urban Home Guards, its former strength was later annexed to the strength of Rural Home Guards. The position of Home Guards establishment and strength since 1962-63 is given below.

Table No. XII-7

Home Guards Establishment

Year	Company Commandant	Instructors	Head Clerk Cum Acctt.	Peons	Chowkidar	N.C.O.s	Sainiks
1962-63	1	4	1	2	1	79	246
1963-64	1	4	1	2	1	79	280
1964-65	1	4	1	2	1	73	289
1965-66	1	5	1	2	1	80	349
1966-67	2	6	1	2	1	87	405
1967-68	2	6	1	2	1	96	409

As regards the training programme, there had been no training in 1962-63 in the District as four instructors were deputed for training in Madhya Bharat Region and 41 N.C.O.s were given training for 10 days to give further training to Dalpatis and Updalpatis. In 1963-64, 1964-65 and 1965-66, 48, 50 and 50 recruits were trained, respectively.

Jails and Lock-Ups

According to the old gazetteer of Bilaspur District (1910) the office of the Superintendent of Jail was held by the Civil Surgeon and it was a 4th class District Jail with an accommodation for 164 prisoners. Since 1900 the daily number of prisoners had always been on the increase.

The District Jail is under the supervision of the Civil Surgeon who is the *ex-officio* Superintendent of Jail and the magisterial lock-ups are supervised by the respective Sub-Divisional Magistrates. The working of the Jail is controlled by the Inspector-General of Prisons with headquarters at Bhopal.

Persons sentenced with rigorous imprisonment are engaged in different working of trades. Under the Provision of the Prisoners Act, 1900, section 31-A, long-term (not less than three years) prisoners are being given temporary release for 10 days, besides remissions they earn every year, excluding the time required for journeys.

and the days of departure from and the arrival at the prison. The prisoners of exemplary conduct could receive concessions like visit from friends, exemption from fetters, good conduct badge and promotion to some prison office, money gratuities, remission of sentence and present of tools, etc., on release. Extra labour added to good conduct earns remission of sentence. Deserving prisoners are given facilities to pursue their studies further. They are provided with various sports articles and good books, radio news, etc. Various steps are being taken to enforce reformatory theory. The Jails are governed by the Madhya Pradesh Jail Manual, which contains provisions regarding the establishment and management of Jail confinements and treatment of prisoners, maintenance of discipline, etc.

In the District Jail, there are facilities for educational instruction for the prisoners. There is one whole-time teacher attached to Bilaspur Jail. The reformatory preacher also regularly visits the jail on Sunday to deliver moral lectures. *Bhajans* and *Kirtans* (religious musical programme) are arranged. Printed instructive charts are hung in every barrack. Facilities exist for religious observations for Muslims, Christians, etc. Social and other effective programmes, especially radio programmes are available for the prisoners. Dramas are also staged by them. Hindi and English newspapers and periodicals are supplied. Sports and games facilities, such as Volleyball, Ring Tennis, Carrom Board, Kabbaddi, etc., also exist. During 1965 and 1966 nineteen prisoners were released (six of whom on temporary basis) under various provisions on the recommendation of the Advisory Board of visitors.

There is a jail garden where different kinds of vegetables are grown and the garden produce was about 432 quintals, costing about Rs. 21,597, in 1966. Besides this, the articles manufactured at the jail by the prisoners were sent for exhibition at the Plan exhibition held in December 1966.

There have been two classes of prisoners termed as 'A' and 'B' class. Prisoners are allotted classes in view of their social life, education and status. Juvenile delinquents are not mixed up with habitual criminals. In the Jails, they are given better treatment.

The Bilaspur District Jail is the only class I Jail in the District, where the total authorised accommodation is for 344 persons. However, the daily average population of the Jail has been more in certain years, 476.2 in 1965 and 608.14 in 1966. This is owing to more attendance on certain days.

The table below shows details regarding the number of prisoners released and admitted during 1959-69. The highest number of prisoners released was 5,227 in 1968 followed by 4,656 in 1969 and 4,569 in 1966. Similarly, the highest number of prisoners received was also in 1968 when a total number of 5,275

convicts were added to the prison population. Most of these prisoners, as usual, were under-trials and bulk of the rest were short-term prisoners. The number of prisoners remaining at the close of every year shows a gradual increase in general, though the tendency towards crime cannot be ruled out altogether. The rise in number can be attributed to urbanisation, increase in population and to the general awareness of the public in reporting of crime to the police.

Table No. XII-8

Population of Prisoners

Year	Received during the year	Total prisoners during the year	Discharged from all causes	Remaining at the end of the year	Total daily average of prisoners
1959	1,077	1,144	1,046	98	97.07
1960	1,400	1,498	1,338	160	140.097
1961	936	1,099	942	157	2.173
1962	1,318	1,475	1,291	184	157.090
1963	1,857	2,041	1,857	184	200.082
1964	2,549	2,733	2,309	424	7.050
1965	3,278	3,702	3,121	581	474.02
1966	4,671	5,252	4,569	683	608.14
1967	1,328	2,011	1,318	693	699.59
1968	5,275	5,981	5,227	754	774.68
1969	4,555	5,301	4,656	653	666.79

Organisation of Civil and Criminal Courts

The revenue District of Bilaspur remained in the Civil District of Raipur till 15th August, 1961. Thereafter it consisted of only Bilaspur revenue District and has been under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Bilaspur.

(1) Court of the District and Sessions Judge, Bilaspur. On the civil side, as District Judge, he exercises original jurisdiction in suits where the value exceeded one lakh rupees. Besides other work, he also hears civil, regular and miscellaneous appeals against decrees and orders passed by any Civil Judge on suits valued more than Rs. 5,000/-

To assist the District and Sessions Judge, there are three (in 1969) courts of Additional District and Sessions Judges at Bilaspur. On the civil side the

First Additional District Judge has original jurisdiction in civil suits where the value exceeds Rs. 95,000 but below Rs. one lakh. He also hears civil, regular and miscellaneous appeals against the orders of Civil Judges on suits wherein the value is above Rs. 1,000 but below Rs. 5,000 in respect of District and Sessions Judge

Bilaspur Revenue District. Hearing of suits under section 92 of Civil Procedure Code and cases under Co-operative Societies Act valued over Rs. 10,000 are also included among other work. The Second Additional District Judge, also stationed at Bilaspur, hears regular civil suits of over Rs. 1000 and upto Rs. 25,000 in value and in other work are included appellate jurisdiction upto the value of Rs. 1,000. As Judge of Small Causes Court, the 2nd Additional Judge hears suits valued between Rs. 500 and 1,000 in respect of Bilaspur Tahsil. The Third Additional District Judge also hears regular suits and appeals in his civil jurisdiction as may specifically be transferred to his Court.

There are two courts of Civil Judge, Class I, at Bilaspur, the first Civil Judge, Class I and A.D.M. (J), besides all criminal (commitments and private complaints) and other cases, also performs all administrative (3) Courts of and judicial work of the District which has not been assigned Civil Judge, Class I to any other Magistrate. The second Civil Judge, Class I, and I M.F.C. hears regular civil suits of over Rs. 5,000 but not over Rs. 10,000 in value and also disposes cases of the same value under Co-operative Societies Act. Besides criminal and other cases, he hears Small Causes Suits valued Rs. 200 but below Rs. 500.

There are seven courts of Civil Judge, Class II and M.F.C. in the District; two at Bilaspur, two at Janjgir, and one each at Mungeli, Sakti and Katghora. The Civil Judge, Class II, in general has original jurisdiction in civil suits upto Rs. 5,000 excepting suits triable by (4) Courts of Civil Judge, Class II Nyaya Panchayats, Small Causes Suits upto Rs. 200 excepting suits triable by Nyaya Panchayats under Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, cases under Co-operative Societies Act upto Rs. 5,000 and consent money suits upto Rs. 2,000 in value.

On the criminal side the District and Sessions Judge tries all sessions cases and hears all criminal appeals and revisions that lie to his court from the magisterial courts. The First and Second and Third Additional Sessions Judges, both having jurisdiction over the whole Bilaspur Civil District, hear the sessions cases, criminal appeals and criminal revisions transferred to their courts for disposal by the District and Sessions Judge from time to time. The Second Additional Sessions Judge also hears revisions and criminal miscellaneous proceedings under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (1 of 1947).

The Additional District Magistrate at Bilaspur and Sub-Divisional Magi-

strates at the tahsil headquarters are invested with First Class magisterial powers. The Tahsildars at District headquarters and Naib-Tahsildars in the interior of District also enjoy magisterial powers of class II and III.

Separation of Judiciary

A complete separation of Civil Judiciary from the Executive during the very early years of the present century has already been discussed. The Criminal Judiciary, however, continued to be looked after by the Executive Staff for a little more than six decades that followed. The first step taken to separate criminal judiciary from the executive was the appointment of Judge Magistrates in the 1950's. Certain executive officers doing whole-time magisterial work were designated as Judge Magistrates. They enjoyed full first class magisterial powers and did only criminal work under the general supervision and guidance of the District Magistrate. Their work was, however, subject to periodical checking by the District and Sessions Judge. Appeals from the decisions of these Judge Magistrates lay to the District and Sessions Judge.

Yet another step in this direction was the decision of the State Government to have a separate class of service named 'Judicial Service' in accordance with the provision of chapter VI of the Constitution. The District Judges are now appointed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court, and other posts subordinate to the District Judge by recruitment through the Public Service Commission, according to rules framed by Governor in consultation with the High Court.

A complete and formal separation came into force with effect from 16th August 1963. Consequent on the separation, the executive officers in the District are distinctively styled as Executive Magistrates as they still had to exercise certain magisterial powers in so far as they related to the maintenance of law and order and prevention of crimes under the Criminal Procedure Code. For the administration of criminal judiciary the Civil Judges, Class I and II are invested with powers of First Class or Second Class magistrates. The judges thus functioning also as magistrates are known as Judicial Magistrates.

Nyaya Panchayats

The establishment of Nyaya Panchayat in the District in 1948 was almost coincident with Independence. The nominated members from the various Gram Panchayats in the District constituted as many as 75 Nyaya Panchayats. The opening of these honorary courts extended the sphere of civil and criminal judiciary into the very interior of the District facilitating the speedy disposal of cases of a petty nature. The Nyaya Panchayats exercise civil powers upto Rs. 100 in value. On the criminal side they can try cases under certain

sections of the Indian Penal Code and can impose a fine of Rs. 50. No legal practitioner can appear in the Nyaya Panchayats and the decision of the Nyaya Panchayats are not appealable. Application for revision can, however, be filed with the Additional District and Sessions Judge or Civil Judge Class I, as the case may be.

The blockwise location of the Nyaya Panchayats is tabulated in the Appendix.

The figures regarding civil and criminal cases filed for revision from the decisions of Nyaya Panchayats during recent years are shown below.

Table No. XII-9

Nyaya Panchayats—Number of Criminal Cases Disposed

Year	No. of cases pending	Offences reported during the year	Cases dismissed	Pending
1963	644	15,643	1,117	5,478
1964	5,478	10,698	2,490	4,514
1965	4,514	13,745	3,133	4,124
1966	4,124	11,201	3,320	4,260
1967	4,260	13,335	2,399	5,978

Table No. XII-10

(a) Nyaya Panchayat—Civil Revisions

Year	Pending	Instituted or reinstituted	Otherwise received during the year	Total for Disposal	Disposed of	Balance
1961	81	65	..	146	107	39
1962	39	71	..	110	88	22
1963	22	225	22	269	144	125
1964	125	108	..	233	117	116
1965	116	98	..	214	92	122
1966	122	62	..	184	67	117
1967	117	43	..	160	91	69

(b) Nyaya Panchyat—Criminal revisions

1961	24	140	..	164	129	35
1962	35	115	..	150	96	54
1963	54	123	..	177	81	96
1964	96	107	...	203	140	63
1965	63	51	...	114	63	51
1966	51	4)	..	100	62	38
1967	38	57	..	89	50	39

Number of Cases Disposed

Civil Cases Disposed of

The details of suits disposed of by various courts in the District from 1961 onwards are tabulated below.

Table No. XII-11

No. of Cases Disposed

Year	By District Court	By Subordinate Civil Courts	By Courts of Small Causes
1961	27	912	1,335
1962	49	1,198	1,751
1963	24	2,888	1,504
1964	51	1,618	1,085
1965	37	1,872	1,058
1966	45	2,233	873
1967	133	1,461	1,021

The total number of suits for money and movable property was 1520 in 1966. As against this it registered 1522 in 1961, 1248 in 1962, 1687 in 1963, 1644 in 1964 and 1543 in 1965. So also the total of title and other suits numbered 515 in 1961, 416 in 1962; 511 in 1963; 616 in 1964; 734 in 1965 and 679 in 1966. Position of pending civil suits, appeals and revisions in the District and their disposal are shown below.

Table No. XII-12

(a) No. of Civil Suits Pending and their Disposal

Year	Suits pending at the beginning	Instituted	Received	Otherwise received	Total for Disposal	Disposed by transfer	Otherwise disposed	Pending at the close of the year
1961	2101	2496	71	171	4839	182	2097	2560
1962	2560	1979	88	386	5013	386	994	3633
1963	2633	2198	68	1894	6793	1894	2559	2340
1964	2340	2260	136	143	4879	143	2611	2125
1965	2125	2277	61	581	5044	565	2404	2077
1966	2077	2199	76	736	5088	722	2430	1936
1967	1936	2065	164	233	4398	210	2405	1783
1968	1302	1849	121	337	3609	328	1731	1550
1969	1550	2111	83	292	4036	276	1923	1837

The details of the disposal of appellate cases and revisions are as under.

Legal Profession and Bar Associations

Upto the middle of 19th century there were no law graduates in Bilaspur, and the legal practice was carried on by some unlicensed and even uneducated persons. The growth of legal profession started with the origin of judiciary in the District, and the Judicial Commissioner of Central Provinces issued orders in 1863-64 that persons desirous of practising law should pass a prescribed examination. Accordingly a Board of Examiners was constituted, which issued certificates to the successful candidates. This eliminated the element of unlicensed and uneducated pleaders. The Pleaders Act of 1865 was also extended to the Central Provinces, in 1878. In the same year, the Legal Practitioners Act (No. XVIII of 1879) was passed. Examinations now began to be held under this new Act. From 1881-82, even uncertified *Mukhtyars* and petition writers were excluded from the precincts of the courts under new rules. At present the Bar is constituted of law graduates of Indian Universities who are granted *Sanad* without requiring any other test of proficiency. With a view to binding the members of the bar to the faithful discharge of their duties a form of oath was prescribed by the government to which all pleaders and advocates were asked to subscribe.

There are five Bar Associations working in the District at Bilaspur, Mungeli, Janjgir, Sakti, and Katghora Tahsil headquarters. The available details of some are given below.

The Bilaspur Bar Association is the District Association formed in 1906. At present there are 109 members in the Association. Any person enrolled as a member of the legal profession and having his place of business at Bilaspur may become the member of the Association by paying the prescribed fee of Rs. 40 in lump sum or in instalments.

There is a Bar Association at Katghora (tahsil headquarters). It was established on 1st August, 1963. There is no written constitution for the Association and its strength in 1967 was five.

(b) Revision and Appellate Cases

Regular Appeals

Miscellaneous Appeals

Year	Pending	Instituted	Otherwise received	Total for Disposal	Balance	Pending	Instituted	Otherwise received	Total for disposal	Balance
1961	213	136	85	434	172	262	36	19	77	40
1962	262	178	79	519	273	246	43	6	99	31
1963	246	393	..	639	159	450	70	..	101	66
1964	480	259	8	747	352	395	47	2	115	50
1965	395	345	10	750	363	387	69	1	120	43
1966	387	373	128	888	401	487	55	4	102	58
1967	487	332	186	1005	639	366	66	9	133	41
1968	290	244	64	598	331	267	67	8	108	60
1969	267	233	13	513	150	363	52	2	114	55

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up, functions and achievements of some of the offices of the Government of Madhya Pradesh and autonomous bodies, created by Acts of the State Legislature, located in the District is described here.

Public Works Department

The Public Works Department is bifurcated into two branches, namely, (1) Roads and Buildings and (2) Irrigation.

For administrative purposes the Roads and Buildings branch in the District is placed in the charge of the Superintending Engineer, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur, whose jurisdiction extends over the districts of Roads and Buildings Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. In his turn the Superintending Engineer is subordinate to the Chief Engineer, Public

Works Department (Roads and Buildings), Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. As far as Bilaspur District is concerned he has under him two Divisional Offices, each headed by an Executive Engineer, one in charge of Maintenance and the other construction Division. The Maintenance Division is again divided into six Sub-Divisions, namely, Bilaspur, Mungeli, Janjgir, Pendra-Road, Katghora and Electrical and Mechanical Sub-Division, Bilaspur, each under a Sub-Divisional Officer.

Formed in January, 1965 the Construction Division is divided into three Sub-Divisions. The headquarters of these Sub-Divisions are located each at Koni, Bilaspur and Katghora. Each Sub-Division is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer, designated as Assistant Engineer in case of Koni and Katghora. These Sub-Divisional Officers are assisted by 19 Sub-Engineers, 6 works Assistants, a Draughtsman and usual staff.

Irrigation

The highest office of the Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch) in the District for administrative purposes in Bilaspur Revenue Division is the office of the Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Circle, Bilaspur. The Superintending Engineer works under the control of the Chief Engineer,

Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. The Circle Office controls four Divisions, each being a working Unit of the Department. The Divisions working under the Irrigation Circle, Bilaspur, headed by an Executive Engineer each, are Kharung Division, Bilaspur, Irrigation Division, Raigarh, Irrigation Division, Surguja (Ambikapur) and Irrigation Survey Raipur Division No. 1. The last mentioned Division also controls a Sub-Division, namely, Irrigation Survey Sub-Division, Bilaspur, which is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer. The Irrigation Circle office, Bilaspur has a subordinate staff of two Assistant Engineers, a Sub-Engineer, four Draughtsmen and two Tracers.

For the purpose of maintenance of irrigation-tanks, construction of new tanks, and surveying new schemes of irrigation in the District, the office of Executive Engineer, Kharung Division, Bilaspur was established in 1920. The office functions under the administrative control of the Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Circle, Bilaspur.

The Division is divided into six Sub-divisions each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer, four of them having headquarters at Bilaspur and the remaining two at Mungeli and Sakti. The Executive Engineer is further assisted by a Divisional Accountant, a Canal Deputy Collector, 2 Irrigation Inspectors and a team of 39 subordinate technical staff including Junior Engineers, Sub-Engineers, work Assistants, Draughtsmen, Tracers and usual clerical staff. The total number of Sub-Engineers in the Division including the Sub-Divisions is 40.

Among the important works completed or nearing completion, mention may be made of the Maniari Development Project. This provides a new distributary to Maniari Tank water with its minors to provide irrigation facilities to a new area in *doab* of the Mohpad Nala and the Agar river to the extent of 16,000 acres and has remodelled the canal system, namely, distributaries D1 and D2 with minors to allow increased discharges for additional potential of 5716 acres in Mungeli Tahsil. Thus the total benefit with the project has reached 21,716 acres. Among the Medium Projects the work of combining the Hanp River Project and Agar River Project is in progress while the survey of Sagri-Baldeo Project and Alan Tank Project has been completed. Some important data on the latest developments in irrigation in the District have been given in the Appendix.

For administration of the Hasdeo Project works in the District there is the office of the Superintending Engineer, Hasdeo Project Circle, Korba (Hasdeo Project Colony). Hasdeo Project is one of the three Hasdeo Project Multi-purpose projects undertaken in Madhya Pradesh, the other two being Chambal and Tawa Projects. Hasdeo Project consists of a 250 feet high dam at Bango gorge on Hasdeo River, a barrage

at Darri and 164 miles of canals. The Project has been estimated to cost about Rs. 36 crores.

Under a Superintending Engineer, the Hasdeo Project Circle consists of three Divisions, each under the charge of an Executive Engineer. These three Divisions, namely, Hasdeo Barrage Division, Hasdeo Canal Division and Hasdeo Dam Division together with the Circle office are placed in Hasdeo Project Colony, about 5 miles from Korba town. The Divisions are divided into Sub-Divisions each in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer of the rank of Assistant Engineer, who carries out the work with the assistance of a team of Sub-Engineers and work Assistants. The Hasdeo Barrage Division is divided into four Sub-Divisions, their headquarters being located at Darri. The Executive Engineer in-charge of Hasdeo Barrage Division is assisted by 5 Assistant Engineers, 31 Sub-Engineers, 10 work Assistants, one Divisional Accountant and the usual office staff. The Dam Division is assisted by 3 Assistant Engineers, 19 Sub-Engineers, 6 work Assistants, 1 Divisional Accountant and the usual office staff. The Hasdeo Canal Division is also divided into three Sub-Divisions, each headquartered in Hasdeo Project Colony, Hasdeo. The Executive Engineer, in-charge of the Division is assisted by 3 Assistant Engineers, 19 Sub-Engineers, 5 work Assistants, one Divisional Accountant and usual office staff.

To help acquisition of land for the Project a Land Acquisition Officer is also attached to the Hasdeo Project Circle. He is assisted in this work by an Assistant Superintendent, 2 Revenue Inspectors, 6 Patwaris and usual staff.

For the purpose of erection and regulation of Hasdeo Barrage, Spill-Way Gates, Right Bank Regulator for irrigation and Right Bank Head Regulator Gates for supplying water to 200 Megawatts Power House, the Office of the Executive Engineer, Electrical and Mechanical Division, Hasdeo Project, Korba is functioning since 1965. The Executive Engineer is under the administrative control of the Superintending Engineer, Electrical and Mechanical, Irrigation Branch, Raipur.

The Division is divided into three Sub-Divisions each under the charge of an Assistant Engineer with headquarters at Darri. Thus the Executive Engineer in his work is assisted by these three Assistant Engineers, three Junior Engineers, sixteen Sub-Engineers, six work Assistants and the usual staff. Hasdeo Project was to complete in July 1967.

Agriculture Department

The work of Agriculture Department in Bilaspur Division is in the charge of the Joint Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur. This office was set up in January, 1965 to have better control over the department activities and to provide closer guidance to the subordinate officers in the Division. The Joint Director controls and supervises the working of the three De-

puty Directors of Agriculture of Bilaspur, Surguja and Raigarh districts, the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer (River Valley Project), Bilaspur, the Assistant Agricultural Engineer, Bilaspur and the Assistant Director of Agriculture (Sisal), Chorbhathi. In his turn, the Joint Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur, is under the administrative control of the Director of Agriculture, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

Previously, at the District level there was an office of the District Agriculture officer, Bilaspur, who was of the rank of Assistant Director of Agriculture. Another District Agriculture Office was established at Janjgir on the 6th of June 1963. A Deputy Director of Agriculture was posted at the District level and his office came into being in May 1965.

The Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur, in his work, is assisted by two Assistant Directors of Agriculture with their headquarters at Bilaspur and Janjgir, respectively, and four Farm Superintendents with headquarters at Dharampura, Lakhanpur, Khoksa and Ragja, respectively. At Block level there are 24 Agriculture Extension Officers in the District to look after the Agriculture work, and a Principal, Soil Conservation Centre with headquarters at Bilaspur functioning under the control of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur.

To provide specialist's assistance to the Joint Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur, in the soil conservation work and to check soil erosion in the most susceptible areas of the Mahanadi Valley in Bilaspur Division, a Divisional Soil Conservation Office has been established. The head of the office is the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer (River Valley Project), Bilaspur. He directs and supervises the offices of the Assistant Soil Conservation Officers in his Division.

To advise the cultivators at the district level to adopt soil conservation practices, an office of the Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, Bilaspur Sub-Division at Bilaspur works under the control of the Divisional Soil Conservation Office, Bilaspur. He works in co-operation with the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Bilaspur.

For the purpose of executing soil conservation practices the work is divided among five field parties. Each party consists of an Agricultural Assistant, four Surveyors and a Chainman. The headquarters of these parties are at Bilaspur, Takhatpur, Mungeli, Pandariya and Pendra-Road, respectively.

The Department particularly gets the field terraced after obtaining consent from the cultivators and the work is taken up on catchment basis. The technique of soil conservation is also demonstrated to the cultivators.

The District has now been divided into the charges of two Assistant Soil Conservation Officers, one each posted at Bilaspur and Janjgir.

Veterinary Department

The Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur exercises jurisdiction over Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja districts. He controls and supervises the offices of the District Live-Stock Officers, Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja, the Assistant Director of Veterinary Services (Key Village Schemes), Bilaspur, the Assistant Director of Veterinary Services (Rinder Pest Eradication Scheme), Bilaspur and the Cattle Breeding farms at Bilaspur, Pakaria and Jogipur. In his office the Deputy Director is also assisted by a Divisional Poultry Inspector, a Relieving Veterinary Assistant Surgeon and a Relieving Stockman. The Deputy Director is subordinate to the Director of Veterinary Services, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

At the district level, the District Live-Stock Officer is the administrative head of the Veterinary and Animal Husbandry Department in the District, working under the control of the Deputy Director. All the veterinary and animal husbandry institutions in the District are under the Live-Stock Officer for which he is also the drawing and disbursing officer, except in cases of the Government Dairy Farm, Bilaspur and Cattle Breeding Farm, Pakaria, where the Farm Manager is delegated with such powers.

The Live-Stock Officer is assisted by two Live-Stock Inspectors, 29 Veterinary Assistant Surgeons, 6 Poultry Stock Supervisors, 61 Stockmen, 12 Veterinary Compounders, 3 Enumerators, 3 Dressers and usual staff.

By the end of March, 1967 there were 21 Veterinary Hospitals, 47 Veterinary Dispensaries, 2 Cattle-Breeding Farms, one Poultry Extension Centre, and 21 Cattle-Breeding Units functioning in the District.

Fisheries Department

In order to demonstrate improved methods of pisciculture and to help pisciculturists in fishery development, an office of the Fisheries Officer has been established at Bilaspur. The Fisheries Officer, Bilaspur, is under the immediate control of the Deputy Director of Fisheries, Raipur, who exercises jurisdiction over Bilaspur and Raipur Divisions. The over-all charge of the Department is with the Director of Fisheries, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

The Fisheries Officer is assisted by an Assistant Fisheries Officer, four Fisheries Inspectors, a Fisheries Extension Assistant and a Field-Assistant, with usual staff. Among the schemes undertaken, mention could be made of the Survey Scheme and the schemes for Conservation of Fisheries in the tanks

of Bilaspur proper in Maniari reservoir, in the tanks of Ratanpur Unit and Intensification of Fisheries in Kharung reservoir.

Forest Department

To control and supervise the work of Forest Department, an office of the Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur, was established in 1953. The Conservator of Forests has jurisdiction over Bilaspur and Raigarh districts. Accordingly, he supervises and controls, in Bilaspur District, the offices of the Divisional Forest Officer, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur, the Divisional Forest Officer, North Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur and the Divisional Forest Officer, Plantation Division, Bilaspur. In this work the Conservator is assisted by an Assistant Conservator of Forest attached to the Circle Office, a Forest Ranger and three Forest Guards with usual office staff. In his turn, the Conservator of Forests is subordinate to the Chief Conservator of Forests, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

As already stated, the District comprises two Forest Divisions and one functional and overlapping Plantation Division, each headed by a Divisional Forest Officer. Whereas the Divisional Forest Officers of Bilaspur Division and North Bilaspur Division are responsible for protection, exploitation, regeneration, and maintenance of forests under their control, the Divisional Forest Officer, Plantation Division has another specific purpose. Details of these forest divisions are given below.

The Divisional Forest Officer, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur, is assisted by 2 Sub-Divisional Officers, 2 Assistant Conservators of Forests, 9 Forest Rangers, 12 Deputy Rangers, 12 Foresters and 171 Forest Guards. The Division is divided into five ranges in the charge of a Forest Ranger each. The Ranges are located with headquarters at Kota, Pendra Road, Pandaria, Lormi and Baloda. The Division is further divided into 13 Range Assistants' Circles and 75 Beats.

The North Bilaspur Division is composed of seven Forest ranges, the headquarters of which are located at Pasan, Pendra Road, Kargi-Road (Kota), Katghora (Katghora Range), Katghora (Kendai Range), Korba, and Kudmura. The Division is further divided into 21 Range Assistants' Circles, only to be again divided into 139 Beats. The Divisional Forest Officer, North Bilaspur, in his work is assisted by an Assistant Conservator of Forests, 19 Forest Rangers, 10 Deputy Rangers, 35 Foresters, 189 Forest Guards and the usual staff.

The aim of this Division is to raise plantations of Eucalyptus hybrid in the areas taken up for plantation of fast growing species to meet the de-

Plantation Division

mand of raw material for paper and pulpwood. The Divisional Forest Office was established for this purpose in 1962. The Divisional Forest Officer, Plantation Division, Bilaspur, is assisted by 5 Forest Rangers, 15 Foresters, 30 Forest Guards and usual staff. The Division is divided into five ranges, namely, Ratanpur Range with headquarters at Bilaspur, South Belghana Range with headquarters at Kargi-Road, North Belghana Range with headquarters at Belghana, Khodri Range with headquarters at Pendra-Road, and Pali Range with headquarters at Pali. As far the centrally-sponsored scheme for Fast Growing Species is concerned, an area of 5,159 hectare was planted during the period 1962 to 1966.

Public Health Engineering Department

For the purpose of water supply to rural and urban areas of the District, an office of the Executive Engineer, Public Health Division, Bilaspur, was established in August, 1962. Administratively, the Executive Engineer functions under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Public Health Engineering Department, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur.

The jurisdiction of the Executive Engineer extends over Bilaspur and Raigarh districts. As far as Bilaspur District is concerned, the Division is divided into two sub-divisions each headed by an Assistant Engineer with headquarters at Bilaspur. The Executive Engineer is assisted in the work by three Assistant Engineers, seventeen Sub-Engineers, a Surveyor, a Driller Engineer, two Drillers, a Divisional Accountant and usual staff. Upto June, 1967, the Division completed 2 schemes costing Rs. 33 lakhs in urban areas and 91 minor schemes costing Rs. 20 lakhs in rural areas.

Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board

For the purpose of running a thermal station of 100 Megawatts and construction of Korba Thermal Station Extension (200 Megawatts) a Superintending Engineer, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Korba Circle, Korba, is posted in charge of the work. Besides, there is an Additional Superintending Engineer (Civil), Civil Circle, Korba, who is in charge of all civil works of Korba Circle. The Superintending Engineer, M.P.E.B., Korba Circle has a team of officers for (a) the Circle Office, Korba, (b) the 100 Megawatts Station and (c) the Korba Thermal Power Station Extension (200 Megawatts Station). Also there is a team of officers to assist the Additional Superintending Engineer (Civil), Civil Circle, Korba.

The Korba Circle Office, Korba, headed by the Superintending Engineer, has an Assistant Engineer, a Regional Accounts Officer and a Specialist Medical Officer, a Medical Officer for the Board's dispensary at Korba, and the Welfare Officer, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Korba. The 100

Megawatts Station is under the charge of a Station Superintendent. He is assisted by four Charge Engineers, four Senior Control Engineers, six Assistant Engineers for assisting in operation and maintenance of the Station, an Assistant Engineer (Civil) for assisting in Civil Engineering maintenance works, a Chief Chemist and three Shift Chemists. The Korba Thermal Power Station Extension (200 Megawatts Station) is in the charge of the Power Station Superintendent. In this work he is assisted by three Charge Engineers, four Senior Control Engineers and three Assistant Engineers.

The Additional Superintending Engineer (Civil), Civil Circle, Korba, in the work of 200 Megawatts Station is assisted by the Divisional Engineer (Civil) I and the Divisional Engineer (Civil) II. The Divisional Engineer (Civil) I is in charge of civil works, construction of 200 Megawatts Station (Section I) and is assisted by seven Assistant Engineers, eight Sub-Engineers and usual staff. The Divisional Engineer (Civil) II is in charge of civil works of the 200 Megawatts Station (Section II) and is assisted by three Assistant Engineers.

For the purpose of erection of K.V. Lines and electrification of non-electrified areas in the District an Office of the Divisional Engineer, Construction and Operation Division, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board was established at Bilaspur in 1966. The Divisional Engineer works under the control of the Superintending Engineer (EC), Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Raipur. The jurisdiction of the Divisional Engineer extends over the districts of Bilaspur and Raigarh. In so far as Bilaspur District is concerned, he is assisted in the work by Assistant Engineer (Distribution), Assistant Engineer (Construction), Assistant Engineer (Town Distribution) and W/C Assistant Engineer (Testing), all with headquarters at Bilaspur and an Assistant Engineer with headquarters at Champa. Further down, to assist the Divisional Engineer, there are 3 Supervisors, 6 Meter-Readers, 8 linemen, 12 Assistant Linemen, 26 Helpers and other subordinate technical and electrical staff attached to the office.

The District is having 10 Electricity Distribution Centres. Out of them two are located at Ratanpur and one each at Mungeli, Pendra-Road, Akaltara, Champa, Korba, Katghora, Sakti and Bilha. Each Distribution Centre is manned by a Supervisor, a Lineman (excepting at Korba Centre), a few Assistant Linemen and Helpers, with usual clerical staff. During the past five years the Division has erected a 132 X.V. Line and H.K.V. Line, and electrified about 18 villages.

Industries Department

The District Industries Officer, Bilaspur, was established in 1958. The aims of this office are to assist the existing industries in their activities and to

promote the establishment of new ones by providing general and technical guidance, financial assistance and grant of controlled commodities and essential facilities. The office also helps the needy parties in getting machines on hire purchase basis through National Small Industries Corporation, imported commodities, land in the Industrial Estates, etc. It recommends their cases for loans and enlists their participation in the Government Purchase Programme. An Assistant Director of Industries is the head of the office. He is assisted by an Inspector of Industries in his own office and by eleven Extension officers posted at Kota, Gurella, Musturi, Jaijaipur, Akaltara, Sakti, Takhatpur, Korba, Pondi-Uprora, Bilha and Dabhra. Each Extension Officer is in charge of one to four Development Blocks. The District Industries Office is controlled by the Deputy Director of Industries, Divisional Industries Office, Raipur Division, Raipur. The head of the Department is the Director of Industries, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

During 1962-63 to 1966-67, the office helped the establishment of 334 new Units and registration of 115. The nature of help (in rupees) provided to various industrial concerns and individuals from different sources, during the same period is shown in the following table.

Table No. XIII-1

Assistance to Industries

1. Hire-Purchase	1,91,02,338
2. Madhya Pradesh Khadi and Village Industries Board	24,22,408
3. Co-operative Bank	3,41,000
4. State Bank of India	14,33,000
5. Madhya Pradesh financial corporation	83,64,000
6. Industries Department (Govt. of M.P.)	
1962-63	1,50,550
1963-64	75,775
1964-65	93,555
1965-66	1,90,395
1966-67	1,19,405
	3,23,92,426

During the same period the Department provided training to individuals in various trades. The number of trainees is given in the following table.

Table No. XIII-2

Training of Personnel

Tailoring	323	Sheet metal work	18
Ladies Tailoring	182	Soap-making	31
Leather work	120	Cane and bamboo work	20
Carpentry	253	Dye and Printing	10
Pottery tiles and brick-making	282	Bee-keeping	30
Blacksmithy	74	Miscellaneous	568
Masonry	187	Total	2,098

Madhya Pradesh Khadi & Village Industries Board

In view of the development of Khadi-Gramoddyog (Village-industry), a regional office of the Madhya Pradesh Khadi and Village Industries Board has been established in Bilaspur, headed by a Regional Officer. The head office of the Board is at Ujjain. The Regional Officer, Bilaspur, has jurisdiction over Bilaspur, Raipur and Surguja districts. In this work, he is assisted by two Supervisors, one Accountant and usual staff.

The work of the following village industries is done by the Board. (i) Khadi (ii) Dhan Kutai (Paddy Husking) (iii) Tad Gud (Palm Jaggery) (iv) Madhuanakkhi palan (Bee-keeping) (v) Resha (Fibre) (vi) Machhali (Pisciculture) (vii) Gud-Khandsa. i (Coarse sugar) (viii) Kumbhari (Pottery) (ix) Oil (x) Soap and (xi) Smithy and tanning.

Of the two Supervisors referred to above, one helps in technical guidance of the oil industry and the other in the Dhan Kutai (Paddy Husking) industry. So far as the development of Khadi Industry is concerned the following work is done in the Division by this office.

1. Organisation of Khadi and Gramoddyog and their development by extending loan through Co-operative Societies and Village Panchayats.
2. Stimulate the establishment of Co-operative societies for Khadi and Gramoddyog.
3. Arrangement of necessary instruments for the function of Gramoddyog.

4. To fix the rate of sales and arrange for distribution of the products.

Weights and Measures

The office of the Assistant Controller of Weights and Measures, Bilaspur, was established in 1959 as a result of the introduction of metric weights and measures in the country. It is a Divisional Office having jurisdiction over the three districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. The Assistant Controller is assisted by four Inspectors. Three of the Inspectors are in charge of a tahsil each and the fourth is looking after Janjgir and Sakti Tahsils with his headquarters at Janjgir. The officials are responsible for verification and stamping of weights, measures and weighing instruments in their areas. The unauthorised articles of weights and measures are seizable by them. Metric system of weights and measures has been compulsorily introduced in the District. The traders have given full co-operation in this respect.

Cooperation

The work of the Cooperation Department in Bilaspur Division is in the charge of the Deputy Registrar of Cooperative Societies, Bilaspur, who is under the administrative control of the Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Madhya Pradesh Bhopal. The jurisdiction of the Deputy Registrar extends over the revenue districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. He supervises the work of the Assistant Registrars of Cooperative Societies posted in his jurisdiction. At the district level there are two Assistant Registrars of Cooperative Societies looking after the work of Cooperative Department in Bilaspur District. To assist them in the work, there are two Audit Officers, two Senior Cooperative Inspectors, a Marketing Inspector, eight Co-operative Inspectors, two Valuers, sixty Sub-Auditors and six Government Cooperative Store Managers. The main function of the department is to promote cooperation activities in the District and to undertake registration, amalgamation, audit, inspection and liquidation of cooperative Societies.

The auditors do the work of auditing of Banking Societies. The Marketing Inspector inspects and guides the Marketing Societies. The Senior Cooperative Inspectors are the technical assistants to Assistant Registrars.

Panchayat and Social Welfare

To carry out functions and duties in respect of Gram Panchayats and Social Development on divisional basis, an office of the Divisional Panchayat and Welfare Officer, Bilaspur Division, Bilaspur was established in July, 1954. The jurisdiction of this Divisional Office extends over the districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. Administratively, the Divisional Panchayat and Social Welfare Officer functions under the control of the Director, Panchayats and Social Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. The Divisional Office has a Radio

Assistant, four Radio Mechanics and Audio-Visual Mechanics, a Divisional Librarian, a District Auditor and usual staff.

As far as Bilaspur District is concerned, the District Panchayats and Social Welfare Officer, Bilaspur, is required to carry out departmental activities and programmes in respect of Panchayats, Social Welfare and Social Education, including social education classes, cinema-shows and cultural programmes by *kalaputhaks* (artists). In this work he is assisted by 24 Panchayat and Social Education Organisers at Block level, 2 District Auditors, 13 Sub-Auditors, a Radio Mechanic, an Operator, a Battery Assistant and usual office staff. There are 114 Gram Sahayaks and 40 Gram Sevikas working in the District.

The institutions run by the Department in Bilaspur District are Balwadi and Sanskar Kendra, Bilaspur; Home for Healthy Children of Leprosy Patients, Janjgir; and Panchayat Secretaries' Institute, Bilaspur. While Balwadi, Bilaspur, provides education at pre-primary stage, the institute of Janjgir provides arrangements for lodging, boarding, clothing and education to the healthy children of leprosy patients in order to protect and keep them away from the clutches of this dreaded disease. The Panchayat Secretaries' Training Institute at Bilaspur provides training to the Gram Panchayat Secretaries in their duties and responsibilities.

Tribal Welfare

A Regional Office of the Tribal and Harijan Welfare Department functions under the Regional Deputy Director, Tribal Welfare, Bilaspur. His jurisdiction extends over the four districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh, Raipur and Durg. He guides and supervises over the activities of the District Organisers of these districts and the Additional District Organisers, Jashpur, district Raigarh. The inspection of the District Tribal Welfare Offices and the Offices of the Area Organisers working in these districts is also included in his duties. The Regional Office is controlled by the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

For the welfare of Tribals and Harijans in Bilaspur District, a District level office of the District Organiser, Tribal Welfare, is functioning as a section of the Collectorate in the District. Administratively this office is under Regional Deputy Director, Tribal Welfare, Bilaspur, and the Director of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. In his work the District Organiser is assisted by three Area Organisers with headquarters at Bilaspur, Katghora and Korba, respectively. Further down, he is assisted by eleven Circle Organisers and usual staff.

Circle Organisers supervise the activities of the cooperative societies, inspect the management of Tribal schools and get the Departmental construction work done under the supervision of their respective Area Organisers.

Some of the other important schemes run by the Department are Agriculture Demonstration farms, Balwadi, Maternity and Child Welfare and Debt Relief Regulation Schemes.

Land Records

For the purpose of inspecting the technical details of the Land Records work, thereby enabling the Director of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh, to help the Collector of the District to judge the degree of accuracy obtained in maintenance of such records, the office of the Deputy Director of Land Records, Bilaspur, was set up in August, 1961. The Deputy Director of Land Records is the head of this regional office and he exercises jurisdiction over seven districts, namely Bilaspur, Raigarh, Raipur, Durg, Bastar, Surguja and Balaghat. He is under the administrative control of the Director of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh, Gwalior.

In his work, the Deputy Director is assisted by two Crop Survey Supervisors and usual staff. The Crop Survey Supervisors supervise crop cutting experiments by random sampling method. They also inspect the offices of Superintendents of Land Records, attached to the Collectorate, to watch the various statistical schemes. They also impart training to subordinate Revenue and Records officers in the matter of crop cutting experiments and other statistical schemes.

The regional office is serving as a link between the Directorate of Land Records and the Collectorate (Land Records Section).

Economics and Statistics

The District Statistical Office, Bilaspur, was established in 1956. The office is headed by a District Statistical Officer who is assisted by three Statistical Assistants, five Investigators and usual staff. It is administratively controlled by the Director of Economics and Statistics, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. Mainly the office collects statistical data from various departments, undertakes on the spot investigation for collection of data and maintains a record of progress of the various Five Year Plans, besides compilation of statistical abstracts.

Information and Publicity

To publicise Government activities and Plan achievements, a district publicity office is functioning in the District. Headed by the District Publicity Officer, the office is manned by a Public Relation Assistant, an Operator and usual staff. The office is under the administrative control of the Director of Information and Publicity, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

Till 1966-67, about 1000 film shows were arranged, besides organising 25 exhibitions, 20 dramas and 25 other cultural programmes.

Sales Tax Department

The work of the Sales Tax Department in the District is under the administrative control of an Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Bilaspur Region, Bilaspur. He has jurisdiction over the Bilaspur division comprising the three districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. Accordingly, he exercises administrative control over the working of the Sales Tax Office, Bilaspur. The immediate superior officer of the Assistant Commissioner is the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax, Jabalpur, who in his turn is controlled by the Commissioner of Sales Tax with headquarters at Indore.

The Office is responsible for the enforcement of M.P. General Sales Tax Act, 1959, Central Sales Tax Act, 1956 and M.P. Motor Spirits and Lubricant Taxation Act, 1957.

For purposes of assessment of taxable income the assessment cases are divided on the basis of monetary limits. Accordingly, cases involving more than Rs. 20 lakhs are taken up for assessment by the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax.

In addition, the Assistant Commissioner also works as Appellate Authority. In this capacity he has to hear and dispose of the first appeals preferred by the dealers against the original orders of assessment passed by the Assistant Sales Tax Officer and Sales Tax Officer.

The Sales Tax Office in the District was established in 1953 with headquarters at Bilaspur. There are two Sales Tax Officers and five Assistant Sales Tax Officers in the District Office. The Sales Tax Officers in their work are assisted by six Sales Tax Inspectors and usual staff. Besides their routine duties, in order to recover the old Sales Tax arrears, the Sales Tax Officer has been vested with the powers of Additional Tahsildar under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, since 1962.

Transport

The Regional Transport Office, Bilaspur, was established in October, 1957. The duties of the Regional Transport Officer, Bilaspur, include the proper controlling of motor-vehicles, arrangements for regulating traffic and ensuring public safety on road. His office registers motor vehicles, realises road taxes and issues licenses to drivers and conductors in the districts of Bilaspur, Raigarh and Surguja. He also acts as Secretary, Regional Transport Authority and functions as Taxation Officer for Motor Vehicles. Therefore this autho-

ality is responsible for the proper recovery of Road Tax, Goods Tax and Passenger Tax.

Assisting him are an Assistant Regional Transport Officer, a Motor Vehicle Inspector, a Passenger Tax Inspector, a Goods Tax Inspector, a Regional Transport Inspector (enforcement squad), two Head Constables, six Constables and a Driver Constable. The Motor Vehicle Inspector ensures the fitness of vehicles, drivers and conductors for issue of licences. The Passenger and Goods Tax Inspectors are responsible for realising the statutory taxes. The other officials listed above are all on deputation from the Police Department and are collectively called the Enforcement Squad. Their main duty is to check the violation of Motor Vehicles Act and Rules and to book the offenders in this regard.

The Regional Transport Officer, Bilaspur, works under the control of the Transport Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh, Gwalior. Nationalisation of Road Transport is in progress and almost all the regular bus service routes of the District have been nationalised.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

The villages have been the unit of administration from the ancient times. The concept as well as the pattern of the Panchayat System has been formed and reformed in different ways throughout the course of history, but there is continuing concept and pattern from the ancient to the present. During the Hindu period the villages enjoyed autonomy and were governed by the Panchayats which were the self-governing units. These panchayats enjoyed administrative and judicial powers.

With the coming of the Muslim rule local institutions received a set-back as they were not vested with the same autonomy and prestige as under the Hindu kings. The Mughals did not initiate any positive measures of encouragement to local institutions wherever such institutions existed.

The local administrative system under Maratha rule was self-contained. Each village had a headman, the *Patel* who acted as revenue officer and intermediary between the villagers and the *Peshwa's* officials. The extension of jurisdiction of civil courts in larger towns and even to petty causes deprived the old village organisation of the sanctity and sanction attached to their decisions. Consequently, these village organisations gradually lost their influence with villagers. During the initial years of British rule, the Panchayats practically ceased to function.

Thus we see that the set-up of the village communities, which flourished during the Hindu period and which suffered a set-back under Muslim rule gradually decayed and then disappeared in the 19th century under British rule, only to be replaced by a different pattern.

Local Self-Government in the legally constituted form in which it now prevails in Bilaspur District is essentially a product of British rule. The existing system of municipal administration is of comparatively recent introduction while the local institution in rural areas are of still later origin and had much slower growth.

The Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act VII of 1962 as amended by Act XVIII of 1962 seeks to establish a three-tier system of Panchayats, the Gram Panchayat at the village level, the Janapada Panchayat at the Block level and the Zila Panchayat at the District level.

The present net-work of local bodies which is functioning in the District may be classified as follows:—

1. Municipal Boards Localised for urban areas.
2. Janapada Sabhas extending their jurisdiction over both urban and rural areas (to be replaced again)
3. Panchayats Covering the entire rural tract of District.

Municipalities

The beginning of Local Self-Government administration through Municipal Boards dates in this District back to 1867, when the Punjab Municipal Committees Act was extended to 78 towns of the Central Provinces. In Bilaspur town also a Municipality was created, though the functioning was guided by the government, in 1867. The first Municipal Act of Central Provinces was passed in 1873 (II of 1873) and remained in force till 1889, when the Central Provinces Municipal Act (XVIII of 1889) was introduced. The dominant motive in introducing municipal form of Self-Government at that time was the relief of Imperial revenues by collection of local taxes, etc.

It was laid down in the Act of 1889 that not less than two-fifths of the total number of councillors could be non-official, elected directly, by the local tax-payers and adult householders. For the purpose of triennial election the municipal area was divided into wards or circles and one or two members were elected from each. Many additional important duties were entrusted to the Municipal Committees which were functioning only for sanitation and water supply. The financial resources permissible under this legislation in addition to Government grants were octroi, house tax, and license fee. The Act XVIII of 1889 was repealed by Act XVI of 1903 and further by the Central Provinces and Berar Act II of 1922, which came into force in July 1923. The principles set forth in the Resolution of 1889 of the Government of India were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act of 1922 provided for wider financial independence, reduction of official control and the extension of the effective principles. The principal sources of revenue were octroi, taxes on houses, taxes on animals and vehicles and taxes on trade and profession.

The Municipal Act of 1903 which replaced that of 1889 introduced the principle of retirement of members by rotation and provided for the establishment of a Notified Area Committee. In the meanwhile, the Decentralisation Commission of 1907, recommended that the urban areas should retain their municipalities with a substantial elected majority. Till 1915 the recommendation of the Committee were not complied with. A system of rotation of councillors was done away with and in its place the old principle of triennial election was re-introduced.

The reforms of 1919 made Local Self-Government a transferred subject on the eve of Montague-Chemsford Reforms which envisaged the complete transfer of Local Self-Government to Ministers responsible to provincial legislatures which the Government of India again laid down in the Resolution of 1918. Soon after the inauguration of Reforms, a number of Acts giving wider powers to local bodies were enacted and Municipal revenues registered an upward trend. In the first flush of enthusiasm, municipalities devoted their energies to ambitious and costly schemes of education and medical relief but soon found themselves in financial difficulties. The Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act II of 1922 which came into force in July, 1923 aimed at lowering the franchise and increasing the elected element in the local bodies to the extent of making it the unquestioned immediate arbiter of policy in local affairs and passing executive direction into non-official hands. In 1925, the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee considered the problems of local taxation, along with Central and Provincial finances. The inauguration of Provincial Autonomy under the Government of India Act 1935, gave a further impetus to the development of Local Self-Government. Later, several Acts and their amendments as in the year 1939, 1947, and 1961 were passed by the provincial legislature. Each Act carried the process of democratisation of the local bodies further.

The second Municipality was constituted at Sakti (a princely state) in 1918. Another phase of development of Municipal administration in the District was the establishment of Notified Area Committee at Kota in 1922 which was converted into a Municipality in 1951-52. In Mungeli town a Notified Area Committee was constituted in 1933 which was converted into a Municipality in 1949.

Independence opened a new chapter in socio-political reforms as embodied in the Directive Principles of States Policy, enunciated in the Constitution which resulted in a federal system of public administration, universal adult franchise and the acceptance of the objective of a Welfare State.

In 1956 the new Madhya Pradesh was formed. Provisions of laws differed basically in the four constituent regions in regard to municipal con-

Act of 1962 titution, functions measures of Government control and grants-in-aid. Accordingly, a committee (Urban Local Self-Government Committee) was appointed in 1957 to investigate into the whole question and to suggest modifications for achieving an overall uniformity. On the recommendation of this Committee the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961 was passed and implemented in all the municipalities in 1962. Some of the main changes introduced by this new Act are:—

1. Municipalities, which had hitherto been grouped on income basis into six categories, have now been grouped into four categories on population basis as follows:—

Main Changes

Class I with a population below 50,000; Class II, with a population between 20,000 and 50,000; Class III, with a population between 10,000 and 20,000 and Class IV with a population not exceeding 10,000 persons.

Accordingly under this Act all the municipalities of Bilaspur District have been classified into different categories and the number of members was fixed as indicated below,

Name of Municipality	Category	Number of members
1. Bilaspur	First Class	38
2. Champa	Third Class	17
3. M ngeli	Third Class	15
4. Kota	Fourth Class	8
5. Sakti	Fourth Class	11

2. Among the selected councillors numbering not more than one-fourth of the total strength, one seat has been reserved for a woman, to be selected by the elected members from the whole body of electors.

3. The term of the council and the term of office of the councillors had been extended from three years to four years.

4. Every council has been empowered to constitute out of its own body such executive sub-committees as Finance, Public Works, Public Health and Education.

5. After every election each council has to elect its President from amongst the electors or members and two Vice-Presidents from amongst the councillors for a term of two years. A council shall elect a President from its members and from other persons residing in the Municipal area possessing the qualification of a candidate for election under section 34 of the Municipal Act but who is not disqualified under section 35 or any other provisions of the Act.

Section 29 of the new Act has empowered the State Government to determine the total number of Councillors for each Municipal Council, to divide the municipal area into wards and define their limits and membership, and to fix the number of reserved seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and allot them to various wards from time to time.

The following table would give an idea of the growth of civic population and extension of jurisdiction of the five municipalities of the District during the years 1951, 1961 and 1971.¹

Table No. XIV-1

Population and Area of Municipalities

Name of Municipality	1951		1961		1971	
	Population	Area in sq. miles	Population	Area in sq. km.	Population	Area in sq. km.
1 Bilaspur	39,099	2	86,706	32.35	98,410	32.35
2 Champa	11,907	3	16,258	18.93	18,323	18.93
3 Mungeli	8,108	1	12,431	5.57	15,260	5.57
4 Kota	5,722	1	6,591	10.02	8,196	10.62
5 Sakti	N.A.	N.A.	8,125	9.07	10,755	9.07

Bilaspur Municipality

Bilaspur Municipality was constituted in the year 1867 under the provisions of Punjab Municipal Act XV of 1867. Subsequently, changes were made in the constitution of municipality as per provisions of the Central Provinces Municipality Acts of 1873, 1889, 1903 and 1922 at different stages. According to the Act of 1873, the Municipal area was divided into wards and the number of members to be elected was fixed. The Act of 1883 provided

1. Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1951, 1961.

wider extension of municipal administration. The Municipal Act of 1903 was implemented and the committee was reconstituted to consist of only elected and nominated members. The municipal limits also underwent many changes from time to time. At the time of its constitution in 1867, the villages of Chata, Jarbhata, Masanganj, Khaparganj, Gondpara, Purani line Muhalla and Bilaspur proper were included in the municipal limits of the town. In the year 1913 area of Kududand village was included in the municipal limits of Bilaspur. The villages of Chantutidih, Sarkanda, Torwa and Chuchuhiyapara were included in 1951.

In the year 1891 the population within municipal limits was 11,122 persons which increased to 16,376 in 1901. At this time the area was divided into three wards, namely, old Bilaspur ward, Gol Bazar ward and Chata ward from which 3, 3 and 2 members were elected, respectively. Four members were nominated by the Government and the Chairman of the committee used to be an official or sometimes non-official. But the Secretary used to be a Government official. In the decade 1891-92 to 1900 the average income of the municipality amounted to Rs. 32,913 which increased to Rs. 47,498 in 1908-09. The principal source of income was octroi duty which was Rs. 26,628 in 1908-09. Other sources of income were conservancy (Rs. 4,275) cattle Pounds (Rs. 1,371) School Fee (Rs. 2,347) Market Rates (Rs. 2,081) Cattle Registration (Rs. 3,071) and Government Grant (Rs. 2,000). The conservancy tax for the first time was levied in this municipality in 1907-08. A High School was also started by the Municipal Committee in 1904-05.¹ There has been sharp rise in municipal expenditure as in the decade 1891-92 to 1900, average expenditure of the committee was Rs. 32,915 which increased to Rs. 49,086 in 1908-09. The chief items of expenditure were establishment (Rs. 2,396) realisation of taxes, (Rs. 3,709) street lighting (Rs. 1,367), conservancy (Rs. 11,018) medical (Rs. 4,613), public gardens (Rs. 2,095), roads (Rs. 5,537) and education (Rs. 12,706). A town hall was also constructed by the municipality in 1895 at the cost of Rs. 12,376.

In the composition of members there have been many changes as per provisions of various Acts enforced. Till the year 1916 only a Government official was the President. After 1916 an elected President was administering the body upto the year 1942. From the period 1942 to 1958, a selected President administered the committee. Again from the year 1959, there was an elected President. Many changes occurred in various years in the constitution of members as tabulated below.

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 236.

Table No. XIV-2

Strength of Members of the Municipality

Year	Population	Number of members				
		Ex-officio	Elected	Nominated	Selected	Total
1921-22	24,295	2	10	2	—	14
1922-23	—	1	10	4	—	15
1923-24	—	2	11	2	—	15
1925-26	—	2	11	3	2	18
1929	—	3	11	3	3	20
1931-32	25,735	1	11	3	3	18
1936-37	—	2	10	3	3	18
1941	31,368	2	11	3	3	19
1953	39,099	—	14	—	4	18
1958	—	—	22	—	5	27
1959-60	—	—	24	—	6	30
1966	86,706	3	24	—	6	33
1969	—	—	31	—	7	48

It is clear from the above table that changes were made in the composition of members according to the various Acts and their amendments. In the first phase members of the Committee were nominated by the Government and later on elected element was introduced in the municipality. The Municipal Committee was reconstituted in 1925-26 under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act of 1922 and it was composed of elected, selected and nominated members. For the purpose of election, municipal area was divided into wards and special constituencies. The President of Municipal Committee used to be elected by the elected members and the President used to nominate two Vice-Presidents. In the Municipalities Act 1922 there was no separate seat reserved for Harijans or women, but there was a provision that if no Harijan, a woman or a Muslim was returned in the election, then a Harijan, a woman and a Muslim will be nominated. But from the year 1964, the State Government has reserved three seats for the Scheduled Castes and one seat for the Scheduled Tribes on the basis of their population. This Municipality has been classified as First class Municipality as per provisions of the Muni-

icipal Act of 1961. The Municipality performs its duties through various sub-committees. One seat is reserved for a woman candidate from 1964.

The Bilaspur Municipality is engaged in welfare activities. Electricity was switched on in the town from 21st October 1934 and there were about 1,391 street lights in 1969-70. From the year 1930 the municipality is managing a number of primary and middle schools. Thus during 1930-31 there were 9 primary schools and one middle school. The number increased to 12 primary schools, 2 middle schools and one High School in 1947-48 and to 21 Primary schools, two middle schools, and two Higher Secondary schools in 1962-63. The Municipality also provided some public latrines and urinals for public convenience.

Champa Municipality

A municipality at Champa town was established on 15th May, 1950. Prior to the formation of municipal committee, the town was having Notified Area Committee from 1926-27.¹ In 1927 the population within town limits was 6,344 persons. The income of the Notified Area Committee amounted to Rs. 597 and expenditure Rs. 597 which increased to Rs. 6,992 and Rs. 7,030 respectively in 1931 and to Rs. 9,766 and Rs. 524 in 1941. The population of the town also increased to 8,362 persons in 1931 and to 9,807 in 1941.²

As per provisions of the Act of 1961 it has been graded into Class Three Municipality. The area of the Municipality was divided into eleven wards.

In 1969-70 the committee was composed of 17 members, 14 elected and three selected.

For supply of drinking water, a water works is being constructed. Electricity was supplied to this town from 15th August, 1957 and 206 street lights were provided by the Municipality at an expenditure of Rs. 7864 in 1965-66. In 1965-66 the committee was managing 17 primary Schools and 2 higher secondary schools.

Mungeli Municipality

In Mungeli town a municipality was constituted in the year 1949. Prior to the formation of the municipality, a Notified Area Committee was functioning since 13th November, 1933 with 9 members. Of these the President and 6 members were elected while 2 members were nominated by Government.

1. Report on the Working of Municipal Committees in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1926-27, p. 10.

2. Ibid. p. 103.

In the year 1934 the population within the town limits was 6,665 persons and Receipts and Expenditure of Notified Area Committee were Rs. 1,427 and Rs. 651 respectively which increased in 1941 to 4840 persons and Rs. 21,697 and Rs. 19,325 respectively.

At the time of formation of the municipality the area within municipal limits was only 1.5 miles, which subsequently increased to 5.57 sq. km. The constitution of the municipal committee in various years was as shown below.

Table No. XIV-3

Constitution of Municipal Committee (1947-1966)

Year	President	Vice-President	Number of members		
			Elected	Nominated	Selected
1947	1 (nominated)	1	6	2	—
1951	1 (elected)	2	6	2	—
1958	1 (nominated)	2	9	2	—
1966	1 (elected)	2	9	—	5

The Municipality was classified into the fifth class in 1951 but as per provisions of the Municipal Act of 1961 it has been classified into Class three Municipality.

In 1969-70 there were 12 wards, 11 general and one reserved for the Scheduled Castes. There were 15 members, 12 elected and 3 selected.

The main source of income of the Municipality is octroi tax. Electricity was first switched on in this town with effect from February, 1957 and the committee was maintaining 247 street lights in 1969-70. It is also managing 3 primary and one higher secondary school in the town.

Kota Municipality

This Municipality was constituted in the year 1959. Prior to the formation of municipality the town was having a Notified Area Committee from 1st April 1932 under the provisions of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act of 1922. The town was divided into 7 wards and the jurisdiction of the Notified Area extended to the whole town except southern part of Kota village. The committee was composed of the President, 7 elected and 2 nominated members.

In the year 1934 the population of the town was 2,915 persons and Income and Expenditure of the committee were Rs. 6,243 and 5,914, respectively, which increased to 4,356 persons and Rs. 8,678 and 8,966 in 1949.

In 1957 this municipality was classified into the fifth class and the area was only 1.00 sq. mile which increased to 5.57 sq. km. in 1961 and has been, since then, classified in class fourth. In 1969-70 there were seven wards, six general and one reserved for the Scheduled Tribes. The body was composed of 8 members, seven elected and one selected.¹

The Council was managing 2 primary schools, one middle school and one higher secondary school and an amount of Rs. 26,910 was spent under this head. Electricity was first switched on in the town on 6th March, 1959. In 1969-70 the municipality was maintaining 210 street lights and an amount of Rs. 8,603 was spent under this head. This Committee was dissolved on the 14th May, 1965 by the Government and an Administrator was appointed to carry out functions.

Sakti Municipality

This municipality was constituted in the year 1918 in the former Sakti State. Its area was 1.5 sq. miles. The area was subsequently increased to 3.5 sq. miles and again to 9.07 sq. km. The committee was composed of 10 members including the President and Secretary. The President and Secretary were nominated by the State. In the year 1948 Sakti State was merged with Bilaspur District and first elections of the municipality were held in 1950. The committee was composed of 15 members. The Second election was held in the year 1955-56 and the Committee was composed of 16 members. According to the Act of 1961, this Municipality was classified as class fourth Municipality and the area was divided into 9 wards. In 1969-70 the strength of members of the Committee was 11 out of which 9 were elected and 2 selected. Two wards were reserved for backward classes and Tribes.¹ The town got electricity from the year 1940 and the Municipality was maintaining 379 street lights at an expenditure of Rs. 37,868 under this head, in 1969-70. Drinking water is supplied by 20 wells and 50 tube wells within municipal limits.

In the beginning octroi was the chief source of revenue of Municipalities; but from the early years of the present century financial resources of the municipalities include octroi, taxes on houses and lands, taxes on professions and trades, water rate, conservancy, vehicle tax and rates and fees from markets, pounds and slaughter houses. The present main sources of revenue of municipalities are octroi, tax, latrine tax, lighting, conservancy tax and water rate. Among the heads of expenditure important items are public health and convenience, public safety,

¹, *ibid*,

public instruction and the like. The table showing the income and expenditure figures of the Municipalities for the period upto 1969-70, has been given in Appendix A.

Functions and Duties of Municipal Councils

The main functions of the municipal councils according to the Act of 1961 are Public Health, Public Works, Education, Street Lighting, Public Safety and Water supply.

The Central Provinces and Berar Education Act of 1920 provided for the introduction of compulsory education for boys and girls. Bilaspur Municipality had had 9 primary schools, one middle school in 1930-31 and an amount of Rs. 41,057 on primary education and Rs. 16,242 on secondary education was spent in that year. A middle school and one high school was added to them in 1940-41. The total number of institutions increased to 12 primary schools, two middle schools and two high schools in the year 1947-48. In 1962-63 this number was 12 primary schools, 2 middle and two higher secondary schools. There has been greater increase in the number of students at the various stages of education and corresponding rise in expenditure under this head.

Champa Municipality had 3 primary and one high school in 1950-51 and an amount of Rs. 29,934 was expended on it. The number of schools increased to 4 primary schools, and one high school at the cost of Rs. 58,516 in 1955-56 and to 7 primary schools, 2 higher secondary schools in 1962-63.

Mungeli Municipality was maintaining one primary school and one middle school in 1948-49 which number increased to 3 primary schools and one higher secondary school in 1962-63.

Kota Municipality was managing 2 primary schools, one middle school and one Higher Secondary school. Sakti Municipality was maintaining 3 primary schools and one middle school in 1947-48 which number increased to 4 primary schools and one middle school in 1962-63. In the year 1950-51 this municipality spent Rs. 16,254 which increased to Rs. 43,145 in 1955-56 and to Rs. 80,457 in 1960-61 and to Rs. 77,997 in 1965-66. Expenditure figures under the head of education by all the municipalities of the District till 1969-70 are given in Appendix.

Public Safety is a very important function but quite small expenditure is incurred by the municipalities over this head. Public Safety comprises fire protection, lighting of public streets and destruction of wild and dangerous animals. Lighting in public streets is one of the important functions of the municipalities to guard the public against dangers lurking in darkness and

against accidents due to traffic. The oldest method of street lighting is the kerosene oil street lighting. In all the Municipalities of this District lighting of street is done by means of electricity.

The table giving an idea of the number of street lights and expenditure incurred on it by the Municipalities of the District, has been given in Appendix 'A'.

Public Health activity of municipalities comprises preventing disease, prolonging life and promoting physical health through organised community efforts for the sanitation of the environment, the control of infectious diseases, organisation of medical services, treatment of diseases and education of individuals in the principles of personal hygiene. All the municipalities of the District spend large amount under this head and expenditure on public health has risen particularly after 1960-61, because of increase in expenditure on water supply and drainage scheme. Two Ayurvedic dispensaries were maintained by the Bilaspur Municipality but with effect from 1st August, 1959, they were taken over by State Government. Kota and Sakti Municipalities are managing one Ayurvedic dispensary each.

One of the most important items under public health is adequate provision for the supply of pure and clean drinking water for maintaining a high standard of personal and public hygiene. A water-supply scheme for Bilaspur town was sanctioned by the Madhya Pradesh Government on 24th October, 1958 at a cost of Rs. 20,50,000. Under this Scheme a water-works was to be constructed. In the year 1963-64, the expenditure under the scheme was revised for Rs. 31,82,000. The construction work of water works was started in the year 1959-60 and was completed in the year 1964 and water supply was made available to the public in the month of February, 1964. Out of the total expenditure, 70 per cent was shared by the Bilaspur Municipal Council and 30 per cent was contributed by the Government. In other municipalities of the District drinking water is mostly supplied by wells and the largest amount is spent under this head. The following table shows the expenditure on water supply by the municipalities.

Table No. XIV-4

Expenditure on Water Supply by Municipalities

Year	Bilaspur Municipality	Champa Municipality	Mungeli Municipality	Kota Municipality	Sakti Municipality
1960-61	—	4,677	2,922	25,098	8,747
1961-62	—	88	137	3,100	23,766

1962-63	—	32	2,737	3,674	15,157
1963-64	1,683	5,16,428	—	2,632	—
1964-65	21,825	35,241	—	3,125	—
1965-66	29,897	1,300	—	1,378	—
1966-67	63,666	—	—	1,454	—
1967-68	1,10,707	—	—	720	—
1968-69	71,831	—	—	480	—
1969-70	1,32,882	—	—	2,840	—

Conservancy includes cleaning, removal and proper disposal of refuse and rubbish of the town, disposal of night soil, sewage and drainage. It also accounts for one of the largest items of expenditure. The Conservancy and health of the people, to a large extent, depends on the cleaning, Sanitation removal and disposal of refuse and rubbish. The common practice in most of the towns is that citizens make their own arrangements to collect domestic refuse and deposit it in the street dust-bins and, if there is none, then throw it outside the door or in huge refuse deposits. The municipal collection service is limited to removal of refuse from street dust bins.

Town Planning

The modern concept of town planning has undergone a change. The general trend of urbanisation is that the towns and cities are growing without leaving sufficient space for roads, gardens and play grounds. The congestion of house constructions has resulted in neglecting good sanitary arrangement. To avoid all these drawbacks a Master Plan has been prepared for Bilaspur town by the Town Planning Department for its proper planned development.

Bilaspur town which is a commercial and industrial centre is connected with important places both by roads and railway. The major part of residential area has been developed along the Mungeli Sheorinarayan Road. The town did not extend towards the north on account of the Arpa river and communication difficulty. The growth of the town may thus be termed as Ribbon development. The various schemes which have been included in the Master Plan of Bilaspur are as follows.

At present this nala admits the drainage water of the town through the katcha drains. At many places the water is stagnated and utilised for watering

the gardens along its banks. The pools of water in the bed of the nala become the breeding places of mosquitoes. Therefore, it is necessary to canalise the *Nala* along its natural course. Then drainage water may be allowed to flow into the *nala* through proper network of pucca surface drains.

At present there is no adequate provision of open spaces to provide proper ventilation to the residents. Therefore, different areas of land have been marked out as follows.

Provision of Open spaces in the town at different places

(a) An 8 acre piece of land in Magarpara ward is proposed for park.

(b) In Kumarpara land measuring 10 acres proposed as a park or site for theatre.

(c) An 8 acre piece of land in Dayalban is proposed for a park which is already a garden.

(d) Land in Tikarapara covering 5 acres is proposed to be kept open and a site opposite is proposed for a primary School in Diprapara.

(e) A 6 acre piece of land in Sarkanda is proposed for a park.

There is only one main road along which the traffic passes in both directions through the business locality. An area of 35 acres is proposed on Dehankar Marg to accommodate the grain-ganj, weekly Shifting of Weekly market and godowns. Land measuring 15 acres on the same Market and Business Centre road close to the above land is proposed as business site where permanent shops of different kinds can be located. The present distance from the weekly market to the station will be reduced and the traffic can pass without disturbing the existing residential areas.

The present site of the existing motor-stand is not extensive enough to accommodate the traffic needs. Therefore, about 10 acres of land is proposed near the Dehankar for the motor-stand. It will accommodate the motor-stand, bus-garages, automobile workshops, petrol pumps, etc., in a suitable manner. The means of communications will also be improved as compared to the existing site.

In addition to these 4 important schemes other schemes for the planned development of the town were:—

1. Reservation of sites for Educational Institutions.
2. Construction of Traffic islands at busy traffic points.
3. Foot paths for pedestrians.
4. Play grounds for children in different parts of the town.
5. Reservation of sites for Industrial Estate, Civic Centre and Civil Hospital.
6. Construction of railway overbridge, and
7. Construction of an outer Ring Road.

District Council and Local Boards

The Local Self-Government institutions, which had jurisdiction extending over both the rural and urban areas of the District were the District Council of Bilaspur and Local Boards of Bilaspur, Mungeli, Origin and Growth Janjgir and Bilaspur Zamindari. These local bodies came into existence under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act, (I of 1883) which itself was based upon Lord Ripon's famous Resolution of 1882. Before the Act of 1883, there existed a number of Committees in each District to look after various local matters, viz., District Committee, School committee, Dispensary Committee, etc. According to the provisions of the above said Act, the jurisdiction under the Local Boards of Bilaspur, Mungeli, Janjgir and Bilaspur Zamindari was as follows.

1. Bilaspur Local Board	Khalsa Area of Bilaspur Tahsil
2. Mungeli Local Board	Whole Mungeli Tahsil
3. Janjgir Local Board	Khalsa Area of Janjgir Tahsil
4. Bilaspur Zamindari Local Board	Zamindari area of Bilaspur and Janjgir tahsil.

The jurisdiction of District Council of Bilaspur extended over the whole Revenue District.

In the administration of the Central Provinces, the British had recognised from the very outset that the village was to be the unit of all

administration. The Act, of 1883, therefore, provided for the aggregation of villages in circles and circles into groups. From these circles and groups were excluded such areas falling within the limits of a military cantonment or of town having a municipality. Hence for each group of circles a Local Board and for each district a District Council was established.

At the time of its formation Bilaspur District Council was composed of 17 members elected from Local Boards while 7 were nominated by Government. The Secretary of the District Council was a Government official. The number of members in Bilaspur Local Board was 24 out of which 19 were elected and 5 nominated while Mungeli Local Board had 20 elected and 5 nominated, Janjgir Board 21 elected 5 nominated and Bilaspur Zamindari Local Board 8 elected members and one nominated member from each Zamindari. The Deputy Commissioner was the President of Zamindari Local Board while the Tahsildar functioned as the Secretary. For other Local Boards the Tahsildar functioned as the President.

The management of schools, dispensaries, pounds and of minor roads with ferries was entrusted to the District Council. The average annual income of the Bilaspur District Council for the decade (1900-1909) was Rs. 96,628, the corresponding expenditure being Rs. 86,006. The principal heads of receipts were local rates, receipts under the Cattle Trespass Act, contributions from the Provincial revenues and ferries. The chief items of expenditure were education, civil works, medical and public health and maintenance of cattle-pounds. The Local Boards had no independent source of income but they performed inspection duty and supervised minor improvements, acting as the agents of the District Council. In the year 1910, some of the primary duties of the District Council were transferred to the Local Boards.

The constitution of Local Boards and District Council of Bilaspur District was as follows in 1911-12.¹

Table No. XIV-5

Constitution of Local Boards and District Council

Name	Area in sq. miles	Popula- tion	Number of members					
			Nomi- nated	Elec- ted	Ex- Officio	Total	Offi- cial	Non- Offi- cial
1. Bilaspur Local Board	1,135	2,52,023	5	19	—	24	2	22

1. Resolution Reviewing the Reports on the Working of District Councils and Local Boards in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1911-12, p. 4.

2. Mungeli Local	1,452	2,15,230	5	20	—	25	2	23
3. Janjgir Local	1,291	3,76,663	5	21	—	26	3	23
4. Zamindari Local	3,724	2,82,750	8	—	2	10	2	8
5. Bilaspur Dis- trict Council	7,602	1,126,666	7	17	—	24	4	20

The Constitution of these bodies underwent a change within a few years. Under the Act, the Deputy Commissioner exercised an over-all control over these self-government institutions. This rigid control naturally retarded the spontaneous development of the self-governing unit. The Decentralization Commission of 1907-09 too had observed that these institutions failed in their functions due to the artificial character, absence of genuine election, lack of financial responsibility and excessive Government control. To afford these local bodies greater freedom from official control and to afford greater scope of activities, the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act was passed in 1920 which came into force from 1st May, 1922. But the general elections to Local Boards and the District Council were held for the first time only in 1923-24. It had widely enhanced financial powers, widened electorate on a liberalised franchise, increased the proportion of elected members, practically eliminated communal and official members and relaxed official control. Under the Local Self-Government Act of 1920, Bilaspur District Council alongwith four Local Boards, was reconstituted. The District was divided into 58 circles and four groups and for each group a local board was constituted. At the District level, District Council was established. The composition of the newly re-constituted bodies was as follows in 1924-25.¹

Table No. XIV-6

Composition of the Re-constituted District Council 1924-25

Name	Area in sq. miles	Popula- tion	Ex-Officio	Number of members			Total
				Nomina- ted	Elec- ted	Sele- cted	
1. Bilaspur Local Board	1,135	2,52,043	2	3	19	—	24
2. Mungeli Local	1,452	1,45,195	—	4	20	—	24
3. Janjgir Local	1,291	3,76,929	1	4	21	—	26
4. Zamindari Local	3,729	3,52,306	—	1	8	—	9
5. Bilaspur Dis- trict Council	7,602	1,126,373	1	4	16	4	25

1. *ibid.* 1924-25, pp. 4-5 and 16-17.

For District Council Bilaspur the number of elected members were from different local boards of Bilaspur (5) Mungeli (4) Janjgir (5) and Zamindari Local Boards (2). The Chairman and Vice-Chairman District Board were from among the non-official members. Four members were selected by the elected members from the electorate, the remaining four being nominated by the Government. The Local Boards consisted of elected and nominated members, the latter not exceeding one-fourth of the entire membership of the Board.

The Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act (XXXII) of 1939, however, abolished the nominated element in the Local Boards and all the members were elected by the electorate. In order to give representation to certain special classes and interests in local boards it was provided that in case the elected member did not include a Muslim, a Harijan and a woman, the elected members were to select such members by a single transferable vote. In the event of their failure nominations were made by Government. Similarly, a provision was made for reservation of a seat for scheduled tribes in District Council and Zamindari Local Board. The Act also introduced the principle of adult Franchise for these elections.

According to the Act of 1939 also elections of the District Council continued to be indirect, 4/5th of the members being elected, by a single transferable vote, by the Local Boards under its control from amongst their own members; and the remaining 1/5th strength being selected by the above mentioned 4/5th strength. The strength of members in the Bilaspur District Council was twenty elected members and twenty five selected members.

In the year 1941 the District Council was dissolved and its affairs were managed by an Executive Officer appointed by the Government. In the year 1942 fresh elections were held and a new body was constituted, only to be superseded under the Defence of India Rules upto January, 1948, when elections for the District Council, Bilaspur were held. The new committee functioned from 19th January, 1948, till 1st July, 1948, when all District Councils were replaced by the Janapada Sabhas under the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act, of 1948.

From among their own members each Local Board and District Council elected a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman who had an office term of three years coincident with the term of the electing members. The Chairman of the council had a dual role to play. He was the President of District Council as well as its administrative and executive head. The Council was required to

meet not less than four times in the year; and it was envisaged that there should not have elapsed a period of three months before two successive meetings. Similarly, the Local Boards had to meet at least six times in a year and a period of two months was not to expire between two consecutive meetings except during the monsoons. Under certain circumstances, however, a special meeting could be called.

The functions and powers of the District Council and Local Boards were defined by statutory Act on the subject. The important functions were Public Works, Public Health, Education, Water supply and any other local works or measures likely to promote the health, comfort or convenience of the public. The powers and duties of the Local Boards, within their jurisdiction, were the same as those of the District Council with the exception that for all original works and repairs exceeding Rs. 2,500/ the approval of the Council was necessary. The Act authorised the District Council to delegate its powers to the constituent Local Boards.

The working of the Local Self-Government in Central Provinces and Berar under the Act of 1883 and 1885 unmistakably showed that the financial resources of the District Council and Local Boards were meagre, scanty and inelastic. Previously, when the District Council had no power of taxation, it was entitled to certain prescribed cess and rates. Under the Act of 1920, the local bodies began to impose and realise taxes. The Grants-in-Aid to Local Bodies Act 1939 provided for the payment of a grant to local bodies approximately equal to the sums realised by them in the shape of certain fees and fines. By section 48 of the Act those rates were abolished and instead a new cess, calculated at 6.25 per cent of the land revenue was granted to it and under section 49, it could impose a further cess of an equal amount while section 50 of the same Act authorised it to impose a special school-rate on non-agricultural incomes. In 1891-92 the total income of the council was Rs. 59,062 out of which Rs. 30,027 accounted for realisations from local rates.

In 1940-41 the total income of the council rose to Rs. 2,99,372 out of which Rs. 82,134, the highest share, was also due to realisation from local rates. As regards total expenditure in 1891-92 it amounted to Rs. 72,608 while it rose to Rs. 3,27,717 in 1940-41.

The table in the Appendix shows other details of the income and expenditure.

Janapada Sabhas

The Local Self-Government Act, 1948 popularly known as the Janapada Act, was enforced in the District in 1948. According to this Act, Janapada Sabhas were created at tahsil level replacing the District Council and Local Boards. This Act, as amended from time to time, was in force in the District. A consequence of this measure was that the tahsil became the primary unit of administration and constituted a centre of Local Self-Government in which local officials and representatives of the area were closely associated. According to the provisions of the Act of 1948, five Janapada Sabhas, one each at tahsil level, were constituted and located at Bilaspur, Janjgir, Mungeli, Katghora and Sakti. These Janapada Sabhas came into existence from 15th August, 1948, except Sakti Janapada Sabha which came into existence with effect from 1st January 1949. The jurisdiction of Sakti Janapada Sabha extended to 25 villages of the former Sakti State, 287 villages of Janjgir tahsil and 25 villages of the former Raigarh State. Thus the total number of villages included in Sakti Janapada Sabha was 437. At the stage of first formation the members of all the Janapada Sabhas were nominated by the Government. The members nominated to the different Sabhas of the District included 39 members from Bilaspur, 42 from Janjgir and 22 from Sakti. This strength represented both rural and urban areas. These nominated bodies continued to function till 31st March, 1954 when the first elections were held. The composition of the Janapada Sabhas of Bilaspur District was as follows under the provisions of the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government Act 1948.¹

Table No. XIV-7

Composition of Janapada Sabha under Act 1948

Janapada Sabha	Number of members		
	Urban	Rural	Total
1. Bilaspur	4	35	39
2. Janjgir	1	32	33
3. Mungeli	1	24	25
4. Katghora	—	25	25
5. Sakti	1	25	26

A Janapada area was divided into urban and rural circles. The urban areas consisted of areas within the limits of the municipal committees and

1. The Madhya Pradesh Janapada Manual, 1955, Part I, p. 117.

Notified Area Committees. The following table gives the number of members elected from urban areas.²

Table No. XIV-8

Number of Elected Members for Janapada Sabha

Name of Janapada Sabha	Name of Municipality	Number of Members
1. Bilaspur	1. Bilaspur	3
	2. Kota	1
2. Janjgir	Champa	1
3. Mungeli	Mungeli	1
4. Sakti	Sakti	1

Similarly, the whole rural area of the District was divided into rural electoral Circles. The number of rural Circles was fixed as 35, 32, 24, 25, and 28 in Bilaspur, Janjgir, Mungeli, Katghora and Sakti Janapada Sabhas, respectively. Thus, the members of the Janapada Sabha were of two kinds, elected and selected. Members were classified into two, i.e. representing rural and urban circles. From rural circles members were elected directly by the electorate from the constituencies while in urban circles they were elected indirectly, i.e. by the elected members of the Municipal bodies. According to the Act, there was a provision that elected members had to select Harijan and or Scheduled Tribe members, if they were not included amongst the elected members. The life of the Sabha was for five years from the date of its first meeting and the term of the office of every Councillor co-terminated with it. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman who were elected by the Councillors from amongst themselves or from outside and held office for the life time of the Sabha. The following table gives the size, population and composition of members of Janapada Sabhas of the District.

Table No. XIV-9

Area and Population of Janapada Sabha

Janapada Sabha	Area in sq. miles	Population (1961)	Number of members		
			Elected	Selected	Total
1. Bilaspur	2,207	6,66,158	39	4	43
2. Janjgir	869	3,91,304	33	7	40
3. Mungeli	2,588	3,23,027	—	—	—
4. Katghora	2,435	3,33,438	25	6	31
5. Sakti	611	3,07,839	26	4	30

1. *ibid.* p. 120.

In pursuance of the Act of 1948, every Sabha in the District appointed, out of its own body, the Standing Committees on Finance, Public Works, Public Health, Education, Agriculture, and Development.

The Committee on Development was abolished in accordance with the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee 1952, and instead an Administrative Committee comprising eleven or nearly equal to one-third of the total number of councillors, whichever was greater, was constituted in each Sabha. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Sabha acted as the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Administrative Committee. The Administrative Committee dealt with the co-ordination of the other standing committees and looked to the implementation of their decisions and appointment of Janapada staff.

The Chief Executive Officer acted as the *ex-officio* Secretary of every Standing Committee. The Sub-Divisional Officers acted as the Chief Executive Officers of these Janapada Sabhas and Tahsildars functioned as Deputy Executive Officers of the respective Janapada Sabhas of the District. But since 1967, the Janapada Sabhas were taken over by the Collector and Sub-Divisional Officers acted as their Administrators.

The Janapada Sabhas were vested with larger authority and wider powers than their predecessors, i.e. District Councils. The main function of the Janapada Sabha was to promote the health, comfort, education and convenience of the people living in the rural areas. Broadly speaking, there were three categories of functions, viz., obligatory, discretionary and entrusted. Obligatory duties, which were 16 in number according to the Act of 1948, were reduced to almost half by the Amendment Act of 1953. They may be enumerated as establishment, management, and maintenance of rural schools, hospitals, dispensaries, markets, *serais*, transferred buildings and roads, cattle pounds, vaccination and other public health scheme, village uplift, provision for pure drinking water by constructing wells and tanks, and management of ferries. Discretionary functions were ten in number but subsequently increased to seventeen by the Act of 1953. Important among them were the development of cottage industries, provision of proper drainage and sanitary convenience, disposal of the dead, agriculture, improvement of livestock, relief work during natural calamity and regulation of vehicular traffic within the Janapada area. The third category is called entrusted functions. While performing these entrusted functions, the Sabha acts as an agent of the State Government and followed the policy laid down. The expenditure incurred by the Sabha on such functions was reimbursed by the Government. The Sabhas also exercise powers of inspection over the Gram Panchayats within their jurisdiction.

Under the Act of 1948, the sources of income of Janapada Sabha were the proceeds of taxes, fees, tolls, cess and rates imposed under the Act, rents and rates imposed under the Act, rents and profits from Financial Resources *nazul* property, a certain percentage of land revenue from the Government and local bodies to meet expenses for the performance of agency functions, etc. Thus, the sources of income of the Sabhas were practically identical with the former District Councils except that a percentage of land revenue was paid to the Sabha for performing agency functions. The Table giving the income and expenditure figures for certain period of all Janapada Sabhas of Bilaspur District has been given in Appendix A.

On the recommendation of the Janapada Enquiry Committee the Government decided to abolish additional cess and raise the rate of compulsory cess. In respect of educational grant the Government decided to meet 75 per cent of the approved expenditure on primary education. In backward areas the contribution could go upto 90 per cent. The Janapada Sabha was also given a share of land revenue at 5 per cent of the annual demand of the area falling under its jurisdiction.

All the sums received by the Sabha constituted the Janapada Fund which was vested in the Sabha and was placed to its credit. Out of this fund were paid the charges and expenses incurred in the performance of the functions and duties of the Sabha under the Act. The Table giving various heads of expenditure of Janapada Sabhas is given in Appendix A.

Of the various functions which the Sabha performed, those relating to education, medical and public health, veterinary services and public works were most important. Education was the most important function and Government contributed the highest grant for the purpose. The establishment, management, maintenance, inspection and visiting of schools was an important function of the Janapada Sabhas. There was remarkable progress in the sphere of education during the period of the Sabha's existence.

Bilaspur Janapada Sabha had 18 middle and 75 primary schools in 1948-49 which subsequently increased to 25 middle schools and 136 primary schools in 1955-56 and two high schools, two *Balak Mandirs*, 33 middle schools, and 335 primary schools in 1960-61. The same increased to five high schools, two *Balak Mandirs*, 42 middle schools, and 349 primary schools by the end of March 1967. Similar progress in the field of education was seen in Janjgir, Katghora and Sakti Janapada Sabhas. In 1948-49 there were 88 primary schools and 9 middle schools in Janjgir Janapada Sabha and 28 primary schools in Katghora Janapada Sabha. This number of institutions increased to 226 primary schools and 37 middle schools and five higher secondary schools in

Janjgir Janapada Sabha; 13 primary schools, one middle school, 2 higher secondary schools in Katghora Janapada Sabha and 241 primary schools, 33 middle schools and 3 higher secondary schools in Sakti Janapada Sabha in 1963-64. In addition, Sakti Janapada Sabha was maintaining two Balak Mandirs from the year 1964-65. There was rapid increase in expenditure under this head owing to the ever increasing demand of schools in rural areas. The services of teachers of the schools run by the Janapada Sabhas of the District were transferred to the Government during the years 1963 onwards.

The activities under this head were maintenance of dispensaries, provision for pure drinking water, measures for prevention of epidemic, vaccination and inoculation. Bilaspur, Janjgir, Katghora and Sakti Janapada Sabhas were maintaining 33, 12, 16 and 12 Ayurvedic dispensaries, respectively. The amount spent on public health activity by the Janapada Sabhas of the District shows a gradual rise as is evident from the Table on expenditure in Appendix A.

This was an important function of Janapada Sabha. The development of rural communication and construction of buildings for Panchayat Bhawans, schools and dispensaries, construction and repairs of wells and tanks were their important functions. Janapada Sabha Bilaspur had constructed buildings for 37 primary schools, 12 middle schools, 14 Ayurvedic Dispensaries and 2 Veterinary Hospitals.

Panchayats

The village Panchayats are supposed to be the basic unit of local administration in our society. It symbolised a decentralised system of administration based on truth and justice reflected by consensus. The importance of these bodies was noted by Lord Morley, the Secretary of State for India, in 1908. The recommendations of the Decentralisation Commission mainly aimed at the development of corporate life amongst the villagers and creating in them an interest in local village affairs. In the year 1918, following the Montford report it was felt that an essential beginning should be made where possible with a view to restoring the set-up of these panchayats.

Following the transfer of the Department of Local Self-Government under the charge of a responsible provincial minister (according to the Government of India Act of 1919), the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act of 1920 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act of 1920 were passed. Under the former Act provision was made to create Sanitation Panchayat in the areas notified by the Government, while under the latter Act regular Village Panchayat was to be established

shed in the other rural areas. It was also decided that as far as possible, later on, the Sanitation Panchayats should be converted into village panchayats.

Village Panchayats

Under the Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act No. V of 1920, a Panchayat was to be established for a circle comprising a village or group of adjacent villages. The Village Panchayat was established by the Deputy Commissioner after considering an application made by not less than twenty adult male residents of a village or a group of villages. In the year 1925 two Village Panchayats were established at Kota and Kateli villages of Bilaspur District and one Panchayat at Tikarseni in Bilaspur Tahsil was established in the year 1926. Then the total number of Village Panchayats in the District further increased to 10 in 1929, to 12 in 1930, to 35 in 1932 to 45 in 1934, to 46 in 1935, and to 50 in 1941. The dates and names of some of the oldest Panchayats of Bilaspur District are given below.

Table No. XIV-10

Location and dates of Opening of Village Panchayats

Name of Village Panchayat	Tahsil	Date of Establishment
1. Kota	Bilaspur	4.12.1925
2. Tikarseni	—do—	29.1.1926
3. Kateli	Mungeli	31.12.1925
4. Chanderpur	Janjgir	5.1.1925
5. Khokota	—do—	19.1.1929
6. Katapali	—do—	10.1.1929
7. Padmpur	—do—	8.1.1929
8. Adhmar	—do—	22.1.1929
9. Katghora	Katghora	6.2.1929
10. Chetma	—do—	5.2.1929

1. Report on the Working of the Village Panchayat in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1927-28 and 1928-29, p. 37.

The constitution of a Sanitation Panchayat required the sanction of Local Government upon an application made by not less than ten residents. The Chandrapur and Katghora villages, which were under *Mukkadam* rule, were converted into Village Panchayats on 1st April, 1927.

The main sources of income of Village Panchayat were taxes, fees and fines and grants received from Government, Local authorities or private persons. The main heads of expenditure were cleaning of village site, conservancy, roads and miscellaneous. In the year 1930, total receipts and expenditure of Panchayats were Rs. 2,141 which increased to Rs. 7,810 and Rs. 4,560 respectively, in 1941.

In March, 1925 a resolution was moved by the Central Provinces Legislative Council recommending to the Government to take active steps for establishment of the Gram Panchayats. But the progress of establishment of Village Panchayats remained slow. This led to the appointment of an Enquiry Committee in 1953 in the Central Provinces. The Committee recommended that Panchayat should be endowed with civil and criminal powers and that certain functions should be made obligatory for them. The recommendations of this Committee were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act of 1946, which came in to force in 1947. The Panchayat Act of 1946 was amended from time to time in the years 1947, 1948, 1949 then in 1950, 1951 and 1953.

According to the provision of the Act of 1946, the formation of panchayats was split up into three stages, first for every village with a population of 1,000 or above, second for villages with a population of not less than 500 and third for villages with a population below 500. It was decided that when the third phase would be taken up villages would be grouped together on the basis of proximity, and group panchayats would be constituted with jurisdiction over several villages. In actual practice, however, due to reorganization of the States the third phase was never implemented. The principle was that one Panchayat should be established for every village and *Panchas* were to be elected on the basis of adult suffrage.

In the year 1947 there were only 51 Village Panchayats in this District which changed to 927, 937, and 784 at the end of First, Second and Third Five Year Plan, respectively. The distribution of Gram Panchayats in tahsil-wise break up was as given below.

Number of Panchayats

1, *ibid.*

Table No. XIV-11

Number of Gram Panchayats Blockwise

S. No.	Tahsil	No. of Blocks	Number of Gram Panchayats
1.	Sakti	4	120
2.	Janigir	5	139
3.	Bilaspur	6	236
4.	Mungeli	4	137
5.	Katghora	5	152
Total		24	784

A Gram Panchayat was composed of 5 to 15 panchas, who were chosen by secret ballot by qualified voters for a period of 5 years on adult franchise basis. The *Patel* was *ex-officio* over and above the authorised strength. The *Sarpanch* of a gram panchayat was elected while the *Up-Sarpanch* was nominated by the *Sarpanch*. Their term of office was co-extensive with the term of the panchayat. The *panch* could be removed from office by the Janapada authority on the recommendation of two-thirds majority of members. Like the Janapada Sabha, all members of the first term of each Panchayat were nominated by the Government, but afterwards the system of regular election was introduced.

The functions entrusted to the village panchayats under the Act of 1964 were multifarious. In short, these covered the entire field of civic administration and social and economic development of the villages. Their duties were described under two heads, compulsory and discretionary. The first category included conservancy, sanitation, medical relief, vaccination and first aid, supply of water, registration of births, deaths and marriages, and construction and maintenance of village roads. Discretionary functions, assigned to the Panchayat, may be treated as compulsory in certain cases if the Government so desire. Some of these duties are construction and maintenance of slaughter house, relief of the destitute and the sick, improvement of agriculture, cattle-breeding, promotion of co-operative farming, establishment of granaries, village libraries and reading-rooms, promotion of agricultural credits and measures to relieve rural indebtedness, planting of trees, prohibition, scarcity relief work, eradication of corruption and untouchability, encouragement of cottage industries, management of cattle-pounds, *sarais*, *dharmaśālas*, public *ghats*, child-welfare centres; lighting of village streets,

preparation of compost manure diffusion of education; regulation of dangerous trades, etc.

Financial resources admissible to these panchayats may be classified as:—

Financial Resources

- (a) Self-earned or independent income like compulsory and optional taxes, fee rates, etc.
- (b) Receipt from panchayat property, Government grant, both regular and ad-hoc.
- (c) *Ad-hoc* public contribution for specific development work.

Compulsory taxes include cess on land revenue, tax on building and non-agricultural land, tax on profession, an yearly licence on brokers, etc. Optional taxes may be levied with approval from the local Janapada Sabha, as tolls on vehicles, pack-animals and markets, and water-rate and lighting fee. In addition to these, every panchayat is empowered to raise loans equal to five per cent of its revenue from a village Development Fund. The budget of every panchayat, which is sanctioned by the Janapada authority, must provide for a closing balance of not less than one-sixth of the estimated normal income of the year. The following Table gives the income and expenditure of Gram and Nyaya Panchayats from 1960-61 to 1965-66 in Bilaspur District.

Table No. XIV-12

Income and Expenditure

Year	Gram Panchayats		Nyaya Panchayats	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
1960-61	4,62,903.49	2,69,999.69	2,09,06.61	1,168.51
1961-62	5,28,803.03	3,32,934.85	4,02,26.00	23,304.00
1962-63	5,33,644.36	3,15,258.10	3,60,25.00	14,879.00
1963-64	5,46,590.25	2,80,239.20	3,56,42.00	19,710.00
1964-65	5,30,211.62	2,91,163.00	3,72,92.00	21,753.00
1965-66	5,73,701.00	3,41,120.00	2,68,86.00	17,781.00
1966-67	8,31,253.00	5,35,139.00	2,45,30.00	20,177.00

Nyaya Panchayats

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act of 1946, Nyaya Panchayats were constituted one each for a group of villages. They are purely judicial bodies. The Panchas of this body were at first nominated by the Government for three years but later they were selected from amongst the elected members of the Gram Panchayat for a five year term. The detailed functions and working of Nyaya Panchayat have been discussed in Chapter XII, Law and Order and Justice of this District.

Panchayati Raj

Panchayati Raj Scheme is indeed a broadening of rural extension concept and the further devolution of the programme of community development. The prevalence of different systems of Panchayat in the various constituent units of the reorganised Madhya Pradesh created considerable administrative inconvenience and the need was felt to achieve uniformity of pattern by integrating these various sets of laws pertaining to the rural local bodies. The Rural Local Self-Government Committee was, therefore, appointed by the State Government (under Resolution No. 6105-XVIII Local Self-Government dated the 29th July, 1957) for this purpose. This endeavour of the Madhya Pradesh Government coincided with the effort of the Government of India to implement the Directive Principles of State Policy, contained in Article 40 of the Indian Constitution.

In the first phase of its implementation the Balwant Rai Mehta Commission was appointed by the Central Government in 1957, which recommended democratic diffusion of the centripetal power. The National Development Council endorsed this recommendation in its meeting on January 12, 1958, and finally the Central Council of Local Self-Government, in its fifth meeting at Hyderabad in 1959, enunciated certain broad principles on which the existing panchayats were advised to be reconstituted so that they could form the base of the entire community development programme and supply it with necessary vitality and vigour.

In 1962 the Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act was passed. This Act brought new vision and responsibilities to the Panchayats what is popularly known as the Panchayati Raj. Under this Act, the Gram Three Tier System Sabha, consisting of all the adults of the village, has been recognised as a statutory body, which shall meet at least twice a year to consider programme of work and the panchayat budget at the village level. The initiative and control will finally pass to the village Panchayats which will guide and shape the future of the village community.

The Janapada Panchayat shall consist of, in addition to the elected Panchas varying from 15 to 30, one member from the Co-operative Marketing

societies, one from each municipal body, one from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, two women and the local members of Legislative Assembly. The Zila Panchayat, extending its jurisdiction over the whole District shall include Sarpanchas of all Janapada Panchayats, members of Legislative Assembly from the District and all the District Officers, representing Public Health, Education, Agriculture and other Development Departments, one woman, one member of Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes and one member representing the co-operative societies.

As regards financial resources no change has been made in the Gram Panchayat fund but provision has been made to allot suitable amount to the Janapada Panchayats for carrying out Community Development Financial Resources ment Programmes. It has also been authorised to levy a tax on new bridges constructed by itself and an entertainment tax on theatre and other public shows. The Zila Panchayat will get forest revenue, and contribution from the State Government and other bodies, besides a share from the land revenue. The budget of the Gram Panchayat would be approved by the Zila Panchayat. The last named is authorised to sanction its own budget. The Table¹ below shows the details of the set-up before the Panchayati Raj is implemented.

Table No. XIV-13

Set-up of Panchayats (before Panchayati Raj)

Year	No. of Gram Panchayats/Sabhas	Total	Total
		Income	Expenditure (In Rs.)
1960-61	1,865	4,62,903	2,69,000
1961-62	1,865	5,28,803	3,32,835
1962-63	1,865	5,33,744	3,15,258
1963-64	1,865	5,46,590	2,80,239
1964-65	918	5,30,211	2,91,163
1965-66	784	57,372	34,112
1966-67		8,31,254	5,35,139

1. District Panchayat And Welfare Officer, Bilaspur.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Historical Background

In the absence of authentic references it is difficult to speak with certainty either of the cultural heritage or of the educational facilities that existed in Bilaspur in very early times. According to local tradition, Ratanpur, the ancient capital of Chhattisgarh, has existed throughout the four cosmic periods of the world, and has changed its name at the end of each period. Its original name was Manipur. There is a reference to the existence of a more ancient University than Nalanda at Ratanpur, nearly 5000 years ago. *Acharyas* with special literary eminence were engaged in the University. The Maikal ranges are "mentioned in ancient Hindu literature as the place of Malkala Rishi's penance, though Vyasa, Bhrigu, Agastya, and other sages are also credited with having meditated in the forests".¹

The fact that this area was once under the sway of the Kalachuris of Ratanpur, however, credits Bilaspur with a glorious past, culturally and most probably educationally, for the Kalachuri rulers were great builders of Hindu temples, besides being patrons of Buddhism. It is also believed that Ratanpur, Pali and Sheorinarayan were famous seats of learning and sacred lands of Vedic sacrifice under Hindu kings, for which the ruins of old temples and sculptures at these places bear testimony. The remains of a Sivite monastery, and some temples and statues at village Bisesara in the District, which Beglar assigned to the period of about the 9th century A.D.,² further testifies to the intellectual advancement in the region.

During the period under the Maratha administration from 1758 to 1818 which is regarded as the 'dark age' in the history of Chhattisgarh, and then as a British protectorate from 1818 to 1830 and under 'Bhonsla administration' from 1830 to 1854, it can be said that educational activities received little attention in Bilaspur. "The Nagpur Government under the Bhonslas gave no support for the encouragement of education. Public schools were not established, nor were grants given to teachers. Wandering Brahmans and

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 279.

2. *ibid.* p. 263.

pandits, learned in the *Shastras* received presents occasionally... It was a rare circumstance to find a cultivator who could sign his name. There were no schools exclusively for the children of Muhammadans; a few Muhammadans in order to acquire merit in a future state of existence taught Persian *gratis*. Mullahs and qazis were quite uneducated".¹

This state of affairs continued till the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. Sporadic attempts between 1854 and 1862 were made to open indigenous schools in the District. The Provincial Committee reports of one such attempt in Bilaspur: "In Bilaspur Seorinarayan on the banks of the Mahanadi is, a place of sanctity to which numerous pilgrims resort year by year. There a Sanskrit school was opened by a 'Bairagi' or religious mendicant. In Chhattisgarh there was so little instruction, that in 1862 at the headquarters of the divisions, there were about five 'hedge schools', and no competent Native could be found by the Commissioner, to examine, and acquire information regarding indigenous schools".²

The administration of the Central Provinces was constituted on the 2nd November, 1861. The Educational Department commenced its work in 1862. Director of Public Instruction was appointed whose Beginning of designation was subsequently changed to the Inspector-General of Education. Two circles of inspection were created—the Northern Circle and the Southern or Nagpur Circle. An educational grant of Rs. 50,000 for 1862-63 was earmarked for the Nagpur Province towards State education. Arrangements were made for the opening of 'Zillah Schools' at the headquarters of the district and 'Tahseelee Schools' at the headquarters of sub-divisions on securing the services of trained teachers. In order to meet the scarcity of trained teachers, it was decided to open normal schools at every district headquarters.

As regards management and inspection of these schools it was proposed to follow the system existing in the Punjab by placing the village and 'tahseelee schools' under the administrative management of the District Officer (Deputy Commissioner) subject to the inspection of the educational authorities. However, to assist the Deputy Commissioner in the work, a trained official of the Educational Department was to be placed at his disposal. The languages to be used in the Education Department were Urdu and Hindi.

The first schools to be started thus was a Vernacular town school at Mungeli on the 1st July, 1863 and an Anglo-Vernacular town school at Bilas-

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee in the Education Commission, 1884, p. 4.
2. *ibid.* p. 5.

pur near about the same time. This was followed by the opening of Zila Middle School at Bilaspur on the 1st March, 1867. Between 1862 and 1869, several schools sprang up in quick succession in the District—one Vernacular town school at Ratanpur, two Zila branch schools at Bilaspur (both on the 1st July, 1869), nine village schools in Bilaspur, eleven in Mungeli and six in Seorinarayan Tahsil, five girls schools (three in Bilaspur and one each in Mungeli and Seorinarayan) and 15 aided primary schools in Bilaspur Tahsil. The number of schools increased considerably in subsequent years and, in 1874-75, there were 63 schools of all description in the District with 3,290 pupils.

Except for Anglo-Vernacular town schools, where both media existed, the medium of instruction was the Vernacular of the District. This was in pursuance of the education policy of the British Government as laid down by the famous 'Despatch of 1854', styled as the 'Magna Charta of English Education in India.' It said: "It is neither our aim nor desire to substitute the English language for the Vernacular dialects of the country..... In any general system of education the English language should be taught where there is a demand for it".¹

The primary education had two wings, namely, primary English education and primary Vernacular education. In Government middle schools, the attached primary English schools enjoyed the status of departments only. Primary Vernacular schools were Government or aided or unaided schools for boys and girls. The first Arts and Matriculation Examinations were conducted by the Calcutta University, and the Middle School Examination by the Inspector-General of Education.

The year 1884 was signalized by certain important reforms in the field of education. By a Government of India Resolution,² published towards the close of 1884, the management of Departmental rural schools was placed under the District Councils and Local Boards. Each school had a school committee constituted for its management, and by 1885 all schools were under the school committees. Many secondary and primary schools were supported by the municipalities—a great relief to the Provincial revenues.

In 1884-85, six kinds of scholarships were instituted covering all stages of education from primary to collegiate, and girls education also. One lower middle school scholarship worth Rs. 5 per mensem was attached to every anglo-vernacular town school. Three high school scholarships were given in each Zila school for successful competitors.³

1. Selections from Educational Records, Pt. II, 1840-1859, p. 364.
2. Resolution No. 10-309 of the Government of India.
3. C.P. Education Report, 1884-85, Appendix A.

Yet another important event of the year 1884 was the promulgation of certain rules framed for improving the code for aiding vernacular primary and indigenous schools.

Consequent upon the recommendations of the Educational Conference at Simla in 1901, a general change in the pattern of education was witnessed. The decision was taken by the State Government to abolish middle school examination, result grants, and combined system, and to substitute an examination *in situ* for the present system of primary school examination.¹ The salary of school masters was also raised. Consequently, primary education in the District showed sufficient progress. The previous Gazetteer of the District reports that there were 198 schools in 1908-09, in the District, as against 148 in 1900-01. Of these, 185 were boys schools and 13 girls schools. The number of pupils had risen from 8,594 in 1900-01 to 18,140 in 1908-09. The boys schools included one municipal high school (raised from middle school in 1904), one aided English middle school (for the railway staff), ten District Council vernacular middle schools, one aided vernacular middle school (maintained at Bilaspur by the Mission), three municipal primary schools, 129 District Council schools, 15 aided (of which seven were maintained by Missions) and 25 unaided schools (of which six were maintained by Missions), one by the Zamindar of Korba, one by the Muhammadans of Bilaspur town and 17 by village subscriptions. There was also one European school in the District which was established in 1892 by the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Company for the children of its employees. It was a mixed school, the number of pupils on roll being 36 in 1909. The staff consisted of a headmistress and an assistant mistress, and it was inspected by the Inspector of European schools, Bombay and Central Provinces.

There were 259 pupils in the High School, 1,936 in the middle schools and 14,957 (1,025 girls) in the boys primary schools. It was estimated that 21.9 per cent of boys and 2.8 per cent of girls of school-going age attended school. Teachers' training classes were attached to eight boys' and one girls' vernacular middle school. The average daily attendance in 1908-09 was 72 per cent of all pupils enrolled. On an average there was one school for every 12 villages in the open parts of the District, excluding Bilaspur town. However, there were only 30 schools for 1,460 villages covered by the *zamin-daris*. The total expenditure in 1908-09 amounted to Rs. 93,160, towards which Rs. 39,877 was contributed by the Provincial funds (including grants to Local Bodies for education), Rs. 27,773 by District Council funds, Rs. 7,607 by municipal funds, Rs. 8,218 by way of fees and Rs. 9,685 by private

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1901-02, pp. 125-26.

subscriptions. The High School had the recognition of Allahabad University. The supervision of the schools rested with the Inspector of Schools of the Chhattisgarh Circle with headquarters at Raipur, assisted by two deputies, one each for the eastern and western portions of the District.

Such was the progress of educational activities in the District since the formation of the Central Provinces. However, response from the public was still unsatisfactory. "The people as a whole cannot be said to be very anxious for education and official pressure has frequently to be brought to bear on parents".¹ Added to this were the multifarious duties of school masters which hampered their legitimate work occasionally. The teachers were required to do cattle registration on bazar days and be in charge of cattle-ponds and post-offices, besides selling stamps and quinine.²

During the twenties of the present century, several committees and boards were constituted aiming at reforming the existing system of education. The most important among the reforms introduced was the enactment of the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1920. Rules under the Compulsory Primary Education Act were published in November, 1921 and a sum of Rs. 50,000 was provided in the budget for 1922-23 for the purpose of assisting Local Bodies in meeting the expenditure which compulsion might involve. The Act empowered the Local Bodies to enforce compulsory primary education in areas under their respective jurisdictions. The Bilaspur District Council thus enforced compulsion in three villages from the 15th August, 1927, and in 32 villages from the 1st November, 1927 in the District. The percentage of attendance varied from 75 to 84. The recurring grant from Government assessed for the year 1930-31 was to the tune of Rs. 2,778 for the first lot and Rs. 3,711 for the second lot. So also compulsion was introduced in all the wards by the Municipal Committee, Bilaspur, with effect from the 1st April, 1928. The percentage of attendance here was 83 and the assessed recurring grant Rs. 2,202.

According to the recommendations of the Curricula Committee of 1921, the syllabi of the primary and secondary education were revised. The existing five-year course, of primary education was replaced by a four year course to which were added subjects like drawing, gardening and handwork.

The Primary education went a step further with the introduction of the Vidya Mandir Scheme in the year 1937-38. It was sponsored by the

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 247.

2. *ibid.* p. 248.

then Education Minister Ravishankar Shukla. The Scheme contemplates that a village or groups of villages within a radius of one mile having no school, and having not less than 40 children of school going age shall have a Vidya Mandir. The Scheme came into effect in 1938-39. The syllabus for a four-year course, prepared by the Syllabus Committee on the lines of the Zakir Hussain Syllabus was introduced in the Vidya Mandirs throughout the State. This was followed by the acceptance of the Basic National Education syllabus by the Provincial Government in 1938-39. The special post of a Vidya Mandir Officer which was instituted in 1940 was abolished in 1943, and the Vidya Mandirs were placed under the charge of the Assistant District Inspectors of schools.

During the forties of the present century, education in general suffered a set-back on account of the World War II when the inspecting staff of the District was required to function as recruiting officers. This temporary retardation was, however, overcome by 1945. The restoration of the cut in grants to Local Bodies and private institutions effected during this period enabled these agencies to grant increments and dearness allowance to educational staff.

In 1947, the District had 260 boys primary schools, 23 boys and 6 girls middle schools, 4 high schools, one degree college and one normal school for the training of teachers. The period that followed was one of educational reconstruction, and the number of schools and scholars increased as shown in the table below.

Table No. XV-1

Progress of Education, 1947-61

Type of Institutions	1947						1961					
	No. of Schools		Enrolment		Teachers		No. of Schools		Enrolment		Teachers	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Train- ed	Untrain- ed	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Train- ed	Untrain- ed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Pre-Primary	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	275	274	7	6
Primary schools	260	18	24,745	3,400	554	253	1,227	40	75,857	19,325	1,673	1,169
Secondary schools	23	6	5,103	304	158	51	123	5	19,599	2,882	552	217
(Middle)	4	—	528	—	36	38	—	—	—	—	—	—
High schools	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	10,634	2,164	267	231
Higher secondary	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	598	101	—	75
Multipurpose H.S.S.	1	—	N.A.	N.A.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Degree College	1	—	140	—	7	—	2	—	452	78	24	4
Normal school	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	86	14	15	—
Basic Training College	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	46	11	6	—
Post Graduate Basic Training College	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sanskrit school	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	85	—	6	—
Music school	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	35	10	3	—
Social education schools	—	—	—	—	—	—	37	5	940	93	—	52
Industrial training centres	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	298	—	26	1

The progress achieved in the field of education since 1961 will be discussed under the respective sub-heads.

Literacy and Educational Standards

The Census 1901 recorded 17,754 males and 502 females as literates in the District. In other words, 3.6 per cent of the male population and 0.1 per cent of the female population only were literates. The District was, therefore, considered to be the least literate in the Central Provinces. During the next sixty years, i.e., 1901-1961 the population in the District showed enormous growth in population, as also in literate and educated population. In 1961, literate and educated population was enumerated as 3,68,521, constituting 3,04,750 males and 63,788 females. In other words the male literacy advanced from 3.6 per cent of the male population in 1901 to 30.5 per cent in 1961 and that of females from 0.1 per cent of female population in 1901 to 6.2 per cent in 1961. The general literacy in the District was 18.2 per cent in 1961. It may further be noticed that the percentage of literacy in Bilaspur District, in 1961, was higher than the State and Division percentages as shown below:

Table No. XV-2

Percentage of Literacy, 1961

Region	Total Population			Males		Females	
	Total	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
M.P. State	17.1	12.73	43.52	21.81	56.51	3.36	28.35
Bilaspur Division	15.1	13.02	43.92	22.61	58.89	3.55	27.01
Bilaspur District	18.2	15.70	46.00	27.51	61.34	4.31	28.97

During the last decade 1951-61, there appears considerable improvement in the literacy in the District. From 8.3 per cent literates in 1951, the general literacy has advanced to 18.2 per cent in 1961. Similarly, literacy among males and females increased from 14.1 per cent and 2.8 per cent, respectively, in 1951 to 30.5 per cent and 6.2 per cent in 1961.

The literates include a large number of persons without any educational qualification. The following table, however, gives classification of

literates and educated persons under different educational standards in respect of urban areas in the District in 1961.

Table No. XV-3

Educational Standards, 1961

Education Level	Persons	Males	Females
Literate (without educational level)	45,166	29,360	15,806
Primary or junior basic	23,044	17,022	6,022
Matriculation or higher secondary	7,413	6,324	1,089
Technical diploma not equal to degree	149	148	1
Non-technical diploma not equal to degree	10	9	1
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree	1,378	1,207	171
Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree	318	270	48
Engineering			
Medicine	76	76	—
Agriculture	47	39	8
Veterinary or Dairying	19	19	—
Technology	5	5	—
Teaching	5	5	—
Others	164	124	40
	2	2	—
Total Literate and Educated persons	77,478	54,340	23,138

In rural areas in the District the position in 1961 was that there were 1,97,963 literates (1,66,834 males and 31,129 females) who have not attained any educational level. Similarly, those who have attained primary or junior basic standard numbered 89,274 (79,956 males and 9,318 females), while matriculates and above numbered 3,813 (3,610 males and 203 females).

Spread of Education Among Women

An observation made earlier that in 1901 there were 502 female (0.1 per cent of the female population) literates in the District speaks for the slow

progress of education among women during the past century. The earlier records and reports attribute this to the economic and social conditions prevalent then, and also to the scarcity of trained female teachers. However, effort to spread education among women continued in all directions. In 1884-85, under the revised scholarship rules, girls below the age of 14 were awarded scholarships.¹ Rules for the scholarship examination were the same as for boys.

In 1902-03, special measures for the improvement of women's education were taken, which resulted in the provincilization of girls schools which were hitherto under the management of Local Bodies. Encouragement to the education of girls was also given by establishing separate girls schools. The Missionaries who came to Bilaspur have also done splendid service in this regard. Thus during the early years of the present century, Bilaspur District had one aided vernacular middle school for girls (maintained by the Mission in Bilaspur town), seven Government girls primary schools, four aided (three under Missions and one maintained by the *Zamindar*, Pandaria) and one unaided (maintained by the Mission) primary school. In 1908-09 there were 1,025 girls in the District receiving education in boys schools. So also the girls middle school and primary schools were attended by 203 and 785 pupils, respectively. It was estimated that 2.8 per cent of the girls of school-going age attended schools.

In 1910-11, the curricula of girls primary and middle schools were revised. All possible efforts were made to encourage attendance of girls in boys' schools where there were no girls schools. But both primary and secondary education of girls failed to show tangible progress. This discouraged the authorities from opening more schools. The problem had a greater bearing on rural areas. A fresh grant-in-aid system was, therefore, devised for the opening of girls' schools, which required the payment of grants to the school management committee for two years. At the end of two years, if the authorities were convinced that the venture was succeeding, and that the school had a prospect of permanency, it was taken over by the Government. Thus at the end of the decade in 1920-21 the percentage of female scholars (public and private) to female population of school-going age increased from 3.4 in 1910-11 to 7.96 in 1920-21.

After the passing of Primary Education Act (Compulsory), 1920, a Committee to prepare a detailed programme in this respect was constituted in 1921. In respect of girls' education, the Committee recommended not to en-

force compulsion,¹ and suggested that co-education in primary stage should be encouraged. This was also endorsed by the Female Education Committee.

In 1927 the Provincial Government appointed a 15 member Female Education Committee with R.H. Beckett, the Director of Public Instruction, as its Chairman. The Committee enquired into the prospects of improvement of female education with special reference to co-education, curricula, schools, training of teachers and management of vernacular schools. Efforts to encourage co-education met with success in primary stage, partly because of the system of payment of bonuses to headmasters for admitting girls to their schools and partly to the fact that the boys schools were better staffed than the girls schools. As a result of the recommendation of the Committee, the responsibility of opening new vernacular girls schools and their management was restored to Local Bodies, which were already looking after boys' education. In 1931, the number of vernacular middle and primary girls schools was 18 with an enrolment of 1,270 students. In 1929-30, the average daily attendance of girls in primary schools (including private) was 963 as against 730 a decade ago.

The McFadyen Curriculum Revision Committee of 1928 recommended the inclusion of practical cookery and care of infants in the domestic science course for girls in middle schools, provision of facilities for the instruction of compulsory physical training according to the Danielson Syllabus in middle and high schools. The implementation of these recommendations was, however, effected only gradually.

In 1928-29, the High School Education Board granted recognition to the Burgess Memorial Girls High School, Bilaspur as a full High School. This institution, which widely met the demand of high school education of girls in the District, had a creditable record of working. In 1930-31, this school sent 20 candidates for the High School Scholarship and Entrance Examination and all of them passed. Great emphasis was laid on extra-curricular activities in this institution. Subjects like dairying, gradening, typing, village uplift, etc., were gradually introduced here.

In the meantime primary education of girls made considerable headway. Though the number of girls primary schools remained 18 during the period from 1930 to 1947, the number of scholars increased from 1,270 in 1930-31 to 1,735 in 1939-40 and to 3,400 in 1947.

1. For details see: Appendix A of the C.P. Education Report, 1884-85.

1. Memorandum on the Development of Education in the C.P. and Berar, 1931, p. 29.

The post-Independence period witnessed the launching of three Five Year Plans, under which a number of educational institutions, exclusively for girls for higher education were opened.

The Government policy has been to encourage co-education in primary stage. Much stress has, therefore, not been laid on opening of separate schools for girls. Separate schools were opened in those areas where there was too much resistance to co-education.

In order to promote girls' education in the State, a State Council for Women's education was established in 1960 in pursuance of the recommendations of the National Council for Women's Education. In accordance with the recommendations of this Council, the State Government accepted its suggestion in respect of providing special incentive for attracting women to teaching profession.

As a result of all these steps, the number of girls' institutions increased in 1967-68 to 81 primary, 26 middle and 11 higher secondary and multi-purpose higher secondary schools and one degree college exclusively for girls. There were 44,654 girls in the primary, 6,808 in the middle and 4,938 in the higher secondary schools in that year.

Spread of Education Among the Backward Classes and Tribes

Constituting about 18.18 per cent of the total population of the District, the literacy among the Scheduled Castes was 12.1 per cent according to 1961 Census. Among the Scheduled Tribes, it was still less i.e., 8.6 per cent of their population in the District. This shows that education among the backward classes and tribes had a tardier growth. This can be attributed to the social and economic conditions that prevailed among people of these classes.

The previous Gazetteer reports that the Chamars who formed a large proportion of the population of the District were least anxious for any kind of education.¹ Added to this was untouchability and other evils of society which discouraged the very few willing. The children of the backward classes were allowed to study in the Government schools. But it was recorded that the people of higher castes resisted the low-castes in joining Government schools.²

In 1921, Government appointed a Committee of officials and non-officials to consider the needs of the depressed classes—so were they called in

the matter of education and employment. Liberal grants were paid by Government to schools intended for boys of these classes. Bonuses were paid to headmasters as reward for the passing of Primary Certificate Examination by boys of these classes. Middle school scholarships at the rate of Rs. 3. or Rs. 6 per month, high school scholarships at the rate of Rs. 5 or Rs. 8 per month, and collegiate scholarships of Rs. 11 or Rs. 22 per month were instituted. Scholarships of higher value were awarded to pupils not living with their parents. The report of the Committee was published in March, 1922 and Government took steps to implement its recommendations. In the following year, i.e., 1923, the report of the Vocational Training Committee was published. It ruled out the proposal for the establishment of separate vocational training schools for depressed classes, since the general standard of education could not be improved. However, in accordance with the recommendations of the Depressed Classes Committee, Government recognised the principle of grants-in-aid for hostels specially intended for pupils of the depressed classes attending recognised institutions.

All these measures, however, could not achieve any amount of success. The attendance of backward class children which was already poor decreased further by 369 pupils.¹

In accordance with the scheme for amelioration of Harijans and aboriginals, Government sanctioned in 1938-39 certain grants to the District Committee, appointed by the Harijan Seva Sangh, Central Provinces and Berar.² The grants included Rs. 300 for the education of Harijans, another Rs. 300 for the supply of books and school material to Harijan students and Rs. 240 per school for the opening of new schools for aboriginals in Zamindari areas of Bilaspur. An amount of Rs. 30 per month was also granted for propaganda work for opening aboriginal school in Zamindari areas of Durg and Bilaspur Districts.

Activities in this direction gained momentum with the dawn of Independence, particularly during the Plan periods. In 1947-48, 25 seats were reserved for backward class pupils in the Normal school at Bilaspur, in addition to reserving certain number of seats for Harijans. The Vanvasi Seva Mandal³ and the State Tribal Welfare Department have also opened many educational institutions in the tribal areas of the District. By 1961, as many as 209 primary and 26 middle schools were established by these two agencies

1. *ibid.* 1930-31, p. 60.

2. This later became the Mahakoshal Harijan Sewak Sangh and was responsible for its working to the Akhil Bhartiya Harijan Sewak Sangh, Delhi. After 1956 the Provincial branch was bifurcated into two divisions with headquarters at Indore and Chhatarpur.

3. This was founded by the late Thakar Bapa in 1944 at Mandla, then called 'Gond Sewak Sangh'.

1. Bilaspur District Gazetteer, p. 247.

2. C. P. and Berar Education Report, 1909-10, p. 35.

in Katghora and Bilaspur Tahsils of the District. Separate hostels were attached to 26 of these institutions. In all 18,558 pupils received instruction in these schools in 1961. Thirty to forty inmates of the hostels received free books and other material, besides scholarships worth Rs. 20 each per month. In order to ensure the provision of mid-day meals, a sum of Rs. 60 per month is granted to each primary school. In addition to this, six hostels for boys and girls were being run in 1961 through the Harijan Sangh in the District. Each inmate of these hostels received Rs. 12 per month to meet the boarding expenses. The following table will show the number of institutions maintained by the State Tribal Welfare Department and the amount of scholarship disbursed to the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes from 1961-62 to 1966-67.

Table No. XV-4

Scholarships to Scheduled Caste, Tribe and other Backward Class Students

Year	Primary		Middle		Higher Secondary		Amount disbursed
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1961-62	209	14,419	25	1,422	—	—	1,94,826
1962-63	209	15,316	25	1,556	—	—	2,63,709
1963-64	270	16,911	25	1,860	1	43	4,60,243
1964-65	295	16,858	34	2,067	2	62	5,62,341
1965-66	295	17,378	36	2,118	3	98	6,14,663
1966-67	305	20,512	41	2,318	4	55	10,65,879

The higher secondary schools run by the State Tribal Welfare Department are located at Marewahi, Belgahna, Pasan and Bhaisma.

Scholarships are awarded at all levels to pupils of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. The State Tribal Welfare Department is the agency to distribute the pre-matric scholarships instituted by the State Government, and the post-matric scholarships by the Central Government. The Collector of the District is being assisted by the Divisional Superintendent of Education and the District Education Officer in the disbursement of scholarships.

Apart from these, the number of pupils of Scheduled Castes in the colleges of the District increased from 51 in 1961-62 to 100 in 1963-64, and to 216 in the year 1966-67. A sum of Rs. 22,117 was also disbursed as scholar-

ship amongst the Scheduled Caste students of the colleges. The scholarship amount increased to Rs. 34,415 in 1963-64 and to Rs. 78,969 in the year 1966-67.

*General Education**Pre-Primary Education*

A systematic pre-primary education received the attention of the Government only recently. It seeks to inculcate in children of age-group 3-6 years proper habits of health, behaviour and social sense. It is preparatory to primary education. To begin with, the kindergarten and nursery classes attached to certain English medium schools in the District or those run by private individuals got Government recognition in the year 1948. But its progress was affected by the lack of trained teachers. By the end of the First Five Year Plan, the District got 4 pre-primary schools functioning with 116 pupils and 4 teachers (three trained). The teachers had to pass one year course in nursery education. In 1956, Government directed the Janapada Sabha to open *Bal Mandirs*, wherever it was possible. More pre-primary institutions were thus established in subsequent years. The number of such institutions rose from 12 in 1961 to 17 in 1965-66. Similarly, the number of students and teachers in pre-primary schools rose from 549 and 13 in 1961 to 870 and 23, respectively in 1965-66. The expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 1,930 in 1956, to Rs. 11,921 in 1961 and to Rs. 14,641 in 1965-66.

The position in 1967-68 was that there were 12 such schools with a strength of 519 students in the District. These were staffed by 22 women teachers. The Government spent about Rs. 28,315 over them during the year. As against this, the number of schools, students, teachers and expenditure in 1970-71 were 12,602, 20 and Rs. 46,794, respectively.

Primary Education

It has been observed earlier that the post-Independence period witnessed tremendous growth of education in general and primary education in particular. The increased Government grants to Local Bodies enabled them to improve the pay-scale and allowances of primary school teachers and provided them more amenities in the form of Provident Fund Scheme, etc. The Local Bodies received Government grant ranging from 50 to 100 per cent of the total expenditure. The Janapada Sabhas¹ were made responsible for the management of primary schools in rural areas. These in the urban areas were looked after by the municipalities. The opening of schools by private agencies was also encouraged. The management could use its discretion in

1. In 1948, Janapada Sabhas were formed replacing the District Councils.

the matter of collection of a nominal fee. In order to remove the disparity in regard to service conditions, etc., of the teachers in non-Government institutions, an Ordinance was passed in the year 1963, and all the teachers working in elementary schools and elementary departments of higher secondary schools run by Local Bodies were taken under the service of Government with effect from the 1st October, 1963.

Efforts to implement the scheme of compulsory primary education in the District in the 1920's were briefly alluded to earlier. During the post-Independence period, vigorous steps were taken by the Government for the growth of primary education, and various schemes were formulated and implemented in the successive Plan periods. The constitutional provision for free and compulsory education to all children upto the age of 14 years prompted the State Government to extend the compulsion in respect of primary education to 178 villages covered under the Takhatpur Development Block in the District in 1959-60. This necessitated the opening of 25 new primary schools there. In subsequent years the scheme was further extended to other localities in the District. The position during the Third Plan period was that compulsion was in operation at Bilaspur, Mungeli, Champa and Kota municipal townships. In rural areas, 276 education centres also functioned under the scheme with an average enrolment of 24,579 students in 1963-64. In urban centres, average enrolment stood at 6,932 pupils during the same period.

After the Reorganisation of States in 1956, the V class of middle schools was added to the four year primary course for bringing uniformity in the pattern of primary education all over the State. This was followed by the enforcement of an integrated syllabus¹ in all primary schools of Madhya Pradesh in July, 1956, which included the craft-work and other activities.

At the close of the Second Five Year Plan, Bilaspur District had 1,267 primary schools with 95,182 pupils and 2,842 teachers, which number rose to 1,954 schools 1,42,916 pupils and 4,409 teachers in 1970-71. Of the 4,409 teachers in 1970-71, 3,906 were males (3,371 trained and 535 untrained) and 503 (404 trained and 99 untrained) females. The expenditure amounted to Rs. 3,85,808 in 1947-48, Rs. 8,24,185 in 1951-52, Rs. 11,67,816 in 1956-57, Rs. 79,89,611 in 1961-62 and Rs. 93,70,286 in 1970-71.

The number of primary and junior basic schools rose to 1991 with a strength of 1,48,119 students in the year 1970-71. On the staff, there were 4,521 teachers.

1. The Syllabus was based on the syllabus formulated by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Sewagram.

Basic Education

Although basic education as such is of recent origin in the District, it had its beginning with the introduction of Vidya Mandir scheme as mentioned earlier. In 1961 Vidya Mandirs were functioning at Gatauri, Semariya, Andi, Sarseni, Baheramuda and Hardi villages. In the early 1950's syllabus was chalked out by the educationists and was introduced in the primary schools as a Plan scheme. The curriculum now included study of crafts besides other subjects. Many primary schools had to be converted into basic schools. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan, 4 Government and 26 non-Government senior basic schools and 42 non-Government junior basic schools were functioning in the District. The opening of more basic schools necessitated the training of more teachers. During the Second Five Year Plan period, a Basic Training College was established in Janjgir. This was followed by the opening of another Basic Training College for Girls at Pendra. These two institutions catered to the need of the various basic schools in the District. In 1965-66, there were in all 37 junior basic schools with 4,306 pupils (3,822 boys and 484 girls) and 108 teachers (104 males and 4 females) which increased to 37,5203 and 112, respectively in 1970-71. The senior basic schools also numbered 37 in 1965-66 with 9,300 pupils (8,349 boys and 951 girls) and 332 teachers (324 males and 8 females). Most of the teachers in both cases were trained. The annual expenditure for maintaining the junior and senior basic schools amounted to Rs. 89,856 and Rs. 3,33,038, respectively, in 1965-66, and it rose to Rs. 1,22,055 and Rs. 4,20,579 in 1970-71.

Secondary Education

Forming an important link between the primary education on one hand and collegiate education on the other, the secondary education consists of two stages, i.e., middle or senior basic schools and high, higher secondary or multipurpose higher secondary schools. The former consists of classes from VI to VIII, and the latter from classes IX to XI. Many of the middle schools, however, have primary sections attached to them as also the higher secondary schools have middle school sections.

The opening of a Zila school at Bilaspur, in 1902, with four classes (middle school), marked the beginning of secondary education in the District. The school was in the administrative control of Education Department. It was not long before the school was raised to the status of high school in the year 1904-05. The first batch of students appeared in Matriculation examination of Allahabad University in the year 1907. This was in pursuance of the policy of the Government to maintain one Government high school in each District which was supposed to be a model high school. In order to encourage private enterprise, grants to the extent of one-third of the approved expenditure, was offered by the Government. As a

consequence, by the end of 1901-11 decade, the number of secondary schools increased to 16 (13 public and 3 private) with an average attendance of 1,616 students in public and 113 students in private schools. The expenditure on Government and private secondary schools amounted to Rs. 15,674 and Rs. 10,016, respectively. Not much improvement seems to have been achieved during the 1911-21 decade, and the number of schools remained almost the same although expenditure increased to Rs. 35,345 on public secondary schools in 1920-21.

The next decade 1921-31 was a landmark which witnessed the passing of the High School Education Act 1922, and the formation of the Central Provinces High School Examination Board in 1923. The High School Certificate examination of 1924 corresponding to Matriculation examination was held under the auspices of the Board. Prior to 1925, English was the only medium of the High School Examination, but in that year, option to offer English, Urdu, Hindi or Marathi as the medium in accordance with the recommendations of Curricula Committee of 1921 was given. In 1928, the need was felt to appoint McFadyen Committee to revise the curriculum which so far offered limited subjects to study in the High School and left little choice for combination. In the meantime a physical education course was already introduced in all schools according to Danielson syllabus¹. As a result of these steps, the number of secondary schools in the District increased to 27 (19 public and 8 private) with an average attendance of 4,216 students (3,579 in public and 637 in private). The expenditure similarly increased to Rs. 90,760 in public and Rs. 28,782 in private secondary schools in that year.

The revised curriculum came into effect from 1936, when examinations according to new curriculum were conducted. The new subjects introduced were Botany, Zoology, Agriculture, Wood-work, Physiology, Hygiene, Civics, Painting, Music and Art, and Needle-work.² At the time of Independence, there were 29 middle schools and 4 high schools in the District with 5,407 and 528 students in them respectively. The expenditure in secondary education amounted to Rs. 3,60,816 in that year. Several subjects were gradually added to the list enabling the candidates to have still wide choice.

The post-Independence period witnessed tangible progress in the field of secondary education. At the time of Independence, the schools offering secondary education had the syllabus prescribed by the High School Education Board which was a statutory body, while the European schools followed the courses prescribed by the syndicate of Cambridge Local Examinations. In

1. A.J. Dainelson was Superintendent of Physical Training in Spence Training College Jabalpur. The Syllabus was the outcome of his efforts to improve the physical standards of students.

2. C.P. Education Report for the Quinquennium ending 31st March, 1937, pp. 29-31.

providing such a wide range of subjects, the schools motivated a tendency to select soft options to secure good results. Moreover, certain subjects on which the students' choice fell served no educational purpose. A thorough reorganization of the entire system of secondary education was, therefore, felt imminent in the post-Independence period. The High School Education Board entrusted this work to Dr. V.S. Jha. The recommendations were generally approved by the Government and the revised syllabus prepared by him was introduced in 1950. The recommendations aimed at shifting the emphasis from the teaching of subjects and examinations to the development of the pupils according to their ability and aptitude. This was followed by the acceptance by Government of the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission¹ in 1955 to convert high schools into higher secondary and multipurpose higher secondary schools. Accordingly, some of the high schools which were established in the District during this period were converted into higher secondary schools. The Government Agricultural High School Pendra was accordingly converted into Multipurpose Higher Secondary School in 1956-57.

At the time of Reorganisation of States in 1956, a certain amount of diversity existed in the pattern of secondary education among the integrating units. For the sake of uniformity the new Secondary Education Act was enforced with effect from the 20th April, 1959. After the States' Reorganization, the pace of conversion of high schools into higher secondary and multipurpose higher secondary schools was accelerated. By 1961-62, all high schools were thus converted. At present there are no high schools in the District. The tahsil-wise distribution of Government, aided and unaided higher secondary schools in the District as in April, 1967 is tabulated below.

Table No. XV-5

Higher Secondary Schools in Bilaspur District, 1967

Institution	Bilaspur Tahsil	Janjgir Tahsil	Mungeli Tahsil	Sakti Tahsil	Katghora Tahsil
Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools	2	1	1	—	—
Government Multipurpose H.S.S. for girls	1	—	—	—	—
Government Higher Secondary Schools	6	4	4	4	—

1. The Secondary Education Commission was appointed by Government of India in 1953 under Dr. A. Laxmana Swami Mudaliar as its Chairman, styled since then as Mudaliar Commission.

Government H.S.S. for girls	3	1	1	1	
Tribal Welfare Department H.S.S.	2	—	—	—	6
Recognised/Aided H.S.S.	12	5	3	5	—
	3	—	—	—	—
Recognised Unaided H.S.S.	6	3	1	—	2
Total	35	14	10	10	8

In 1965-66, there were 23,302 (19,284 boys and 4,018 girls) students receiving instruction in the various higher secondary and multipurpose higher secondary schools in the District. These institutions were staffed by as many as 770 male (462 trained and 308 untrained) and 153 female (117 trained and 36 untrained) teachers. The expenditure incurred on the maintenance of these institutions in 1965-66 amounted to Rs. 26,05,694.

This being so with regard to the higher secondary schools, the number of middle schools also increased considerably during the post-Independence period, especially during the Plan periods. In 1947-48 there were only 29 middle schools in the District with 209 teachers (158 trained and 51 untrained) and an enrolment of 5,103 boys and 304 girls. The position of middle schools during the three Plan periods was as under.

Table No. XV-6

Middle School Education During Plan Period

Year	Institutions		Enrolment		Teachers				Expendi-
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Male		Female		ture
					Trained	Untrain- ed	Train- ed	Untrain- ed	Rs.
1951-52	31	—	7,093	531	197	10	19	6	3,81,167
1956-57	51	5	16,109	3,046	271	211	19	5	2,00,372
1961-62	136	7	21,360	3,226	684	165	27	15	15,34,757
1965-66	166	23	30,681	5,584	930	192	67	19	18,68,739
1967-68	233	26	39,142	6,808	1,509		133		—
1968-69	246	26	35,515	7,061	1,322	228	92	32	38,66,928
1969-70	246	26	36,687	7,217	1,323	200	95	29	43,32,881

The present Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Bilaspur, had its humble beginning in 1902 as "Zillah School". Two years later, it was raised to the status of a High School recognised by Allahabad University for Matriculation Examination. The Government Multipurpose Higher school was shifted to its own building in 1916, the plot of Secondary School, land for which was donated by Ayodhya Prasad Sao, a philanthropist of Juna Bilaspur. The School was converted into multipurpose in 1955-56, and crafts such as wood-work, spinning and weaving and gardening were introduced in the school syllabus. The number of students in the school increased from 382 in 1962-63 to 594 in 1966-67. The staff strength remained at 27 during the same period. The School is equipped with a library and a hostel with a capacity to accommodate 48 students. Famine Castle, another hostel to accommodate 24 inmates was given in 1960 to house the Government Post-Graduate Basic Training College, Bilaspur.

These are important institutions which have put in meritorious service in the District. The Mission Higher Secondary School was started in 1926 while the St. Joseph's Convent Higher Secondary School in Bilaspur was started in 1945. Mission School is owned by the "Indian Church Council of the Disciples of Christ", while the Convent is owned by the "Congregation of the Sisters of St. Joseph, Chambéry". Both are aided institutions and a sum of Rs. 19,917 was received by the Mission School as grant from the Government during the year 1962-63. The Convent received Rs. 16,700 as grant-in-aid from the Government/Municipal Board during the same year. The strength of students in these schools was 806 and 115, respectively, in 1962-63. The teaching staff consisted of 26 in Mission School and 12 in Convent in the same year.

Other institutions having a long and meritorious standing are Government Higher Secondary School, Baloda (1919), Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Pendra (1955), Maharani Laxmi Bai Girls Multipurpose H.S.S., Bilaspur (1956), Government Higher Secondary School, Janjgir (1952), B.R. Sao Government Higher Secondary School, Mungeli (1916), Government Higher Secondary School, Kotni (1949), Government Higher Secondary School, Sakti (1920), and S.E. Railway Mixed Higher Secondary School, Bilaspur (1892). The Girls Higher Secondary School at Mungeli was opened in 1956, at Pendra in 1959, at Champa in 1963 and at Gaurela in 1954. Municipal Boys Higher Secondary School, Bilaspur is the oldest institution in the District. It was started in 1862 by the Government, and in 1885,

its management was transferred to Municipal Committee. In 1904, it was upgraded as high school and in 1958 as higher secondary school. In 1967-68, there were 1,917 students and 64 teachers in the school. The Municipal Higher Secondary School at Mungeli was started in 1945, at Champa in 1944, at Kargi Road (Kota) sometime before 1951. Brooks Agricultural Higher Secondary School, founded by United Christian Missionary Society in 1945 at Motimpur Jarhagaon, was upgraded as higher secondary school in 1959 with a strength of 373 students in 1963-64. The institution had 13 members on the staff in that year.

University Education

Till the year 1944, the District had no arrangements whatsoever for University education. The only institution offering collegiate education in the whole of Chhattisgarh region was the Arts College at Raipur. Hence, the students who passed out as matriculates from the various high schools in the District had either to depend upon institutions outside the District or discontinue their studies. In order to meet this long-felt demand, the Mahakoshal Education Society established the Sheo Bhagwan Rameshwarlal Arts College in 1944. This was followed by the opening of one more college towards the close of the First Five Year Plan and yet another in the second year of the Second Five Year Plan. Thus by 1961, the District had three institutions offering University education. In subsequent years, several colleges sprang up in quick succession. There are now eight colleges in the District offering general education and three offering professional or technical education.

As mentioned earlier, this institution was founded in 1944 by the Mahakoshal Education Society, Bilaspur which is a registered body under the Societies Registration Act. The initial expenditure of about Rs. 20,000 was met by the S.B.R. Charitable Trust, which was created by a munificent donation of one lakh of rupees from Seth Rameshwarlal Bajaj, a local philanthropist. To begin with degree classes were started only in Arts subjects.

This was followed by the opening of post-graduate classes in Political Science in 1949, LL.B. classes in 1950, degree classes in Science and Commerce in 1953 and 1961, respectively, and post-graduate classes in English, Economics and Hindi in 1963. In 1967-68, there were 950 students on roll—482 in Arts, 258 in Science, 72 in Commerce and 138 in Law. The teaching staff consists of 38 qualified hands including 5 part-time lecturers in the Law faculty. There is no hostel facility. The College has a library with more than 7,000 volumes. Sufficient arrangements exist for sports and games. The grant-in-aid received from the Government, receipts (excluding Government grants)

and total expenditure for the year 1966-67, amounted to Rs. 90,000, Rs. 1,35,140 and Rs. 2,11,954, respectively. The College is affiliated to the Ravishankar University, Raipur.

The institution was founded by Pandit Chitani Prasad Mitani Prasad Dubey Education Society in 1956. There is a governing board of nine members for the management of this College. It offers instruction in Arts, Commerce and Science upto degree level, while post-graduate courses are offered in Commerce, English, Hindi and Sanskrit. In 1966-67, there were 1,469 students on roll—312 in Commerce, 442 in Arts and 715 in Science—which rose to 1852 in 1970-71. The staff consists of 53 members including 5 women. The College has a hostel (with 81 inmates in 1966-67) and a library with 9,971 books in 1970-71. A sum of Rs. 53,006 was received as grant-in-aid from Government during the year 1966-67. The total income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 4,30,739 and Rs. 4,42,322, respectively, in 1969-70. The number of cadets in N.C.C. was 850 in 1966-67, which decreased to 787 in 1970-71.

With a donation of Rs. 30,000 from the Janapada Sabha, Janjgir, this Degree College was established by the Janjgir Degree College Society, in 1958.

In 1958-59, pre-university classes were started with 37 students. Degree classes were started subsequently. This was followed by the opening of Law classes in 1963-64 and Science classes in 1964-65. It has now four faculties, namely, Arts, Commerce, Science and Law upto the degree level. The College has a library and a hostel which can accommodate 30 inmates. In 1966-67, there were 299 scholars on roll—128 in Arts, 60 in Commerce, 102 in Science and 9 in Law. The total amount of grant-in-aid, receipts and expenditure for the year 1966-67 was Rs. 64,550, Rs. 1,49,336 and Rs. 1,49,236, respectively.

This institution was established in 1961 by the Mahakoshal Education Society, with a donation of Rs. 20,000 and 12 acres of land from the Govardhan brothers of Mungeli. The College is named after the mother of the donors, Shrimati Nanibai Govardhan. The Municipal Council, Mungeli also contributed Rs. 20,000 for the upkeep of this institution, besides providing a spacious building. The College imparts instruction only in Arts subjects upto degree level. The total grant-in-aid received by this College upto the end of March, 1967 was to the tune of Rs. 77,848. The strength of students rose from 37 in 1961-62 to 138 in 1967-68 and to 156 in 1970-71. The

teaching staff consists of six members including the Principal. A library is also attached to the College having 1,735 books in 1970-71. The number of Cadets in N.C.C. was 98 in 1970-71.

Started as an Arts College with only 13 students in 1961, the Girls Degree College registered considerable progress in subsequent years. It is now a full-fledged Degree College with two faculties (Science and Arts) and teaching 16 subjects. The number of students increased from 13 in 1961-62 to 308 (163 in Arts and 145 in Science) in 1967-68. The total income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,69,800 and Rs. 1,68,221, respectively in 1967-68. The College has a hostel and a library, besides providing facilities for sports and games.

The Municipal Council, Sakti opened this College in August, 1964. It has two faculties, namely, Arts and Commerce. The number of students increased from 66 (39 in Arts and 27 in Commerce) in 1964-65 to 182 (127 in Arts and 55 in Commerce) in 1966-67. The total grant-in-aid, income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 32,029, Rs. 66,038 and Rs. 66,038, respectively, in 1966-67. The College has a well-equipped library. The management of this institution rests with the Municipal Council, Sakti. It is affiliated to the Ravishankar University, Raipur.

The establishment of this College in 1965 was facilitated by generous public contribution at the instance of a local voluntary organisation called Shri Laxmaneshwar Sikshan Samiti which is also its managing body. The number of students increased from 42 (33 in Arts and 9 in Commerce) in 1965-66 to 177 (169 in Arts and 8 in Commerce) in 1970-71. The staff consists of 11 members including the Principal. There is a hostel and a library attached to this College. No grant-in-aid is being received by this institution. The total income and expenditure in 1966-67 were to the tune of Rs. 43,477 and Rs. 46,552, respectively. The income and expenditure figures, however, rose to Rs. 81,098 and Rs. 88,872 in 1970-71, respectively. The College is affiliated to the Ravishankar University, Raipur.

It was established in July, 1965 by the Takhatpur Arts and Science College Society which body is also responsible for its management. In 1966-67, there were 66 students on roll (42 in Arts and 24 in Science) as against 40 (21 in Arts and 19 in Science) in 1965-66. The total income and expenditure for the year 1966-67

ge, Takhatpur amounted to Rs. 48,049 and Rs. 43,719, respectively. The College has a small library. There is no hostel facility.

Technical and Professional Education

There are two institutions in the District for this branch of education, namely, the Government Engineering College and the Government College of Education. The Central Training Institute at Koni and Industrial Training Institute, Korba also impart training in engineering and allied subjects to instructors.

Established in July, 1964 the Government Engineering College is located in the Education Department Estate at Koni, about six kilometres from Bilaspur. It provides instruction in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical engineering for B.E. degree, and in Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics for M.Sc. degree. As against 117 students in Engineering and 7 students in M.Sc. in 1964-65, there were 340 and 15 such students respectively in 1967-68. The staff includes 42 teachers in gazetted cadre. The College has a library with about 2,919 books and periodicals. There is a hostel which can accommodate 160 students. Deserving students are offered scholarships, stipends, concessions and other facilities.

Originally started as Post-Graduate Basic Training College at Jabalpur in 1955, this institution was transferred to Bilaspur in August, 1960. The change of name of this College was effected only in 1967. It was housed in the old Normal School building till it acquired a building of its own in July, 1967. Being a teachers' training institution, the trainees are charged no fees. However, candidates who join the institution directly are charged tuition fees. Three courses are being offered here leading to the degree of Master of Education, Bachelor of Education and Diploma in Teaching of Ravishankar University, Raipur. Classes for Diploma in teaching were started in 1965-66.

In order to reorient secondary education in the higher secondary schools by improving the professional competency of teachers working there, and disseminating knowledge of improved techniques and practices in the school system, an Extension Service Unit was also attached to this institution. For this purpose, a member of the staff functions as co-ordinator and looks after the work of Extension Services in addition to his own duties. There is a well-equipped library having about 14,000 books in 1970-71. The College hostel can accommodate 100 trainees. The staff consists of three Professors, six Assistant Professors and four Lecturers, besides the Principal. In 1966-67, there were 5 students (4 boys and 1 girl) in M.Ed., 156 (129 boys and 27 girls) in

B.Ed., and 119 students in the Diploma Course. The total receipts in 1966-67 amounted to Rs. 1,438, while the expenditure was to the tune of Rs. 3,96,427.

In order to meet the dearth of skilled craftsmen, an Industrial Training Institute was started in 1945-46 at Koni, a village about three miles from Bilaspur city. In April, 1948 a Central Training Institute for Model Industrial Instructors was also set up for the training of such personnel Training Institute, in various industrial trades. In these institutes training is Koni, Bilaspur imparted in cutting and tailoring, hand-weaving, leather-works, bleaching, dying and calico printing under the non-engineering branch. Under the engineering trades, training is given to carpenters, draughtsmen (civil and mechanical), electricians, fitters, motor-mechanics, turners, welders, black-smiths and others. In the Central Training Institute, the course for Instructors extends over six months. There are two such sessions every year commencing on the 15th May and the 15th November. In the Industrial Training Institute which is mainly meant for the training of craftsmen, the period of training for non-engineering trades is one year. The craftsmen trainees of the engineering trades here undergo a course of two years which includes 18 months' training at the Centre and 6 months' "inplant" training in factories or workshops.

This is a residential Institute. Accommodation to trainees is provided in the hostel barracks of the Institute. There is a dispensary under the charge of a qualified Medical Officer. Other facilities include library, co-operative stores, canteens and arrangements for physical and audio-visual education. The Institute is being run by the Tribal Welfare Department. That the Institute has grown into popularity can be seen from the number of trainees, whose number increased from 108 in 1958-59 to 599 in 1967-68. The teaching staff consists of 85 Instructors in 1967-68. A sum of Rs. 1,82,882 was disbursed amongst the trainees during the year 1966-67. The expenditure on the Institute amounted to Rs. 8,15,949 during the year 1967-68. Till the year 1971, the Institute was under the supervision of the Central Government. But in that year, it was transferred to the State Government. Sixty per cent of the expenses on the Institute are still being provided by the Central Government.

This Institute was started in February, 1959 with 108 Scheduled Tribe trainees. The trainees here belong to the age-group of 16 to 25 years. The minimum educational qualification for admission to all branches except electrical is 9th standard while for Electrical, Institute, Korba only Matriculates are admitted. Training is imparted to blacksmiths, carpenters, fitters, turners, moulders, electricians, linemen and wiremen. Now as many as 12 trades are covered. Earlier as many as 16 trainees were admitted to undergo training in each of the technical trades except for turner for which only 12 are admitted.

But now with the raising of the capacity to 408 trainees, the number of seats in each technical trade has increased manifold. In August, 1968, stenography (English) was also added to the then list of technical trades which contained eleven trades. Non-Scheduled Tribe candidates were also admitted with the raising of the intake capacity.

The period of training varies from one year to two years in different trades. The strength of students in August, 1967 in two year course was 123 and in one year course 137. The staff position of the Institute, as in 1967, was 64 of which 26 were Instructors against 20 in 1964.

Started during the Second Plan period, the administrative control of the Institute rests with the Department of Tribal Welfare. The expenditure incurred by the Department on the Institute increased from Rs. 4,00,229 in 1964-65 to Rs. 4,24,253 in 1966-67.

Two hostels with a capacity of 112 seats each accommodated 276 trainees during the year 1967-68. The provision for National Cadet Corps training exists in the Institute. In 1967-68, there were 180 Cadets on the rolls. The library of the Institute has 373 books on its shelf, and also subscribes for a number of periodicals.

Schools for the Cultivation of Fine Arts

This institution which is affiliated to the Indira Kala Sangeet Vishwavidyalaya, Khairagarh since 1958, was started in March, 1952. Some enthusiastic persons of the locality started this institution with Bhatkhande San- only three students to begin with. Prior to its affiliation, the geet Mahavidya- institution prepared students for the 'Madhyama, and 'Visharad' (two years' course of the Madhyama and equivalent to B.Mus.) examinations of the Bhatkhande Sangeet Vidyapeeth, Lucknow. The Bhatkhande Sangeet Mahavidyalaya Society is running this institution. It was registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860 in August, 1955. Both vocal and instrumental music are being taught here. In 1966, three students each were presented for the 'Madhyama' and 'Visharad' examinations, and all of them passed. In 1967 there were 48 students on roll. The teaching staff consists of three members including the Principal. The grant-in-aid received from Government amounted to Rs. 3,344 since its inception in 1952. There is a library attached to this institution.

It is a private institution, which was started in the year 1952 and prepares boys and girls for the examinations in music conducted by the Akhil Bharatiya Gandharva Mahavidyalaya Mandal, Bombay.

Shivanand San-
geet Vidyalya,
Tilaknagar

Some of the higher secondary schools in the District offer painting as a subject for study. These students are presented for the Elementary and Intermediate examinations in drawing and painting organised by the J.J. School of Arts, Bombay.

Oriental Schools and Colleges

In 1964-65, there were three Sanskrit *Pathshalas* in the District, which were recognized by the Education Department. These schools were run by the Local Bodies or private managements. These schools prepare students for Madhyama, Pravesh, Shastri and Acharya examinations. The total number of students appeared in these examinations during the year 1964-65 was 19, out of whom 7 students were declared successful. Rani Devi Rukhmini Devi Sanskrit *Pathshala* appears to be the oldest, having been established in 1939. The Janapada Sabha, Mungeli also runs Sanskrit *pathshalas* at village Pandariya, Lormi and Semarsol.

Besides, a Sanskrit Parishad in Bilaspur is also being managed by a local advocate. The Parishad runs a regular library for the benefit of students desirous of higher studies in Sanskrit.

Education for the Handicapped

A school for the blind was started at Mungeli in 1956 with two blind students. There were four abult blinds in the workshop attached to this school. A workshop building was also being constructed alongwith classrooms for Braille and hand-work near the Mission Primary School. There is a hostel which can accommodate 20 inmates. In the year 1967, the institution had a strength of 19 students taught by one teacher.

Adult Education

A literacy drive through the social education scheme was started in the District by the State Government in 1948. The social education scheme aimed at educating illiterate adults in the age-group 14-40 years. A series of five special social education summer camps were organised in each tahsil of Bilaspur District in 1948. The duration of the camp was six weeks. The monsoon and winter classes of five months' duration each were also conducted side by side. In order that the adults may not lapse into illiteracy 16 continuation classes were also conducted besides the establishment of social education centres and circulating libraries. This was followed by the installation of radio-sets at important centres and provision for recreation facilities and

film shows. In February 1954 the social education scheme was taken over by the Social Welfare Department. The social education programme during the Second and Third Plan period included the opening of several Social Education centres, libraries and reading-rooms, community centres, distribution of free literature, radio broadcasts and film shows.

The number of adult education centres was 12 in 1967 which educated 135 adults. The number of film-shows given in 1967 was 88. Five *Kalapathak* and 77 circulating libraries also worked during the year. The following table shows the progress of these activities during the last five years.

Table No. XV-7

Social Education 1967-68 to 1970-71

Year	No. of Camps organised	No. of persons benefited	No. of film shows	No. of kalapathak shows	No. of dramas organised	No. of circulating libraries
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1967-68	40	930	300	290	—	380
1968-69	40	1,000	275	300	300	458
1969-70	30	750	255	275	275	500
1970-71	30	885	250	150	150	576

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Societies

There are several cultural societies functioning in the District. The particulars regarding some of them are given below.

This association of the ladies of the town was started in 1933. It is a registered body and is open to all women of the locality. The aim of this organisation is to make the Mandal the nucleus of various activities for the socio-cultural advancement of women-folk. Bhagini Mandal, Bilaspur The activities include organising games and sports, cultural functions, running a library and a Balak Mandir and social welfare work.

In 1965, the Mandal opened a few adult female education classes for

which the Central Social Welfare Board gave 100 per cent grant. The Mandal is also championing the cause of Family Planning.

This Mandal was started in 1955 in Raghavendra Nagar, Bilaspur. It stands for the socio-cultural uplift of the community. The birth-day of Jawaharlal Nehru is being celebrated annually with several Tarun Sanskritik cultural functions and lectures on Nehru. Mandal, Bilaspur

The Milan Mandir, Bilaspur, which was established in 1932 in Gondpara, and the Nav Yuwak Mandal, Bilaspur which was established in 1948, are the other two cultural organizations in the District. The latter celebrates Tilak Jayanti, Tansen Jayanti, etc., while the former organises religious festivals annually, besides working for the educational and cultural advancement of the people.

This literary society was established in 1935. The Samiti strives for the development of Hindi literature by co-ordinating the working in that direction of various such small organisations. The annual conference of this organization is usually held at the time of Vasant Panchami when *kavisammelan*, *sahitya sammelan* and music concerts are arranged. The Samiti has the membership of about 200 persons, rendering valuable service to the Samiti. The Samiti undertakes the publication of books, and so far 18 books have been published. It also published a Silver Jubilee *Patrika*, commemorating the event on the 2nd February, 1960.

In 1964, the 29th annual session of the Samiti was presided over by Vinoba Bhave, the eminent social worker, who gave Sarvodaya Movement to the nation. The Samiti launched Hindi propaganda in 1965 and honoured many literary figures during the year 1966.

Sponsored by a local citizen, this organisation was started in 1958. Its field of activity extends to the entire Bilaspur Division. It aims at promoting the literary talents in people of the locality and to bring them in contact with the noted litterateurs of the country. It collects an annual subscription of Rs. 3 from its members. At the time of *Kumbha-Parva* at Ujjain in 1968, the Kala Mandir exhibited sculptures, which won universal acclamation.

Besides activities similar to other organisations discussed earlier, the Mandal aims at developing the local dialect of Chhattisgarhi. Efforts are also

being made to provide research facilities to the desirous. The Nirala Sahitya Mandal has published two books, namely, *Pukar* and *Geet-Vallari*, which are compilations of national lyrics. It has a library of its own.

Established in May 1968, the Parishad aims at organising and encouraging the literary activities in Champa. It seeks to publish *Champa Nir-deshika evam Vyakti Darshan* and other literary works apart from establishing a library. Hindi Sahitya Parishad Champa

Established in 1941, it is a registered body under the Societies Registration Act with its head office at Bilaspur. It has a written constitution and it extends its activities to six districts, namely, Bilaspur, Raichhattisgarh Divisional Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Bilaspur, Durg, Bastar, Surguja and Raigarh. The district and tahsil literary societies are affiliated to this organisation. Its aims and objects include the propagation and all round development of Hindi literature and language, publishing books and magazines, furtherance of research on archaeological finds and encouragement to fine arts. A quarterly magazine called *Kshitij* is being published since 1960.

This association was formally inaugurated by Governor Pattabhi Sitaramaiya in 1953, and was registered in 1956. The Parishad has a library of its own, equipped with books on *Vedas*, *Upanishads*, *Ramayana*, *Mahabharata* and *Bhagawata*, besides Sanskrit journals and magazines. The number of Sanskrit Books in the year 1968 was 496. A registered body as it is, the institution is affiliated to the Sanskrit Vishwa Parishad, Bombay. Speeches in Sanskrit are also arranged occasionally.

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Periodicals

A number of periodicals are being published in Bilaspur District. A detailed account of the same may be seen in Chapter XVIII.

Libraries and Museums

In the 1920's, there were three libraries in the District, namely, Public Library in Sadar Bazar run by the Kanyakubj Brahman community, the Bal Samaj Library in Juni Line, Bilaspur, and a Bengali Library in Chatapura of Bilaspur town. The Bengali Library later merged with the present Municipal Library, Bilaspur. Many libraries sprang up in subsequent years.

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This library was established in 1947 by the Municipal Committee, Bilaspur. By 1968, it developed into a big public library with more than 6,935 books and 20 periodicals. Being located in the heart of the city, it attracts a good number of readers. It receives an annual grant-in-aid from the Education Department amounting to Rs. 500.

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In 1955 the Municipal Committee, Bilaspur started a branch of the public library in Juni Bilaspur. It is housed in a building donated by Sudharao Sao after whom it is named. The Sudharao Sao Municipal Public Library also receives grant-in-aid from the Education Department amounting to Rs. 250 yearly. It had 1,960 books on its shelves in the year 1968.

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In accordance with a scheme sponsored by the Government, a District Library was opened by the State Government in 1955. Housed in a building of its own, it is located behind the Government Multipurpose District Library, Higher Secondary School, Bilaspur. A motor van has also been provided to feed the village centres in the District with books. With the audio-visual aid and propaganda work, the staff of the District Library makes the local people cultivate reading habits and encourages the opening of new libraries.

Bilaspur District Council started four circulating village libraries at four prominent centres of the District namely, Janjgir, Lormi, Sipat and Sakari. An annual grant of Rs. 130 each was received from the Education Department.

With the extension of educational facilities in towns and villages, several libraries came into being. Some of them are-Vitha Bai Mohre Municipal Public Library, Mungeli; Nehru Public Library, Janjgir; Adarsh Pustakalaya, Naila; Marwari Public Pustakalaya, Akaltara; Kedia Municipal Library, Champa; Municipal Public Library, Sakti; Janta Janapada Library, Katghora, etc. The Gram panchayats of Ratanpur, Takhatpur, Lormi, etc., also run libraries.

Other libraries in the District include that of the South-Eastern Railway, North-East Institute Library, Bilaspur which is exclusively for the railway employees, the library of the Central Training Institute, and those of various

educational institutions in the District. The former library was established in the year 1912, and had about 6,500 books on its shelves. The Sanskrit Parishad Library, established in 1955, also had 490 books and received Rs. 185 as yearly grant-in-aid from the Government.

There are no museums, zoological and botanical gardens in the District.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Early History

In the absence of authentic references it is rather difficult to assess the extent of medical facilities available in the area now covered under the revenue District of Bilaspur in early times. Scattered references may, however, establish that *Ayurveda* was the earliest system of medicine practised in this area. Considering further the factors like availability, cheapness and efficacy of these indigenous drugs, and also the underdeveloped social and economic conditions prevailing then, it can safely be concluded that this branch of medicine must have been very popular in those days.

Another branch of indigenous medicine of still later origin, say, with the advent of Muslim rule in this part of the country, is the *Unani*.

To sum up, the field of medicine in early times was shared by the *Vaidyas* of *Ayurveda*, the *Hakims* of the *Unani* and a good number of quacks and faith-healers on whom a section of the society pinned its faith.

The Western or allopathic system of medicines made its appearance with the advent of British rule in this area. However, authentic references regarding the administration of these medicines through organised medical institutions are available only from 1861 in which year the Central Provinces was constituted. During that year Charitable Dispensaries were established at all civil stations including Bilaspur. Initially the dispensary at Bilaspur was placed under the charge of an Apothecary, most of those at other stations being under Civil Surgeons. The management of the dispensary was entrusted to a Dispensary Committee which consisted of Civil Officers of the District and prominent men of the locality. Medical treatment and medicines were rendered free of cost at these dispensaries. Facilities for indoor treatment were not provided. However, serious cases deserving special attention and care were accommodated in the dispensary building. The expenditure incurred on the maintenance of the dispensary was partly met by private subscriptions and the remainder by the State. The dispensary was periodically inspected by the officer who was responsible for the inspection of the jails.

The arrangements having been so, the dispensary in the very year of its inception (1861) afforded medical relief to 1,037 outdoor and 13 indoor patients which, in all, included 808 males and 242 females. Progress during Nineteenth Century The dispensary began to enjoy the confidence of the local population and gradually became popular. A serious problem that faced the authorities at this stage was the dearth of trained local doctors. To meet this situation Government decided to open a Medical School at Nagpur for the training of local men in medical profession, for it was expected that "such men are more likely to win the confidence of the people than foreigners, who, moreover, look upon this part of India with some disfavour. The scale of salaries allowed to Native Doctors is comparatively small. It might, perhaps, suffice for a native practising near his home but it fails to satisfy people of other Provinces, and to retain their services at a distance from their own country"¹.

As regards the dispensary's expenditure it was laid down by the 'Supreme Government' in 1866 that all charges on account of medical supervision, such as, Surgeon's allowance, local Doctor's salaries, etc., should be defrayed from the general revenue and that of dressers, compounders, hospital servants, diet of patients, Indian drugs, etc., should be met with local contribution. In other words the Government aid in the maintenance of the dispensary was limited to the appointment of a local medical officer to be in charge of the dispensary and the supply of European medicines. Thus, under this arrangement, it was estimated that, three-fifths of the whole cost of dispensaries would be borne by the State and two-fifths by local resources. The Civil Surgeon of the district, usually a Commissioned Officer, used to pay inspection visits to the dispensary.

Thus it is reported that in 1874 there were four charitable institutions in the District which afforded medical relief to 8,525 patients, the daily average being 135.06.

On the 1st of April 1885 the management of dispensaries was transferred to the local bodies which had jurisdiction over those areas. Further, the Chief Commissioner impressed upon the municipalities that under Act XI of 1873 they were principally responsible for the maintenance of educational and dispensary establishments. It was also decided that the local Medical Officer should visit a certain number of villages and perform a prescribed number of vaccinations daily. The Civil Surgeon was asked to regulate the tour of these Medical Officers. During the early years of the present century the Missionary organisations also opened several hospitals and dispensaries at the headquarters and at tahsil places in the District.

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1866-67, p. 85.

Thus by the end of the first decade of the present century there were ten hospitals and dispensaries in the District. These included four public hospitals and dispensaries, i.e., (1) the main dispensary at Bilaspur under an Assistant Surgeon with 16 beds for men and 12 for women with a midwife attached to the dispensary and (2) three branch dispensaries at Mungeli, Janjgir and Chandrapur. The Mungeli dispensary provided three beds for men and three for women, the Janjgir dispensary two beds for men and two for women, Chandrapur dispensary having no bed for in-patients. Other medical institutions included a police hospital at the headquarters; the Bengal-Nagpur Railway hospital at Bilaspur under an Assistant Surgeon and a European Doctor; two Mission Hospitals, one at Bilaspur for women and children with 32 beds and a general hospital at Mungeli with 12 beds each for male and female patients; and two hospitals at the zamindaris of Pendra and Pandaria. The last two institutions were originally established by the Court of Wards of those estates and were later transferred to be managed by their respective zamindars. The Government, however, made available the services of two Hospital Assistants for these hospitals. The hospital at Pendra had indoor accommodation for two male and two female patients. The Mungeli Mission Hospital had attached to it a branch bazar dispensary open only on bazar days, at Bareli, about nine miles away. In 1908 this Mission Hospital with its bazar branch is reported to have treated 258 indoor and 13,578 outdoor patients while its counterpart at Bilaspur treated 318 and 4,210 patients, respectively. So also the average daily indoor and outdoor attendance at the Bilaspur main dispensary in that year was 20 and 89, respectively. The total income of the four Public dispensaries in 1908 was Rs. 13,859, to which Government, Local Funds, Private subscriptions and other sources contributed Rs. 4,921, Rs. 7,986, Rs. 665 and Rs. 297, respectively. The total expenditure of these institutions was to the tune of Rs. 10,568 in 1908. In addition, the District also enjoyed the facilities provided by two leper asylums, run by the Missionary bodies at Mungeli and Champa. The Leper Asylum at Mungeli was established by the American Foreign Christian Mission exclusively for males and married couples. It opened a branch for female patients at Pendricih, a village nine miles away from Mungeli belonging to the Mission. The one at Champa was supported by the American Mennonite Conference. Both these institutions received from the Government a monthly donation of Rs. 1-8-0 per adult and half of that per child patient who was resident of British territory. This donation came into force with effect from 1st May, 1905 in respect of Champa. The number of lepers in Mungeli and Champa asylums in 1909 was 101 and 103, respectively¹.

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, pp. 249-250.

Certain important events that occurred in the field of medicine during the second decade of the present century included the establishment of the Central Provinces Medical Examination Board, sometime between 1916 and 1919 and the enactment of the Central Province Medical Registration Act in 1916. The latter, however, came into operation only since 1922. During this period (1919-1922) rules envisaging a system of charging small fees (sanctioned by the Local Government in 1917) of one anna per day or six rupees per annum as cost of medicines from the affluent society were strictly enforced. Further, in the 1920's it was decided that a Woman Doctor should be provided at one town in every district. Fees at the rate of two pice per new patient from the less affluent society were also charged at the out-patient section of hospitals and dispensaries since 1933. This system had to be given up in 1936 as it was found to be adversely affecting the popularity of western medicines.

As mentioned earlier the general supervision and control of the dispensaries in a district rested with the Civil Surgeon. The highest appointments in the Medical Department (including that of Civil Surgeon) were generally held by Commissioned Officers of the Indian Medical Service. The head of the Department was the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. The Civil Surgeon also functioned as an adviser to the Deputy Commissioner in matters connected with medicine and public health.

The Administration reports of Central Provinces have frequently referred to the insanitary conditions which were conducive to visitation of epidemics in Chhattisgarh. There was an outbreak of Cholera in the District in an epidemic form in 1864-65, 1869-70, 1870-71, 1875, 1878, 1879-80, 1886-87, 1891, 1892, 1895, 1896 and 1897 during the last century. The mortality from this epidemic was very high in 1875, 1886-87, 1891, 1892, 1896 and 1897 when the number of deaths were 2,523; 3,690; 6,829; 9,094 and 8,164 persons, respectively. Another epidemic of frequent occurrence in the District was smallpox. It occurred in the District in an epidemic form in 1869-70, 1872-73, 1875, 1880-81, 1891 and practically every year since 1891. In 1880-81 and 1888 Bilaspur was one of the districts which suffered most severely from smallpox, the total deaths numbering 1,111 and 2,345 respectively. The years 1896 and 1897 also recorded 690 and 607 deaths, respectively. An effective implementation of vaccination, however, checked its virulence in later years. There was no occurrence of plague in the District during the past century. Yet another cause of high mortality during this period was fever, especially a 'low fever of a dangerous type' generally prevalent in Chhattisgarh region. This is attri-

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buted to the scarcity of water, particularly during the hot season. Bowel complaints and diseases of the skin were among others common in the District.

Arrangements for vaccination in the whole of the Province existed since 1862. The earlier District Gazetteer mentions that vaccination was compulsory only in the municipal area of Bilaspur. It is also stated that over 99 per cent of primary vaccinations done in the years 1906-07, 1907-08 and 1908-09 were successful. While there was no objection in general to primary vaccination the public was not favourable towards revaccination. The staff consisted of 2 Assistant Superintendents, 22 vaccinators and 2 apprentices—one vaccinator for Bilaspur town and all others for the rest of the District. The control of vaccination staff rested with the local bodies. The expenditure incurred on vaccination in 1908-09 was Rs. 4,998 which amount was defrayed by the local bodies except Rs. 198 spent on travelling.¹

The Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act, 1889 was in force only in two places, namely, Janjgir and Ratanpur. After 1905 the new Act was made applicable to five more villages, namely Pendra, Gaurela Takhatpur, Mungeli and Champa. In Gaurela, funds were raised by licence fees levied on brokers and by way of tax on goods brought into the village, while in others, tax on incomes or proceeds from cattle registration was the main source of income. The earlier District Gazetteer also states that in 1907-08 the income from the sanitation funds varied from Rs. 354 in Gaurela to Rs. 1,269 in Mungeli, and the expenditure from Rs. 308 in Janjgir to Rs. 892 in Mungeli. The expenditure was chiefly on conservancy establishment and on the repair and construction of wells and village roads. A conservancy establishment was also being maintained at Chandarpur and Baloda villages at the cost of the residents in accordance with the rules framed under section 141 of the Land Revenue Act.²

Vital Statistics

Immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 steps were taken to evolve a systematic registration of vital statistics. However, these arrangements could not be completed till the close of 1866-67. The agencies entrusted with this work were the Municipal Police in the urban area and the District Police and 'putwarees' (village accountants) in the rural tracts. But the statistics thus collected were found to be unreliable, for the rural areas to be covered were very extensive and consequently lacked effective supervision.

1. *ibid.* p. 251.

1. *ibid.* p. 241.

In 1870 a new set of Registration forms was issued by the Government of India to be used in all provinces. The registration which had so far been limited to municipal towns and certain selected rural tracts in the District was now extended to all parts of the District. The agency entrusted with the collection of statistics was the police and the records were maintained at the respective police stations. The village *Kotwar* periodically visited the nearest station house and reported all births and deaths that occurred in his village since his last visit. Here again, the arrangement was unsatisfactory, for the *Kotwar* reported twice or only once in a week provided the station house was near, but much less frequently when it was distant. Yet another defect was that the reporter depended much on his memory which caused several inaccuracies and omissions. However, proper instructions to the *Kotwar* for immediate reporting considerably improved the collection of statistics in respect of rural areas. But the accuracy of statistics relating to vital events in the urban areas was still doubtful, for the reporter was the householder himself who seldom did quick reporting. The average number of villages under each circle of registration was 52 and the average area covered by each circle was 126 sq. miles. In 1870-71 the number of deaths registered was less than 15 per 1,000 in Bilaspur District.

Another period of experimentation with the existing system continued upto 1920. On 1st January, 1920 a new system of registration was introduced wherein the towns were required to publish weekly returns Revised System of showing deaths and their causes separately, including infant Registration mortality. Deaths under one year were also subdivided into (1) upto one week (2) between one week and one month (3) one month to six months and (4) seven to twelve months. This arrangement not only facilitated speedy reporting and systematic compilation, but also avoided inaccuracies considerably. In respect of rural areas the *Mukaddams*, *Patels* and *Kotwars* continued to report births and deaths to the nearest station house. Vital events that occurred within the railway limits were reported by the railway authorities. The registers maintained were periodically inspected by revenue medical and police officers, and by the vaccination staff.

Under the present set-up the Municipal Committees record births and deaths in respect of urban areas and submit a statement to the Civil Surgeon. The vital events are also reported to the nearest police stations and the statement is forwarded to the Civil Surgeon. The *Kotwar* is responsible for the reporting of such cases in the rural areas to the Civil Surgeon through the station houses. The Civil Surgeon compiles separate figures for urban and rural areas and transmits the same to the Director of Health Services, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

The general standard of health of the District population can be assessed from the following statistics. The birth-rate for the period 1891 to 1920 mostly varied between 30 and 60 per mille. This rate went down only in 1897, 1900 and 1901 when it was 25.76, 27.35 and 27.74 per mille, respectively. It exceeded the limit of 60 only in one year during this period, i.e., 1910 when the birth-rate stood at 60.46 per mille. During the next decade that followed, i.e., 1921 to 1930, the birth-rate was comparatively low, varying between 36 and 47 per mille. Starting with 48.89 per mille in 1931, the birth-rate appears to have come down to 35.81 in 1941 and 33.48 in 1951. From 1952 to 1960 it varied between 21 and 30 except for 1958 when it was 31.27 per mille. The birth-rate, however, shot up in 1961 at 34.20 per mille.

The death-rate in Bilaspur District generally varied between 23 and 44 per mille during 1891 to 1930, mostly below 40. However, the death-rate recorded in 1897 was the highest being 101.85 per mille. In that year cholera that ravaged the District in an epidemic form and a high incidence of fever were responsible for 1,164 deaths, i.e., 10.52 per mille and 54,811 deaths, i.e., 70.62 per mille, respectively. Smallpox also contributed 607 to the total number of deaths. Other than this, the three years that showed an increased death-rate during this period were 1896 (47.08 per mille), 1918 (65.24 per mille) and 1919 (46.91 per mille). So also a much lower death-rate was recorded in the year 1898 (21.89), 1901 (19.03) and 1902 (21.18). Again, starting with 28.23 per mille in 1941 the death-rate declined considerably, recording 25.75 and 17.00 per mille in 1951 and 1961, respectively. It was, however, very low in 1954, i.e., 13.36 per mille.

The following Table will show the number of births and deaths in the District in recent years.

Table No. XVI-1

Number of Births and Deaths

Year	Births total	Deaths total
1961	57,414	28,668
1962	55,761	29,300
1963	N.A.	N.A.
1964	45,412	27,132
1965	46,179	26,051
1966	66,176	31,638

Source: Additional Civil Surgeon, Bilaspur.

The causes of mortality in general are cholera, smallpox, fever, tuberculosis, bowel complaints, injuries, suicides and others. The mortality caused by these factors during the last century has already been discussed earlier. Plague had also caused a number of deaths in certain years of the present century; but in recent years the District has been free from its attack. Cholera and smallpox ravaged the District with occasional gaps and varying intensity. Fever has also been taking toll of a number of lives throughout. Bowel complaints also caused a considerable number of deaths in the District. The mortality caused by different diseases in recent years is given below.

Table No. XVI-2

Number of Deaths and their Causes

Year	Cholera	Small-pox	Plague	Fever	Diarrhoea & Dysentery	Tuberculosis	Injuries and Suicides	Delivery	All Others	Total
1961	50	12	—	20,068	1,633	—	—	545	6,360	28,668
1962	—	50	—	19,887	1,684	4	—	627	7,048	29,300
1963	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1964	235	588	—	18,386	1,207	—	—	321	6,395	27,132
1965	—	128	—	17,445	2,653	16	326	429	5,054	26,051
1966	—	798	—	21,588	1,382	12	92	667	7,099	31,638

Source: Additional Civil Surgeon, Bilaspur.

Causes of infant mortality in the District include prematurity, malnutrition (chiefly owing to want of mother's milk), diarrhoea, respiratory causes and fevers. Smallpox in an epidemic form also has been responsible for a sizeable number of deaths among infants. In 1948 the infant mortality rate in Bilaspur District was 184.33 when the provincial rate stood at 209.74. Similarly, in 1951 this rate was 168.71, i.e., much lower than the provincial rate of 193.96. The fall in the infant mortality rate can be attributed to increased medical facilities extended throughout the District especially in the rural areas. The infant mortality rate in recent years are given below.

Table No. XVI-3

Infant Mortality

Year	Infant mortality	
	Total	Rate per 1,000 births
1961	4,411	80.3
1962	4,064	72.8
1963	NA	NA
1964	5,149	113.3
1965	5,574	120.7
1966	7,800	117.2

Source: Additional Civil Surgeon, Bilaspur.

Diseases Common to the District

The diseases common to the District are cholera, smallpox, fever which includes malaria, tuberculosis, leprosy, bowel complaints, eye diseases, influenza and venereal diseases. Plague has also been visiting the District occasionally during the first two decades of the present century. The magnitude of their incidence and measures taken to prevent them will now be discussed.

Cholera

The visitation of cholera has been frequent in Bilaspur in the past. The Administration Report of 1868-69 states that "Chhuteesgarh had always had a bad repute for cholera. The country was bare and treeless, the water-supply was bad, and the habit of the people were against its improvement, for they preferred drinking from muddy tanks stirred up by the village cattle and defiled by bathers, washermen, or even sometimes by dead bodies, to drawing a purer supply from wells. Hence when the returning caravans of pilgrims from Jagannath spread through the country, the cholera, which they almost always brought with them, found a field prepared to receive it."¹

During the present century cholera visited the District practically every year, often assuming the form of an epidemic. The District was probably free from cholera only during 1901, 1904, 1965 and 1966. The highest number of deaths, i.e., 9,794 during this period was recorded in 1919 followed by

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1968-69, p. xiv.

5,617 in 1921, 4,473 in 1935, 4,008 in 1934, 2,921 in 1941, 2,900 in 1942, 1,712 in 1908 and 1,648 in 1915. In the remaining years it did not exceed 1,500, being mostly below 600. In 1919 cholera contributed the highest number, i.e., 8.54 per mille to the total number of deaths in the District, being the worst attack of cholera the District ever had. In recent years deaths from cholera were high only in 1956 and 1958, being 1,171 and 1,377, respectively.

Water being the main source of infection, disinfection of the source of water supply by disinfectants like permanganate of potash is one of the anti-cholera measures. At the time of serious outbreak, anti-cholera medicines are distributed and mass inoculation campaign is conducted. The inoculation work is carried out by the vaccination staff. The *vaidyas* of Ayurvedic dispensaries also perform this work. Emergency cholera regulations are enforced whenever the situation so warrants. Disinfection of vomits, dejecta and infected clothes is carried out with the help of local authorities and municipalities. The preventive measures are also extended to adjacent villages in order to arrest its spreading there. The patients are also isolated and treated at convenient places.

Smallpox

This frightful disease visited the District almost every year, mostly in an epidemic form, each time taking a heavy toll of human life. The years in which the District suffered most were 1908, 1909 and 1919 when the number of deaths was 2,377, 1069 and 1973, respectively. In other years during the present century the number of deaths never exceeded 500. This can be attributed to the effective implementation of vaccination which checked the incidence of smallpox considerably, especially since the twenties. In recent years the number of deaths was mostly below 200 except in 1964 and 1966 when 588 and 798 deaths, respectively, were recorded.

Vaccination is the only effective measure for the prevention of this disease. The introduction of vaccination in Bilaspur District dates back to 1862 when vaccinators were employed throughout the newly constituted Central Provinces. However, the prejudices of the local population adversely affected its implementation initially. A new scheme for vaccination was, therefore, chalked out in 1862-63 and was introduced in the following year. The Vaccination Department consisted of a Superintendent (a Medical Officer) and a 'strong staff of vaccinators'. Initially Nagpur and Chhindwara were chosen as the centres of activities. The Scheme envisaged intensive work in selected areas till the disease was completely eradicated. In September 1867 the District Officers were instructed to associate the municipalities in the cause of vaccination and also to employ vaccinators under their special supervision. In subsequent years the Hospital Assistants were also asked to carry on dispensary vaccination. Thus

in 1878-79 the dispensaries in Bilaspur alone carried out vaccination of 467 persons, 463 primary and 4 revaccinations. The vaccination staff increased in size in subsequent years and in 1882-83 the staff at Bilaspur consisted of one Superintendent of District (the Civil Surgeon), one local Superintendent, 21 vaccinators (4 first class, 4 second class and 13 third class) and two servants. The total cost of vaccination was about Rs. 2,352. The Superintendents of vaccination were expected to see, if possible, at least half the total number of vaccinations performed.

For convenience every district was divided into a number of vaccination circles coinciding mostly with the circles for the registration of births and deaths.

In 1890 necessary steps were taken to substitute animal lymph for that obtained from human beings in accordance with Home Department letter No. 302, dated 15th October, 1890. Accordingly, the Civil Surgeons were instructed to produce the requisite quantum of calf lymph at their respective headquarters. With the establishment of a Central Lymph Depot at Nagpur in 1908-09, the supply of lymph to the whole Province was made from Nagpur. Till 1931 vaccination was compulsory only in municipal and notified areas. It was optional in rural areas. By the Central Provinces Vaccination Law Amendment Act, 1932 (VI of 1932) vaccination could be made compulsory in selected rural areas as well. In recent years intensive vaccination campaigns for primary and revaccination in the rural and urban areas of the District have been launched. This work is now being looked after by the staff of the Health Department, Janapada Sabhas and Municipal Committees. At the time of a serious outbreak the *vaidyas* of the various *ayurvedic* dispensaries also help vaccination staff in the cause of vaccination.

In order to intensify the activities and to root out this disease from the District the National Smallpox Eradication Programme (NSEP) was launched in Bilaspur in 1962. In 1966 the District had a vaccination staff consisting of the supervising Medical Officer, 2 Para-medical Assistants, 13 Sanitary Inspectors and 72 Vaccinators. Of this one Supervising Medical Officer, 12 Sanitary Inspectors and 72 Vaccinators belong to the National Smallpox Eradication Programme. The vaccination work done in the District during recent years was as under.

Table No. XIV-4

Vaccination

Year	Primary vaccination	Revaccination	Total
1962	6,884	38,852	45,736
1963	153,387	760,951	914,338

1964	131,507	556,953	688,460
1965	88,762	132,464	221,226
1966	107,398	251,140	358,538

Source: Additional Civil Surgeon, Bilaspur.

Malaria

It has already been mentioned earlier that fever was greatly responsible for thinning the population of the District. A sizable number of fever cases was caused by malaria, though a classification like this is of recent origin. The climatic conditions of certain areas in the District were chiefly responsible for the occurrence of malaria.

In 1910 a survey was conducted by Major W.H. Kenrick of the Indian Medical Service to examine the incidence of malaria in the Central Provinces and Berar, so that the recommendations and resolutions of the Conference on Malaria met at Simla in October, 1909 could be suitably implemented. This Survey was at the instance of the local administration of the Central Provinces and Berar in response to a directive from the Government of India. The Survey revealed that malaria was prevalent in hyper-endemic form throughout the northern half of each of the three tahsils, namely, Mungeli, Bilaspur and Janjgir and it was almost entirely absent in the open cultivated plains comprising the southern half of these tahsils. In Ratanpur the spleen rate, i.e., the percentage of children in the age group between two and 10 showing enlarged spleen, was 17 per cent, while that in Korba, Chaitma, Churi and Gopalpur it was 25, 26, 7 and 10 per cent, respectively. The Pendra Plateau was found to be free from malaria in the more open parts in the north and the centre. But in the hills and forest on the east, south and west hyperendemic malaria was prevalent. The spleen-rate in Matin, Nerboda, Sendargar and Pasan was 82, 100, 90 and 80 per cent, respectively. It was observed further, that endemic malaria existed in Bilaspur town to a lesser extent. In the Arpa river and the small stream that flows through the town, breeding of the malaria carrier *A-Culicifacies* was found.

Surveys conducted in recent years also showed that malaria was widely prevalent in an endemic form in the northern portion of the District.

At the close of an extensive survey it was found that the northern portion of the District north of a line drawn from Pandaria to Sakti comprising the entire Katghora Tahsil, the hilly and forest-clad areas of Mungeli and Bilaspur Tahsils was endemic for malaria. The spleen-rates varied from 25 to 70 per cent in the hilly forest areas while that in villages in the open was less than 10 per cent. The southern part of the District comprising the plains

of Mungeli, Bilaspur, Janjgir and Sakti Tahsils was comparatively free from malaria.

To cure the disease quinine and other anti-malaria drugs were supplied free of cost in the poor tracts, while in towns they were sold at cheap rates in the early years. The preventive and curative measures were intensified only in the 1950's. In September, 1954 a Malaria Unit was established under the National Malaria Control Programme. For a little more than one year since its inception the Unit carried out investigations to assess the intensity of its incidence. Actual control operations were, however, started in 1955-56.

As mentioned earlier, having assessed the magnitude of incidence of malaria, the control operations were started in 1955-56. Initially D.D.T. spraying was done in all houses of the affected region. After consecutive spraying of four years it was observed that the spleen-rate which stood at 35.1 in 1955 came down to 1.13 in 1958. The number of malaria cases treated declined from 17,597 in 1954 (before the launching of control programme) to 19,756 in 1957 (after the conclusion of control programme). So also the number of villages under control and the houses sprayed in 1957-58 was 1,684 and 278,438, respectively, as against 187 and 144,285 in 1955-56. When the Scheme was originally started in 1954-55, only five villages were under its control.

The Scheme envisaged a complete coverage of the District gradually. In the late 1950's the Government of India decided to replace the control programme by the National Malaria Eradication Programme. Accordingly, sometime in 1959 the Scheme switched over to the National Malaria Eradication Programme. The National Malaria Eradication Programme aims at the reduction of the reservoir of malaria parasites in human population to a negligible degree. The six year programme commencing from 1958-59 included intensified D.D.T. spraying operations in all endemic areas, extension of D.D.T. spraying to all hypo-endemic areas and surveillance operations.

There are two kinds of surveillance operations—active and passive. Under the former the specially appointed staff of the Malaria Eradication Programme visits every house at periodical intervals, enquires about cases of fever, takes blood smears and gets them examined under the microscope. If the results are found positive for malaria the staff will supply a complete course of anti-malaria drugs to cure the disease. Under the latter type of surveillance, i.e., passive, the Government and private agencies connected with medical and public health and the voluntary social service organisations in the District

report suspected cases of malaria to the authorities. Here also blood smears are collected and examined, and proper treatment given. The active surveillance is mainly meant for rural areas and passive surveillance for urban areas.

The National Malaria Eradication Programme has a large staff, especially for the surveillance operations. There are two types of executive staff working in this Unit, in the laboratory and in the field. The field workers include Senior Malaria Inspectors, Junior Malaria Inspectors, Surveillance Inspectors and Surveillance Workers. In 1966 the staff consisted of one Malaria Unit Officer, one Assistant Unit Officer, 6 Senior Malaria Inspectors, 6 Junior Malaria Inspectors, 34 Surveillance Inspectors, 4 Senior Field Workers, 11 Field Workers, 137 Surveillance Workers, 5 technicians and other ministerial staff.

The Unit has its headquarters at Bilaspur. The Malaria Unit Officer is responsible for the working of the Unit. At the headquarters, i.e., the Directorate of Health Services at Bhopal there is one Deputy Director of Health Services functioning as State Malariologist, assisted by one Assistant Director of Health Services, one Entomologist and one Epidemiologist. At district level, rather zonal level, he is assisted by 14 Zonal Officers who are also Assistant Directors of Health.

The work done in connection with D.D.T. spraying and surveillance operations in recent years was as under.

Table No. XVI-5

D.D.T. Spraying

Year	No. of Villages in which D.D.T. Spraying was done	No. of cases examined	Result (no. found positive)
1962	2,621	69,205	918
1963	2,621	81,618	298
1964	2,350	92,978	49
1965	703	96,220	170
1966	1,284	—	458
1967	1,409	—	390
1968	2,677	—	—
1969	2,677	—	—

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BILASPUR

*Surveillance Operation**Active and Passive*

Year	No. of fever cases detected	No of cases in which blood smear collected	Result (no. found positive)
1962	59,265 (10,133)	59,072 (10,133)	882 (36)
1963	86,244 (18,634)	76,707 (11,151)	286 (12)
1964	84,713 (16,107)	80,279 (12,649)	37 (12)
1965	92,802 (7,662)	80,832 (15,388)	164 (NA)
1966	85,604 (20,153)	73,933 (20,153)	367 (18)
1967	1,17,386 (16,749)	1,06,859 (16,744)	362 (10)
1968	13,861 (6,018)	1,37,639 (10,240)	835 (NA)
1969	97,021 (5,017)	87,271 (8,450)	1,198 (NA)

Source: Malaria Unit Officer, I/C N.M.E.P. Unit, Bilaspur.

Note:—Figures in brackets relate to passive surveillance alone.

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis is one of the few diseases that defied detection even during the early years of the present century. The incidence of this disease in the District cannot be said to be high though the mortality caused by TB is not negligible. The number of deaths from this disease during the years 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965 and 1966 was 1, 4, 5, 16, nil and 12, respectively. There is one full-fledged TB Sanatorium at Pendra and one TB Clinic at Bilaspur for the treatment of TB causes.

On the preventive side a mass B.C.G. vaccination campaign was conducted in the District in 1961-62. This was followed by house to house vaccination by a separate B.C.G. team. During the Third Prevention & Five Plan, in 1964, the National Tuberculosis Programme was put into operation. Accordingly the TB Clinic at Bilaspur started functioning on the pattern of National T.B. programme with effect from April, 1964. The Programme envisaged diagnosis and treatment of all T.B. cases in the District starting with another mass B.C.G. vaccination campaign and domiciliary treatment of diagnosed cases. Diagnosis was also done at certain primary health centres at 10 places to begin with, and medicines were supplied free of cost. The mass B.C.G. vaccination campaign was started at 17 places in the District. Free supply of drugs was also started at 31 centres in the District. A referral system to diagnose old cases of T.B. and to give necessary guidance in further treatment was also introduced.

Leprosy

The incidence of leprosy is reported to be high in the District, i.e. above one per cent and Bilaspur is considered to be endemic for leprosy.

Efforts to check the incidence of leprosy in Bilaspur District can be traced back to the year 1887 when a leprosy hospital and home was started in Chandkhuri by the Missionaries. A similar Institution Anti-Leprosy Measures was started at Champa in 1902. However, activities in this direction gained momentum only during the First Plan period when the Government of India launched a pilot project for the control of leprosy under the National Leprosy Control Scheme in some of the highly endemic areas in the country.

Under the National Leprosy Control Scheme a Subsidiary Centre, as it was known then, was established in the District at Champa during the First Plan. This Centre was upgraded into a Leprosy Control Unit under the National Leprosy Control Programme in 1963. The area under this Unit covers 146 villages around Bilaspur town for a population of 1,50,000. The object of the Centre is to examine the entire population of the area, find out leprosy cases and put all active cases of leprosy under Sulphone treatment. The Control Unit is staffed by Medical Officers, Non-Medical Assistants, Compounders and others. Besides domiciliary treatment, follow-up of the healthy of leprosy cases is also being undertaken and the observations are recorded from time to time. During 1966 there were 1,856 cases of leprosy under treatment and 1,649 selected healthy contacts under observation. Health education also forms part of the Unit's

activities. Talks, distribution of pamphlets, cinema-shows and group discussions are the usual media adopted for this purpose.

There are 7 special leprosy clinics in Bilaspur District, located at Bilaspur proper, Hirri, Pathoria, Masturi, Pamgarh, Sheorinarayan and Jaijaipur.

Special Leprosy Clinics One Assistant Health Officer, specially trained in leprosy is in charge of each clinic which covers an area comprising about 50 villages. The Assistant Health Officer, Leprosy, treats all the leprosy cases within the area of his jurisdiction with sulphone.

The special leprosy clinics also conduct surveys for detecting new cases of leprosy besides carrying on propaganda work through the usual media of posters, charts, etc. In the 7 special clinics treated as many as 947 cases of leprosy.

During the Third Five Year Plan 7 such centres were established in the District at the primary health centres of Takhatpur, Akaltara, Katghora,

Gaurela, Marwanik, Kota and Pendra under the National Leprosy Control Programme. The purpose behind their being attached to primary health centres is that the Medical Officer of the primary health centre will be readily available for consultation and treatment of leprosy patients diagnosed there. Under this scheme a specially trained non-medical Assistant is sanctioned for each SET Centre. Each non-medical Assistant is required to cover a population of 20,000, do intensive leprosy survey in the villages, give domiciliary treatment and follow up the healthy contacts of leprosy cases. One non-medical Supervisor is posted to supervise the working of 5 non-medical assistants. In 1966 there were 412 cases of leprosy under treatment and 1,675 healthy contacts under observation.

In addition, there are 16 Government dispensaries (P.H.Cs. and others) in the District where treatment of leprosy cases is being given at their outpatient departments. The Medical Officers in charge of these dispensaries are specially trained in leprosy work. On an average, about 2,153 leprosy cases are being treated at these dispensaries every year. Exhibitions are also being arranged during fairs and *melas* in the District for imparting health education in this regard, besides special cinema-shows, etc.

Influenza

Influenza visited the District with varying intensity assuming the dimensions of a great epidemic in two years, i. e., 1918 and 1957. The countrywide influenza in these two years, especially in 1918, created havoc. In this connection it was reported that "The influenza epidemic which first appeared in a mild form in July 1918, returned two months later and attacked the whole province with sudden and terrible violence causing the greatest mortality within the

memory of man; it spread rapidly from west to east, first along the railways and main roads and then from village to village, until at last no part was left untouched. The total mortality from this cause alone was 5½ per cent of the population, and twice as great as the total mortality caused by plague in twenty-two years."¹ The number of deaths in Bilaspur District alone caused by fever (or influenza) in that year was 58,095. The epidemic, however, completely disappeared from the District by the end of 1919 though in September, 1919, there was a slight recrudescence. Another outbreak of influenza epidemic in the District was in 1957. The mortality this time was negligible, though a large number of seizures was reported. The preventive measures undertaken by the Public Health Department, however, averted a repetition of the calamity of 1918. The preventive measures included the active working of several mobile dispensaries, enforcement of emergency influenza regulations and closure of public institutions, besides health education and propaganda. Sufficient attention was paid to the improvement of sanitation as well.

Bowel Complaints

The insanitary conditions in this area were chiefly responsible for many bowel complaints, sometimes fatal too. The improvements effected in sanitation, especially in the rural areas in recent years, reduced the mortality caused by bowel complaints considerably.

Eye Diseases

Cataract and trachoma are the two main diseases of the eye generally come across in the District. In order to assess the incidence of trachoma in the District, a Pilot Project survey under the auspices of the Indian Council of Medical Research, New Delhi, was conducted in 1959. It assessed that the percentage of incidence of trachoma in the District was 40.2.

Both these diseases are being treated at the district hospital and civil dispensaries. Another measure adopted to check its incidence is by organising eye camps at various places in the District wherein operations are also performed. One such eye camp was organised at Sakti from 23rd December, 1959 to 1st January, 1960. In all, 1,450 patients were examined and as many as 336 operations performed. Another camp was organised at Pendra from 4th to 17th January, 1963. An eye camp is being held by the Christian Hospital, Mungeli, every year. Special treatment for the eye is also offered at this hospital.

Venereal Diseases

The incidence of venereal diseases in the District is not high. A V.D. Clinic which was opened in Kathora sometime during the Third Plan is now closed.

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1918-19, p. XIII.

Plague

Though not a disease of common occurrence in the District in recent years, plague had visited Bilaspur several times during the first quarter of the present century causing a sizable number of deaths. The first attack of plague is reported to have been responsible for 2 deaths in 1903. The highest number of deaths caused by this disease was 694 in 1917 followed by 282 in 1905; 132 in 1918; 77 in 1804; 17 each in 1909 and 1912 and from 1 to 12 in 1906; 1907, 1910, 1911, 1914, 1915, 1918, 1919, 1921 and 1924. Since then the District is reported to have been free from this disease. The anti-plague measures include inoculation, evacuation, isolation, disinfection and rat-destruction. Cynogassing is also resorted to for the destruction of rats. Enforcement of plague regulations, health education, lectures and distribution of anti-plague drugs are the other measures usually undertaken during serious outbreaks.

*Public Hospitals and Dispensaries**Organisation of the Medical Department*

The Civil Surgeon is the head of the Medical Department at district level. He exercises supervision and administrative control over all Government medical institutions except certain special institutions, and supervisory control on Janapad dispensaries. On all administrative matters connected with allopathic hospitals and dispensaries he is responsible to the Director of Health Services, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

The District Family Planning cum Health Officer is incharge of the public health activities in the District and he is assisted by the subordinate staff, namely, Administrative officer, District Extension Educators (Male and Female), Mass information and Education officer of headquarters and Assistant Surgeons in public health centres.

Hospitals and Dispensaries

In 1967 there were two hospitals—one district hospital, i.e. Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel Hospital at Bilaspur and one civil hospital at Pendra—5 allopathic dispensaries, 24 primary health centres, one maternity and child welfare centre, 15 Government *ayurvedic* dispensaries and 23 family planning centres in the District, besides special institutions such as, one T.B. clinic, 7 special leprosy clinics, 7 leprosy (SET) centres and one leprosy control unit. All these institutions are managed by the Government of Madhya Pradesh. In addition, there were *ayurvedic* dispensaries managed by the various local bodies and a good number of private institutions in the District. As in the year 1967, of the 7 hospitals and dispensaries in the District, 2 hospitals and 3 dispensaries staffed by 21 doctors were located in Bilaspur Tahsil and two dispensaries staffed by two doctors in the Sakti Tahsil. Each of the Mungeli, Katghora and Janjgir tahsils had only primary health centres.

This hospital was started in its new building at Dabri Para in Bilaspur in 1958. This new building was constructed at the cost of Rs. 3,67,357. This hospital has a special maternity ward, as well as isolation ward for epidemic cases. During the period 1958-1965, under Sardar Vallabha Bhai Patel Hospital, Bilaspur the Auxiliary Nurses Training programme, 74 nurses were trained at this hospital. General nurses' training was started at the hospital in 1963 and by 1966, 10 nurses were trained. Besides, 72 Vaccinators were trained at this hospital by 1962. One Assistant Surgeon and one Nursing Sister also was trained in family planning, at the hospital.

In 1967, this hospital had 6 specialists, 10 assistant surgeons, 2 lady assistant surgeons, 1 assistant medical officer, 7 compounders, 1 lady health visitor, 1 radiographer, 4 dressers, 5 nursing sisters, 4 sister tutors, 12 staff nurses, 1 midwife, 1 matron, 1 laboratory technician and 36 others on its staff.

The number of indoor and out-door patients, old and new, treated at this hospital from 1959 to 1965 was as under.

Table No. XVI-6

Number of Patients in the Sardar Patel Hospital, Bilaspur

Year	Indoor		Out-door	
	Old	New	Old	New
1959	Nil	3,399	1,88,744	50,963
1960	1,260	3,795	1,76,632	59,178
1961	1,412	4,500	16,658	57,889
1962	1,484	4,475	1,16,668	58,551
1963	1,861	4,784	1,64,176	65,137
1964	1,474	5,162	1,30,714	58,007
1965	1,439	5,755	1,31,830	54,053

Source: The Superintendent, SVBPM Hospital, Bilaspur.

This hospital was under the management of Janapad Sabha, Bilaspur prior to its take-over by the Public Health Department in 1958. The hospital is situated at the centre of pendra village with an area of one Government acre. The outdoor of Pendra wing of the hospital consisted of dispensing room, dressing room, out-patient examination room, a small operation theatre and one store room. In 1964 one additional room was constructed with the help of donation from the public

for location of an X-ray plant. This plant was provided at the hospital by the Medical and Public Health Department of Madhya Pradesh Government. Facilities for indoor treatment exists in the form of general ward with 7 beds. In 1962 a maternity ward with 4 beds was constructed with the help of a donation of Rs. 5,000 from a widow and an equal amount provided by the Government.

The number of indoor and out-door patients treated at this hospital from 1958 to 1966 is tabulated below.

Table No. XVI-7

Number of Patients Treated at Government Hospital, Pendra

Year	Indoor (New)	Out-door New
1958	89	13,561
1959	97	15,300
1960	51	11,389
1961	38	14,823
1962	40	13,263
1963	221	15,067
1964	394	14,279
1965	374	13,556
1966	487	14,877

Source: Medical Officer Civil Hospital, Pendra.

Of the five civil dispensaries, those at Adbhar, Jairamnagar and Baradwar were established in 1960. The dispensary at Ratanpur was established in 1962-63, while city dispensary at Bilaspur was established in 1963. Each dispensary is staffed by one assistant medical officer and one compounder. There is no facility for indoor treatment in any of these dispensaries.

There is one maternity and child welfare centre at Pendra attached to the Civil Hospital, Pendra. This 4 bedded centre was opened in 1960. It is staffed by one Doctor, three nurses and one d.i. Facilities also exist for the treatment of maternity cases in the primary health centres and their sub-centres. The 24 primary health centres in the District have 173 beds, 26 for males and 77 for females.

Departmental Hospitals and Dispensaries

A reference to the police hospital at headquarters appears in the earlier Gazetteer of 1910. This Hospital had 16 beds in 1967, and is located at the Reserve Police Line, Bilaspur. The Hospital is exclusively Police Hospital meant for the police personnel. It is staffed by one medical officer, one Compounder, one nurse, one nursing orderly and others. The average number of indoor and outdoor patients annually treated here during 1962-66 was 2,267 and 13,682, respectively.

As the railway colony at Bilaspur began to expand, the old 20 bedded railway hospital was replaced by a 50 bedded full-fledged railway divisional hospital in 1962 at a cost of Rs. 6.98 lakhs. It was formally Railway Hospital, inaugurated on 14th September, 1962. The hospital has Bilaspur spacious wards, an up-to-date and well-equipped operation theatre, labour room, maternity ward, X-ray department, chest clinic and laboratory, besides an ambulance car. The bed-strength of this hospital was subsequently raised to 62, including 10 for T.B. cases. It is staffed by one divisional medical officer, 19 assistant medical officers and 74 other staff. The number of indoor patients treated which was 1,537 in 1962-63 increased to 2,678 in 1965-66. The number of out-door patients treated in 1965-66 was 5,80,348 in 1962-63.

A family planning centre staffed by two assistant medical officers (male and female) is also functioning here. They are assisted in their work by one district extension educator and one health visitor. Besides educating the railway staff in family planning through the usual media of lectures and film shows contraceptives are distributed and vasectomy operations are performed. The future plans of this institution include the construction of building to house the out-patient department and raising the number of beds to 100.

This Hospital is as old as the Jail which was established in 1873. The Hospital is within the jail premises. The number of beds in the hospital is 7 with temporary accommodation for additional 14 beds. Prior to 1956, one compounder from the Main hospital, Bilaspur, used to visit the jail hospital and all cases requiring constant attention and treatment were being sent to the Main hospital. From 1956 one permanent assistant medical officer and one male nurse were posted at the jail hospital. This staff was increased by one more Compounder in 1964. In 1966, the post of Assistant Medical Officer was upgraded to that of the Assistant Surgeon. Thus in 1966 the Jail Hospital staff consisted of one assistant surgeon, one male nurse and one compounder. The maternity and special cases are referred to the District Hospital, Bilaspur. Initially about 100 indoor and 2,000 outdoor patients used to be treated at this hospital. By 1966, the number of indoor patients increased to 180 and that of outdoor to 6,000.

This hospital is located at the Hirri Mines township area and was started in 1961 for the convenience of Hirri Mines staff and labourers. It is under the management of Bhilai Steel Plant at Bhilai. This hospital had 5 beds in 1967. It was in the charge of one medical officer and had a staff of 14.

The number of Indoor and out-door patients treated at this hospital from 1961 to 1966 was as under.

Table No. XVI-8

Number of Patients in the Hirri Mines Hospital

Year	Indoor	Out-door
1961	183	11,844
1962	38	13,180
1963	89	10,759
1964	27	9,822
1965	13	12,226
1966	37	11,696

Source: Medical Officer, Hirri Mines, Hirri, Bilaspur.

Other departmental dispensaries in the District include the project dispensary run by Public Works Department at Hasdeo, the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board dispensary at Korba and the Industrial Training Institute dispensary run by the Labour Department at Koni.

This clinic is located in a newly constructed extension to the building of Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel Memorial Hospital Bilaspur. It was established in 1963, and from April, 1964 it is working on the pattern set under the National Tuberculosis Programme. In 1967, the bed-strength of this clinic was 12 (6 for males and 6 for females). These beds are mostly provided to the patients for surgical treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis. The staff consisted of one medical officer, one health visitor, one laboratory technician, one X-ray technician, one B.C.G.

Team leader, six B.C.G. technicians and seven others. The facilities for indoor treatment were started only in 1967. From 1963 to 1966 as many as 575, 950, 1,542 and 1,277 out-door patients, respectively, were treated at the clinic.

The opening of primary health centres from 1953 onwards in the District added to the existing medical facilities considerably, especially in the rural areas. A primary health centre is an organisation providing or making accessible, under the direct supervision of at least one physician, the basic health services for a community. The establishment of primary health centres was originally started with the opening of Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks in the rural areas of the District. The earliest among them were those at Masturi, Lormi, Sakti, Janjgir and Katghora. These centres, opened during the intensive phase of working of the Development Blocks, were taken over by the Public Health Department whenever they entered the post-intensive phase. More primary health centres were started in quick succession. At several places the existing civil dispensaries were upgraded into primary health centres. Each centre has normally one doctor, one compounder, one dresser, one sanitary inspector, one lady health visitor, four midwives, two peons and four ancillary staff. Under each primary health centre there are not more than three sub-centres within the same Block. The sub-centres extend medical facilities to the very interior areas of the Blocks. A midwife is attached to each sub-centre. The Medical officer in charge of the primary health centre visits each sub-centre once in a week.

By 1965 there were 24 primary health centres, five each in Bilaspur and Katghora Tahsils, four each in Mungeli and Sakti Tahsils and six in Janjgir Tahsil. At the rate of three sub-centres under one primary health centre, there were also 72 sub-centres.

Provincialisation of Hospitals and Dispensaries

As earlier referred to, the hospitals and dispensaries in the Central Provinces and Berar were managed either by the local bodies or by private agencies. The main dispensary at Bilaspur which assumed the status of a district hospital was provincialised in 1953. Provincialisation in still later years affected only the hospitals and dispensaries at important centres. Most of them continued to be managed by local bodies. The private institutions received grants-in-aid from the Government. At the time of reorganisation of the State it was observed that in the integrating units other than Mahakoshal region, the hospitals and dispensaries were managed with the state funds. It was, therefore, decided in 1958 that all the remaining medical institutions in the District were provincialised. Consequently, all medical institutions in the District were provincialised with effect from 1st August, 1958.

Expenditure on Medical and Public Health

The expenditure incurred on medical and public health activities by the State Government in the District during the period 1963-64 to 1965-66 was Rs. 11,53,885 in 1963-64, Rs. 15,46,822 in 1964-65 and Rs. 14,27,825 in 1965-66.

Private Hospitals and Nursing Homes

Located in the centre of Takhatpur town, St. Luke's Hospital was founded in 1946 by the United Christian Missionary Society of America. It is a 30 bedded general hospital, staffed by one doctor, three nurses, one compounder, two ward boys, two ward helpers and others. About 8,000 patients, both indoor and outdoor are treated annually.

Situated on the east bank of the Hasdeo river about 1 km. south of Champa town and 2 km. from Champa Railway Station, this institution is one of the oldest in the District. Sponsored by Mission London, in association with the General Conference Mennonite Mission, the Bethesda Leprosy Hospital and Homes was founded in Champa by Rev. P.A. Penner in 1902 with five patients under treatment. During the decades that followed there were a series of developments in this institution. The capacity was increased to 500 in 1925; dispensary and a clinic were built in 1930; hospital wards and operation theatre were constructed in 1936; separate hostels were constructed for girls in 1935 and for boys in 1960; a school building for the education of child patients was ready by 1945; and additional surgical wards were constructed in 1960. The institution also acquired 30 acres of waste land in 1945 which has since been brought under cultivation. There are, at present, 550 beds in the Sanatorium and 120 beds in the hospital. Plastic and reconstructive surgery for leprosy deformities is also performed. Other facilities include education upto eighth standard for children suffering from leprosy. A huge staff of 40 is headed by the Superintendent. The average number of indoor and outdoor patients annually treated from 1960 to 1965 was 968 and 1,157, respectively.

This is a Union Mission Institution run under the auspices of eleven Christian Missions for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis. It is aided by the Government of Madhya Pradesh and the provincial Red Cross Society, Nagpur. It was opened in 1916 with 12 beds by the Disciples of Christ Mission. In 1934 the control of the Sanatorium was made over to the Union Christian Mission with representatives of the Government on its governing body. Having a

mean temperature of 75°F ranging between 40°F and 110°F and an average rainfall of nearly 60 inches, the climate at the Sanatorium is very favourable for the treatment of tuberculosis patients. It can accommodate 200 patients in the two categories of beds, 72 beds in private cottages and the rest in general wards. The general ward patients are charged Rs. 75 per month which includes medical and nursing care, food vegetarian and non-vegetarian, medicines that are available at the dispensary of the Sanatorium, routine laboratory examination and fluoroscopy. Each private cottage is very similar to a family apartment. Here the patient is charged Rs. 75 to Rs. 130 per month. The patients of private cottages have to make their own arrangements for food. The rental charges, however, entitle them to medical and nursing care, routine laboratory examination, fluoroscopy and ordinary medicines. Patients of both wards have to pay for special medicines and X-ray examinations. The Sanatorium admits both male and female patients. A certain number of beds are reserved for employees of the Posts and Telegraphs, Coal Miners, Orissa Police, Railways, etc. The institution has a staff of 70, headed by a Medical Superintendent. No outdoor treatment is provided here except X-ray examination and medical advice. The number of patients thus X-rayed annually is 1,200. On an average 371 patients were treated during 1960-65. There is a recreation hall and library for the patients.

Situated about 22 miles south of Bilaspur on the Bilaspur-Raipur highway, the Chandkhuri Leprosy Hospital and Homes was originally started in 1887 by the American German Missionary Rev. and Mrs. Not-trott who were moved by the sad plight of leprosy patients during the great famine of 1887. They built some huts on the Mission's ground and started the treatment of 7 patients there. With the substantial assistance of the Leprosy Mission (then known as Mission to Lepers) a leper asylum, known as Clair Leper Asylum, was founded in 1897. In subsequent years this institution became one of the biggest Leprosarium with 700 inmates. After the attainment of Independence the asylum was named as Chandkhuri Leprosy Hospital and Homes. This institution accommodates now only 500 inmates. Out of these 60 beds are reserved for the Government sponsored patients. The number of beds for male and female patients is roughly 300 and 200, respectively. The State Government gives a per capita grant of Rs. 10 per patient per month and Rs. 17.50 per Government patient per month. This institution is adequately equipped with X-ray diathermy infra red, muscle stimulator, wax-bath, etc. All kinds of modern surgical leprosy operations such as repairing of clawhands, reconstruction of depressed noses, etc., are performed. There are two fully trained full time doctors for surgical leprosy work, one of them a specially trained surgeon in plastic and reconstructive surgery at Vellere. The average number of indoor and outdoor patients treated here during 1960-65 was 542 and

1,497, respectively. The institution is headed by a Superintendent, assisted by a staff of 28 including doctors, nurses, and others. Family planning work has also been started here recently. The management are contemplating a scheme for the rehabilitation of ex-patients of this institution.

This missionary institution is situated in ward 7, Juni Lines, Bilaspur. Established in 1885 as a dispensary, the Jackman Memorial Hospital is managed by the United Christian Missionary Society. In 1923, a Nursing School was also started here under the Marathi Board of Examiners. The nursing school was upgraded in 1943 with the certificates registrable in the Central Provinces. In 1934 an 8 bedded isolation ward was added to this institution. This ward can accommodate 20 T.B. patients now. Many additions were made in subsequent years and the present hospital has 150 general beds (including T.B. beds) and 20 infant cots. The staff of this hospital includes American and Indian doctors and nurses numbering 35. The Nursing School is staffed by 3 Sisters, one of them being American. There are 48 student-nurses and 12 student-midwives. Specialists in gynaecology and obstetrics are also available in this hospital. In 1965 the number of indoor and outdoor patients treated was 3,222 and 4,536 respectively, as against 2,504 and 5,224 in 1960.

Located about one mile from the railway station, Champa, the 110 bedded Christian Hospital was established in 1926. It is managed by the Medical Board of the General Conference Mennonite Mission in India. The staff consists of 3 doctors including the Medical Superintendent, 18 nurses, 3 compounders, 3 laboratory technicians and 2 pharmacists. The 110 beds include 12 beds for maternity cases and 20 beds for T.B. patients. Another T.B. ward to accommodate 13 beds is under construction. The medical and surgical facilities include laboratory and X-ray examination, sigmoidoscopic and cystoscopic diagnosis, skin grafting and stainless steel fixation of fractures. There are no specialists on the staff. Post-graduate education of staff members is being undertaken by this institution. The average number of indoor and outdoor patients treated during 1960-65 was 2,608 and 16,055, respectively.

Sponsored by the World's Missionary Evangelisms, the Healthy Children's Home was started at Champa on 13th February, 1948 with 6 children by Dr. H.S. Theodore and is being managed by him with the help of a committee of three members to advise him in matters connected with its management. This institution aims at bringing up healthy children of leprosy patients, educate and rehabilitate them after giving sufficient schooling and vocational guidance. The children on admission are kept under observation for a certain period. After assessing the intensity of contacts they have had with leprosy patients, necessary

treatment is provided. The children are classified into various age groups, i.e. 1 to 3, 3 to 5 and 5 to 7 years. They are provided educational facilities. Those who are found to be good at books have ample facilities for higher education either in technical institutes or in colleges. In order to give vocational training to children having an aptitude for crafts the Home has started classes in tailoring, carpentry and poultry-keeping. Some inmates, after schooling, were sent to Industrial Training Institute and other technical institutions. Three students on completion of their I.T.I. training are working in the Power House at Korba and 11 girls are serving at the primary health centres in the District after successfully completing their Auxiliary Nurses' training. In 1966 one boy of this Home was under training in I.T.I., another was studying in the Polytechnic Institute at Raigarh, two girls were being trained as nurses, and four children were due to appear for the Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination. The Home can accommodate 200 inmates. In 1966 there were 176 children on roll. By 1966 the Home had brought up 382 children.

The staff of this institution includes one Superintendent, one House father for boys' wing, one Matron for girls' wing, 3 ayas, one instructor each in carpentry, tailoring, poultry, games and recreation, and one waterman. The Home has a dispensary of its own for the treatment of its inmates.

A major achievement of this institution was that nine grown up girls of the Home were happily married under its auspices. The future plans of the Home includes the starting of a vocational school of its own with the addition of training in shoe-making and blacksmithy and arrangements for training in vegetable gardening and small-scale farming.

Situated about 2 km. from the Pendra Road railway station, the Jyotipur Christian Hospital was established sometime in 1946. This 25 bedded rural hospital is managed by the United Christian Missionary Society which has its head office at Jabalpur. The staff consists of one Christian Hospital, Jyotipur doctor, 3 trained staff nurses and midwife, one trained laboratory technician and others. During 1960-65, on an average, 975 indoor and 20,329 outdoor patients were treated at this hospital annually. The hospital has no specialists.

Catering to the needs of the patients in and around Mungeli, the Christian Hospital has a history that can be traced far back to the year 1889 when the missionaries used to distribute medicines to the local population from their personal medicine chests. However, their desire to see the establishment of a hospital materialised only in 1924. It is managed by the India Church Council of Disciples of Christ which has its head office at Jabalpur. The working of this institution in subsequent years has attracted patients even from adjacent districts. Its

original bed strength of 5 increased to 120 in 1958 and to 170 in 1964. The 170 beds are divided into general and private wards. The hospital offers specialised treatment for eye and dental diseases. An eye-camp is organised by the hospital every year. In 1958 and 1959 eye operations alone numbered 1,755 and 1,460, respectively. The average number of indoor and outdoor patients treated and the number of operations performed annually during 1960-66 was 5,080; 25,573 and 4,053, respectively.

The future plans of this institution include the establishment of a Radiology Unit for the treatment of cancer patients. This rural hospital has all modern equipments. It is headed by a Medical Superintendent, assisted by several doctors and para-medical personnel.

This 25 bedded maternity home is a branch of the Matru Sewa Sangh, Nagpur. It was started in February 1945 with a donation of Rs. 5,000 from Dr.

R.C. Dixit, who ardently desired to perpetuate the memory of Ashok Prasuti his son Ashok, the latter having died in a railway accident in Mandir, Bilaspur 1943. The donor also donated his life-long services for this

institution. Started as a ten bedded maternity home in a rented accommodation, after five years the institution had its own building with an accommodation for 5 additional beds in 1951. It is now located in front of the Deokinandan Girls Higher Secondary School at Tilak Nagar, Bilaspur. The bed-strength again rose to 25 in 1961 with additional facilities. The 25 beds are divided into general and private wards. The patients in the general ward receive treatment and accommodation free of cost for first ten days after delivery. For the period before and after that they are charged 50 paise per day per bed. Rooms in the private ward are self contained apartments. The strength of the staff is 26, which includes the Medical Officer in charge of the maternity home and one qualified lady doctor. The number of indoor and outdoor patients treated in 1965-66 was 863 and 787, respectively, as against 331 and 159 in 1957-58. The future plans of this institution include activities in family planning and child welfare.

Ayurvedic Dispensaries

From the foregoing account one gets an idea of the efforts that have been made to create a net-work of centres of medical treatment in allopathic system of medicine. It was, however, only in the late thirties of this century the efficacy and cheapness of indigenous systems of medicine attracted the attention of the authorities setting a pace for their development. In 1937 the Government appointed a committee under a Medical Department Resolution¹ to examine the indigenous system of medicine practised in the Province. The Committee recommended that medical relief on *ayurvedic* and *unani* lines should be

1. Resolution No. 12442-1830-XIV, dtd the 21st December, 1937.

extended on a large scale wherever possible and that "one Ayurvedic or one Unani dispensary should be established for every area ten miles in radius".¹ The Government accepted this recommendation in principle since its implementation would have extended medical facilities to rural areas. Local Bodies were also encouraged to open *ayurvedic* and *unani* dispensaries with Government aid.

The Municipal Committee, Bilaspur was the first local body to start an *ayurvedic* dispensary in April, 1937. This was followed by the establishment of one *ayurvedic* dispensary at Sakti in 1944 and another at Tilkeja in Katghora Tahsil in 1949. In the next few years the Government and local bodies established many dispensaries in quick succession. By 1967 Bilaspur District had 15 Government *ayurvedic* dispensaries, five in Bilaspur Tahsil, two each in Mungeli, Katghora and Sakti Tahsils, and four in Janjgir Tahsil.

The Municipal Committee at Champa, Sakti and Kota had one *ayurvedic* dispensary each under their management while Bilaspur Municipal Council had two such dispensaries. The Janapada Sabha, Katghora had 16 dispensaries under its management, while Bilaspur Janapada Sabha had 33 such dispensaries. Janapada Sabha Sakti had 12 *ayurvedic* dispensaries. Janjgir Janapada Sabha had under its management 12 *ayurvedic* dispensaries by 1966-67. In all 11 *ayurvedic* dispensaries managed by the various local bodies received grant-in-aid from the Government. The grants-in-aid is in the form of payment of *vaidyas* and Rs. 400 for contingency expenditure of each dispensary. Five dispensaries under the Bilaspur Janapada Sabha receive such grants.

In 1970, twenty-two Government *ayurvedic* dispensaries were functioning in the district.

The Bilaspur Janapada Sabha also maintains a *Rasayan Shala* at its headquarters. It was established in 1948-49. Popular *ayurvedic* medicines are prepared here and supplied to various dispensaries under the Sabha. *Siddhoushadhis* are, however, purchased from registered pharmacies and supplied to the dispensaries in six monthly quotas.

There are no facilities for indoor treatment in these dispensaries.

There is no Homoeopathic Dispensary in the District run either by the Government or by local bodies.

Research Centres and Institutions

There are no research centres in the District. However, dissemination of knowledge on public health matters such as birth control, nutrition, personal

1. Report of the Committee appointed to examine the indigenous Systems of Medicine practised in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1939, p. 1.

hygiene, health education, etc., is carried out by the family planning and primary health centres.

Public Health Laboratory Services

Under a master plan to provide laboratory services in the State through one Principal Laboratory, six regional laboratories and 33 district laboratories, the State Government accorded necessary sanction to establish one district public health laboratory at Bilaspur in 1959-60. However, the laboratory was set up only during the Third Plan period. This laboratory facilitates the prevention of food adulteration as all articles of food are subjected to thorough examination here.

Health Publicity

The Health Film Library of the Directorate of Health Services distributes films of health education to the Development Blocks, family planning clinics and other voluntary social welfare organisations. Pamphlets and leaflets on public health and hygiene are also distributed through these agencies. These activities are, however, intensified during serious outbreaks of epidemics.

The Indian Medical Association, Branch Bilaspur

A branch of the Indian Medical Association was inaugurated in the district.

The Indian Red Cross Society, Branch Bilaspur

A branch of the Indian Red Cross Society is functioning in the District, with the Collector and one local doctor as its President and Honorary Secretary, respectively. The activities in general of this international body include assistance to civil hospitals for blood transfusion services organising mother and child welfare schemes, contributions for disaster reliefs such as floods, famine, etc., supply of comforts to poor and needy patients, medical after-care and supply of spectacles and dentures to ex-servicemen, assistance to the welfare activities of the deaf, dumb, blind and crippled and supply of skimmed milk powder to needy and poor children and pregnant mothers. The District branch is running a child welfare centre at Bilaspur.

A branch of the St. John's Ambulance Association which was functioning in the District is almost defunct now.

Family Planning

In 1957 a revised and modified Family Planning Programme was chalked out on the basis of Government of India's new proposals and considering

the needs of the State. This scheme laid emphasis on the training of medical and auxiliary staff in the methods of family planning. The new scheme was approved by the State Government and rural and urban clinics were established at many places in the State during 1958-59. The first two rural family planning clinics to be established in the District were those at Masturi in Bilaspur Tahsil and Pondi-Uprora in Katghora Tahsil during 1959-60. This was followed by the opening of an urban clinic in 1960 attached to the Sardar Vallabha Bhai Patel Hospital, Bilaspur, which is a teaching institution for nurses, auxiliary nurses cum-midwives and health visitors. Rural clinics were also established at the primary health centres of Janjgir, Lormi, Sakti, Mungeli, Akaltara, and Katghora in 1960. Subsequent years witnessed the opening of many more rural clinics in the District. In 1963 one sterilisation unit and one mobile unit were also opened and attached to the Sardar Vallabha Bhai Patel Hospital. A demographic unit was also opened at the Civil Surgeon's Office, Bilaspur in 1965, staffed by three social workers. The urban clinic at Sardar Vallabha Bhai Patel Hospital, Bilaspur, has one woman assistant surgeon and 2 social workers, while the sterilisation unit is staffed by one assistant surgeon and one social worker. The Mobile Unit is looked after by 2 social workers. All rural family planning centres are staffed by 3 social workers each, the nine sub-centres attached to Janjgir Sakti and Mungeli Centres having only one social worker each.

The institutions and centres engaged in family planning work in the District by 1965 included 18 rural family Planning centres, 9 sub-centres attached to Janjgir, Sakti and Mungeli Centres, 5 mobile units, including the one attached to Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel Hospital at Bilaspur, alongwith Sterilisation Unit and Demographic Unit with the family planning centre at Bilaspur attached to the hospital.

Sanitation

Sanitation and conservancy arrangements in the urban and rural areas received sufficient attention of the authorities immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces. Initially the medical officer of a district was appointed as *ex-officio* Sanitary Officer of the local and municipal committee in 1864-65. He was also to act as an adviser to the civil authorities in matters connected with sanitation and conservancy in addition to taking special care in the development of the principal town of a district. The local committees in their turn appointed sanitary sub-committees as well. Subsequent years saw the emergence of a regularly paid establishment supervising conservancy arrangements in the urban areas.

In the rural areas the principal landholders were made responsible for the enforcement of sanitary rules and to ensure their strict observance in the

villages, because a separate establishment to look after village conservancy was not feasible in view of the vast areas to be covered. The civil authorities inspected these arrangements occasionally. An important object of village conservancy rules was the provision of good drinking water.

The Department of Sanitation was subsequently placed under the supervision and control of a special commissioner who advised the Civil Surgeon and other civil authorities in all matters connected with sanitation, conservancy and hygiene of a district. The Commissioner undertook long tours to inspect the working and assess the progress of this department.

In 1879-80 copies of *Practical Hints on Sanitation* prepared by the Army Sanitary Commission were distributed to all municipalities. Translated copies of the *Sanitary Primer* issued by the Government of India were also supplied to schools and other institutions.

The Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act, XIX of 1889 was passed in 1889-90. The Act empowered the Chief Commissioner to enforce certain sanitary reforms. Accordingly, by a resolution dated 22nd July, 1889, the Chief Commissioner constituted a Sanitary Board with the Superintending Engineer to prepare a plan for a general sanitary survey of all municipalities. The survey was mainly to explore the possibilities of a system of water supply and drainage in the municipal towns. The Chief Commissioner also issued orders laying down the relation between the head of the Sanitary Department and a District and other local authorities.

The post of a Sanitary Commissioner was created in 1910. Proposals for the appointment of a Sanitary Engineer were also submitted to the Government of India, though the appointment took place much later.

With the introduction of the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act, 1920 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act, 1920 arrangements for rural sanitation began to be looked after by the Village Panchayats. These arrangements continued with no major changes till 1948 when the Gram Panchayats were introduced. Village sanitation and conservancy arrangements in village became the responsibility of gram panchayats. In the urban areas the municipal committees continued to be in charge of this work.

Now the sanitation of rural areas is looked after by the respective gram panchayats supervised by the Janapad Sabhas. The Development Blocks take up this responsibility in respect of areas under their jurisdiction. The Janapad

Sabhas in the rural and municipal committees in the urban areas have separate staff for this work. The staff appointed by these agencies include sanitary inspectors, health visitors and vaccinators. The work done by the Community Development Blocks in this connection generally relates to the construction of latrines, urinals, cattle sheds, etc. In the Block areas 272 latrines and 293 urinals were constructed. The number of cattle-sheds constructed was 158.

The primary health centres located in Block areas undertake this work. The health visitor and sanitary inspector are chiefly responsible for sanitation work in that area, under the supervision of the medical officer who functions as Health Officer. The main function of the sanitary organisation in the rural areas is to advise people on matters connected with personal hygiene, vaccination, inoculation and precautions to prevent the incidence of epidemics.

Water Supply

Arrangements for the supply of pure drinking water is the responsibility of the municipal committees in the urban areas and of the janapada sabhas in the rural areas.

A water supply scheme for the Bilaspur town was started in 1959 and was completed at a cost of Rs. 31.82 lakhs in 1964. The inauguration of this scheme has facilitated the supply of pure drinking water to the Urban Area whole town. River, wells and tanks are the main sources of water supply in the area under the Champa Municipal Council. The municipal water works is under construction. Adequate arrangements exist for the supply of drinking water in the entire municipal area of Sakti through wells and tube-wells. The Municipal Council, Kota has provided 6 tube-wells and 10 open wells in addition to the existing 25 private tube-wells, 100 private open wells and about 10 tanks for the supply of drinking water in the municipal area. A big water supply scheme has already been proposed for this town. No special arrangements have so far been made by the Municipal Council, Mungeli in that area.

The janapada sabhas, gram panchayats and Community Development Blocks look after this work. These agencies sink new wells and repair old ones in their respective areas of jurisdiction. The number of new Water Supply in wells constructed in the Block areas was 131. Special arrangements for the supply drinking water at fairs and festivals is Rural Areas also the responsibility of the janapada sabhas. Thus, the Bilaspur Janapad Sabha made provision for drinking water at Ratanpur fair through the assistance of Assistant Engineer, Fair Sub-Division, P.H.E. Department, Jabalpur, during the water scarcity in 1965 and 1966.

Drainage and Slum Clearance

The introduction of a drainage scheme in the Bilaspur town is under consideration. There is no drainage system in any of the towns of Champa, Sakti and Mungeli. In Kota the municipal council has constructed *pucka* drains in certain wards. No special arrangements exist for slum clearance in the municipal towns. In respect of rural areas, the work mostly relates to the construction of surface drainage.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Prohibition

The import, sale and possession of *charas* were totally prohibited in the Central Provinces and Berar, of which Bilaspur was one of the districts, since 1925 and this can be said to be a mild beginning towards prohibition. However, official records described this measure as "a practical step towards temperance" as "that has driven the votaries of *charas* to ganja", the relative potency of which is about a fourth than that of the former.

Subsequently, the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act of 1938 was extended to Janjgir Tahsil alone of Bilaspur District from 1st October, 1946.

Prohibition was inaugurated by the celebration of "Prohibition Act Day" on 1st October, 1946 and a "Prohibition Week" from 1st to 18th October, 1946, throughout Janjgir Tahsil. In every

village of the Tahsil, the dawn of Prohibition was proclaimed by beat of drum by the village *Kotwar* and *Mukaddam*. On the Prohibition Day processions attended by leading persons including the members of the local Congress Committees were taken out. The processionists carried with them placards, posters, pictorials and flags and raised anti-drink slogans and songs. The processions were followed by meetings in which speeches befitting the occasion were delivered by leaders of public opinion. Warning-boards, posters and pictorials were affixed at conspicuous public places, and leaflets and pamphlets on the subject were freely distributed. Anti-drink committees and Tahsil Prohibition committees were organised.

A shopless zone was created around the dry area, i.e., Janjgir Tahsil by closing down liquor and toddy shops within ten miles of the border of the Tahsil. The duties of prevention, detection and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act were entrusted to the Police Department. The excise staff, which had hitherto no responsibility regarding prohibition offences, was also instructed to take active part in the work of detection and prevention of prohibition offences and to prosecute cases themselves. The necessity of pressing for jail sentences

in important prohibition cases was stressed and impressed on the prosecuting staff and the District Magistrates were also asked to instruct the magistrates subordinate to them to award deterrent and exemplary punishments in prohibition cases. For exclusive prohibition work, the Government posted special police staff including Sub-Inspectors of Police, head constables and constables in Bilaspur District.

Cases of smuggling of liquor from shops in the adjoining princely states and the addicts visiting them for drinking purposes and returning to dry area were on the increase in Bilaspur District. On 1st January, 1948, the states merged with the Province and consequently the work of creating shopless zones around Janjgir Tahsil remained no more a problem.

Vigilance both by the Police and the Excise staff was extensive and effective and as a result of their efforts to bring the crime under control the number of magisterial cases detected under the Prohibition Act increased to 213 in 1947 as against 22 in 1946. Illicit distillation cases detected by them rose from 25 in 1947 to 50 in 1948. When it was found that many liquor addicts in the dry areas were taking to drugs as a substitute for drinks to satisfy their cravings, the Provincial Government decided to prohibit possession and sale of intoxicating drugs, namely, opium, *ganja* and *bhang* also in the dry areas, with effect from 1st January, 1948.

In respect of wet areas of the District, the following measures were taken for promoting the cause of the general policy of Prohibition of the State Government.

Measures under

Prohibition Policy

Adopted

- (1) Quantity of sale of foreign liquor through licence was fixed at six units per month per individual.
- (2) The number of closure days of excise shops increased from 9 to 24 in a year. Besides, the Collector of the district was empowered to order the closure of excise shops for any four days whenever necessity arises.
- (3) The number of liquor shops was reduced gradually and, in 1963, the number of excise shops in wet areas of the District remained 49.
- (4) The strength of out-still liquor was reduced from 45° to 50° U.P. and 60° to 70° U.P.

- (5) Possession of opium was totally prohibited from the 1st of April 1959. As the abrupt stoppage of supplies of opium would have affected the health of addicts to a considerable extent, arrangements were made for the issue of opium to registered opium addicts. The quantity of opium issued to such addicts was also reduced gradually. The limit of possession of *ganja* and *bhang* was also fixed at 20 and 115 grams, respectively.
- (6) To pave the way for prohibition the duty on country spirit was increased with a view to reducing its consumption. In Bilaspur town it was increased to Rs. 30 from Rs. 24.36 per proof gallon, while in the interior of Bilaspur Tahsil the increase was from Rs. 18 to Rs. 25 per proof gallon. In the tahsils of Mungeli and Sakti the duty was increased to Rs. 18 from Rs. 13.44 per proof gallon.
- (7) Limits were fixed for the possession of *mahua*, which formed the base of country liquor. In urban areas of the District the limit was about five kilos. Trade in *mahua* flowers without a specific licence was prohibited and transport of those flowers was allowed only on the permit system.

In 1948, the work of propaganda in favour of prohibition was entrusted to the Adult and Social Education Scheme. With a view to preventing addicts from visiting the areas of shopless zones to quench their thirst for drinks, possession of country liquor in shopless zones was prohibited since 1949. Subsequently, the Tribal Welfare Department was also entrusted with the work of prohibition propaganda. During Prohibition Week, dates of which were from 2nd to 8th October, all Government departments at district level participate in the celebrations and propagate the evils of drinks through speeches, cinema-shows, posters, etc.

In furtherance of prohibition policy the Government added the following measures since 1953. With a view to checking the misuse of medicinal and toilet preparations for purposes of intoxication, Prohibition Amendment Act was brought into force from 14th November 1953. Rules in respect of issue of foreign liquor permits for private consumption were made more stringent. A full-time Prohibition Propagandist was appointed with effect from 15th August 1953 for the State. He was provided with a van and cinema apparatus. Besides exhibiting films, depicting evils of drink, he organises meetings to explain the evils of drink.

In spite of these measures there was increase in the number of detected

crimes under the Prohibition Act. The offences against the Act were more pronounced in the rural areas and among the menial classes. The year-wise figures of offences in liquor, *opium* and *ganja* for the period from 1949 to 1971-72 have been given in Appendix. Madhya Pradesh Madya Nishedh Vidhi Nirasan Adhyadesh (No. 9 of 1967) promulgated by the Governor repealed the Prohibition Act, 1938, with effect from 1st September, 1967.

Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes

The total population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as enumerated in the Census of 1961 in Bilaspur District was 3,67,563 (18.18 per cent of the total population of the District) and 3,67,092 persons (18.16 per cent of the total population of the District), respectively. These figures include the number of persons belonging to the 15 Castes (including synonymous groups thereof) of the whole District and 22 Tribes of Bilaspur and Katghora tahsils alone, 'scheduled' by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956. In 1971, their respective population rose to 4,22,125 and 4,17,614 in the District. Thus Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes accounted for about 34.31 per cent of the District population in 1971.

In pursuance of the Directive Principles of the Constitution to provide better opportunities—economic, social, educational, etc., the State Government took effective measures for the advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes. Some of the important measures undertaken by the Government in the District during recent years are listed below. In 1956 a special multi-purpose tribal development block was organised in Pondiupora of Katghora tahsil. During the period from 1956-57 to 1960-61 the State Government spent Rs. 32.10 lakhs for the welfare of the Backward Classes and Tribes. Details of the expenditure on various schemes, physical targets fixed and targets achieved are given in the Appendix.

Educational Welfare

A sum of Rs. 19.98 lakhs was spent by the Government for opening 103 primary and 14 middle schools and 14 hostels for the students of Scheduled Tribes in the District during the years 1956-57 to 1960-61. Similarly, Rs. 2.90 lakhs were distributed among 932 Scheduled Tribe students as stipends and scholarships for middle and higher secondary education during the same period. Again during of the period under review, 360 scholars of the Scheduled Castes in the District studying in middle and higher secondary schools received Rs. 0.48 lakh as stipends and scholarships. A sum of Rs. 0.14 lakh was also spent on the *Balwadis*, established for the students of the age-group of 2 to 5 years. As many as 458 students of Other Backward Classes were

recipients of scholarships and stipends amounting to Rs. 0.62 lakh during the Second Plan period for their studies in middle or higher secondary schools and colleges. For the organisation and management of the six primary, one middle and one higher secondary schools opened for them a sum of Rs. 1.05 lakhs was spent.

In spite of these efforts it was found in 1961 that the rate of literacy was very low among the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. According to the Census of 1961 only 34 377 persons (12 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population of the District) were literate. The number of literate females among them was negligible, being only 3,299. Similarly, only 31,756 persons of the Scheduled Tribes (less than 10 per cent of the total Scheduled Tribe population of the District) were found literate. The number of literate women among them was only 2,730. Seeing this serious backwardness in respect of literacy among these classes the Government increased the number of schools, scholarships and other educational facilities for them during the Third Five Year Plan period and subsequent years. Details regarding the number of schools and students are given below.

Table No. XVII-1

No. of Schools & Students

Period and Category of Schools	No. of		No. of Students					
	Schools		Adivasi		Harijan		Others	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Third Plan Period	290	5	41,623	9,925	10,442	1,660	11,176	5,056
Primary								
Middle	33	3	5,964	386	790	52	1,542	289
Higher Secondary	3	—	122	—	81	—	—	—
Ashram	—	3	—	315	—	—	—	—

Source:—Collector, Bilaspur District.

Thus during the years 1961-62 to 1965-66, there were 63,241 boys and 7,641 girls of these Castes, Tribes and Classes in the primary; 8,246 boys and 727 girls in the middle; 203 boys in the higher secondary; and 315 girls in the *ashram* schools. For teaching them, 181 Adivasi male and 3 female teachers in the schools for adivasis, 85 *Harijan* male and 6 female teachers in the schools for *Harijans*, and 522 male and 60 female teachers of Other Backward Classes in other schools were engaged.

During the Third Five Year Plan period, with a view to encouraging students of these Classes, the Government awarded scholarships, stipends, tuition-fees, etc., to them. Details of these are given below.

Table No. XVII-2

No. of Students Benefited and Amount Spent on Scholarships

Category of Scholarship, etc.	Number of Beneficiaries			Amount Spent (in Rs.)		
	Adivasi	Harijan	Others	Adivasi	Harijan	Others
State Government	27,472	16,019	2,448	855,665	10,59,172	1,80,939
Post-matric	161	401	72	58,938	1,46,618	35,725
Tuition-Fee	1,187	2,715	—	87,970	1,88,569	—
Hostel	4,693	1,208	—	12,81,800	2,92,750	—
Ashram	315	—	—	69,300	—	—

Source:—Collector, Bilaspur District.

In subsequent years upto 1968-69, the position of schools and students was as shown below.

Table No. XVII-3

Progress of Education among Backward Classes and Tribes (1966-67 to 1960-69)

Year	Category of Schools	No. of Schools		No. of Students					
		Boys	Girls	Adivasi		Harijans		Others	
				Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1966-67	Primary	297	8	10,937	3,034	2,225	614	2,445	1,357
-do-	Middle	37	4	1,426	118	212	24	469	69
-do-	Higher Secondary	4	—	15	1	39	—	—	—
-do-	Ashram Schools	—	5	—	110	—	20	—	—

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1967-68	Primary	372	13	7,255	1,738	1,057	427	5,871	3,182
-do-	Middle	38	5	1,319	74	245	20	1,317	310
-do-	Higher Secondary	8	—	396	11	58	1	518	34
-do-	Ashram Schools	—	5	—	110	—	20	—	—
1968-69	Primary	372	13	9,019	2,308	1,548	527	7,120	3,599
-do-	Middle	38	5	1,433	109	280	24	1,469	354
-do-	Higher Secondary	8	—	393	9	74	3	432	53
-do-	Ashram Schools	—	5	—	110	—	20	—	—

Source:—Collector, Bilaspur District.

Thus in 1966-67, the number of primary and middle schools for these Castes, Tribes and Classes increased to 305 from 295 and 41 from 39, respectively, of the previous year. The number of higher secondary schools and ashrams also rose to 4 from 3 and to 5 from 3 of the previous year, respectively. The number of primary, middle and higher secondary schools further increased to 385, 43, and 8, respectively, in 1967-68. Number of ashrams witnessed no change in the year. In 1968-69 no change occurred in the number of all these institutions. The number of boys and girls attending these schools also gradually increased every year, except the number of boys in primary schools in 1967-68. Similarly, the number of teachers of all categories too increased every year.

Economic Welfare

For the economic welfare of the Scheduled Tribes, the Government undertook various schemes during the Second Five Year Plan period. Eight farms were attached to the middle schools of the Scheduled Second Plan Period areas and Rs. 0.68 lakh were spent on them. Five multi-purpose co-operative societies were organised for them and Rs. 0.56 lakh were spent on their working. Rs. 0.02 lakh and Rs. 0.06 lakh were spent on crop competition and for the purchase of four bulls of good breed, respectively.

In spite of these efforts, the economic condition of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the District remained below subsistence level. According to the Census of 1961, the livelihood pattern of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was as under:

Table No. XVII-4

Distribution of Working Population of Scheduled Castes and Tribes in 1961

	Scheduled Caste		Scheduled Tribes	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1. Total Population	1,81,158	1,86,405	1,82,670	1,84,422
2. Total Workers	1,13,092	1,06,904	1,17,222	1,10,706
3. As Cultivators	75,049	74,117	86,819	82,092
4. As Agricultural labourers	24,369	25,996	22,071	23,570
5. In Mining, forestry, livestock, etc.	2,729	702	2,370	793
6. In Household Industry	4,139	2,176	2,778	2,245
7. In Manufacturing	890	895	320	280
8. In Construction	748	259	383	166
9. In Trade and Commerce	569	435	287	321
10. In Transport and Communication	1,031	154	425	39
11. In Other Services	3,568	2,170	1,769	1,200

Source:—Bilaspur District Census Handbook, 1961.

It is evident from the figures mentioned above that the participation rate of about two-thirds of the population engaged for livelihood is a reflection on poor economic condition of these Castes and Tribes and most of them were engaged in primary sector alone. This sector is relatively much less remunerative for the efforts undertaken.

Taking into consideration the poverty of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the District, the Government introduced some more schemes for their economic advancement during the Third Plan period. The Third Plan Period problem of landless persons was a serious one and, therefore, the State Government introduced a scheme of allotment of agricultural land to landless families of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. Thus, during the Third Plan period the Government alone distributed 1,694 acres of land to them. In addition to this, the Bhoodan Board also distributed agricultural lands to the landless families of the District. Thus the available combined figures of land allotment were as follows.

In 1961-62 about 849 acres of land were allotted to landless Scheduled Tribe families, while about 483 acres of land were given to 218 families of the Scheduled Castes. In 1962-63 and 1963-64, 118 and 125 landless Scheduled Tribe families of the District, respectively, received about 460 and 218 acres of land. In 1962-63 about 468 acres of land were given to 116 landless Scheduled Caste families, and in 1963-64 the Government alone allotted 117 acres of land to 89 Scheduled Caste families. The scheme continued during the subsequent years too. In a few recent years, subsequent to the Third Plan Period, the Government allotted land as shown below.

Table No. XVII-5

Land Allotted amongst Backward Classes and Tribes (1966-67 to 1968-69)

Year	Land allotted in Acres			Total
	Adivasis	Harijans	Others	
1966-67	27	10	73	110
1967-68	23	27	95	145
1968-69	88	42	12	142

Source:—Collector, Bilaspur District.

The Government also allotted Rs. 52,600 as soil conservation subsidy to the Scheduled Tribe families for 1,315 acres of land during the Third Plan period, while the amounts of agricultural subsidy given to 198 and 103 families belonging to the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes, respectively in the same period were Rs. 99,000 and 51,500.

The State Government started a scheme of constructing grain *golas* (storage) for the welfare of people of the District in general and Backward classes and Tribes in particular. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan period, there were 26 such *golas* in the District. The number of grain *golas* increased to 43 by the end of 1965-66.

Co-operative Credit Movement

Out of the 24 Development Blocks of the District, the following nine Blocks cover the 'scheduled area' of the District.

Bilaspur Tahsil:

(1) Kota, (2) Marwahi and (3) Gaurella.

Katghora Tahsil:

(4) Katghora, (5) Pondiuprora, (6) Pali, (7) Korba and (8) Kartala

Mungeli Tahsil:

and (9) Pandariya

In these nine Development Blocks, in 1966-67, there were 228 primary co-operative credit societies, namely the village level service co-operative societies providing credit facilities to their member-cultivators for purposes of agricultural operations. These societies also supplied them chemical fertilizers, seed and agricultural implements. During 1966-67 these societies financed their members to the tune of Rs. 27,36,000 for agricultural purposes.

By the end of June, 1967, the following was the position of these societies.

Total number of societies	228
Membership	37,265
Share capital	Rs. 12,25,849
Working capital	Rs. 44,14,949

In addition to these societies, the Tribal Welfare Department organised 25 multi-purpose co-operative societies for providing their members all consumers' articles, foodgrains, sugar, etc. Their position in June 1967 was as under.

Membership	1,463
Share capital	Rs. 17,127
Working capital	Rs. 2,47,241

All these multi-purpose societies, organised by the Department under its plan schemes for the betterment of the Backward Classes and Tribes, received financial assistance from the Department. In years subsequent to the Third Plan period the number of these societies increased to 49 and the Government sanctioned Rs. 6,847, Rs. 13,773 and Rs. 10,921 for them in 1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69, respectively. During the same period, the Government constructed 596, and 490 irrigation wells in the *Adivasi* areas at a cost of Rs. 3,31,855, and Rs. 28,145, respectively.

During the Third Plan period 320 and 39 hutments, respectively, were

constructed for the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes on which a total amount of Rs. 2,69,250 was spent. In the years 1966-67 and 1968-69, the Government constructed in all 30 hutments, spending a total amount of Rs. 12,600. By the end of Third Plan period there were 164 *bunds* constructed for the Scheduled Castes at a cost of Rs. 1,75,450. During the Plan period, in all 186 drinking water wells were constructed at a cost of Rs. 4,22,000 for the *Adivasis* and Harijans. Further 7 and 17 such wells respectively, were constructed in 1967-68 and 1968-69 for the Tribes, spending Rs. 14,704. An approach road of 13 km. with three culverts was also constructed during the Third Plan period, the amount spent being Rs. 19,000.

The Government spent Rs. 6,00,868 on stipends and scholarships awarded to 667 *adivasi* students studying in the Industrial Training Institute, Korba, during the Third Plan period. During the same period, 45 *Adivasi*, 238 Harijan and 201 Other Backward Classes students received training at Scholarships and Industrial Training Institute, Koni and the Government spent Rs. 89,800 on them. About Rs. 1,82,882 and Rs. 4,41,899 were given to 310 and 298 *Adivasi* students as stipend for training at Korba in 1966-67 and 1967-68, respectively. In 1968-69, Rs. 4,90,188 were given as stipends to 298 *Adivasi* students. The Industrial Training Institute, Koni gave training to 9, 30, and 21 *Adivasi* students and 59,215 and 102 Harijan students in 1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69, respectively, and the Government awarded them stipends worth Rs. 31,100, Rs. 41,050 and Rs. 8,116 in the same period. Similarly, in 1968-69, 564 *Adivasis* received Rs. 92,443 under the Grow More Food Scheme.

Charitable Endowment**Public Trusts**

With a view to systematising all the public trusts Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951 was made applicable to the public trusts of the District. Under this Act, all these trusts were registered with the Registrar of Public Trust, i.e., the Collector of the District. In March 1973 there were 70 public trusts in the District (excluding Katghora Tahsil). Of these, 20 were in Bilaspur Tahsil, 22 in Janjgir Tahsil, 5 in Mungeli Tahsil and 15 in Sakti Tahsil. The number of trusts purely religious in their objectives was 53. About 15 trusts were registered for the twin objectives of religious and social advancement. Two trusts, one each exclusively for social and educational uplift, also existed in Mungeli Tahsil. The oldest trust to exist in the District was that of Jagannath Math at Champa. It was established in about the year 1820. Late Shri Vishwanath Singh founded it.

Wakfs

The number of Wakfs in the District, registered with the Madhya

Pradesh Wakfs Board was 37 in 1969. All of them were for religious objectives. In Bilaspur Tahsil, there were 21 wakfs in 1973. Of these, 5 were having an annual income of more than Rs. 1,000 from various sources.

Charitable Endowments

The Charitable Endowments Act, 1890, governs the Endowments of the District. Under the Act, all funds of Endowments are invested in the State Treasurer, the Secretary, Madhya Pradesh Government, Finance Department. A few endowments of the District are important and their details are briefly narrated below:—

In 1933, one charitable endowment was created with the initial amount of Rs. 600, donated by A.I. Meyhew and R.M. Spence for awarding two silver medals to the two best pupil-teachers of the Normal School. The medals were to be purchased from the interest on the amount. The Fund is administered by the District Educational Officer, Bilaspur.

Besides, there are two other charitable endowments in the District and they are under the administrative control of the Collector, Bilaspur. One of them, known as Shrimati Basanti Bai Dixit Scholarship and Pandit Deokinandan Dixit Medal Fund was created with an initial investment of Rs. 1,500 in 1931. The other one, also with the initial investment of Rs. 1,500, is known as Pandit Sheoratan Prasad Dixit Scholarship and Pandit Deokinandan Dixit Medal Fund. It was established in 1932.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation of the District in Union Legislature

In a sense, the history of representation of the District in the union legislature dates back to the year 1909, when on the 15th of November, the Indian Councils Act, 1909 came into operation in the Central Provinces and Berar of which Bilaspur District formed a part. The subsequent representation of the District in the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India was, however, very limited, as the District formed only a part of the province-wide constituencies of the Central Provinces. Secondly, then the voting rights were also very restricted.

The Governor-General-in-Council made regulations for the nominations and elections of additional members to his Legislative Council. According to those regulations, the Governor-General called upon the district councils and municipal committees and land-holders of the Province, respectively, to elect one Additional Member to the Legislative Council. In this way, the Central Provinces was allotted only two seats in the Council and for that purpose it formed two non-territorial constituencies.

The members, other than those appointed *ex-officio*, of all the District Councils and Municipal committees of the Province and voters on the electoral roll of the land-holders selected their respective delegates to form their two respective electoral colleges to vote for electing two Additional Members to represent them in the Council. In the case of Bilaspur District, the District Council and Bilaspur Municipality were authorised to select their delegates to vote for the election of an additional member to the Legislative Council. The land-holders of the District, on the other hand, selected two delegates to form their province-wide electoral college for electing their respective additional member, representing their interests in the Council.

Subsequently, when the Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces was formed in 1914-15, the above procedure underwent a

change, in pursuance of modified regulations for nominations and elections of Additional Members of the Governor-General's Council. The right of electing an Additional Member to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, conferred on the District councils and Municipal committees, was transferred to the non-official members of the Provincial Legislative Council. These members, since then, elected one Additional Member, formerly elected by local bodies. The constituency of landholders remained undisturbed.

A new page was turned in the constitutional annals of the country in 1920, when under the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1919, two Central Legislatures, the Indian Legislative Council and the Council of State, were organised. The Central Province, excluding certain zamindari and *jagirdari* estates and some 'scheduled' backward areas of the Provinces formed one constituency for the election of a member for the Council of State, while the Province, excluding above estates and area, was represented by five members elected by its four non-territorial Indian Legislative Assembly constituencies. Bilaspur District was a part of the following three constituencies.

- (1) Double-Member Central Provinces Hindi Division (Non-Muhammedan),
- (2) Central Provinces (Muhammadan) and
- (3) Central Provinces Land-holders.

Even after the passing of the Government of India Act, 1935, this position of representation remained undisturbed as regards this District, till 1950, when the Republican Constitution of India was inaugurated.

Under the new Constitution, delimitation of constituencies in India for electing members to the House of People or Lok Sabha, was effected under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1951. During the First General Elections of 1951-52 to Lok Sabha, the area of the District was covered by the two Double-Member Parliamentary constituencies, represented by four members.

- (1) Double-member Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur (one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes) and

- (2) Double-Member Bilaspur (one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes).

Under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order of 1956, the area of the District was covered by (1) Bilaspur, (2) Janjgir, (3) Double-Member Shahdol (one seat reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) and (4) Double Member Baloda Bazar (one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes) parliamentary constituencies. Thus during the second general elections of 1957, the District elected six representatives for Lok Sabha. By the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961, (being the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956, as amended and revised by the Election Commission under Section 7 of the Two-Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961), the District was covered by four Single-Member parliamentary constituencies, namely, (1) Bilaspur, (2) Janjgir, (3) Baloda Bazar (reserved for the Scheduled Castes) and (4) Shahdol (reserved for the Scheduled Tribes), for the third general election to Lok Sabha, held in 1962.

For the fourth general elections to Lok Sabha, held in 1967, the District was divided into four Single-Member parliamentary constituencies, namely, (1) Bilaspur, (2) Janjgir (reserved for the Scheduled Castes), (3) Mahasamund and (4) Mandla (reserved for the Scheduled Tribes).

For the fifth general elections to Lok Sabha named as Mid-Term Poll held in 1971, the District was divided into Janjgir (reserved for Scheduled Castes), Bilaspur and Mahasamund parliamentary constituencies.

Representation of the District in State Legislature

In the Central Provinces and Berar, the representative Government was restricted to Local Bodies, and the Legislative Authority for the Central Provinces was the Council of the Governor-General of India for making laws and regulations, prior to the 10th November, 1913. Legislation for Berar was till then effected by Notification issued by the Governor-General in Council, under the power conferred on him by the Indian (Foreign Jurisdiction) Order in Council, 1902. By a Proclamation, the Central Provinces and Berar, till then administered by the Chief Commissioner, was declared to be a Province with effect from 10th November, 1913 and the provisions of the Indian Councils Acts, enacted during the years 1861 to 1909, were made applicable thereto. The Chief Commissioner's Legislative Council for the Province was established. For the nomination and election of members to this Legislative Council, the Governor-General in Council issued necessary regulations, on the 15th of November 1913. Under these regulations, the provincial council of the Chief Commissioner was

ordinarily constituted of ten elected and fifteen nominated official and non-official members.

The municipal councillors of Bilaspur, alongwith their counterparts in other places were entitled to exercise their right for electing a member to the Provincial Council. The district councillors and land-holders of the District, alongwith their counterparts in the Divisions of Nagpur and Chhattisgarh, elected one member each from their respective constituencies, to sit in the Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner. These details of elections made it clear that the representation of the District was very limited, for the District was represented in the Council only by three members. The first Council session was inaugurated on the 17th of August 1914. The term of this elected council expired in July, 1917, when elections were held for the second council which functioned till 1920. The representation of the District in the council underwent practically no change.

The Government of India Act, 1919, made provisions for constituting the Central Provinces and Berar into a Governor's Province. These provisions and the Central Provinces Legislative Council Rules came into force from the 17th of December, 1920. The first session of this reformed Legislative Council was held in January, 1921. The general constitution of this new council included 36 elected and 34 nominated members.

The Single Member Chhattisgarh Division Non-Muhammadan Urban Constituency included the Municipality of Bilaspur alongwith those at Raipur, Dhamtari and Durg and Railway Settlements of the first three places. Bilaspur District formed a Single-Member Non-Muhammadan Rural Constituency. The District also formed part of the wider Single-Member constituencies, namely, Chhattisgarh Division Muhammadan Rural Constituency, Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Land-holders Constituency, Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association Constituency, and Central Provinces Commerce and Industry Constituency. In this sense the District was represented in the first Reformed 36 Member Legislative Council of the Central Provinces and Berar. The Council functioned from January, 1921 to October, 1923.

The second council commenced work in January, 1924 and lasted till September, 1926. The representation of the District and the old constituencies remained undisturbed. Nagpur University Constituency was formed in 1923 and it elected a member to sit in the council. Bilaspur District also formed a part of this newly created constituency. The number of elected members was thus increased by one in the total strength of the council.

The third council, which was dissolved in August, 1930, was constituted in January, 1927. Representation of the District witnessed no change. However, the District of Mandla was given the right of voting. It formed a Non-Muhammadan Rural Constituency and this resulted in an increase of total number of members and number of elected members of the council. It may be mentioned that in September, 1927, the women of the province, for the first time, received the right to contest elections to the council. The fourth legislative council of the Province, constituted in December, 1930, enjoyed extensions till March, 1937. The representation of the District remained unchanged in this council.

Under the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1935, the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly was constituted and for the elections to this Assembly delimitation of constituencies was effected. Elections were held in 1937. The Province was divided into various classes of constituencies and 112 seats were allotted to them. The total number of electors was 17,41,364 and, of the 112 seats, 20 seats were reserved for Scheduled Castes. In all 84 seats were general, 14 Muhammadan, 3 for women, 1 for Backward Classes, 3 for landholders, 2 for labours, 2 for commerce and 1 each for Europeans, Anglo-Indians and University.

Bilaspur District was represented in the first Legislative Assembly of the Central Provinces and Berar by the members elected from the constituencies named below (The numbers against them show the strength of voters in the constituencies).

1. Raipur-Bilaspur-Durg (General Urban) 14,467.
2. Double-Member Bilaspur (General Rural) 33,366.
3. Double-Member Mungeli (General Rural) 27,444.
4. Single-Member Katghora (General Rural) 32,203.
5. Double-Member Janjgir (General Rural) 41,044.
6. Raipur-Bilaspur-Durg (Muhammadan Rural) 5,960.

Of the three Double-Member Constituencies one each of the seats was reserved for Scheduled Castes. The District also formed part of some of the non-territorial constituencies such as Commerce, University, Land-holders, etc. In the elections of 1946, the representation of the District in the Assembly remained unchanged.

The Republican Constitution of India came into force in 1950. In the first general elections under the new Constitution, in 1951-52, the District was divided into 14 constituencies of which five were Double-First General Member. Thus 19 members, elected from this District, represented it in the newly formed Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly or the Vidhan Sabha. Details of these constituencies are given in Appendix.

At the time of the Reorganisation of States, the boundaries of the District were changed on account of some territorial exchanges brought about in the case of Raigarh and Bilaspur Districts. These changes were effected in the names and extent of some of the Assembly constituencies, reconstituted by the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order 1956, before the second general elections to Assembly took place in 1957. Details of these constituencies, as they existed during the Second General Elections, are given in Appendix.

In pursuance of the Two-Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, all the Double-Member constituencies of the District were abolished and 19 Single-Member constituencies were formed. Thus during the third general elections of 1962, 19 members from 19 constituencies were elected to represent the District in the Madhya Pradesh Vidhan Sabha. Details of constituencies of the District as they stood during the General Elections of 1962 are given in Appendix.

Prior to the fourth general elections, the constituencies of the District were reorganised. In spite of changes, the number of constituencies and the number of representatives remained unchanged. Thus during the general elections of 1967, the position of these constituencies was as given in Appendix. During the Fifth General Elections of 1972, no change was made in respect of any of the constituencies of the District. The details of the position of these constituencies are given in Appendix.

Political Parties¹

Congress

In the first general elections of 1951-52, the party set up four candidates for both the Two-Member parliamentary constituencies, namely, Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur and Bilaspur under which the areas of the District were distributed. The

party candidates succeeded in capturing all these four seats. The congress candidates fought 17 of the 19 Legislative Assembly seats of the District and 16 of them were declared successful. The party lost the seat of Pandaria and was absent in respect of the seat of Two-Member Janjgir-Pamgarh constituency.

In the second general elections of 1957 the party set up six members to fight elections in parliamentary constituencies of Bilaspur, Janjgir, Two-Member Baloda-Bazar and Two-Member Shabdol, which covered some parts of the District. The party succeeded in capturing 11 of these six seats. The Congress party also fought 19 seats of the 14 Legislative Assembly constituencies (five of which being double-member constituencies) of the District and succeeded in capturing 14 seats, losing seats of Lormi, Sakti, Two-Member Mungeli and Chandrapur constituencies.

During the third general elections of 1962, the Congress candidate contested Janjgir, Shabdol and Baloda-Bazar parliamentary constituencies, which covered part of the District. The candidates from Baloda-Bazar and Janjgir succeeded in the elections. Of the 19 Legislative Assembly constituencies of the District all were fought by the Congress and won 16 of them. In constituencies of Barpali, Lormi and Champa the party lost seats.

In the fourth general elections of 1967, the area of the District was included in parliamentary constituencies of Bilaspur, Janjgir, Mahasamund and Mandla. The Congress party fought and won all the four Lok Sabha seats. Of the 19 Legislative Assembly seats, Congress candidates fought all and won 17, losing two seats of Tanakhar and Takhatpur Vidhan Sabha constituencies.

In the Mid-Term poll of 1971, the Congress party fought from Janjgir, Bilaspur and Mahasamund parliamentary constituencies and won all the three seats. Of the 19 Legislative Assembly seats, Congress candidates fought all and won 15 seats, losing four seats of Katghora, Tanakhar, Sakti, and Malkharoda.

Krishak Mazdoor Praja Party

In the general elections of 1951-52 to Lok Sabha, the party contested only one seat of the Two-Member Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur Lok Sabha seat, but lost it. As regards Vidhan Sabha elections, the party unsuccessfully contested the Vidhan Sabha seats of Chandrapur, Mungeli and Janjgir-Pamgarh.

Jana Sangh

In the first general elections, Jana Sangh contested only one of Two-Member parliamentary constituency of Bilaspur, but lost it. As regards Vidhan Sabha seats, the party set up its candidates for Pandaria, Mungeli, Nargoda,

1. Position of all the Political Parties, participating in all the Four General Elections, is shown in five Statements appended at the end of this volume.

Akaltara-Masturi, Baradwar and Champa Vidhan Sabha seats and lost all of them. In the second general elections, the party set up four candidates for the parliamentary seats of Two-Member Shahdol, Bilaspur and Janjgir constituencies, but none of them was successful. In respect of elections to Vidhan Sabha, all the 14 candidates of the party were unsuccessful. In the third general elections also the party remained unsuccessful in all the four parliamentary constituencies, under which the area of the District was covered. Though the party set up 19 candidates for 19 Vidhan Sabha seats of the District only one of them, i.e. from Champ., was successful. In the fourth general elections to Lok Sabha, four candidates of the party contested and lost all the parliamentary constituencies, which included the areas of the District. For elections to Vidhan Sabha, the Jana Sangh set up 18 candidates, but except from Takhatpur Vidhan Sabha constituency, lost all.

In the fifth general elections, i.e. Mid-Term poll of 1971, the party contested from all the three Janjgir, Bilaspur and Mahasamund Lok Sabha constituencies and lost. For elections to Vidhan Sabha, the Jana Sangh set up 19 candidates, but, except from Malkharoda Vidhan Sabha constituency, lost all seats.

Rama Rajya Parishad

The candidates of the Parishad unsuccessfully tried to capture parliamentary seats of Double-Member Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur constituency during the first general Elections to Lok Sabha. The party also set up five candidates for five Vidhan Sabha seats in the first general elections of 1951-52, but out of them only one, contesting the seat of Pandaria, won the election. Others from Mungeli, Takhatpur Janjgir, Pamgarh and Chandrapur were defeated. In the second general elections to Lok Sabha, the only party candidate from Bilaspur parliamentary constituency was defeated. In respect of elections to Vidhan Sabha, six candidates of the party contested the seats of Lormi Two-Member Mungeli, Masturi and Two-Member Kota constituencies and three of them, i.e., two from Mungeli and one from Lormi were elected. In the general elections of 1962, the party tried in vain to capture two parliamentary seats of Bilaspur and Janjgir. In elections to Vidhan Sabha, though the party tried to win 12 of the 19 seats of the District, only one of them from Lormi constituency was declared successful. The party was absent in the fourth general elections of 1967.

Praja Socialist Party

During the second general elections of 1957, the party contested five Lok Sabha seats of Two-member Baloda-Bazar, Janjgir and Two-Member Shahdol constituencies and lost all of them. The party also set up eight candidates for elections to Vidhan Sabha from constituencies of Double-Member-

Kota, Masturi, Katgora, Champa, Akaltara, Nawagarh and Sakti. Of these eight, only one candidate from Sakti succeeded. In the third general elections of 1962, the party set up two candidates for parliamentary seats of Shahdol (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) and Baloda Bazar (Reserved for the Scheduled Castes) and both of them lost the elections. The party also contested Vidhan Sabha seats in Chandrapur, Sakti, Nawagarh, Takhatpur and Belha constituencies, but lost all of them. In the fourth general elections of 1967, the party unsuccessfully contested only one seat of Mandla (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) parliamentary constituency.

Socialist Party

In the general elections of 1951-52, the party unsuccessfully contested the four Lok Sabha seats of Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur and Bilaspur, both Two-Member Lok Sabha constituencies. Similarly, the party also lost all the 16 Vidhan Sabha seats for which it set up its candidates. In the third general elections of 1962 to Lok Sabha, the party fought and won the seat of Shahdol (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) Lok Sabha constituency. The only candidate of the party contesting from Gaurella Vidhan Sabha constituency lost the election.

Samyukta Socialist Party

In the general elections of 1967 to Vidhan Sabha, two party candidates contested the seats of Marwahi (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) and Kota constituencies but both of them were defeated.

Scheduled Castes Federation

In the first general elections of 1951-52, the party candidates contested unsuccessfully only one of the two Lok Sabha seats of Double-Member Bilaspur-Durg-Raipur constituency. The party was absent in elections to Vidhan Sabha. Similarly, two candidates of the party contested Two-Member Baloda Bazar parliamentary constituency election in 1957 and lost.

Swatantra Party

The party set up its candidate for contesting the parliamentary seat of Bilaspur during the third general elections of 1962 and lost it. Similarly, the party candidates contesting Vidhan Sabha seats of Takhatpur, Tanakhar (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes), Masturi (Reserved for the Scheduled Castes) and Belha were also defeated.

Communist Party

The party candidate contested Vidhan Sabha seat of Kota (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) and lost it during the third general elections of 1962.

In the fourth general elections of 1967 also the party candidate contesting election to Vidhan Sabha from Bilaspur constituency was unsuccessful.

Republican Party

In the general elections of 1962, the party candidate fought and lost the only one Baloda-Bazar Lok Sabha seat (Reserved for the Scheduled Castes).

Newspapers

According to the available sources, the publication of *Chhattisgarh Mitra* from Pendra started in 1900 and this can be said to be a beginning of journalism in the District. This magazine was devoted to the advancement of Hindi literature. It ceased publication in 1932 due to financial stringency. This literary journal, edited by Madhao Rao Sapre and Ram Rao Chindholkar, was published by Vaman Bali Ram Lakhe of Raipur.

In the third decade of this century, a Hindi monthly called *Vikas* was started by the Bilaspur District Council. In 1937, a Hindi weekly called *Sachet* also commenced its publication, enjoying a short life. Bilaspur witnessed the publication of a Hindi weekly called *Parakram* from September, 1941. It was closed temporarily in September, 1952 to restart publication in March, 1953. Again, in 1955, it had suspended its publication from July to September, but resumed it in October of the same year.

Prakash, a Hindi weekly from Bilaspur, started publication in 1950 and, after enjoying a life of about two years, ceased in 1952. In 1953, *Lok Mitra*, a Hindi weekly, appeared from Bilaspur and continued till 1966. Another Hindi weekly, which commenced publication in 1953 at Bilaspur was *Toofan*. The weekly continued till 1962. About the same period, for a short time, Bilaspur witnessed the publication of another Hindi weekly, called *Nav Samaj*. In 1953 *Nai Disha*, a Hindi literary quarterly, registered its publication from Bilaspur. This was followed by *Mukti*, a Hindi weekly, which appeared from Bilaspur. Subsequently it ceased and reappeared in 1960 as a mouthpiece of Mahakoshal Dalit Varga Sangh. It seems to have continued till 1964.

The year 1959 witnessed the publication of *Avatar*, a Hindi fortnightly of Sakti Tahsil. It soon suspended its publication. Another Hindi fortnightly, called *Sakti Times*, appeared for some time in the same year from Champa. It reappeared in 1961, but did not continue. The Chhattisgarh Hindi Sahitya Sammelan started its literary quarterly called *Kshitij* in 1960. But this literary quarterly too soon suspended its publication. This was followed by *Mukti Doot*, a Hindi daily, published from Bilaspur. The daily, however, soon ceased its publication. *Income tax and Sales Tax Law Journal*, which started publication

at Bilaspur as an English monthly, ceased after three years. Bilaspur Divisional Co-operative Institute, Bilaspur commenced the publication of its organ *Chhattisgarh Sahakari Sandesh*, a Hindi monthly, devoted to the news and views about the Co-operative movement of the region.

The year 1961 witnessed the publication of *Naya Toofan*, a Hindi weekly, and *Chhattisgarh Gaurava*, a Hindi monthly, both from Bilaspur. The latter was devoted to culture and literature. The former commanded a circulation of about 2,000 copies. *Jana Yajna*, a Hindi monthly, devoted to religion and philosophy, first started its publication from Bilaspur in 1962. It has a circulation of about 2,000 copies. In 1962, also appeared *Bavandar*, a Hindi weekly from Bilaspur, but soon ceased.

Vakta, a Hindi weekly, is being published from Korba since 1966. Two more Hindi Weeklies, called *Bilaspur Times* and *Bilaspur Samachar*, are being published from Bilaspur and both command a circulation of about 2,000 copies.

In spite of this long chain of papers, the reading public of the District mostly depend on the papers published outside the District within or without the State. A few of them, which are in common circulation in the District are mentioned here. Among the dailies figure *Mahakoshal*, *Nai Dunia*, *Naya Bharat* (all three from Raipur) *Hindustan* (Delhi) *Times of India* (Delhi-Bombay) *Hindustan Times* (Delhi) *Times of India* (Delhi-Bombay), *Statesman* and *Amrit Bazar Patrika* (Calcutta). The weeklies include *Dharma Yuga*, *Current*, *Bliiz*, *Illustrated Weekly*, *Femina*, (all from Bombay), etc.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

There has been a fairly long tradition of voluntary social service organisations in the District. These organisations have done significant work with the object of serving the community in the various spheres of life. The first to be established in the District, on 28th August, 1876, was Buddhi Prasarak Sabha, Bilaspur. It aimed at spreading useful knowledge and creating a liking for literature amongst the public at Bilaspur. Immediately after its establishment, nearly forty persons enrolled themselves as its members. In the next decade, in September, 1887, a Reading Club was established at Bilaspur. A similar organisation, called the Chantapura Reading Club, was established in 1895 at Bilaspur. This institution was not a registered body.

A number of voluntary social service organisations of the District are working in the field of Social Welfare. The activities of some of the important organisations of the District are given below.

The Prasuti Mandir was established in February, 1945, by R.G. Dixit of Bilaspur. In fact, the institution is a branch of Matri Sewa Sangh, Nagpur, which is a registered body. The Prasuti Mandir advises and Ashok Prasuti gives treatment to women during pre-natal, natal and post-natal stages. It is a cosmopolitan institution, where patients of all castes and creeds are treated without any distinction.

The Cricket Club was established in 1947 at Bilaspur. The institution is affiliated to Madhya Pradesh Cricket Association, Indore. It conducts cricket tournaments in the city and helps other clubs by supplying City Cricket them with games material. The average number of its members is nearly 30. Nearly 50 persons are being benefited by it annually.

The Vyayamshala was started in 1950 by Munialal Shukla, the founder president of the institution. It aims at training persons in Indian Physical exercises and wrestling and thereby improving their health in general. The trainees of the Vyayamshala are prominent participants of local wrestling bouts, which are held annually on the occasion of Nag-Panchami. The average number of persons benefited by the Vyayamshala is nearly fifty.

The Parishad was founded at Bilaspur in 1953 by M.K. Chitale and was registered in 1955-56. The main aim of the Parishad is to revive Sanskrit language by making it simple, popular and easily understandable. Bilaspur Sanskrit The institution is affiliated to Sanskrit Vishwa Parishad, Bombay. Its members also include persons who are either patrons or life-members or special members. A number of persons visit its library daily to study Sanskrit books. The Parishad also invites distinguished persons from time to time to deliver speeches before large gatherings, in order to popularise simple Sanskrit among the public. The number of its members is nearly 100. Apart from membership fees, its income sources include donation received from persons and discretionary grants received from local bodies.

The Trust was founded in 1954 by the citizens of the town. It aims at educational and cultural advancement and physical and social welfare of the people. To achieve these ends, the Trust has opened a higher Akaltara Education Trust, Akaltara secondary school, a club and a library at Akaltara. It is a registered body and is managed by a working committee consisting of 15 members. The Trust has constructed separate buildings for each of its units. It has also its own playground covering about 10 acres of land. The average number of students studying in

the Higher Secondary School is 800. The Club of the Trust has got its dramatic branch, which possesses full equipment for dramas to be staged in open-air theatre. The institution receives grant-in-aid from the Education Department of the State.

Shri Prasad Sahitya Kutir, Thathari, Bilaspur, was established at Thathari in 1954. It aims at creating reading consciousness among the masses.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Adbhar (22°55' N.; 83°0' E.)

This important large village of Sakti Tahsil is situated at a distance of about 11 kilometres to the southeast of the tahsil headquarters and about 64 kilometres from Bilaspur, the District headquarters. The village is connected with Sakti by a road on which buses ply in fair weather.

There are two ornamental doorways of an old ruined temple of a Devi in the village. One of these, the gateway of an enclosure, is severe in outline and very much akin to some of the later cave doorways, such as are noticed at Ajanta in Jalgaon district of Maharashtra State. The other doorway, having sculptured jambs like those found at Rajim and Sirpur in Raipur district, is an entrance to the shrine. The corner of each jamb bears a Naga figure, the tails of which run up the sides and along the lintel. Here the tails meet a little central figure, perhaps of Garuda. An image of Mahishasura Mardini, now worshipped as of Kali, and a Jain seated figure are placed in a hut, erected on the site of the above temple. With a view to conserving the remains of the temple a few neat masonry buttresses were constructed to support its old piers, columns and jambs. The floor was laid with paving stones filling up all holes.¹ Recently, encroachments were removed and wire-fencing was provided around the temple. The area of the temple was also levelled.²

The village yielded a copper plate grant registering the grant of village Kontinika³ in Ashtadvaravishya to one Brahmana, Narayana Upadhyaya, by Maha Nannaraja, son of Tivaradeva of the Panduwamshi line. The grant is preserved in Mahant Ghyasidas Memorial Museum, Raipur. Adbhar has also other remains of ancient temples with fragmentary inscriptions, which are only partly deciphered. One of the inscriptions refers to a Mahashravana and a Kesari⁴.

1. Archaeological Survey Report, 1922-23, p. 51.
2. Indian Archaeology, A Review, 1955-56, p. 41.
3. *ibid.* 1956-57, p. 39; B.C. Jain, *Utkirna Lekha*, pp. 176-78.
4. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in Central Provinces and Berar*, p. 135.

A number of old tanks and traces of old forts, with moats round them, are situated in the village. Some of the tanks of the village are used for pisciculture. Cotton weaving in handlooms is an important cottage industry of the village, which has primary and middle schools, allopathic dispensary, post office, and *gram* and *nyaya* panchayats. Bi-weekly markets are held here on Mondays and Thursdays.

The area of Adbhar is 1,153.35 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, its population was 3,507 persons.

Akaltara (22°05' N.; 82°20' E.)

Since the Census of 1961 this place in Janjgir Tahsil has been classified as a town. It is the fourth railway station from Bilaspur on the line connecting the latter town with Calcutta. A road connects the town with the tahsil headquarters, which is about 16 kilometres.

The place appears to be an old one and it is supposed that the name Akaltara is possibly derived from Akaldeva, the younger brother of Prithvdeva II of the Haihaya dynasty of Ratanpur. Akaldeva's name is mentioned in an inscription kept at Bilaspur and originally found at Mahammadpur village lying about three kilometres from Akaltara. A number of temples built in a modern patchwork style with brick and other materials, taken from older buildings, are standing on the site of older buildings. It is said that the place had an ancient temple, the exterior of which was profusely sculptured with rows of statues as at Khajuraho or at Narayanpur. Of the old buildings, two temples and an erection, known as the *mahal* or palace, which is of a very modest dimension, exist at the place. Discovery of two important inscriptions, originally brought from Kotgarh¹ (a village about two kilometres from Akaltara), was made here. One of these has been affixed to the Siddheshwara temple built by the former *malguzar* almost a century ago. This record refers to the Kalachuri kings of Ratanpur and the names of the members of one of their feudatory families. We are then told that Vallabharaja of that family, who is said to have overrun the Ladaha country and to have reduced the king of Gauda, constructed a temple to Revanta, son of Saptashva or Sun, a *vahali* or stables for beasts of burden and attached to a pleasure house a tank, called Vallabhasagara² after him. This undated record can be assigned to near about the Kalachuri year 893 (A.D. 1141).

1. Kotgarh appears to be Kotapatian of Ratanpur Badal Mahal inscription (now deposited in the Central Museum, Nagpur) of the rulers of Talahari Mandala (Hiralal, *Inscriptions in Central Provinces and Berar*, p. 127).
2. Probably at Kotgarh to which place the record originally belonged.

The other inscription, now removed to the Mahant Ghyasidas Memorial Museum, Raipur, records names of Ratanpur kings and queens. Like the first one it is also of the age of King Prithvideva II of Ratanpur. It is now fragmentary, as it lost its left hand portion. It praises Vallabharaja whom Lachhalladevi, the queen of King Ratnadeva II, treated as her adopted son. Vallabharaja is said to have constructed a temple, dedicated to Shiva, probably at Kotgarh¹, to which place the record originally belonged.

Akaltara is a growing trade centre, where considerable amount of trade in paddy is carried on. The town has a fine tank which is used for pisciculture. It has two middle and one higher secondary school, veterinary hospital, artificial insemination unit, backyard poultry unit, a co-operative and land mortgage bank, sub-post, telegraph and public-call offices, etc.

It has an area of 1,971.22 hectares and in 1961 its population increased to 8,164, from 2,100 in 1901.

Kotgarh, adjoining Akaltara, formerly consisted of two distinct places close to each other, named Kot (citadel) and Garh (fort). The place having *garh* is now known as Village Bargawa, lying about five kilometres north of Akaltara on Baloda road. The fort is a square building with high earthen ramparts. Of the east and west gates of the fort, the western one, having fretted arches, is standing. The arched way is a later addition. The inscription in the gateway is in the characters resembling those of the 10th century. Within the fort remains of old sculptured temples exist.

Local tradition ascribes the strong fort to Jaya Sinha, a petty chieftain, subordinate to the kings of Ratanpur. The inscription also records the name of Jaya Sinha without any royal title. The fort abuts on the north against a natural low hill and the Kot is on the north, close to the hill. The region, as mentioned earlier, yielded an inscription referred to above. Village Mahammadpur, situated close to Kotgarh, also contains remains of old buildings and yielded an inscription probably of the 10th century. All useful stones were carried from Kotgarh and Mahammadpur to Akaltara.

The large village Kotmi, lying about 10 kilometres north-west of Akaltara, has an old fort, which is a small square with high earthen ramparts, formerly having two large and one small gate. A large moat surrounding the fort has been turned into a tank. Besides this, the village contains several other tanks. Dig-

1. B.C. Jain, *Utkirna Lekha*, pp. 79-81.

ing in the village often yields old bricks of large size. The railway station of the village is known as Kotmisonar, lying on the railway line connecting Bilaspur with Calcutta.

Belha (21° 55' N.; 82° 10' E.)

This growing village of Bilaspur Tahsil lies about 16 kilometres slightly to the south-west of the tahsil and District headquarters town with which it is linked by rail and road. It is the second railway station from Bilaspur towards Raipur. Belha is one of the important trade centres of the District and has many rice mills. Quarrying of sandstone is also done here. The weekly market of the village meets on every Saturday. Electricity is available for agricultural and domestic purposes in this village. The village has primary, middle and higher secondary schools, *ayurvedic* dispensary and post and telegraph office. It covers an area of 431 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 2,973.

Bilaspur (22° 5' N.; 82° 10' E.)

Situated on the bank of the river Arpa, this headquarters town of the District and the Revenue Division of the same name, has been rapidly increasing in importance. It is one of the important railway junctions on the South Eastern Railway connecting Durg and Raipur with Raigarh and Calcutta. Railway line branches off from here towards Anupur in Shahdol district and Katni in Jabalpur district. It is also linked by road with important centres, such as Raipur, Durg, Mungeli and Sarangarh within the State.

The town cannot boast either of antiquity or of antiquarian remains. Tradition associates the name of Bilaspur with one Bilasa, a fisherwoman, who is credited with the foundation of the town, more than four hundred years ago. It is also said that for a long period the place contained only a few huts built by fishermen. During the Maratha regime over the region, the Maratha officer in charge of the District made Bilaspur his residing place in about 1770 A.D. and started construction work of a fort, but the work remained incomplete. Traces of this partially built fort existed on the bank of the river. The place remained insignificant under the Maratha rule till 1818 A.D. as the administrative headquarters of the Marathas was Ratanpur.

The prominence of Bilaspur dates back to the year 1862, when it became headquarters of the reorganised Bilaspur District of Central Provinces. Since then the place has made steady progress in wealth and population. Bilaspur is one of the important trading centres of the State. Wholesale and

retail trade activities centre round the agricultural and forest produce. The State Bank of India, the Central Bank of India, the Punjab National Bank with their branch offices, Co-operative Central Bank as well as Central Co-operative and Land Mortgage Bank with their head offices cater to the needs of the trading community of the town.

In respect of industries and manufacture the town has yet to make a headway. It is one of the important *kosa* and handloom cotton weaving centres of the State. In 1965, a spinning mill was established here for producing yarn. As compared to the thirties and forties of this century, the famous *kosa* weaving industry has suffered a set-back due to modern mill-made artificial silk and other varieties of fine and superfine cloth.

Besides usual divisional, district and tahsil offices the town contains Janapad Sabha office of Bilaspur tahsil, Municipal Office of the town, a colony of the railway employees and offices. Educational institutions include a number of primary, middle and high schools, junior colleges, and post-graduate colleges. The town has six public libraries and four reading-rooms, Government Sardar Vallabh Bhai Hospital with 110 beds, 170 bedded Jackman Memorial Hospital, Divisional Hospital of the railway with 62 beds, two *ayurvedic* dispensaries, one run by the Janapada Sabha and the other by a public trust, respectively, a T.B. Clinic, family planning clinic, dairy farm, *gaushala*, veterinary hospital, poultry extension unit, artificial insemination unit, co-operative credit and other societies, etc. There are head and branch post offices, telegraph and telephone offices and public call office. The town is electrified and electricity is available for agricultural, industrial and domestic purposes. Markets are held on Saturdays in ward number one, ten and twenty seven, on Thursdays in ward number seven, and thrice a week in Railway Committee area.

The town covers an area of 3,244.25 hectares and had a population of 86,706 in 1961 as against 18,937 in 1901.

One of the largest villages, Gataura, in Bilaspur tahsil, lying about 10 kilometres east of Bilaspur, has yielded a number of statues which are carefully executed and finished in black stone. In 1873-74¹ it was found that the village contained sites of several old temples and numerous fragments of stone, plain and sculptured, almost entirely used up in modern huts and houses. The village also contains several tanks. Gataura is a railway station, second from Bilaspur towards Sakti.

1. Reports on Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. VII, p. 213.

Bisesara (22° 50' N.; 82° 5' E.)

Situated on the river Son, this small village of Mungeli Tahsil lies north-east of Pendra at a distance of about 14 kilometres from Pendra Road railway station on Bilaspur-Katni line. The name Bisesara is a corrupt form of Vishweshwara or the Lord of the Universe. The village is ancient and contains the ruins of a Shaiva monastery and some temples and statues. These figures appear to be as ancient as those found at Dhanpur, which are assigned to the ninth century A.D. However, people abandoned the old site of the village, as they believe that goddess Mahamai enshrined there is bad-tempered and that she devours those who live near her shrine. The village occupies an area of about 257 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, its population is 161 as against 200 in 1901.

Champa (22° 5' N.; 82° 35' E.)

The largest town of Janjgir tahsil, it was formerly, the headquarters of the erstwhile zamindari of the same name. Situated on the bank of Hasdeo river, this municipal town is about 53 kilometres east by rail from Bilaspur, the District headquarters town. It is one of the important railway stations on the South Eastern Railway running through the District.

The *tasar* silk or *kosa* weaving industry, of which the most famous centre is Champa is regarded as the best in the State, though of late it is in a declining condition, due to popularity and cheapness of other mill-made artificial silk and other fine cloth. The town was also well known for its skilful workers in bell metal, but this industry has declined considerably during the last few years. Champa is one of the important trade centres of the District and markets are held here on Mondays, Thursdays and Saturdays in Ward No. 1, on Mondays and Thursdays in Ward No. 3 and on Sundays in Ward No. 10. The town has several educational institutions and other amenities such as, primary, middle and high schools, public library with attached reading room, 550 bedded Missionary leper asylum, 110 bedded Missionary Hospital, primary health centre, veterinary hospital, municipal *aushadhalaya*, Community Block Development Office, post, telegraph and public call offices and two multipurpose co-operative societies.

It covers an area of about 1,893 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, its population increased to 16,258 as against 4,300 in 1901.

Dhanpur (23° 10' N; 81° 30' E.)

Some 16 kilometres north of Pendra town lies this ancient site of Bilaspur tahsil. Its distance from the tahsil headquarters is 123 kilometres.

The extensive antiquarian remains of the village proves the glory that was Dhanpur in ancient times; i.e. in the ninth century A.D. Ruins and debris of old buildings are found over a vast area of about 10.36 sq. kilometres of ground; but a great mass of these remains are compressed within an area of about one sq. kilometre.

Old Ruins

As early as in 1873-74, it was marked that numerous stones, statues and ancient fragments were being brought to Pendra town, the then headquarters of Pendra zamindari which contained Dhanpur. On approaching the ruins, the large tank called Bhautara attracts the attention of the visitors. Several fragments of sculptures are found near the tank. Within a kilometre to its north, we find several low mounds scattered about in scrub forest. Among the group of temples here, the first group is formed of six temples. Within a kilometre west of it is a group of ruins of four temples, besides several smaller detached or isolated shrines close by. A long chain of tanks is located to the north of the second group and these tanks "look vastly like the remains, filled up at intervals across, of a long moat, which once surrounded the city."¹ On the low rugged hillocks on the opposite bank of the tank are situated mounds of ruins. One of them is a group of four large temples. Of these most of them, if not the whole, appear to have been Jain. Near to this is another tank known as Sobhanatha, on the bank of which are collected numerous Jain fragments. In fact, the banks of the tank are covered with an uninterrupted chain of ruins. There are some "Brahmanical" fragments also to be seen lying about, but not among the ruins in the vicinity of this tank; this portion of the city appears clearly to have been exclusively Jain". The temples were of brick and stone and also exclusively of stone, the bricks here being of the same very large size and old kind as are found at Sirpur. Another important relic is a huge figure of a Jain *Tirthankara* in a standing posture, carved out of a large cylindrical rock. People believe that some treasure is buried under it.

"The ruins now are utterly denuded of all squared and dressed stone that could be used up, and of all statues and even of bricks". The mounds which were accessible were actually dug into long ago to extract all the possible useful blocks that could be obtained. It is said, however, that there may still be untouched mounds in the deeper recesses of the scrub forest. The ancient city of Dhanpur was the headquarters of a chieftain of Komo Mandala, one of the *mandalas* of the Chedi Kingdom of Tripuri. The present-day village Dhanpur has a primary school and dispensary. It covers an area of about 824 hectares and, in 1961, its population increased to 850 from about 300 in 1901.

Ghutku (22°10' N; 82°5' E.)

This flourishing large village of Bilaspur Tahsil lies about 13 kilo-

1. Reports on the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. VII, p. 237.
2. *ibid.*

metres by rail to the north of the tahsil headquarters. The river Arpa forms its eastern boundary. It is a railway station on Bilaspur-Katni railway line. The village has several tanks useful for irrigating a considerable area. Cotton weaving in handlooms is to a small extent carried on here. Weekly market is held in the village on every Sunday. It contains primary and middle schools, branch post-office and a gram panchayat. The village covers an area of about 1,498 hectares and, in 1961, its population was 3,394 as against 1,800 in 1901.

Janjgir (20°00' N; 82°30' E.)

Adjoining Naila station on the Bilaspur-Calcutta section of the South-Eastern Railway is situated this important place, the headquarters of a tahsil of the same name. It is about 42 kilometres east of Bilaspur, the District headquarters. It is conjectured that the name Janjgir may possibly be a corrupt form of Jajalla Nagari,¹ 'the town founded by Jajalla Deva', king of Ratanpur of the Chedi or Haihaya dynasty.

The place is certainly an ancient one and undoubtedly contained several temples in ancient times, but now there exist only two "one of which is much dilapidated and the other never was² finished". In respect of architecture, these temples are of great interest. The smaller of the two temples dedicated to Vishnu, being a complete temple, consisted of four chambers and a hall, but the temple has been in a much decayed condition. This temple, built of stone, is profusely sculptured everywhere, except the *sanctum*. The centre of the top still of the entrance is adorned with figures of the Hindu Trinity, i.e. Brahma, Vishnu and Mahesha. The entrance is elaborately sculptured. The walls of the great hall are also very profusely sculptured depicting mostly scenes from the *Ramayana* or from some other Vaishnava work. But in spite of the fact that the profusion of this legendary sculpture bewilders the eyes of the visitors, it is evident that the execution of them is hasty.

The pillar next to the entrance have obscene sculptures representing scenes from Krishna's life. Besides the great hall, walls of the *mandapa*, *ardhamandapa* and pillars are also sculptured with scenes mainly from the *Ramayana*. The remains of the broken roof of the hall show that stones used for roofing had sculptures like geometrical figures, scroll work and rows of female figures on them. "When entire, the effect must have been rich beyond even the temples of Khajuraho, which have no spirited historical or legendary sculptures on the walls to occupy the mind; now however with the roof broken and the supporting females gone, the effect is very greatly reduced".³

1. *Bilaspur District Gazetteer*, p. 272.

2. *Archaeological Survey of India*, Vol. VII, p. 204.

3. *ibid.*

The exteriors of the portice and *mandapa* are also profusely sculptured but with the usual scenes of processions and detached statues as at Khajuraho. The *sanctum* and *antarala* have perfectly plain exteriors. The temple has an inscription of two lines in mutilated condition. One opens with *Swasti shri* and the other ends with *Nripati*. The characters are those of the 10th century.

To the north-west of this and close by, a profusely sculptured small temple of Vishnu stands. It consists only of a cell and entrance. Close to this to its east lie the remains of a large one. To the south-west of the great temple stands another small Vishnu temple. The sculptured figure over the entrance is probably of Rama. Brahma and Shiva are on his either side. There are, besides, numerous fragments, some of the ruined temples and others meant for the great unfinished temples. Traces of Varaha or Hanuman temples are also there. Close to them stands a colossal male statue, his foot resting on two elephants. Two more elephants stand at the two sides. The statue lies on the bank of the Bimba Tal or Rani Tal having stone *ghats*. On the banks of this Tal also there are numerous fragments and remains of a large Shiva temple and other statues.

The great unfinished temple is on a large terrace. It has only a cell and it is profusely sculptured outside with statues as at Khajuraho. The tower is unfinished. The finished portion of it is also profusely sculptured. The architraves over the entrance show Vishnu as the central figure with Brahma and Shiva at the sides. It is probably of the ninth century A.D.

Janjgir has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, a college, a public library, reading-room, dispensary, rural health centre, hospital, maternity and child welfare centre, pay office of the State Bank of India, branch of the Co-operative and Land Mortgage Bank, post, telegraph and public call offices, and Janapada office, besides usual tahsil offices. Weekly market is held here on every Wednesday. The place is electrified. Its area is about 1,456 hectares and, in 1961, its population increased to 6,842 from 2,250 in 1901.

Katghora (27° 15' N; 80° 31' E.)

Katghora is the headquarters of a tahsil of the same name, first formed in 1921. It is about 104 kilometres to the north-east of Bilaspur, the District headquarters town, with which it is connected by a road. There is Radhasagar tank now used for pisciculture. The Janapada Sabha, Katghora, manages a local fair lasting for seven days and attracting about 2,000 persons. The fair is annually held on the occasion of the Republic Day, the 26th of January.

Katghora has, besides usual tahsil offices, schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, training centres for carpentry and tailoring, a police station, town sub-post office, public call and telegraph offices, co-operative credit and multi-purpose co-operative societies, cooperative and land mortgage bank, maternity and child welfare centre, rural health centre, dispensary, veterinary hospital, family planning centre, etc. Weekly market is held on every Sunday. This tahsil headquarters town occupies an area of about 706 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, its population is 3,713 persons.

Kharod (21° 45' N; 82° 35' E.)

A large village, lying about three kilometres to the north-west of Seorinarayan on the road leading to Akaltara, Kharod is in Janjgir tahsil. It is about one and a half kilometres from the river Mahanadi.

The village is ancient and possesses some important monuments. An ancient temple dedicated to a *lingam* called Lakshmeshwara, one of the five exceedingly holy and ancient *lingams* of the region. The Lakshmeshwara temple is the largest and most important among the temples found here. It stands on a raised terrace and is approached by steps. It consists of a sanctum at the end of a long high-walled enclosure. This enclosure is internally divided into a number of chambers all exceedingly dark. "It appears to be a complete temple, which has been prolonged in front by later additions". The temple "is by no means quite ancient but owes its present appearance to extensive repairs and restorations exteriorly and interiorly also"¹.

The temple contains an inscription on stone of Ratnadeva of the Chedi year 933, corresponding to A.D. 1181-82. The inscription gives a complete genealogy of the Kalachuri rulers of Ratanpur from Kalingaraja to Ratnadeva III. On the basis of information given in the inscription it appears that Tummana² was the original capital of the Kalachuris in Chhattisgarh. It proclaims the construction of a Shiva temple at Kharod and of other temples, monastery, gardens, alms-houses and tanks at some other places. The inscription opens with an invocation to Shiva. One more damaged stone inscription, formerly plastered over, was also found in the Lakshmeshwara temple. In the process of the removal of the plaster the record was very badly damaged. However, the names of two kings, Indrabala and his son Isanadeva of the Lunar dynasty are visible. The characters of this records are older than those of the Kalachuri inscription referred to earlier and are exactly of the

1. Archaeological Survey of India, Vol VII; p. 202.
2. See article on Tuman in this chapter.

type found at Sirpur. Indrabala must, therefore, be identical with a king of that name of the Sirpur dynasty. Lakshmeshwara temple must, then, have been built by a scion of the Sirpur dynasty. Kalachuris, coming to power plastered up the original record, putting one of their own in its place. It may be mentioned that curiously enough the name of the temple at Sirpur is Lakshmana and at Kharod it is Lakshmeshwara. The Lakshmeshwara temple contains a statue bearing the name of a certain Pandit Damodara carved on its pedestal. Besides, there are numerous smaller temples, two of which are comparatively large. These are on the road from Seorinarayan to Kharod. One is in ruins, while the other is adorned with sculptures collected from all sides. Besides the sculptures, numerous pillars and pilasters, sculptured with female figures resembling sculptures at Sirpur, are collected in this temple. Numerous detached statues of various kinds are also there. The pillars appear to have belonged to the temple, which is, of brick picked with stone. It must once have been a very fine temple, though now in ruins. It was dedicated to a Devi.

There are numerous fragments about the village. To the north of Kharod stand the remains of a group of small temples. Fine sculptures once adorned their entrances. These good sculptures are equal to

Other Temples the fine sculptures in the great brick temple at Seorinarayan.

The temples at both these places belong to one and the same period. There is among others a temple dedicated to Aditya with his seven horses shown on the pedestal. Most of the remains are Brahmanical but as Buddhism also once existed here, as shown by the statues enshrined in the great temple at Seorinarayan, it is possible that some of the pillars may be of Buddhist origin. The village has many old tanks useful for irrigation purposes.

There are schools for primary and middle education, Janapada *ayurvedic aushadhalaya* (dispensary of indigenous medicines), gram panchayat and branch post-office. It covers an area of 1631.66 hectares and according to the Census of 1961 its population is 7023.

Korba (22°20' N; 82°40' E.)

Prior to the abolition of Zamindaris, Korba was the headquarters of the largest of zamindaris of the same name in Bilaspur District. Now it has developed into a township. It is in Katghora tahsil. It is situated to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 29 kilometres. It is linked by road with Katghora and by rail with Champa lying about 37 kilometres to the south. The town is on the bank of the river Hasdeo. Buses ply on the road.

It is an ancient place and contains three rock-cut caves known as Sitamarhi by the side of a nullah. In one of the caves, there is an inscription in old characters, which gives the name of a physician's son (*vaidyaputra*) Shrivardhan, resident of the district of Ashtadwara.¹ In subsequent period, Korba became a part of Ratanpur Kingdom at a comparatively later date. Probably, Korba tract was for long a debatable land between the Rajas of Ratanpur, Sambalpur and Surguja. In the Maratha period Bimbaji Bhonsla resumed this estate and subsequently restored it to Zamindar Bharat Singh with whom the Bhonslas reached an amicable settlement.

The region around Korba abounds in mineral wealth and Korba has now become famous for its coal mines, iron-ore and bauxite. This mineral wealth made it possible for the Government to establish a Korba Thermal power station. Of the two power stations at Korba, Power Station construction work of one, with a capacity of 100 megawatts, was started in 1957 and was completed in 1959. The construction of the other with 200 megawatts capacity was started in 1963. In Bilaspur District there are 14 distribution centres of the power produced by Korba Thermal Power Station, generating 2.2 million units a day. The generating stations are connected with a net-work of high, extra-high and low tension lines feeding a vast region of Madhya Pradesh. Bhilai Steel Project, National Coal Development Corporation and other industrial establishments like cement factories, paper mills, etc., get power supplies from this station.

Around these two power stations a modern township has sprung up with good roads, treated water supply, sanitary arrangements and modern residential quarters. Educational facilities are available here from the kindergarten classes to the higher secondary standard. A dispensary with medical facilities to the workers, clubs with recreational facilities, and a veterinary hospital have also been provided in the township. There are several children's parks.

The modern township has an area of 145.28 hectares divided into 5 circles. It had a population of 12,424 in 1961. There are two public libraries with attached reading-rooms, town sub-post office, telegraph and public call offices, police-station and branch office of the Amenities Co-operative and Land Mortgage Bank, veterinary hospital, primary health centre, allopathic dispensary, family planning clinic, a primary, two middle and higher secondary schools. Bi-weekly markets are held here on Sundays and Thursdays. There is a gram panchayat and an office of the Naib-Tahsildar.

1. There is Baradwar village but nothing is known about Ashtadwar. There is also Village Adbhar in Sakti tahsil (Hiralal, *Inscriptions in the Central Provinces and Berar*, p. 133).

Kota (21°51' N; 82°40' E.)

This municipal town of Bilaspur tahsil lies to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters. It is a railway station on Bilaspur-Katni line at a distance of about 26 kilometres by rail from Bilaspur. A match factory was started here in 1902, but has since been closed. Quarrying for road metal is done in a hill close by. The town is electrified and contains primary, middle and higher secondary schools, post and telegraph offices, police-station, dispensary, rest-house, etc. The town covers an area of 1,062.30 hectares and a population of 6,591 according to the Census of 1961. Its population was 1,400 in 1901. Weekly market is held here on every Monday.

Kudurmāl (22°17' N; 82°40' E.)

About 27 kilometres to the north-east of Champa railway station and 38 kilometres south-east of Katghora lies this important village of Katghora tahsil on the road linking Katghora and Champa with Korba. Regular buses ply on the road.

The village is held sacred by the Kabirpanthis as it contains the grave of Chudaman, son of Dharamdas, who was a disciple of Kabir and the first *Mahant* of the Kabir Panth. An annual fair of the Kabirpanthis is held in honour of Chudaman on Magh Purnima (January/February). The fair attracts about 4,000 devotees. It is managed by the Janapada Sabha, Katghora. The village has primary and middle schools, a post-office, a rural health centre and a dispensary. Its area is about 483 hectares. In 1961 its population decreased to 611 as against 700 in 1901.

Laphagarh (22°25' N; 32°15' E.)

Laphagarh is one of the strongest natural fortresses of the country. It is situated on a hillock called Chitorgarh in tahsil Katghora of Bilaspur District. This fort is about 19 kilometres from Pali, another important and ancient place of the tahsil. The walls of the fort are irregular following the edge of the plateau and these are partly of rubble and partly of cut-stone. The three gateways of the fort are elaborately decorated with pillars and statues. Close to the *Singhadwara* is a small temple built of cut-stone in a remarkably plain style. It consists of a *mahamandapa* supported by five rows of pillars, each row being of five pillars. The temple has also *ardhu mandapa*, *mandapa*, *sanctum* and the *antard*. The *sanctum* enshrines a statue of Durga slaying the buffalo demon. Ganesha is in the centre of the entrance architrave. Close to the temple there is Pat talao.

The outer gate, which is the real gate of the fort is known as Jhandi or Dinda gate. It consists of a square block having chambers, which were not only guard-rooms but served as temple also. These consist of oblong halls, supported on three rows of pillars of plain style. Fragments of statues and sculptures lying about indicate that Shiva was worshipped here. The second gate, known as Manka Dai gate, is similar to the first one in its construction. A fine statue of Manka or Manya Devi is let into the wall in a *niche*. There is a natural cave near this gate, containing a small *lingam*. The third is Hukra gate.

The lower portion of the third gate is ornamented with statues including one of Lakshmi. The pillars are fine. The upper gate is very fine and superior to other two but is in a dilapidated condition. One of the *niches* here is occupied by a six-armed female seated on a lotus. There are fragments of Ganesha and other figures.

The hill rises with steep slopes all round from the bottom to within a few feet of the tableland, which then rises up with vertical rock faces, often about 18 metres in height and everywhere perfectly vertical. The hill plateau is not inhabited.

Malhar (21°50' N; 82°15' E.)

Malhar is a large and important village of Bilaspur tahsil, situated about 26 kilometres to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters.

The place evidently was of great importance since ancient period, as it is clear from the extensive ruins of old temples and sculptures found at the place. Malhar, which is well known for its Buddhist, Jain Archaeology and Hindu ruins and sculptures, on further exploration, yielded interesting and beautiful sculptures ranging from about the second century B. C. to twelfth century A.D. The most ancient is a stone statue locally called Chaturbhuj Bhagawan of four hands of which the front two are clasped in *anjali*, while the two back ones hold a *chakra* and a *shankha*. A *gada* in the form of a long shaft or staff rests on the right arm. On it is engraved a Prakrit inscription in Brahmi script of about second century B.C. It records the setting of the statue.

Close to it, a standing Jain image, evidently of Mahavira, the 24th Jain *Tirthankara*, and a statue of Ambika, both datable to the eighth century, are also found. Discovery has been made of a sculpture, depicting mother and child, probably of the Gupta period, and an image of Durga of the mediæval period. Many of the images of the place were removed long ago.

The village has also yielded three sets of charters issued by kings of Sarabhapura dynasty.¹ The first of the sets was issued by King Jayaraja of the line in his ninth regnal year, registering the grant of the village of Mokkeppika situated in Nagarottara-patta (or patti) by Vatsa, an officer in the king's service. One more plate of Jayaraja found at Malhar records the grant of a village by the king himself in the sixth year of his rule.² King Pravararaja in his third regnal year issued from Shripur another set of charter and it was found at Malhar. It records the grant of Mitragramaka village in Sankhachara Bhoga. Yet another set found at Malhar was issued from Prasannapura by Vyaghraraja, younger brother of king Pravara-Bhattaraka and son of Jaya Bhattaraka. It records the grant of Kuntur-padrak in Purvarashtra. This inscription is unique among the Sarabhapuriya records in many respects and throws new light on the history of the family.

Among the other important inscriptions found at Malhar figures the stone inscription of Jajalla Deva, dated in Chedi year 919, corresponding to A.D. 1167-68. It refers to the reign of Prince Jajalla Deva, Other Inscriptions a ruler of Tummana, identified with the present-day village Tuman of the District, to be described subsequently. It records the erection of a temple, dedicated to Kedar (Shiva) in Mallala (Malhar of today) by a descendent of a renowned Pandita Gangadhara, a resident of Kumbhati in Madhyadesha. The Pandit is said to have settled at Tummana and obtained Kosambi village (may possibly be Kosamdih about 13 kilometres from Malhar) from Ratnadeva, the vanquisher of Chhodaganga of the lunar dynasty. Jajalla Deva was the grandson of Ratnadeva. This inscription is in Nagpur Museum. The village contains a mud-fort surrounded by a moat. The tanks, 63 in number, are extensively used for irrigating the land and for pisciculture.

On the occasion of Shivaratri an annual fair, lasting for five days attracts a large number of devotees here. Cotton handloom weaving is the important cottage industry of the place. Bi-weekly markets are held here on Sundays and Wednesdays. The village contains primary and middle schools, reading room, *ayurvedic* dispensary, multi-purpose co-operative society, etc. It covers an area of about 1,424 hectares and its population increased to 6,263 in 1961 from 2,000 in 1901.

Mungeli (22°5' N; 81°40' E.)

This town of Bilaspur District is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name. It is to the west of the District headquarters at a distance of about 50 kilometres. Both these towns are connected by road.

1. Indian Archaeology, A Review, 1958-59, p. 50,
2. *ibid*, 1957-58, p. 57.

Being the tahsil headquarters, it has usual tahsil offices and brisk trade. Weekly market is held here on every Friday. The town has also a cottage weaving on handlooms. It contains branch offices of the State Amenities Bank of India (pay-office) and the Co-operative and Land Provided Mortgage Bank, primary, middle and higher secondary schools, public library, public reading-room, college, hospital, family planning centre, primary health centre, maternity and child welfare centre, post and telegraph offices and police-station. It covers an area of 556.44 hectares and its population increased to 12,431 in 1961 from 5,907 in 1901.

Pali (22°15' N; 82°15' E.)

About 18.2 kilometres to the north-east of Ratanpur lies this small village Pali in Katghora tahsil. Its distance from the District headquarters town is about 35.2 kilometres towards north-east. Buses ply on the road.

At the extreme north-east of this village is a fine large tank, the bank of which is fringed with the remains of several old temples. All of these except one are now in complete ruins. This one, which Temples could so far defy destruction, is also partially broken. The building, as it stands, is an octagonal dome, which probably served at one time as a portico of a temple of Mahadeva. It is situated on a small raised platform, probably on cell foundations. Though it is difficult to secure a complete plan of the temple, it seems that its projecting windows, on the sides of the decaying *mahamandapa* with sloping back rests, were once constructed after the style of Khajuraho. The roof of the *mahamandapa*, supported entirely by pilasters and without the conventional four central pillars, resembles that of the temple at Sohagpur. The dome of the *mahamandapa* is dressed up as courses of concentric fretted circles, each smaller than the next lower course. The top is made of small circle with a pendant closing the opening. The whole arrangement forms a hemisphere of semicircularly hollowed niches, containing a seated figure with folded hands. The lowest circle looks like a series of figures of the most fantastic shapes, running into each other in happy confusion. Below these circles is the octagon of lotus leaves and geometrical patterns. The temple itself is remarkable for the profusion of its elaborate treatment of carvings and miniature sculptures. The most elaborate and exquisitely executed workmanship can be found at the entrance door of the inner building. Similar carving appears on the exterior of the *Sikhara* too, the top-most part of which has gone and has been replaced with plain work.

From the discovery of an inscription in the temple itself recording the name of Jajalla Deva, the building is ascribed to Jajalla Deva of Ratanpur

Inscription house. Some repairs were made to its windows and their jambs and head with ashlar piers and steel joints. In this old but extremely beautiful temple there are a number of short inscriptions. Five of them refer King Jajalla Deva. Over the door-way of the *sanctum* there is a record stating that, the structure was constructed by Vikramaditya, son of the great feudatory, Shrimalladeva. On a window sill there are two records of pilgrims, one of Vishveshwara and the other of Sri Magardhaja Jogi 700 the head of a Matha at Ratnapur in 9th century A.D.

The village is inhabited by 972 persons distributed over an area of 770 hectares. There are three dispensaries, one for the tribals and the others for general public, police station, branch post-office, veterinary hospital, artificial insemination unit, pisciculture, and primary, middle and a higher secondary schools.

Pandariya (22°15'N; 81°30'E.)

The headquarters of the erstwhile Pandariya Zamindari in the extreme west of Mungeli tahsil, the village lies at a distance of 33.6 kilometres and 83.2 kilometres from the tahsil and District headquarters towns, respectively. Good roads connect it with Mungeli, Kawardha and Kargi Road railway station. Buses ply on these roads.

Previously, Kamthi was the headquarters of the estate from where old sculptures and other relics of an ancient settlement were removed to construct a shrine at Setganga, another village of the estate towards east. Kamthi still possesses the figure of a stone tiger, presumably taken as a totem god. As tradition would have it, the tract was originally held by a Lodhi Chieftain, owing allegiance to a Gond ruler of Garha Mandla. Subsequently, he revolted against his lord and the estate was given to a Raj Gond whose ancestors ruled here till the abolition of Zamindari. The estate always remained a bone of contention in the past among the rulers of Garha Mandla, Lanji and Ratanpur. Till recently Pandariya occupied the foremost place among the big estates of Bilaspur. Another important village of this old estate is Pandatri, situated on the border between Pandariya and Kawardha at the foot of the Maikal range. A few temples of fine carvings are there as well as many cut-stones and numerous ruined buildings.

Pandariya is surrounded by extensive grove of fine mangoes. It has some trade in timber and a market is held here daily. It contains sub-post-office, primary health centre, *ayurvedic* dispensary, allopathic dispensary,

family planning clinic, primary, middle and high schools, police-station, veterinary hospital, cattle market, artificial insemination unit and provision for pisciculture. Its population in 1961 was 4,539. It covers an area of about 319 hectares.

Pendra (22°45' N; 81°55' E.)

The headquarters of the erstwhile Pendra Zamindari in Bilaspur tahsil, the modern town is about eight kilometres away from the Pendra Road railway station on Bilaspur-Katni line.

It is stated that Pendra was established about 1600 A.D. by the rulers of Ratanpur. Once two brothers, Hindu Singh and Chhindu Singh got a bag of money on the road and brought the same untouched to the reigning monarch of Ratanpur. The gratified ruler, in recognition of their honesty conferred on them Pendra *Chaurasi*.

Pendra has some trade in grains, lac and forest produce. The weekly market meets on Sundays.

The most prized possession of this town is the Union Mission T.B. Sanatorium, run by eleven Christian Missions and aided by the Government of Madhya Pradesh and the Provincial Red Cross Society, T.B. Sanatorium Nagpur. At present it is a 200 bedded institution. The climate of the sanatorium is very favourable for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis. The town has a total population of 5,165 and an area of 1557.710 hectares.

Pithampur (21°55' N; 82°35' E)

This large village of Janjgir tahsil is situated about five kilometres south of Champa railway station and about 13 kilometres south-east of the tahsil office, on the west bank of river Hasdeo.

The only object of interest here is an annual fair held on the occasion of *Holi* (Phalgun Purnima, February/March). It is said that god Mahadeva appeared in a dream to a Teli and told him that his image was buried in the ground. The Teli unearthed the image and installed it on the bank of the river. This act cured him of his dysentery. The zamindar of Khariar, suffering from a bad indigestion and internal pain, built a temple over the image and was said to have felt much better. Consequently, people suffering from disorders of stomach started visiting the place in large numbers. The earnest devotee offers 1,00,000 perfect and unbroken grains of rice to the deity. The fair lasts

for 10 days. It is attended by about 1,00,000 people and is managed by the Janapada Sabha, Janjgir.

The village has a primary school and a branch post-office. It covers an area of about 499 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, it has a population of 1,040 persons as against 600 in 1901.

Ratanpur (22°15' N; 82°40' E.)

Once the most important city of Chhattisgarh area under the Kalachuri rulers of Ratanpur, the modern Ratanpur in Bilaspur tahsil is a decayed place. The place lies at a distance of 25.6 kilometres north of Bilaspur by road. Buses ply on the road. In ancient time Ratanpur is said to have its name as Hirapura and Manipura of the epic fame.

Historically, Ratanpur was founded by Ratnadeva of the Kalachuri house of Ratanpur and it remained their capital for centuries together. Evidently, the place got its name after its founder. It is generally believed that at the zenith of its prosperity the town extended upto Pali, lying at a distance of 19.2 kilometres from this place. But the remains of ancient buildings here are rather few, and date nearly to recent times. The ruins consist mostly of numerous tanks and temples among mango groves. The pillars and sculptures of some of these temples were utilised to adorn the gates of the fort and other buildings in the Badal Mahal; a richly carved door frame had gone to stand as the postern in the fort walls. The pillars were used to form a colonnade against the interior face of the castle and some other ancient sculptures were shifted to be encrusted on the back wall. These sculptures are either of reddish sandstone or of a dark variety, but all resemble strikingly the Khajuraho sculptures. They are not always very decent either. One piece of sculpture portrays a horse sacrifice, while the subject matter of another is Ravana cutting off his ten heads in a penitent mood and offering those to a *linga*. One inscription discovered in the fort is dated *Samvat* 1207 and opens with an invocation to Shiva. Other inscriptions found here are the stone inscriptions of Jajalladeva, Prithvideva II, Prithvideva III, etc. Most of these have been removed to other places. From these lithic records an authentic genealogy of the Ratanpur rulers has been prepared.

The existing temples are mostly modern and devoid of much archaeological interest. One temple atop the Ramtek hill is built on an ancient site and probably with some ancient material. It is ascribed to Bimbaji Bhonsla and is dedicated to Rama. Another temple enshrines Bridheshwar Mahadeva. In the town the oldest shrine is called the Mahamai temple, built probably in the 16th century A.D. Some Jain figures were found near this building. There is a banyan tree

near the temple and as the popular belief goes, once Ratandeva while hunting climbed up the tree at night and saw the gods and goddesses holding an assembly. The goddess Mahamaya appeared to him in dream and ordered him to enshrine her suitably. That led to the establishment of Ratanpur on that spot. Once the goddess is said to have swallowed a prince and, as a result, had one of her faces turned backward. Probably this belief is associated with the tradition that once a Haihaya prince was offered before the goddess as sacrifice. In near proximity is the temple known as Kanthi Dewal. The temple is of a later mediaeval structure of elongated shape and two storeys high. Its roof is pyramidal, time facades are relatively plain, but the columns, pilasters and the small *Mihrab* shaped niches are curiously reminiscent of early Mughal design. The shrine might have originally been built by the Kalachuris of Ratanpur from 10th to 12th centuries A.D.¹ As the temple was becoming dangerously dilapidated, three substantial buttresses were erected to support the declining walls. Cracks and open joints in them were filled up with mortar and ashlar masonry.² The surrounding platform was also repaired. There are numerous other temples in various stages of decay, and about 300 old ponds, full of dirty greenish water.

Many *sati* pillars of the queens of the Ratanpur rajas are there. The most important of these is a large building with graceful arches and minarets on all sides, commemorating the self immolation of twenty Sati Monuments queens of Raja Lakshman Sahai, about 310 years ago. The and Inscriptions monument is called *Bisduari* to signify its twenty gates.

The place has yielded a number of important inscriptions; one dated in Chedi year 66 (1114 A.D.), refers to Jajalladeva and his ancestors. The object of inscription is to record the establishment of a monastery at Jajallapura. Another inscription is of Prithvideva III and is dated in Vikram year 1247 (1189-90 A.D.). It records the erection of a Shiva temple at Samba. The third inscription in the Mahamaya temple compares Ratanpur with Indra's city. Besides, there is Badal Mahal inscription of the rulers of Talahari Mandala. It speaks of the said rulers. The record is much defaced. It is dated in Kalachuri era 915 or 1163 A.D. The object of the record is to enumerate various religious and charitable institutions built by the rulers.

Ratanpur possesses many tanks excavated in comparatively recent time. Of these the largest, namely, the Dulaha tank extends over a vast area.

These tanks irrigate the land so nicely that the crops never fail for drought in this village. Fields of sugarcane, betel vine and other vegetables get the needed moisture from these tanks. A large annual fair is held near the Dulaha tank on the *Maghi Purnima*

1. Archaeological Survey of India (Annual) Report, 1922-23, p. 50.

2. *ibid.* 1927-28, p. 36.

day lasting for five days. A bath in its water is regarded as sacred. Locks of children and bones of the dead are offered here. A weekly market is held here on Monday.

The town has an area of 4478.25 hectares, probably the largest area in the whole of the District,¹ and a population of 7,448. Some modern amenities available for them are a sub-post office, police station, *ayurvedic* dispensary, schools, a public library, veterinary hospital, artificial insemination unit and public reading-room. It is electrified.

Sakti (22°3' N; 82°58' E.)

This headquarters town of Sakti tahsil is only one and a half kilometre from the railway station of the same name, on the Calcutta-Bombay line of the South-Eastern Railway. The small river Barai flows past the town.

Before 1948 this municipal town was the capital of the erstwhile princely state of Sakti. Immediately after merger it became a tahsil of Raigarh district, but consequent on the Reorganisation of States in 1956, Sakti tahsil was transferred from Raigarh to Bilaspur with other consequential internal changes.

A popular legend is current in the area about the name Sakti, meaning power. It is said that an old member of the ruling house of the state once came here for hunting. Then he noticed a deer chasing one of his hunting dogs. This unusual phenomenon led him to believe that the land must have some superior power of its own, that it is "the land of power". Thus he gave the name Sakti to this place.

Another legend preserved by the ex-ruling family is that the ancestors of this ruling Raj Gond family were twin brothers named Hari and Gujar. They were soldiers under Raja Kalyan Shah of Sambalpur. One day the Raja came to know that these brothers had wooden swords as their only weapon. That enraged the king who, bent upon punishing these apparently useless soldiers, ordered them to kill the sacrificial buffalo on the *Dassera* day with these wooden swords. Hari and Gujar in trepidation propitiated the *Devi*, by whose grace they slew the animal with one stroke only. The Raja, delighted at the marvellous performance, wanted to give them a reward. The brothers

1. *Vishnu Maha Yajna*, p. 112.

asked for as much land as would be enclosed between the lines over which they could walk in a single day. The request was granted. The distance travelled by them enclosed the former Sakti State. The swords were preserved in the family and were worshipped with great ceremony by the head of the ruling family on the *Dassera* day. Another peculiar custom observed on the same day was that, in the evening the head of the family went to a place outside the town, where a goat had already been tethered to a tree by the local potters amidst a bush of *sonpan*. The *parganias* tried to behead the goat with their swords, while the potters desisted them by throwing mud at them. Ultimately the lucky slayer took the head of the goat to the prince and got a reward. The potters got the trunk.

About 22.4 kilometres away from the town there is a village called Gunji. At the foot of a hill there, there is a *kund* called Damaudhara, the source of which is still unknown. On one side of this pool Damaudhara kund there is a rock inscription, belonging to a Satavahana ruler, and the inscription enumerating his officers of different category. The inscription of Gunji is written in Pali and belongs probably to the first century A.D.

Close by there is a secluded village, named Rainkhol, surrounded by hills on all sides. Here the local raja used to hide himself from the Maratha marauders. From one village in near proximity, called Nandaur Khurd, an inscribed image of Bodhisatta was discovered. It bears an inscription of the Buddhist creed in characters of the eighth or ninth century.¹

People of this place are mainly busy in agriculture, manufacture of country bangles, bamboo baskets, mats, utensils, *tasar* silk cloth, cotton handloom cloth and bidi making. Bi-weekly markets are held on Wednesdays and Thursdays.

Sakti is a municipal town of about 906 hectares land and 8,125 persons. It has a town sub-post office, telegraph and public call offices, three primary, a middle and a higher secondary schools, reading-room, library, police-station, government primary health centre, *ayurvedic* dispensary and municipal *ayurvedic aushadhalaya*, Regional Co-operation and Land Mortgage Bank, hospital and a rural health centre. The town is electrified.

Seorinarayan (21°40' N; 82°35' E.)

It is an important village of Janjgir tahsil, 62.4 kilometres to the south-east of Bilaspur on the old Sambalpur road, on the left bank of the

1. *Indian Archaeology, A Review*, 1956-57, p. 72.

Mahanadi, just below the junction of the Jonk river. The Seonath river flows into the Mahanadi about 1.6 kilometres higher up.

It is a well known place of pilgrimage and, lying on the road to Puri from Central India, always attracts a good number of pilgrims *en route*. There is a story that once the place was a forest, inhabited by an old Sawara or Saoner, who worshipped Jagannatha. The deity was afterwards removed to the temple of Jagannatha at Puri by a Brahman. But as a reward for the faithfulness of the old Sawara, Jagannatha wished that, the name of the place of his concealment should contain the names of both the worshipper and the worshipped. Hence the place came to be called Sawar Narayan or Seorinarayan.

Seorinarayan was the headquarters of Janjgir tahsil till 1891. But due to its proximity to the Mahanadi and distance from the railway line the tahsil headquarters was shifted to Janjgir town. The village consists of two separate *muhallas*, known as Mahantpara and Bhogahapara. The second *muhallas* is so called because its proprietor supplied food to the deities and the religious mendicants at the temples. For maintenance he enjoyed a grant of six villages free of revenue. A very fine and extensive mango garden borders the village.

The number of ancient remains are not many. All that exists is to be found within a great enclosed courtyard. There are many small ancient temples, extensively repaired and modified, but of no special interest. The larger two of them look quite modern, probably built on an ancient site with a sort of ancient core. In one of these temples there is an inscription on one of the statues, dated 898 of the Kalachuri era or 1146 A.D. By general belief, the principal object of worship of this shrine is Narayana, but the statue is of Shaiva origin. The inscription itself opens with an invocation to Shiva, and the deity too is Shiva.¹ The temple was once struck by lightning necessitating repairs and plastering. The architectural beauty was thus lost. Another temple of stone contains an image of black stone of about one metre height. The figure has striking similarity with the Buddha image at Rajim. The general style of this temple resembles that of the Khajuraho temple. Close to this shrine, another inscription dated 979 Chedi *samvat* was found. This too opens with a Shaivic invocation. Another local temple, made of brick, is remarkable for its height, size, material and form. The statue in the temple is said to be of Vishnu but others think it to be an Aditya figure, standing and holding lotus flowers, a familiar representation of Surya. A large fair is

1. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. VII, pp. 296-97.

annually held here on the occasion of Shivaratri and continues for 10 days. It is attended by 1,00,000 pilgrims. It is managed by the Janapada Sabha of Janjgir.

The village was a favourite resort of the royal court of Ratanpur and the ladies of that dynasty often came here to take a dip in the Mahanadi. Close to the river there is a small tank, known as Rohini kund in which the bones of the dead are immersed. A weekly market is held on Wednesdays.

Civic amenities available at this place include a sub-post office, police-station, primary and higher secondary schools, an outlying veterinary hospital, artificial insemination unit and a cattle market. About 4.8 kilometres south-west of Seorinarayan, on the right bank of the Jonk river is the small village Baluda, or Baloda. Here, on the bank of a tank known as Bandhua talao, there is a laterite *lingam*, which is supposed to have sprung from underground.

Seorinarayan was inhabited by 2,372 persons in 1961. The area of the village is about 762 hectares.

Takhatpur (22°5' N; 81°50' E.)

Situated on the bank of the Maniari river and on the border of Mungeli tahsil lies this small town of Bilaspur tahsil on the road going to Mungeli. It is to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters. Buses ply on the road. Its distance from Bilaspur is about 29 kilometres.

Takhatsingh, a Haihaya prince, founded a village, which received the name Takhatpur after the founder. The town is one of the important trade centres of the District. A large weekly market is held here on every Saturday. Cotton-weaving on handlooms is the most important cottage industry of the place. Soil around the town, especially on the bank of the Maniari, is excellent and most fertile. The town contains schools for primary, middle and higher education, sub-post office, public call and telegraph offices, Development Block office, gram and nyaya panchayats, etc. It covers an area of 435.03 hectares and, according to the Census of 1961, its population increased to 6,075 from 2,600 in 1901. The town is electrified.

Tuman (22°3' N; 82°25' E.)

This small village of Katghora tahsil lies to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about eight kilometres.

Though now an insignificant village, it was the first capital of the Haihaya or Kalachuri kings, when they first came to Chhattisgarh. The Kharod stone inscription of Ratnadeva of the Chedi year 933, corresponding to 1181-82 A.D., states that, in the family of the

History

Haihayas there was a prince who had 18 sons, one of whom was Kalinga. His son was Kamala, the lord of Tummana,¹ identified with Tuman. The Ratanpur stone inscription of Jajalladeva, king of Ratapur, of the Chedi year 866, corresponding to 1114 A.D., also mentions that the Chedi ruler Kokalla had 18 sons, of whom the first born was the ruler of Tripuri, while the others became lords of *mandalas*. A descendant of one of these younger sons was Kalingaraja, who acquired *Dakshina Kosala*, where he settled and made Tummana² his capital. His son was Kamalaraja. The latter's son Ratnaraja or Ratnesh ornamented Tummana with temples, gardens, etc., and founded Ratnapur. His son Prithvisha or Prithvideva built temples at Tummana³ and tank at Ratnapur. A still earlier record, that is, the Amoda plates of Prithvideva I, dated in the Chedi year 831, corresponding to 1079 A.D., mentions the dedication of a *chatusthika* (a hall resting on four pillars) built at Tummana.⁴ Ratnadeva I removed his capital from Tummana to Ratnapura now Ratanpur in Bilaspur Tahsil.

The village Tuman has some 15 heaps of ruins of cut and carved stones. These heaps are mainly of temples and the central heap yielded a fine gateway after removal of the debris. On the top of the gate-

Archaeology

way the images of Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva, the last being in the centre, were found. The central figure of Shiva indicates that the temple was dedicated to that deity. Figures of nine planets find place between the images of the trinity mentioned above. Ten incarnations of Vishnu are carved on the jambs of the door; Ganga on her vehicle crocodile and Yamuna on her vehicle tortoise are below them. The style of these well-carved figures resembles the temples of Pali or Janjgir. On the bank of the river Jatashankari flowing nearby, there is a heap of ruins of cut stone, the place being known as the Satkhanda Mahal or seven-storied palace. This may possibly have been formerly the residence of the Haihaya kings.

Tuman, possibly by its geographical situation, had attracted the attention for first settlement of a small invading force of the Haihayas. It is situated in a valley surrounded on all sides by a ring of mountains and affording egress at only two points towards Uprera and Matin in the east and the west. Inside the valley are situated

Geography

1. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in the Central Provinces and Berar*, pp. 117-18.
2. (Dr. Kielhorn identified Tummana with Juna Shahar or old Ratanpur). Hiralal, *Inscriptions in the Central Provinces and Berar*, p. 116.
3. *ibid.* identifies with Tumman.
4. *ibid.* pp. 118-119.

ed several villages known as Tuman Khol. Being secluded and easily defensible against the attacks of enemies, Tuman would have been well-suited for the occupation of the invading Haihayas. The local tradition speaks of 126 tanks¹ here. But the glory of Tuman departed gradually, possibly after the change of capital from Tuman to Ratanpur.

The weekly market is held at Tuman on every Monday. The village has a primary school. The area of the village is 638-39 hectares, and in 1961 it was inhabited by 592 persons as against 400 in 1901.

1. Chhai agar Chhai Kori talao (six score and six tanks).

APPENDICES

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TABLE—I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall (mm.)

Station	No. of years of data	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual rain-fall as % of normal & year**	Lowest annual rain-fall as % of normal & year**	Heaviest rain-fall in 24 hours*		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Bilaspur	50 a	17.5	30.2	21.1	17.3	17.3	17.8	192.3	389.4	391.2	197.9	51.8	12.5	4.6	1,343.6	135	59	271.3	1940, Aug. 23
	b	1.5	2.6	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	9.7	17.8	17.3	10.7	3.2	1.0	0.4	69.3	(1936)	(1914)		
Mungeli	50 a	18.5	27.9	20.1	16.5	16.3	181.1	335.3	323.9	177.5	53.3	13.7	5.8	1,189.9	135	70	266.7	1889, Aug. 23	
	b	1.7	2.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	10.3	17.4	16.3	10.3	3.2	1.0	0.4	68.8	(1917)	(1921)			
Janjgir	50 a	17.3	28.7	18.3	14.0	15.0	194.1	417.6	407.9	208.5	44.2	11.4	4.3	1,381.3	143	57	253.5	1896, Jun. 21	
	b	1.2	2.4	1.6	1.4	1.1	9.2	17.5	17.7	10.6	2.8	0.6	0.4	66.5	(1926)	(1942)			
Katghora	36 a	23.4	27.9	18.5	14.5	20.1	217.2	289.5	474.0	222.3	65.3	20.3	4.8	1,597.8	138	71	258.8	1961, Jun. 12	
	b	1.6	2.5	2.1	1.4	2.0	10.7	20.9	20.2	11.8	3.9	1.2	0.4	78.7	(1917)	(1941)			
Pendra Road	a	26.9	36.1	26.4	21.6	24.1	207.3	366.5	366.3	206.3	78.0	17.8	6.3	1,383.6	140	65	262.1	1953, Aug. 18	
	b	2.1	2.8	2.3	1.9	2.2	11.4	18.4	18.4	11.4	4.1	1.3	0.5	76.9	(1923)	(1920)			
Korba	50 a	19.8	34.5	15.7	14.0	17.3	186.2	451.4	457.5	207.0	57.7	13.7	3.8	1,478.6	129	65	261.6	1944, Jul. 13	
	b	1.3	2.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	9.2	19.3	19.2	12.0	3.0	0.8	0.3	71.7	(1936)	(1924)			
Pendaria	50 a	22.6	33.3	22.9	21.6	17.5	169.2	345.9	303.3	181.9	58.4	20.1	7.1	1,203.8	144	49	241.3	1958, Sep. 25	
	b	1.7	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.7	9.5	17.0	15.7	10.3	3.2	1.1	0.4	66.4	(1926)	(1913)			
Pondilapha	45 a	17.8	26.7	19.3	12.3	16.5	218.7	463.3	476.8	220.0	51.8	15.0	5.1	1,543.7	145	65	243.4	1916, Jun. 11	
	b	1.0	2.0	1.6	1.0	1.4	9.8	20.1	19.5	12.2	3.2	0.7	0.4	72.9	(1933)	(1920)			

Pasan	39	a	29.0	34.0	26.2	16.0	16.0	178.1	391.9	378.5	178.5	70.1	16.5	4.6	1,340.0	131	60	192.0	1953, Aug. 17
		b	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.5	1.5	9.3	18.7	18.2	10.7	3.8	1.2	0.5	72.3	(1940)	(1941)		
Khotaghat	24	a	14.5	22.9	17.8	12.7	8.4	158.7	423.7	396.5	187.2	47.7	18.3	5.1	1,313.5	134	65	138.7	1937, Jun. 28
		b	1.5	2.2	2.0	1.5	0.9	9.7	19.3	18.9	11.3	3.3	0.8	0.5	71.9	(1948)	(1941)		
Khuria	24	a	21.8	32.8	15.0	14.2	19.1	168.9	375.9	335.8	195.8	66.9	14.7	4.8	1,264.8	137	70	154.4	1945, Jun. 8
		b	1.5	2.7	1.8	1.4	1.6	9.9	18.4	17.3	11.9	4.2	1.0	0.4	72.1	(1938)	(1935)		
Sakti	49	a	17.5	27.7	19.3	13.7	21.1	213.9	496.3	450.6	230.4	62.7	14.7	4.6	1572.5	152	71	215.1	1961, Jun. 11
		b	1.4	2.5	1.8	1.4	1.7	10.5	19.9	19.5	11.8	13.4	0.8	0.5	75.2	(1917)	(1941)		
Dhanras	12	a	7.6	26.4	7.1	12.7	16.8	177.3	343.7	315.0	211.8	79.9	16.5	6.3	1,219.5	140	61	152.4	1937, Jun. 28
		b	0.7	2.3	1.1	1.3	1.3	8.6	15.2	13.7	10.5	3.6	1.0	0.5	59.8	(1933)	(1935)		
Parpallia	12	a	3.1	25.9	9.1	14.5	7.6	161.0	427.0	328.2	179.4	36.6	19.6	6.3	1,236.3	115	68	144.8	1928, Jun. 27
		b	0.4	2.7	0.8	1.5	0.7	8.5	17.9	15.1	9.5	3.3	0.8	0.2	60.4	(1938)	(1936)		
Dharampur	12	a	7.1	27.7	12.9	13.7	17.8	204.2	471.9	329.7	190.7	52.8	21.6	5.6	1,355.7	181	56	379.2	1933, Jul. 18
		b	0.7	2.8	1.3	1.5	1.2	9.3	18.5	15.6	8.7	3.1	1.1	0.5	64.3	(1933)	(1927)		
Bilaspur District		a	17.6	29.5	18.0	15.3	16.8	188.5	412.6	382.3	209.9	58.4	16.4	5.3	1,361.6	133	71		
		b	1.4	2.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	9.7	18.4	17.5	10.9	3.4	1.0	0.4	69.9	(1917)	(1941)		

Source : Dy. Director-General of Observatories, Deptt. of Meteorology and Geophysics. Govt. of India, Poona,
Source : Dy. Director-General of Observatories, G.D.I. Poona.

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

* Based on all available data upto 1961.

** Years given in brackets.

TABLE—II

Yearly Rainfall and Rainy Days (1952-1960)

Year	Annual Rainfall in m.m.	No. of Rainy Days
1952	1,339.5	54
1953	1,391.1	62
1954	1,108.0	55
1955	1,372.6	74
1956	1,335.6	65
1957	987.1	57
1958	1,340.1	67
1959	1,130.3	61
1960	1,049.3	52

Source:—District Census Hand Book, 1961, pp. 488-595.

TABLE—III

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District (1901-1950)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
901—1000	2	1401—1500	7
1001—1100	1	1501—1600	7
1101—1200	6	1601—1700	4
1201—1300	14	1701—1800	1
1301—1400	7	1801—1900	1

Source:—Deptt. of Meteorology and Geophysics Govt. of India, Poona

TABLE—IV

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity (PENDRA)

Month	Mean Daily Maxi- mum Tempe- rature	Mean Daily Mini- mum Tempe- rature	Highest Maximum ever recorded	Lowest Minimum ever recorded	Relative Humi- dity			
					0830*	1730*		
	oC	oC	oC	Date	oC	Date	%	%
January	23.7	10.5	30.1	1958, Jan. 13	3.3	1937, Jan. 8	66	49
February	25.7	12.5	34.4	1953, Feb. 24	1.7	1929, Feb. 2	58	40
March	30.9	17.1	39.4	1955, Mar. 31	8.9	1906, Mar. 1	41	29
April	35.4	21.9	42.8	1942, Apr. 28	12.4	1961, Apr. 2	31	23
May	38.4	25.5	43.9	1928, May 25	17.8	1933, May 8	32	24
June	34.3	24.4	43.9	1942, Jun. 10	16.7	1915, Jun. 13	61	58
July	28.6	22.6	37.2	1954, Jul. 1	18.3	1942, Jul. 13	84	84
August	27.9	22.3	32.8	1925, Aug. 30	18.3	1910, Aug. 8	85	85
September	28.7	21.6	32.8	1938, Sept. 21	17.8	1935, Sep. 30	83	79
October	28.4	17.9	33.9	1920, Oct. 3	11.7	1933, Oct. 31	68	63
November	25.6	13.0	31.7	1909, Nov. 4	6.1	1926, Nov. 21	61	50
December	28.4	10.0	30.0	1941, Dec. 12	3.9	1936, Dec. 31	63	47
Annual	29.3	18.3					61	53

*Hours I.S.T.

Source:—Deptt. of Met. & Geophysics, Govt. of India, Poona.

TABLE—V

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity (CHAMPA)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature	Highest Maximum Ever Recorded		Lowest Minimum Ever Recorded		Relative Humidity	
							0830†	1740†
	oC	oC	oC	Date	oC	Date	%	%
January	27.5	13.8	32.2	1950, Jan. 31	7.8	1954, Jan. 25	68	39
February	31.1	16.2	36.7	1953, Feb. 28	8.3	1950, Feb. 12	55	26
March	35.3	20.0	41.7	1955, Mar. 31	13.2	1957, Mar. 1	43	22
April	39.9	24.9	44.8	1961, Apr. 23	18.1	1961, Apr. 2	36	18
May	43.0	28.9	47.2	1948, May 22	20.5	1957, May 19	36	18
June	38.9	27.8	47.2	1953, Jun. 3	21.5	1961, Jun. 13	60	45
July	31.4	24.9	39.4	1944, Jul. 1	21.7	1946, Jul. 16	86	75
August	30.8	24.9	35.1	1957, Aug. 22	22.2	1957, Aug. 12	87	79
September	31.5	24.7	35.0	1954, Sep. 3	20.9	1960, Sep. 22	83	75
October	31.4	22.0	36.2	1957, Oct. 12	15.4	1960, Oct. 26	78	63
November	29.3	16.1	33.3	1946, Nov. 13	9.6	1960, Nov. 30	67	45
December	27.8	13.7	31.2	1960, Dec. 26	7.2	1962, Dec. 24	69	44
Annual	33.2	21.5					64	46

†Hours I.S.T.

Source:—Deptt. of Met. & Geophysics, G.O.I. Poona.

TABLE—VI

Mean Wind Speed in km./hr. (PENDRA)

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
4.7	5.6	6.4	7.1	8.0	8.2	7.6	6.3	5.3	3.5	3.4	3.9	5.8

Source:—Deptt. of Met. & Geophysics, G.O.I. Poona.

TABLE—VII

Mean Wind Speed in km./hr. (CHAMPA)

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
4.5	5.3	5.4	5.7	6.7	8.1	8.3	7.4	5.4	3.9	4.9	3.6	5.8

Source:—Deptt. of Meteorology and Geophysics, G.O.I., Poona.

TABLE—VIII

Special Weather Phenomena (PENDRA)

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder	2.3	3.9	4.3	4.4	5.9	8.2	7.5	6.0	6.3	1.4	0.2	0.1	50.5
Hail	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6
Dust-Storm	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
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	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	2.2

Source:—Deptt. of Met. & Geophysics, G.O.I., Poona.

TABLE—IX

Special Weather Phenomena (CHAMPA)

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder	1.4	1.6	4.0	4.2	4.4	10.1	9.9	12.5	10.0	3.8	0.0	0.4	62.7
Hail	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Dust-Storm	0.0	0.2	1.7	2.0	3.8	3.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.9
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	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7

Source:—Deptt. of Meteorology and Geophysics, G.O.I., Poona.

TABLE—X

Approximate Number and Category of Wild Animals Available in North Bilaspur Forest Division

Range	Name of Shooting Block	Number and category of Wild Animals					Total of S.C.&D.
		Tiger	Leopard	Total of I.&L.	Sambhar	Chital Deer (other)	
Pendra	1. Pendra	2*	12		3	12	35
	2. Khodri	4	13		5	12	—
		6	25	31	8	24	35
Kudmura	1. Kudmura	4	10	14	15	8	10
Korba	1. Korba	1	5	6	—	5	15
Katghora	1. Chaitma	1	4		—	6	10
	2. Tuman	2	6		—	9	20
		3	10	13	—	15	30
Kondai	1. Kondai	3	14		10	12	35
		3	14	17	10	12	35
Pasan	1. Matin	2	4		—	5	12
	2. Pasan	1	8		—	6	13
		3	12	15	—	11	25
Kenda	1. Tatidhar	2	3		—	4	15
	2. Kenda	3	7		—	7	10
	3. Lafa	3	6		—	4	10
		8	16	24	—	15	35
		28	92		23	57	185

Source:—Divisional Forest Officer, North Bilaspur Forest Division.

Mortalities from Reptiles and Wild Animals of Bilaspur (Police Station-wise)

[illegible]

Name of P.S.

Reptiles Animals

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. Balespur	3		3		3	1					2				4								15	1
2. Hirri	3		2	1	2		1	2	3	2	3	1	3	1	3		1		2				23	7
3. Chakrabhatta									1			2	1	1			1				1		4	3
4. Masturi	6		4	1	1	1	3	1			6		8		3	2	3		2		4		35	5
5. Ratanpur	1	1	3		4		4						8		3		2	1	3		4		32	1
6. Kola	3	1	9		4	5	4		3	1		2	3		9		4		3				36	9
7. Gaurella	7	2	2	5	4	4	6	2	4	1	2	2	6	1	5	1	5	4	2	1	6		49	23
8. Marwahi		1	2		6		3	1	1		1		6	2	2	1	4		2		5		32	5
9. Mungeli	1		1		2		1		1		2	1	1		4	2	1		2		2	1	18	4
10. Takhatpur	1		3			1	1		1	1	3		3	3	1	1	2		1		3		19	6
11. Lornji	2		4		1		1				5	1	4		1	1		1	4		2	1	24	4
12. Kunda			2						3		1		2		1	1	3		2		3		17	1

[illegible]

Source:—Supntt. of Police, Bilaspur.

TABLE—XII
Working of the Co-operative Central Bank Bilaspur

Year	No. of Soci- ties affiliated	No. of Mem- bers	Share Capi- tal	Working Capital	Deposits	Investments (Loan given)	Loans outstanding against societies
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1949-50	600	215	1,20,938	20,12,646	15,13,930	14,43,782	6,61,385
1950-51	660	247	1,29,456	23,20,350	15,05,557	21,33,774	9,54,667
First Five Year Plan							
1951-52	679	253	1,37,945	23,50,315	14,64,927	19,98,054	10,91,792
1952-53	815	268	1,92,241	30,85,159	17,48,222	23,18,038	13,88,883
1953-54	893	362	3,13,737	33,19,570	19,00,995	31,76,976	17,05,622
1954-55	1296	379	3,45,266	44,05,298	20,07,889	38,46,115	29,18,939
1955-56	1540	396	3,86,663	57,15,118	25,23,611	54,04,657	37,76,802
Second Five Year Plan							
1956-57	1573	411	4,27,289	64,50,364	29,38,796	59,78,503	41,43,894
1957-58	1567	427	9,75,845	87,71,200	36,38,628	53,99,538	59,79,068
1958-59	2250	463	15,68,712	1,08,82,721	39,98,485	84,13,682	71,83,735
1959-60	2165	474	16,81,384	1,13,22,856	46,27,164	88,52,883	76,40,175
1960-61	2177	474	19,34,346	1,25,72,497	62,63,533	1,07,10,321	83,63,692
Third Five Year Plan							
1961-62	2103	452	23,10,177	1,51,10,923	69,26,461	1,52,38,324	1,12,92,776
1962-63	1693	452	25,58,654	1,86,02,416	54,54,707	1,42,51,532	1,42,99,686
1963-64	931	1753	24,60,155	2,23,70,956	84,64,429	2,14,41,161	1,53,17,594
1964-65	927	1751	28,33,497	2,95,97,881	1,05,16,416	1,98,79,548	1,78,19,347
1965-66	923	1745	29,42,128	2,88,38,956	1,01,60,696	2,06,25,410	2,08,92,434

TABLE—XIII

Taccavi Loans Distributed in Bilaspur District by Co-operative Central Bank
Bilaspur

Purpose	Amount distributed		
	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
1. Sinking of well & repair to old well	313484	220500	2029804
2. Installation of oil engine pump	17110	12050	4708
3. Installation of Electric pump	1500	—	2408
" " Rahat	1250	—	1008
5. Field Bunding	8555	97400	25710
6. Agriculturist Loans Act	175422	235000	58838
7. Land Improvement Loan Act	220000	205000	27000
8. Planning and Development	230160	167000	—
9. Subsidiary Food crops	7200	2840	—
10. Seeds	233504	18516	103376
11. Fertilizers	193638	99551	857281

TABLE—XIV

Loans granted from State funds: Ordinary Taccavi
(from 1950-51 to 1966-67)

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act	Land Improvement Loans Act
1	2	3
1950-51	77732	—
1951-52	59885	—
1952-53	95490	39775
1953-54	131500	146990
1954-55	434210	151250
1955-56	332208	167535
1956-57	277385	92050
1957-58	123190	89720
1958-59	222862	142149
1959-60	162030	134695
1960-61	—	—
1961-62	59570	—
1962-63	—	—
1963-64	—	—
1964-65	—	—
1965-66	1545	—
1966-67	295439	—

TABLE—XV

Statement Showing the Gross Imports of main commodities in Bilaspur, Champa and Sakti municipalities of
Bilaspur District

Main items	Bilaspur		Champa		Sakti	
	1964-65	1965-66	1964-65	1965-66	1964-65	1965-66
1. Grain	995449 Mds.	888336 Mds.	209876	171272	146711 Qnts.	99009 Qnts.
2. Refined Sugar	32835 Mds.	124026 Qnts.	8506 Mds.	7735 Mds.	1103 "	5010 "
3. Un-refined Sugar	10448 "	2696 "	6163 Mds.	4026 "	1103 "	1200 "
4. Ghee	7048 "	5842 Mds.	694 "	616 "	24437 Lt.	65925 Lt.
5. Animals for Slaughter	18461 No.	14242 No.	651 No.	883 No.	14026 No.	48335 No.
6. Oil	55588 Mds.	57354 Mds.	9665 Mds.	8142 Mds.	261172 Lt.	652358 Lt.
7. Oil & Oil Seed for fuel, lighting & washing	858310 Rs.	953714 Rs.	216184 "	187385 "	218378 "	
8. Building material	1309874 Rs.	2131242 Rs.	23121 "	28044 "	401550 Rs.	105319 Rs.
9. Drugs, Gum, spices and perfumes	1749440 Rs.	155328 Rs.	2724 "	3198 "		
10. Tobacco	15795 Mds.	18740 Mds.	3079 "	2598 "	281938 "	364999 "
11. Cloth and piece goods	3663146 Rs.	3557364 Rs.	2884 Mds.	3222 "	1477625 "	1520910 "
12. Metals & articles of metal	2037238 Rs.	2138721 Rs.	6211 "	6161 "	220011 "	109183 Qnts.

TABLE—XVI

Financial Assistance to Marketing Co-operative Societies in Bilaspur District

S. No.	Name of Society	Year	Towards share-capital	Godown Loan	Godown Subsidy	Staff Subsidy
1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	Co-operative Marketing Society, Sakti	57-58 58-59 59-60 60-61 61-62	20,000 — — 1,50,000 (Processing Unit) —	15,000 — — 7,500 (For Rural godown) —	5,000 — — 2,500 —	2,500 1,650 850 6,000 —
2	Co-operative Marketing Society, Mungeli	57-58 58-59 59-60	20,000 — —	15,000 — 7,500 (For Rural godown)	5,000 — 2,500	2,500 1,650 850
3	Co-operative Marketing Society, Jai Ram Nagar	58-59 59-60 60-61	20,000 — 1,50,000 (Processing Unit)	7,500 (For Rural godown) — —	2,500 — —	2,500 1,650 6,000
4	Co-operative Marketing Society, Janjgir	58-59 59-60	20,000 —	15,000 —	5,000 —	2,500 1,650
5	Co-operative Marketing Society, Akaltara	59-60 60-61	20,000 —	15,000 —	5,000 —	2,500 1,650
6	Co-operative Marketing Society, Colhapur	59-60 " 60-61	10,000 — —	15,000 7,500 —	5,000 2,500 —	— — 1,650
7	Co-operative Marketing Society, Lormi	59-60 " 60-61 61-62	10,000 — — —	15,000 7,500 (For Rural godown) — —	5,000 2,500 — —	— — 1,650 850
8	Co-operative Marketing Society, Gaurela	60-61 61-62	20,000 —	15,000 —	5,000 —	2,500 1,650
9	Co-operative Marketing Society, Pundaria	61-62	25,200	18,750	6,250	2,250

TABLE—XVII

Statement Regarding Warehousing in the District of Bilaspur in the month of March, 1967

Name of District Centre		Date of establishment of Warehouse	Storage Capacity in the month of May, 1967	Occupancy in the month of May, 67	Period	Opening	Deposit	Withdrawal	Closing Balance
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bilaspur	Janjgir	13.10.60	10230	8847	13.10.60 to 31.12.60	—	—	—	—
					1.1.61 to 30.3.61	—	33558	2005	31553
					1.4.61 to 30.6.61	31553	12784	31340	12497
					1.7.61 to 30.9.61	12497	8026	6887	13636
					1.10.61 to 31.2.61	13636	15916	20093	9459
					1.1.62 to 31.3.62	9459	44939	15949	38449
					1.4.62 to 30.6.62	38449	6145	8328	36266
					1.7.62 to 30.9.62	36266	1322	7086	31002
					1.10.62 to 31.12.62	31002	1379	4363	28018
					1.1.63 to 31.3.63	38018	2044	27217	2345
					1.4.63 to 30.6.63	2345	1695	2798	1242
					1.7.63 to 30.9.63	1242	603	780	1065
					1.10.66 to 31.12.63	1065	1959	1089	1935
					1.1.64 to 31.3.64	1935	2433	3303	1065
					1.4.64 to 30.6.64	1065	2051	1472	1644
					1.7.64 to 30.9.64	1644	463	1907	2000
					1.10.64 to 31.12.64	200	1055	145	1010
					1.1.65 to 31.3.65	1010	2732	2376	1365
					1.4.65 to 30.6.65	1366	2361	1719	2008
					1.7.65 to 30.9.65	2008	3680	3527	2161
					1.10.65 to 31.12.65	2161	2426	1153	3434
					1.1.66 to 31.3.66	3434	4519	2517	5436
					1.4.66 to 30.6.66	5436	4570	2851	6155
					1.7.66 to 30.9.66	6155	981	2717	4419
					1.10.66 to 12.12.66	4419	1048	843	4624
					1.1.67 to 31.3.67	4624	1189	739	5075

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TABLE—XVIII

Annual Receipts Under Certain Heads of Revenue

(Rupees in '000)

Year	Income Tax	Union Ex-cise	Estate Duty	State Ex-cise	Sales Tax	Taxes on Motor Vehicles	Forest	Regis-tration	Stamps	Entertain-ment Tax
1951-52				17,17	8,22	—	8,45	—	—	—
1952-53				17,94	12,35	—	9,42	—	—	—
1953-54				14,63	11,72	—	9,10	—	2,20	—
1954-55				12,20	8,12	—	9,84	—	6,98	1,16
1955-56				13,35	8,85	—	14,11	—	5,58	1,23
1956-57				14,20	8,83	—	14,96	—	7,18	1,57
1957-58				16,45	12,23	—	21,31	1,56	8,74	1,70
1958-59				15,81	7,57	—	19,69	1,97	8,38	1,97
1959-60				18,42	13,96	—	20,13	2,05	8,53	2,57
1960-61				19,62	17,74	—	21,35	1,94	9,53	3,17
1961-62	10,75	9,66	53	26,33	22,42	8,67	27,11	2,15	9,85	3,99
1962-63	18,05	11,26	42	25,75	27,91	9,55	26,51	2,02	9,94	4,13
1963-64	23,43	13,32	39	29,90	31,23	9,81	28,83	2,30	13,19	4,98
1964-65	17,03	14,03	13	34,96	47,35	8,71	34,00	2,73	14,61	5,89
1965-66	20,35	13,93	11	47,92	56,02	12,88	63,98	3,95	13,32	6,93
1966-67				49,24	49,23	—	—	3,80	16,70	7,49
1967-68	20,06	14,27	8	44,45	58,29	11,98	96,73	5,53	29,05	20
1968-69	28,12	16,97	10	98,40	61,55	11,77	1,41,02	5,35	24,48	21,67
1969-70	38,24	18,38	7	45,18	64,98	12,82	1,46,31	5,55	30,04	25,75

TABLE—XIX

Annual Income and Expenditure of Bilaspur Municipality

Year	Octori	Conservancy	Pounds	Markets, Slaughtering house	Grants and contributions	Other receipts	Total receipts	General Administration	Collection Taxes	Refunds
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1891-92	18,512	1,149	1,774	1,707	254	2,154	25,549	354	2,439	2,114
1900-01	24,714	1,691	1,562	2,020	1,366	3,991	36,244	2,377	2,151	5,193
1910-11	27,804	3,966	1,529	4,414	1,000	12,151	51,864	2,529	3,981	—
1920-21	44,907	6,772	3,849	11,608	5,115	11,734	83,985	5,276	6,778	—
1930-31	57,806	15,774	3,727	12,595	15,933	17,893	1,33,730	10,034	11,857	636
1940-41	65,273	22,753	4,438	13,734	11,878	61,226	1,79,312	10,853	14,398	—

(Contd.)

Lighting	Water Supply	Drainage	Conservancy	Medical and Vaccination	Markets and Slaughtering houses	Roads	Education	Other Expenditure	Total Expenditure
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1891-92	215	—	4,184	1,813	1,026	2,799	2,266	2,624	20,111
1900-01	449	500	5,297	4,197	182	3,004	5,260	4,308	33,155
1910-11	1,628	—	10,708	3,194	2,832	4,112	13,054	10,016	52,388
1920-21	5,597	—	28,696	5,085	709	8,360	20,258	11,841	92,783
1930-31	5,921	—	35,020	6,323	3,404	6,430	59,341	15,667	1,55,544*
1940-41	11,461	4,271	32,700	5,781	12,807	7,492	50,720	39,013	1,90,586

TABLE—XX
Annual Income and Expenditure of Municipalities in Bilaspur District

Year	Bilaspur Municipality		Champa Municipality		Kota Municipality		Mungeli Municipality		Sakti Municipality	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1950-51	7,84,231	8,44,479	1,79,091	1,83,479	72,168	72,161	48,908	85,009	1,13,225	81,711
1955-56	9,40,405	8,45,700	1,25,241	2,09,986	97,165	97,165	1,27,626	1,36,587	1,92,097	1,72,897
1960-61	19,34,553	18,31,440	2,50,875	2,95,715	1,93,558	1,93,558	2,20,394	2,17,883	2,54,230	2,53,939
1961-62	11,68,317	12,07,390	2,98,451	2,76,165	1,78,569	1,33,995	2,40,176	2,27,908	3,00,786	2,78,539
1962-63	16,38,947	14,21,226	8,26,747	3,20,899	1,53,200	1,50,391	3,88,720	2,95,848	2,09,699	2,48,207
1963-64	12,51,980	15,35,682	3,12,381	8,44,206	1,41,687	1,71,726	3,52,508	2,83,308	2,55,313	2,44,120
1964-65	13,97,592	12,95,572	3,42,609	3,40,332	1,42,964	1,31,436	2,47,036	2,39,424	3,49,198	3,35,020
1965-66	14,59,291	14,94,775	3,16,764	3,19,409	1,20,953	1,31,889	2,76,040	2,94,306	3,18,325	3,88,215
1966-67	14,79,205	16,62,166	—	—	1,18,477	1,25,594	2,89,256	2,43,302	3,57,627	3,16,744
1967-68	16,80,477	16,08,590	—	—	1,44,022	1,34,233	2,87,912	3,36,959	3,63,221	3,57,710
1968-69	16,73,629	17,58,849	—	—	1,51,442	1,50,818	—	—	3,78,811	3,82,409
1969-70	20,73,346	20,15,409	—	—	2,23,157	1,99,051	—	—	4,09,879	3,73,043

BILASPUR

TABLE—XXI

Annual Expenditure under various Heads by the Municipalities of Bilaspur District

Year	Bilaspur Municipality		Champa Municipality		Kota Municipality		Mungeli Municipality		Sakti Municipality	
	Public Health	Education	Public Health	Education	Public Health	Education	Public Health	Education	Public Health	Education
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1950-51	2,18,936	3,18,969	1,83,303	15,334	66,255	29,934	6,628	5,091	15,682	
1955-56	2,54,531	1,43,718	2,22,523	19,586	2,814	58,516	9,196	1,627	25,281	
1960-61	3,18,591	45,169	3,70,534	27,635	35,396	1,02,618	14,853	22,310	39,982	
1961-62	2,59,637	1,02,281	4,17,165	65,825	19,727	98,968	15,498	11,743	45,368	
1962-63	3,00,827	58,320	5,04,988	56,850	18,174	1,06,398	20,208	12,293	48,071	
1963-64	3,11,741	1,05,734	4,91,130	74,134	17,761	1,08,519	19,552	21,813	61,807	
1964-65	3,43,441	1,90,831	2,37,866	1,10,267	31,209	65,198	20,233	11,896	19,124	
1965-66	3,84,967	3,01,627	2,31,976	70,673	24,296	63,613	26,070	9,167	29,910	
1966-67	6,60,365	1,70,819	2,62,106	—	—	—	28,784	3,367	31,412	
1967-68	6,68,885	46,410	3,11,398	—	—	—	28,540	2,703	36,831	
1968-69	7,00,633	1,16,994	3,38,739	—	—	—	31,514	4,923	43,051	
1969-70	7,48,694	1,53,044	3,58,374	—	—	—	41,135	20,780	48,352	

(Contd.)

(Contd.)

Year	Mungeli Municipality		Sakti Municipality		Education	
	Public Health	Public Works	Public Health	Public Works	Public Health	Education
	11	12	13	14	15	16
1950-51	—	—	—	13,647	22,367	16,254
1955-56	16,065	26,889	21,964	31,310	32,735	43,145
1960-61	30,398	18,540	61,624	36,579	47,081	80,451
1961-62	34,090	26,370	76,381	52,723	44,652	58,895
1962-63	43,199	51,202	1,11,153	49,755	58,837	36,787
1963-64	33,360	41,942	83,904	69,983	44,141	36,673
1964-65	36,206	28,174	66,419	69,302	65,871	43,623
1965-66	56,384	41,467	56,843	88,119	66,008	77,994
1966-67	64,543	15,777	53,960	82,359	17,041	81,542
1967-68	86,878	21,102	89,659	71,623	40,905	93,421
1968-69	—	—	—	89,858	38,173	63,161
1969-70	—	—	—	98,659	30,303	12,745

TABLE—XXII

Number of Street Lights and Expenditure on them

(In Rs.)

Year	Bilaspur Municipality		Champa Municipality		Kota Municipality		Mungeli Municipality		Sakti Municipality		
	Number of Street lights	Expenditure on Lighting	Number of Street lights	Expenditure on Lighting	Number of Street lights	Expenditure on Lighting	Number of Street lights	Expenditure on Lighting	Number of Street lights	Expenditure on Lighting	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1961-62		922		200	7,410	150	6,314	245	7,620	101	5,666
1962-63		965		200	7,427	150	6,813	245	8,804	101	5,014
1963-64		997		200	6,449	179	7,392	245	10,148	156	7,055
1964-65		1,025		206	6,600	186	7,515	245	8,689	196	14,444
1965-66		1,192		205	7,864	210	7,624	245	—	239	27,858
1966-67		1,194		—	—	210	10,710	247	20,095	170	22,637
1967-68		1,267		—	—	210	8,100	247	11,998	170	22,749
1968-69		1,326		—	—	210	7,754	247	—	330	23,295
1969-70		1,391		—	—	218	8,603	247	—	378	39,069

TABLE—XXIII
Income and Expenditure of District Council Bilaspur

Year	Local rates	Receipts under Cattle Trespass Act	Education receipts	Rents on Nazul	Ferries	Contributions from provincial Revenue	Other receipts	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1891-92	30,027	13,560	60	513	2,233	1,330	11,339	59,062
1900-01	14,752	15,844	31	—	4,167	13,754	11,339	51,284
1910-11	34,045	24,244	679	—	4,082	39,000	20,768	1,22,818
1920-21	37,493	45,458	1,137	—	8,616	1,54,781	19,442	2,66,927
1930-31	85,615	39,441	93,391	21	10,349	35,000	1,26,965	3,90,782
1940-41	82,134	18,886	89,123	—	5,143	30,610	73,506	2,99,372

(Contd.)

Year	Establishment	Cattle pound	Education	Medical charges	Civil Works	Veterinary charges	Other ex- penditure	Total Expendi- ture
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
1891-92	2,056	3,472	11,764	5,151	36,436	—	13,719	72,608
1900-01	1,946	4,810	21,447	7,266	6,867	927	6,864	50,127
1910-11	3,888	45,070	9,997	36,398	1,577	1,577	19,440	1,26,590
1920-21	11,344	18,128	1,27,764	17,570	1,20,282	4,766	15,754	3,24,598
1930-31	12,879	22,472	1,49,628	30,871	27,282	4,551	29,648	2,72,780
1940-41	23,363	28,243	1,64,450	17,834	16,683	5,591	71,628	3,27,797

TABLE—XXIV

Income and Expenditure (Janapada Sabhas)

Year	Bilaspur Janapada Sabha		Kotghora Janapada Sabha		Janjgir Janapada Sabha		Sakti Janapada Sabha		Mungeli Janapada Sabha	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1948-49	3,97,080	2,53,140	93,322	47,506	1,71,188	1,92,378	53,465	18,910	1,28,030	1,08,374
1950-51	3,89,895	4,89,835	2,34,001	2,49,874	3,97,638	4,04,374	89,495	75,055	2,51,555	2,28,657
1955-56	10,65,079	6,64,469	1,31,638	1,27,799	7,97,860	6,41,556	4,25,625	4,21,445	4,19,547	4,69,495
1960-61	21,60,306	12,98,471	2,22,638	2,29,598	9,64,790	8,20,373	6,42,760	6,05,380	6,79,234	6,31,010
1961-62	21,24,225	12,89,853	3,53,562	3,66,550	14,26,418	14,86,063	8,57,770	8,77,695	7,19,814	6,21,893
1962-63	22,14,746	14,20,738	1,95,139	2,46,283	11,53,288	9,77,187	8,40,120	8,41,110	7,73,935	6,99,306
1963-64	14,57,502	8,45,158	1,87,675	1,75,544	9,14,496	10,73,424	6,12,325	6,48,035	5,14,263	6,87,998
1964-65	6,15,293	6,43,881	1,81,183	1,74,232	4,05,342	4,52,010	2,50,600	2,57,655	3,42,036	2,42,411
1965-66	6,62,112	5,37,019	1,88,242	1,69,863	4,59,669	4,27,561	2,96,215	3,12,340	2,35,712	3,42,270

TABLE—XXV

Items of Expenditure of Janapada Sabha

Year	Mungeli Janapada Sabha			Bilaspur Janapada Sabha			Katghora Janapada Sabha		
	Public Health	Public Works	Education	Public Health	Public Works	Education	Public Health	Public Works	Education
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1948-49	—	—	—	7,276	26,430	73,054	697	1,788	17,925
1950-51	—	—	1,278	37,252	39,261	29,553	1,598	7,087	49,048
1955-56	53,673	9,710	19,998	74,587	96,067	41,631	1,249	28,927	5,561
1960-61	55,192	8,878	61,624	88,169	71,324	7,41,678	—	32,251	6,814
1961-62	55,844	15,109	76,284	99,094	96,642	63,539	—	28,089	27,541
1962-63	58,182	40,714	1,01,153	1,13,407	68,513	9,90,353	—	10,364	28,802
1963-64	—	—	—	1,15,400	37,240	4,75,620	—	4,115	17,185
1964-65	—	—	—	1,24,314	62,234	86,061	—	3,500	3,702
1965-66	—	—	—	1,33,693	63,344	37,681	—	14,158	682

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(Contd.)

Year	Janjgir Janapada Sabha			Sakti Janapada Sabha		
	Public Health	Public Works	Education	Public Health	Public Works	Education
	11	12	13	14	15	16
1948-49	5,880	1,826	1,15,202	310	210	13,000
1950-51	17,651	386	2,35,488	935	1,080	51,595
1955-56	32,884	237	2,78,190	11,695	13,710	2,63,080
1960-61	36,537	—	5,16,903	19,150	16,235	4,64,965
1961-62	31,377	—	8,80,923	30,225	25,610	6,79,675
1962-63	33,650	—	5,85,480	33,210	25,257	6,63,450
1963-64	34,644	—	7,08,169	35,595	16,420	4,62,715
1964-65	37,309	—	2,08,846	50,235	10,090	1,14,975
1965-66	45,096	—	1,94,342	49,385	4,080	1,56,933

APPENDICES

TABLE—XXVI

Prohibition Offences

Year	Offences in		
	Liquor	Opium	Ganja
1949	187	10	8
1950	213	15	18
1951	235	7	22
1952	291	18	23
1953	308	10	39
1954	900	10	26
1955	578	7	53
1956	978	15	86
1957	905	29	62
1957-58	957	26	74
1958-59	907	17	52
1959-60	1,001	20	31
1960-61	865	10	19
1961-62	52	—	5
1962-63	9	—	20
1964-64	43	1	38
1964-65	97	3	42
1965-66	202	10	98
1967-68	240	—	—
1968-69	321	—	—
1969-70	272	—	—
1970-71	370	—	—
1971-72	240	—	—

Source—District Excise Officer, Bilaspur.

TABLE—XXVII

Progress of Scheduled Castes Backward Classes and Tribes, 1956-57 to 1960-61

Name of the Scheme	Amount spent In lakhs (Rs.)	Targets	
		Fixed	Achieved
1	2	3	4
For Scheduled Tribes			
(1) Education			
(a) Primary Schools	19.98	103	103
(b) Middle Schools		14	14
(c) Hostels		14	14
(d) Stipends for middle school scholars	2.90		262
(e) Stipends for high school scholars			370
(f) Stipends for trainees in Normal School			
Economic Welfare			
(a) For bulls of good breed	0.06	4	4
(b) Farms attached to middle schools	0.68	8	8
(c) Crop competition	0.02	—	—
(d) Multi-purpose co-operative societies	0.56	5	5
Health, housing and Other schemes			
(a) Block headquarters	1.76	—	—
(b) Establishment of Veterinary dispensaries	0.63	2	2
(c) Primary health centres	1.80	3	3
(d) Maternity and Child Welfare centres	0.42	8	8
(e) Wells for drinking water	0.37	25	25
(f) Village roads	0.25	25 miles	25 miles
For the Scheduled Castes			
(1) Education			
(a) Stipends for middle School Scholars	0.84	—	360
(b) Stipends for high school scholars	0.14	1	1
(c) Balwadi			
For Other Backward Classes			
(1) Education			
(a) Middle Schools, Higher Secondary, Schools and College (stipends)	0.62	—	458
(2) Management and Organisation			
(a) Primary Schools	1.05	6	6
(b) Middle Schools		1	1
(c) Higher Secondary Schools		1	1
(3) Distribution of Medicine through circulating chest boxes	0.02	8	8
Total Rs.	32.10 Lakhs		

Source—Dvitiya Panchavarehiya Yojna, Bilaspur Distric, pp. 42-43.

TABLE—XXVIII

Number of Vidhan Sabha Constituencies and Voters for General Elections of 1951-52

S.No.	Name of the Constituency	No. of Seats Allotted	Reserved Seats	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 7 or 6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Chandrapur Birra	2	1. Scheduled Castes	1,06,330	2,12,660	65,471	31.00
2.	Baradwara	1	—	44,378	44,378	17,380	30.00
3.	Champa	1	—	44,268	44,268	15,463	35.00
4.	Janjgir-Pamgarh	2	1. Scheduled Castes	84,896	1,69,792	51,596	33.00
5.	Akaltara-Masturi	2	1. Scheduled Castes	96,807	1,93,614	57,410	29.00
6.	Bilaspur	1	—	58,573	58,573	23,748	40.00
7.	Pendra	1	—	43,221	43,221	13,380	30.00
8.	Katghora	2	1. Scheduled Tribes	89,314	1,78,628	46,097	25.00
9.	Rampur	1	1. Scheduled Tribes	47,624	47,624	13,691	29.00
10.	Mungeli	2	1. Scheduled Castes	96,645	1,93,290	54,843	28.00
11.	Pandaria	1	—	51,435	51,435	18,981	37.00
12.	Takhatpur	1	—	50,227	50,227	16,166	32.00
13.	Nargoda	1	—	47,598	47,588	17,452	31.00
14.	Kota	1	—	49,578	49,578	44,447	29.00

TABLE—XXIX

Number of Vidhan Sabha Constituencies and Voters in the General Elections of 1957

S.No.	Name of the Constituency	Number of Seats	Reserved Seats	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 7 to 6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Lormi	1	—	51,439	51,439	21,446	41.70
2.	Mungeli	2	1. Scheduled Castes	95,668	1,91,336	74,805	49.00
3.	Masturi	2	1. Scheduled Castes	96,422	96,422	22,371	23.29 (one candidate was elected unopposed)
4.	Bilaspur	1	—	57,734	57,734	26,023	45.10
5.	Kota	2	1. Scheduled Tribes	92,947	1,85,894	54,248	29.20
6.	Gourella	1	—	53,443	53,443	12,958	24.20
7.	Tanakhar	1	1. Scheduled Tribes	38,782	38,782	9,174	23.60
8.	Katghora	2	1. Scheduled Tribes	95,370	1,90,740	37,382	19.60
9.	Champa	1	—	56,662	56,662	18,866	33.30
10.	Janjgir	1	—	52,567	52,567	21,311	40.50
11.	Akaltara	1	—	53,337	53,887	18,656	33.80
12.	Nawagarh	1	—	59,557	59,559	17,685	29.70
13.	Sakti	1	—	54,560	54,560	19,106	35.00
14.	Chandrapur	2	1. Scheduled Castes	91,828	1,83,656	46,293	25.70

TABLE—XXX

Number of Vidhan Sabha Constituencies and Voters in the General Elections of 1962

S. No.	Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Chandrapur	47,860	13,468	28.14
2.	Malkharoda (Scheduled Castes)	48,484	8,986	18.53
3.	Sakti	60,148	24,163	40.23
4.	Champa	60,293	28,370	47.05
5.	Nawagarh	61,098	14,488	23.71
6.	Akaltara	56,780	23,605	41.57
7.	Janjgir	57,208	22,948	40.11
8.	Barpali	51,982	14,606	26.17
9.	Katghora (Scheduled Tribes)	51,953	7,986	15.37
10.	Tanakhar (Scheduled Tribes)	43,671	8,254	18.90
11.	Gourella	58,708	20,357	35.52
12.	Kota (Scheduled Tribes)	54,946	13,133	23.89
13.	Lormi	54,365	20,365	37.51
14.	Mungeli (Scheduled Castes)	55,556	19,592	35.26
15.	Jarhagaon	49,690	14,690	29.62
16.	Takhatpur	50,233	17,446	34.73
17.	Bilaspur	69,164	37,996	54.93
18.	Masturi (Scheduled Castes)	52,866	15,682	29.66
19.	Belha	52,228	12,592	24.10

TABLE—XXXI

Number of Vidhan Sabha Constituencies and Voters in the General Elections of 1967

S. No.	Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Rampur (Scheduled Tribes)	58,333	12,320	38.26
2.	Katghora	66,420	25,740	38.77
3.	Tanakhar (Scheduled Tribes)	49,218	14,521	29.50
4.	Marwahi (Scheduled Tribes)	57,111	18,536	32.44
5.	Kota	58,562	26,292	44.90
6.	Lormi	58,558	27,137	46.34
7.	Mungeli (Scheduled Castes)	55,335	24,717	46.47
8.	Jarhagaon	62,669	28,387	45.30
9.	Takhatpur	56,592	23,424	41.39
10.	Bilaspur	60,917	35,425	58.15
11.	Belha	58,566	35,256	41.16
12.	Masturi (Scheduled Castes)	59,963	21,312	35.54
13.	Pamgarh (Scheduled Castes)	71,891	19,098	26.56
14.	Akaltara	58,318	33,153	56.85
15.	Baloda	58,559	32,322	55.19
16.	Champa	67,923	36,239	53.35
17.	Sakti	62,315	32,631	52.36
18.	Malkharoda (Scheduled Castes)	62,843	26,221	41.72
19.	Chandrapur	58,252	30,299	52.01

TABLE—XXXII

Number of Vidhan Sabha Constituencies and Voters in the General Elections of 1972

S. No.	Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Rampur (Scheduled Tribes)	68,524	32,882	47.90
2.	Katghora	76,898	43,066	56.00
3.	Tanakhar (Scheduled Tribes)	65,467	29,180	44.57
4.	Marwahi (Scheduled Tribes)	64,165	21,768	33.93
5.	Kota	66,242	35,649	53.82
6.	Lormi	68,882	46,980	68.20
7.	Mungeli (Scheduled Castes)	66,774	40,695	60.95
8.	Jarhagaon	72,574	40,602	55.96
9.	Takhatpur	65,104	36,542	56.13
10.	Bilaspur	71,957	40,519	56.31
11.	Belha	63,058	30,104	47.74
12.	Masturi (Scheduled Castes)	69,601	23,919	34.37
13.	Pamgarh (Scheduled Castes)	75,685	13,630	18.02
14.	Akaltara	63,762	36,501	55.50
15.	Ealoda	64,158	33,625	52.41
16.	Champa	71,445	33,663	47.12
17.	Sakti	67,906	34,461	50.75
18.	Malkharoda (Scheduled Castes)	67,016	29,598	44.17
19.	Chandrapur	67,323	38,846	57.70

APPENDIX-B—I

List of Fishes & Aquatic Fauna

(1) Carps

(a) Major carps

1. Catla catla
2. Labeo rohita
3. Labeo calbasu
4. Cirrhina mrigala
5. Barbus tor (mahaseer)

(b) Other Carps

1. Labeo gonius
2. Labeo fimbriatus
3. Barbus chagunio
4. Labeo bata
5. Cirrhina reba
6. Barbus ticto
7. Barbus sarana
8. Chela bacaila
9. Rasbora daniconius
10. Aplocheilichthys sp.

(2) Cat fishes

1. Wallago attu
2. Mystus seenghala
3. Heteropneustes fossilis
4. Clarius magur
5. Bagarius sp.
6. Pangasius pangasius

(3) Murrels

1. Ophiocephalus marulius
2. Ophiocephalus striatus
3. Ophiocephalus gachua

(4) Feather backs

1. Notopterus notopterus
2. Notopterus chitala

(5) Spiny Eels

- A. Rhyncobdella sp.

B. *Mastacembelus* sp. (Spiny eel)

(6) Glass fishes

1. *Ambassia ranga*
2. *Ambassia nama*

(7) Others

1. *Glossogobius giuris*
 2. *Mugil carcula*
 3. *Nandus nandus*
 4. *Belone canalla*
- (b) Other aquatic animals
- (i) Water snakes
 - (ii) Prawns molluscs

Source:—Assistant Director of Fisheries, Bilaspur.

APPENDIX-B—II

List of Floral Species

Trees:—

saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*) dhaora (*Anogeissus latifolia*) tendu (*Diospyros malanoxylon*) aonla (*Emblica officinalis*) bel (*Aegle marmelos*) achar (*Bucanaria lanzon*) baranga (*Kydia calycina*) dhaman (*Grewia tiliaefolia*) bija (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) tinsa (*Ougenia dalbergioides*) kasai (*Bridelia retusa*) rohan (*Soymida febrifuga*) garari (*Cleistanthus eallinus*) jamun (*Eugenia jambolana*) kalam (*Stephagnya parvifolia*) dhobin (*Albergia paniculata*) siwan (*Gmelina arborea*) palas (*Butea frondosa*) jamrasi (*Elaeodendron glaucum*) amta (*Bauhinia malabarica*) keolari (*Bauhinia purpurea*) kachnar (*Bauhinia variegata*) thaur (*Bauhinia retusa*) lendia (*Lagerstroemia purviflora*) makha (*Schrebera swietenoides*) bhonrinal (*Hymedictyon excelsum*) kulu (*Sterculia urens*)

Underwood:—

Sinduri (*Mallotus philippinensis*) mainphal (*Randia dumetorum*) bel (*Aegle marmelos*) indrajaya (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*) maida lakri (*Litsaea sebifera*) palas (*Butea frondosa*) khirsali (*Nyctanthes arbor-tristis*) kakai (*Flacourtia ramontchi*) amaltas (*Cassia fistula*) khair (*Accacia catechu*) ber (*Zizyphus jujuba*) bhilwa (*Semecarpus anacardium*) phetra kala (*Rauvolfia uliginosa*) karonda (*Carissa* sp.) Bamboo (*Dendrocalamus strictus*)

Undergrowth:—

dhawai (*Woodfordia floribunda*) khirsali (*Nyctanthes arbor-tristis*) marorpal (*Helicteres isora*) gursukri (*Crewia hirsuta*) chhind (*Theopanax acanthis*) kusai (*Andropogon contortus*) bhurbhusi (*Eragrostis tenella*) chhira (*Anthistiria ciliata*) chhir (*Imperata arundinacea*) sabai or bagai (*Eulaliopsis binata*) khas (*Andropogon squarrosus*) or Andropogon contortus

Climbers:—

bel (*Butea superba*) nasbel (*Spatholobus roxburghii*) ramdaion (*Smilax macrophylla*) dudhi (*Crydolepis* spp.) amarbel (*Cuscuta reflexa*) gurar (*Milletia auriculata*)

Grasses:—

ghonad or chhira (*Anthistiria ciliata*) kusai (*Andropogon contortus*) chhir (*Imperata arundinacea*) sabai (*Eulaliopsis binata*) mushan (*Iseilema laxum*) bhurbhusi (*Eragrostis tenella*)

Source:—Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur Circle, Bilaspur.

APPENDIX-B—III

Co-operative Marketing Societies in Bilaspur District

S. No.	Name of the society	Date for establishment	Area of Operation	
1.	Coop. Marketing society Mungeli	3-8-34	Mungeli	Tahsil
2.	" Takhatpur	25-2-58	Takhatpur	Block
3.	" Janjgir	29-11-58	Janjgir	Tahsil
4.	" Akaltara	28-10-59	Akaltara	Block
5.	" Lormi	21-11-59	Lormi	Block
6.	" Sakti	25-11-59	Sakti	Tahsil
7.	" Jairamnagar	29-11-59	Masturi	Block
8.	" Pandria	1-3-60	Pandria	Block
9.	" Pundi Uprora	1-3-60	Pundi Uprora	Block
10.	" Koia	15-3-60	Kota	Block
11.	" Gaurella	21-9-60	Gaurella	Block

APPENDIX-B—IV

List of Important Fairs and Melas

S.No.	Place where Mela or Fair is held	When Held	English Months	Local religious or other occasion of the Mela or Fair	Duration of the Mela or Fair (in days)	Average total attendance	Who manages the Fair/Mela
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

1. Mungeli Tahsil

1.	Madkooghat	December/January	Madkooghat Mela	2	1,000	Gram Panchayat
2.	Setganga	January/February	Magha Pooranima	3	2,000	Janpad Sabha Mungeli
3.	Samersa	February/March	Shivratri	5	15,000	Local People
4.	Akhar	February/March	Shivratri	4	6,000	Block Development officer
5.	Karraghat	February/March	Shivratri	2	1,000	Local People
6.	Lormi	February/March	Shivratri	2	6,000	Local People
7.	Belpa	February/March	Narbadakund Bath	4	4,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
8.	Madkooghat	February/March	Christian Mela	4	1,000	Christian Community

2. Bilaspur Tahsil

9.	Ratanpur	January/February	Magha Pooranima	5	10,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
10.	Belpa	January/February	Magha Pooranima	5	4,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
11.	Kotagar	January/February	Magha Pooranima	1	4,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
12.	Upka	January/February	Magha Pooranima	1	1,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
13.	Chantidih	January/February	Magha Pooranima	1	1,500	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
14.	Kirari	February/March	Shivratri	3	2,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur

15.	Nagpur	February/March	Shivratri	3	3,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
16.	Mallar	February/March	Shivratri	5	5,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
17.	Kondia	February/March	Shivratri	2	1,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
18.	Pani	February/March	Shivratri	1	1,500	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
19.	Koni	February/March	Shivratri	1	1,000	Janpad Sabha Bilaspur
3. Katghora Tahsil						
20.	Kudrimal	January/February	Kabirpanthi Mela	1	4,000	Janpad Sabha Katghora
21.	Katghora	January/February	Republic Day	7	2,000	Janpad Sabha Katghora
22.	Kanki	February/March	Shivratri	10	10,000	Janpad Sabha Katghora
4. Janjgir Tahsil						
23.	Lilagarh Kulighat	January/February	Kutighat Fair	1	2,000	Mahant of the Kutighat
24.	Sheorinarayan	February/March	Shivratri	10	100,000	Janpad Sabha Janjgir
25.	Pithampur	February/March	Holi	10	100,000	Janpad Sabha Janjgir
26.	Parsahi	February/March	Shivratri	1	4,000	Local People
5. Sakti Tahsil						
27.	Dabhara	March/April	Chaitra Purnima	1	6,000	Local People
28.	Odeker	September/October	Desahra	1	4,000	Local People
29.	Jajajpur	September/October	Desahra	1	15,009	Local People
30.	Devarghat	February/March	Shivratri	3	4,000	Local People
31.	Turri	February/March	Shivratri	7	5,000	Janpad Sabha Sakti

APPENDIX-B-V

List of Nyaya Panchayats

S. No.	Name of Block Bileha	Location of Nyaya Panchayats
1.		(1) Harditona (2) Bileha (3) Newla (4) Birkhona (5) Bartori (6) Semartal
2.	Keeta	(1) Ratanpur (2) Kargiohurd (3) Belgehana
3.	Mastevi	(1) Pachperdi (2) Loharsi (3) Malhar (4) Masturi (5) Seepan (6) Khamaria
4.	Takhatpur	(1) Sakari (2) Ganiyari (3) Mochh (4) Takhatpur (5) Vizaypur
5.	Marwari	(1) Marwari
6.	Gorella	(2) Kotmi (3) Gorella (4) Pendra
7.	Janjgir	(1) Naila (2) Bhogha Pai (Sheorinarayan) (3) Ambrid
8.	Pamgarh	(1) Rapod (2) Mulmula (3) Pamgarh (4) Koshala

9. Akaltara
 10. Baloda
 11. Champa
- (1) Akaltara
 (2) Tanga
 (1) Jarve
 (1) Seoni (Cgampa)
 (2) Lakhali
 (3) Birra

APPENDIX—B—VI

Conversion Table

I. WEIGHTS

Table

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1000 g)
10 kilograms	=1 myriogram
10 myriograms	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1000 kg)

From old units to new units:

1 Tola	=11.66 grams
1 Chhatak	=58.32 grams
1 Seer	=933.10 grams
1 Maund	=37.32 Kg.
1 Grain	=0.0648 gram
1 Ounce	=28.35 grams
1 Pound	{ =453.59 grams =453.59 Kg.
1 Quarter	=12.706 kg.
1 Handerweight	=50.80 kg.
1 Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From new units to old units:

1 Gram	{ =0.085735 tola =15.4324 grams =0.0352740 ounce
1 Kilogram	{ =1.07169 Seer =2.20462 lbs.
1 Quintal	{ =2.67923 maunds =220.46 lbs.
1 Metric tonne	{ =26.7923 maunds =0.9842 ton

II. LENGTH

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1m=100 cms=1000mm)

10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km=1000 m)

From old units to new units:

1 inch	$\begin{cases} =2.54 \text{ cms.} \\ =25.4 \text{ mms.} \\ =0.0254 \text{ m.} \end{cases}$
1 foot	$\begin{cases} =30.48 \text{ cms.} \\ =0.3048 \text{ m.} \end{cases}$
1 yard	$\begin{cases} =91.44 \text{ cms.} \\ =0.9144 \text{ m} \end{cases}$
1 furlong	=201.168 m.
1 mile	$\begin{cases} =1.609344 \text{ km.} \\ =1609.344 \text{ m.} \end{cases}$
1 chain	=20.1168 m.

From new units to old units :

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch
1 m.	$\begin{cases} =1.09361 \text{ yds.} \\ =3.28084 \text{ feet} \\ =39.3701 \text{ inches} \\ =0.0497097 \text{ chain} \\ =0.00497097 \text{ furlong} \end{cases}$
1 hectometre	=0.06173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=0.62137 mile

III CAPACITY

Table

10 Millilitres (ml)	=1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=1 litre (1 L=1000 ml.)
10 litres	=1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=1 kilolitre

From old units to new units:

1 Ounce	=28 ml (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=142 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
1 pint	$\begin{cases} =568 \text{ ml (to the nearest ml.)} \\ =0.56825 \text{ L} \end{cases}$
1 quart	$\begin{cases} =1 \text{ litre and } 136 \text{ ml. (do)} \\ =1.13649 \text{ L} \end{cases}$
1 gallon	=4.54596 L
1 liquid measure	=940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml.)

From new units to old units:

1 litre	$\begin{cases} =1.75980 \text{ pints} \\ =0.87990 \text{ quart} \\ =0.219975 \text{ gallon} \\ =1.1 \text{ liquid seer—(Approx)} \\ =35 \text{ liquid ounces (do)} \\ =1000.028 \text{ cubic centimetres} \\ =85.735 \text{ tolas of pure water} \\ =61.025 \text{ cubic inches} \\ =1.000028 \text{ cubic decimetres} \\ =1.000028 \text{ cubic metres} \end{cases}$
1 kilolitre	

IV VOLUME

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	=1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=1 cubic metre
From old units to new units	
1 cubic inch	=16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	$\begin{cases} =28.3168 \text{ cubic decimetres} \\ =28.316 \text{ litres} \end{cases}$
1 cubic yard	=0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	$\begin{cases} =0.00454609 \text{ cubic metre} \\ =4.5496 \text{ litres} \\ =4.54609 \text{ cubic decimetres} \end{cases}$
1 ounce	=28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	$\begin{cases} =568.2440 \text{ cubic centimetres} \\ =0.56825 \text{ litre} \end{cases}$
1 quart	=1.1365 litres
1 litre	$\begin{cases} =1000.028 \text{ cubic centimetres} \\ =1.000028 \text{ cubic decimetres} \end{cases}$

From new units to old units:

1 cubic centimetre	$\begin{cases} =0.061024 \text{ cubic inch} \\ =0.0070390 \text{ gill} \\ =0.0351949 \text{ ounce} \end{cases}$
1 cubic decimetre	$\begin{cases} =0.0353147 \text{ cubic foot} \\ =0.219969 \text{ gallon} \\ =0.99997 \text{ litre} \end{cases}$
1 cubic metre	$\begin{cases} =35.315 \text{ cubic foot} \\ =1.30795 \text{ cubic yard} \\ =219.969 \text{ gallon} \\ =0.99997 \text{ kilolitre} \end{cases}$

V AREA

Table

100 square millimetres	=1 square centimetre
100 square cm.	=1 square decimetre
100 square decimetres	=1 sq. metre (1 sq. m. = 10000 sq. cm.)
100 sq. metres	=1 acre or 1 sq. dekametre
100 acres	=1 hectare of 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha) = 10000 sq. m)
100 hectares	=1 square kilometre

From old units to new units:

1 sq. inch	{ = 6.4516 sq. cm. = 0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	{ = 929.03 sq. cm. = 0.092903 sq. m. = 9.2903 sq. decimetr
1 sq. yard	{ = 0.83613 sq. metre = 0.00831613 acre
1 cent 1 sq. chain	{ = 40.4686 sq. metres = 404.686 sq. metres
1 acre (4840 sq. Yds or 10 sq. chains)	{ = 0.404686 hectare = 40.4686 acres
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	{ = 258.999 hectares = 2.58999 sq. kilometres

From new units to old units:

1 square cm.	= 0.155000 sq. inch
1 sq. metre	{ = 1550.00 sq. inch = 10.7639 sq. foot = 1.19599 sq. yard
1 acre	{ = 119.599 sq. yard = 0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	= 2.47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	= 0.386101 sq. mile

APPENDIX-B—VII

List of Freedom Fighters of the District

Sl. No.

Name of the Freedom Fighter

Block—Bhila

1. M/s. Umashankar S/o Anandidin Br.
2. Laxman Rao S/o Narayan Rao.
3. Ram Narayan S/o Mahadeo Prasad Br.
4. Badrinath S/o Sukhwasi Lal Bani.
5. Sheo Prasad S/o Kalicharan Teli.
6. Jai Govind S/o Ram Karan Agaral.
7. Durga Sinh S/o Mohan Sinh Khatri.
8. Shankar Rao S/o Ram Rao.
9. Baman Rao S/o Laxman Rao.
10. Jugal Kishore S/o Laxman Prasad Kayastha.
11. Niharu S/o Mohan Gond.
12. Sunder Lal S/o Ramji Sonar.
13. Bhagwant Rao S/o Jagannath Rao.
14. Amar Sinh S/o Baijnath Sinh.
15. Hira Lal S/o Ram Prasad Br.
16. Badri Prasad S/o Lallu Prasad.
17. Kailash Chandra S/o Ganesh Prasad Varma.
18. Yadunandan Prasad S/o Hari Charan Lal.
19. Murlidhar S/o Sheo Dulare Mishra.
20. Kashi Ram S/o Malu Ram Tiwari.
21. Mukund Rao S/o Kesheo Rao Chitale.
22. Kishan Lal Ram Charan Br.
23. G.G. Dixit S/o B.R. Dixit.
24. Rama Charan Rai S/o . arbans Rai.
25. Krishna Chandra S/o Ram Chandra Lal Kayastha.
26. Jagoba S/o Gopal Rao.
27. Har Narayan S/o Ram Charan Bajpei,

1	2
28.	Sheo Ratan S/o Laxmi Narayan Tiwari.
29.	Kali Charm S/o Brindaban Br.
30.	Jay Mohan S/o Beeru.
31.	Ramjiawan S/o Baijnath Br.
32.	Chhotelal S/o Thakurdi.
33.	Jhumuk Lal S/o Madho Prasad Br.
34.	Manohar Lal S/o Ram Prasad Br.
35.	Mohan Singh S/o Nika Ram.
36.	Vishwanath S/o Hiradhar Brahman.
37.	Ram Charan S/o Nathu Ram.
38.	Chhote Lal S/o Sarju Prasad.
39.	Kalika Singh S/o Mohan Lal.
40.	Rameshwar Prasad S/o Drigpal Sahu.
41.	Raja Ram S/o Veeru Ram Sahu.
42.	Ram Charan S/o Dadu Gupta.
43.	Bhramarji S/o Kedarnath Gupta.
44.	Ravinath S/o Mahadeo Br.
45.	Ram Kishorilal S/o Mahendra Narayan Kayastha.
46.	Garib Ram S/o Krapa Ram Bani.
47.	Laxman Prasad S/o Birji Halwai.
48.	Devi Prasad S/o Beni Darji.
49.	Ram Gopal S/o Ram Bax Kalar.
50.	Laxman Rao S/o Narayan Rao Tamaskar.
51.	Jai Govind S/o Ramkaran Das.
52.	Harish Chand S/o Babulal.
53.	Lati S/o Panch Ram Rawat.
54.	Mukunda S/o Rajat Rawat.
55.	Ajit S/o Sansari Rawat.
56.	Panchan S/o Kanhai Rawat.
57.	Sansari S/o Kanhai Rawat.
58.	Kranti Kumar Bharti.
59.	Chintaman Rao Ottalwar.
60.	Mathura Prasad Dube.
61.	Vasudeo Jai Krishna Deoras.
62.	Chaube Lal S/o Okhulal Shahu.
63.	Satya Narayan S/o Jujha Rao Khandelwal.
64.	Tek Chand S/o Mool Chand Sindhi.
65.	Pooran Chand Jain, Tikra Para.

1	2
66.	Prahlad S/o Sita Ram, Pipiwa.
67.	Gajadhar Prasad S/o Pusau Ram, Hathni.
68.	Mangali Prasad S/o Dwarika Prasad Tiwari.
69.	Bachan Singh S/o Awtar Singh Rawat.
70.	Bhajan Singh S/o Param Singh Gosain.
71.	Jaina Swami S/o Narayan Swami, Railway Colony.
72.	Girja Shankar Mishra S/o Prem Narayan Mishra, Khaparganj.
73.	Ram Kishore alias Sao S/o Shyam Prakash Varma, Azad Nagar, Bilaspur.
74.	Shyamanand S/o Narayan Prasad Verma.
75.	Ramkishore S/o Nakaiti Lal Varma, Rajendra Nagar, Bilaspur.
75 (a)	Devi Prasad S/o Harkulal Bani
75 (b)	Kesheo Prasad S/o Bhairao Prasad Kayasth
Block—Masuti	
76.	Shri Sita Ram S/o Bhagat.
77.	„ Guman S/o Kuswagir.
78.	„ Ramadhan S/o Awadh Ram.
79.	„ Ganesh Prasad S/o Ram Bharosh.
Block—Kote	
80.	„ Amrawi S/o Odar Shahu.
81.	„ Heera Ram S/o Nanda Ghasia.
82.	„ Ram Lal S/o Ganpati Lal Jain.
Block—Gauretha	
83.	Shri Gaya Prasad S/o Janki Lal Bani.
84.	„ Onkar Rao S/o Bapu Rao.
85.	„ Amar Singh S/o Bhawanidin.
86.	„ Heera Lal S/o Ram Prasad Br.
87.	„ Vishwanath Prasad S/o Nand Kumar Kalar.
Block—Nawagarh (Janjgir)	
88.	Shri Jog Nidhi S/o Sewak Ram.
89.	„ Nandram
90.	Smt. Soofi w/o Majith.
91.	Shri Phonoglas S/o Mudhwa Panika.
92.	„ Tickit S/o Dhanias Satnami.
93.	„ Chhabil Lal S/o Dau Lal Rawat.

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94.	Shri Somu S/o Kunkania Rawat.
95.	„ Paltu S/o Kulwa Teli.
96.	Smt. Gayatri D/o Makaru Satnami.
97.	Shri Matlal S/o Daya Ram.
98.	„ Kenda S/o Dhanwa.
99.	„ Tulsi Ram S/o Chamru Rawat.
100.	„ Pran Dhar S/o Sut Ram Rawat.
101.	„ Hari Ram S/o Somnath.
102.	„ Baratu S/o Usat Gara.
103.	„ Bhikli S/o Fandi Gara.
104.	„ Jogi S/o Mohit Gara.
105.	„ Bartanwa S/o Panth Ram Agharia.
106.	„ Dasrath S/o Baina Rawat.
107.	„ Boathan S/o Son Sai Gond.
108.	„ Dhan Sai S/o Ganga Ram Ramnami.
109.	„ Krupa Singh S/o Baldu.
110.	„ Sahanu S/o Usat Gara.
111.	„ Kusuwa S/o Sahoren Rawat.

Block—Akaltara

112.	Shri Dukalu Ram S/o Shri Ram Kurmi.
113.	„ Bhuwan Bhaskar S/o Pachkod Singh.
114.	„ Chedilal S/o Pachkod Singh.
115.	„ Bahoran S/o Tilke Satnami.
116.	„ Atmanand S/o Parmanand Swami.
117.	„ Devi Prasad S/o Balaram.
118.	„ Muraba S/o Suklal.
119.	„ Dukalu S/o Shriram.
120.	„ Rajaram S/o Bisahuram.
121.	„ Maluram S/o Nagarmal Kedia.
122.	„ Sukalram S/o Harinath Parohhania.
123.	„ Manrakhan Singh S/o Hamir Singh.
124.	„ Bhanu Man Singh S/o Dalganjan Singh.
125.	„ Badri Prasad S/o Kanhaiya Lal.
126.	„ Ayodhya Prasad S/o Mohan Lal Jain.
127.	„ Aati S/o Baijnath Kokhta.
128.	„ Nachhi S/o Baijnath Kokhta.
129.	„ Samaru S/o Baijnath Kokhta.

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130.	„ Rachhi S/o Baijnath Kokhta.
131.	„ Jawala Prasad S/o Chandan Lal Br. Akaltara.
132.	„ Mahesh Prasad S/o Kashi Prasad Chaturvedi.
133.	„ Har Prasad S/o Ramadhin.

Block—Pamgarh

134.	Shri Ram Lal S/o Gopal Teli.
135.	„ Hazari Singh S/o Ganpat Singh.
136.	„ Kapilnath S/o Budhlal Prasad, Br.
137.	„ Lalji S/o Sampat Ram.
138.	„ Jhaduram S/o Kanhaiya Rawat.
139.	„ Ram Sharan S/o Pati Ram Dhimar.
140.	„ Bahorik Ram S/o Letuba Suryabansi.
141.	„ Mohan Singh S/o Somnath, Bundeli.
142.	„ Hira Ram S/o Budga Gachhail.
143.	„ Dawa S/o Soamnath Gachhail, Suryabansi.
144.	„ Kalindar S/o Soamnath.
145.	„ Bharat S/o Soamnath Gachhail.
146.	„ Gulab S/o Loku Gachhail.
147.	„ Badga S/o Rpmrai Gachhail.
148.	„ Sukh Ram S/o Bulaki Kewat
149.	„ Sheolal S/o Janakram Gachhail.
150.	„ Bhagwat Prasad Sharma S/o Pachkod Sharma.

Block—Baloda

151.	„ Badri Prasad S/o Mukund Bani.
152.	„ Jagannath Prasad S/o Bholanath.

Block—Sakti

153.	„ Bhanu Pratap Singh S/o Shyam Sunder Singh.
154.	„ Balchand S/o Kundanlal S/o Kundanlal Jain.

Block—Jaljaipur

155.	„ Budhsheshwar Singh.
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Block—Bhalkharonda

156.	„ Ramnath S/o Mukund Ram
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Block—Katghora

157. „ Sheo Prasad S/o Robidas.
158. „ Ram Singh S/o Mangat Singh.
159. „ Ghasi Ram S/o Sahdeo Gond.
160. „ Amar Singh.
161. „ Ragdi S/o Itwari.
162. „ Chamar Sai S/o Thakur Ram Kanwar.
163. „ Itwar Singh S/o Bakka Sinh Rajput.
174. „ Banti S/o Ghantu Teli.
165. „ Gaya Ram S/o Dular Teli.
166. „ Dular S/o Baldeo Teli.
167. „ Fundu S/o Chandu Rawat.
168. „ Kunnu S/o Mangloo Teli.
169. „ Jhaboo Lal S/o Mangal Chand.

Block—Kartala

170. Shri Gaya Prasad S/o Agyat Br.
171. „ Videshi S/o Sheo Lal Satnami.
172. „ Parsadi Lal S/o Lakhna.
173. „ Kanhaiya S/o Gairam Br.
174. „ Machhelia Satnami
175. „ Sakhwa Satnami
176. „ Akbali Satnami
177. „ Dhandhar Satnami
178. „ Sakharam Satnami
179. „ Megha Satnami
180. „ Sadasheo Satnami
181. „ Lakhdas Satnami
182. „ Gopi S/o Rangi Satnami
183. „ Manak S/o Dhani Ram Satnami
184. „ Kali Charan S/o Ram Dayal Br.
185. „ Bhawani Shankar S/o Raghubir Prasad Br.
186. „ Narayan Rao S/o Raghupal Rao Br.
188. „ Awadhram S/o Dadnu Sonar.
188. „ Shyamlal S/o Banaram Br.
189. „ Heeralal S/o Sadanand Br.

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190. „ Siddh Gopal S/o Ayodhya Prasad Bi
191. „ Jhaduram S/o Tallu Ram Tane.
192. „ Ganga Prasad S/o Hari Ram Br.
193. „ Udyashankar S/o Ramjyoharat Pathak.
194. „ Kanhaiyalal S/o Mathura Prasad Sonar.
195. „ Narayan Rao S/o Bhikan Br.
196. „ Baldeo Singh S/o Badli Satnami
197. „ Ram Lal S/o Ghasi Ram.
198. „ Parsadi Lal S/o Sakhna.
199. „ Ram Lal S/o Ganpat Br.
200. „ Ranu Gopal S/o Bansidhar Tiwari.
201. „ Sheo Prasad S/o Bhangiram.
202. „ Ganpat Lal S/o Bhanwar Sinh.
203. „ Bisahu S/o Ram Charan Chhatri
204. „ Gajadhar S/o Ram Chandra Sao.
205. „ Babulal S/o Ram Prasad Kesarwani.
206. „ Dwarika Prasad.
207. „ Deodatt S/o Krishnadatt Bhatt.
208. „ Sheo Prasad Bhika.
209. „ Pila Ram S/o Parmanand Soni.

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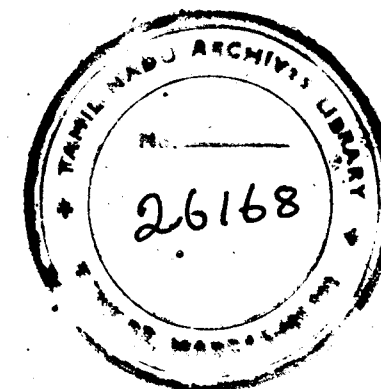
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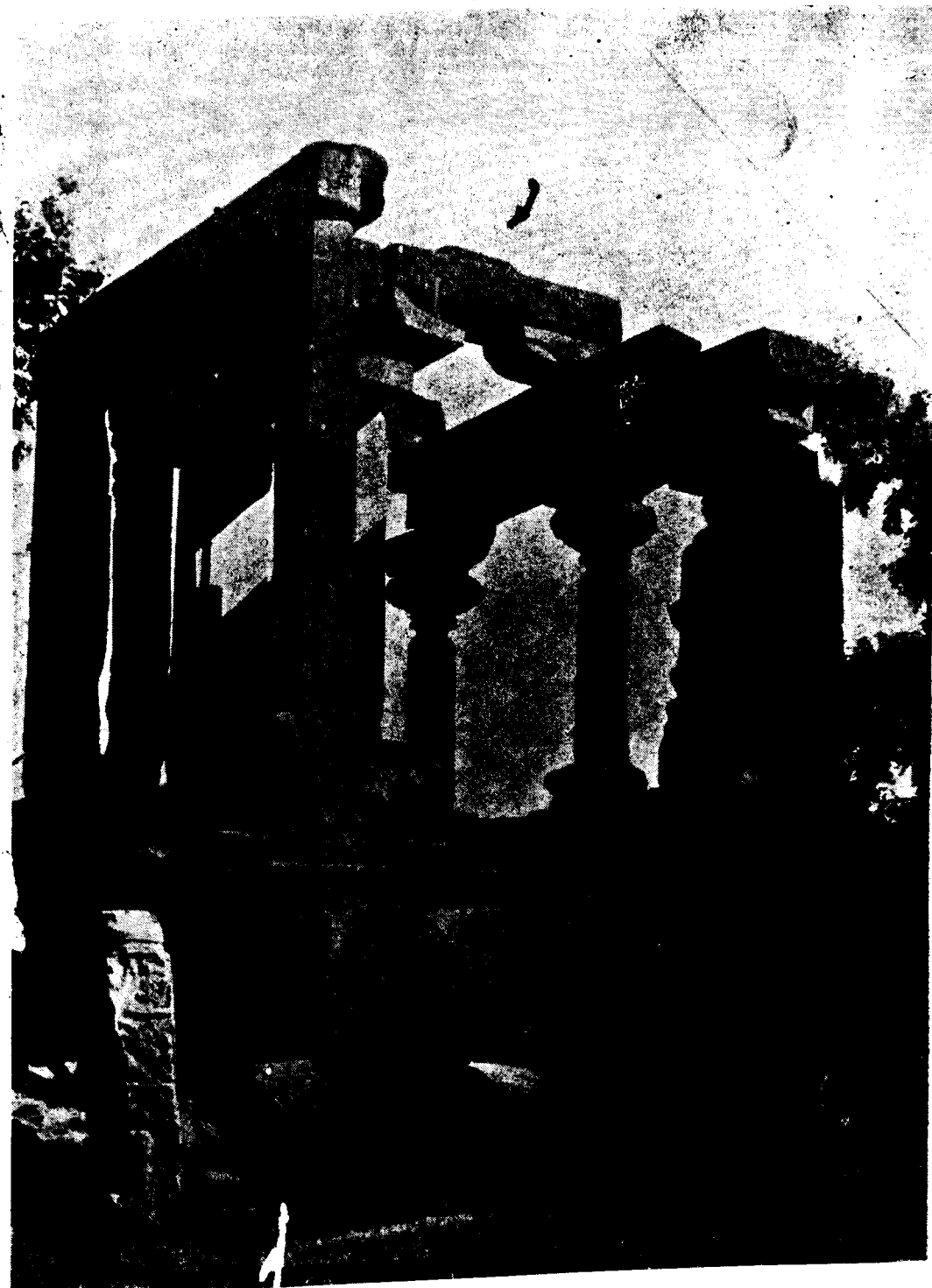
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Shiv Temple, Adbhar
(Courtesy : State Archaeology Department)



Natesa Siva, Adbhar
(Courtesy : Department of Ancient History, Saugar University)



Shiv Temple, Pali
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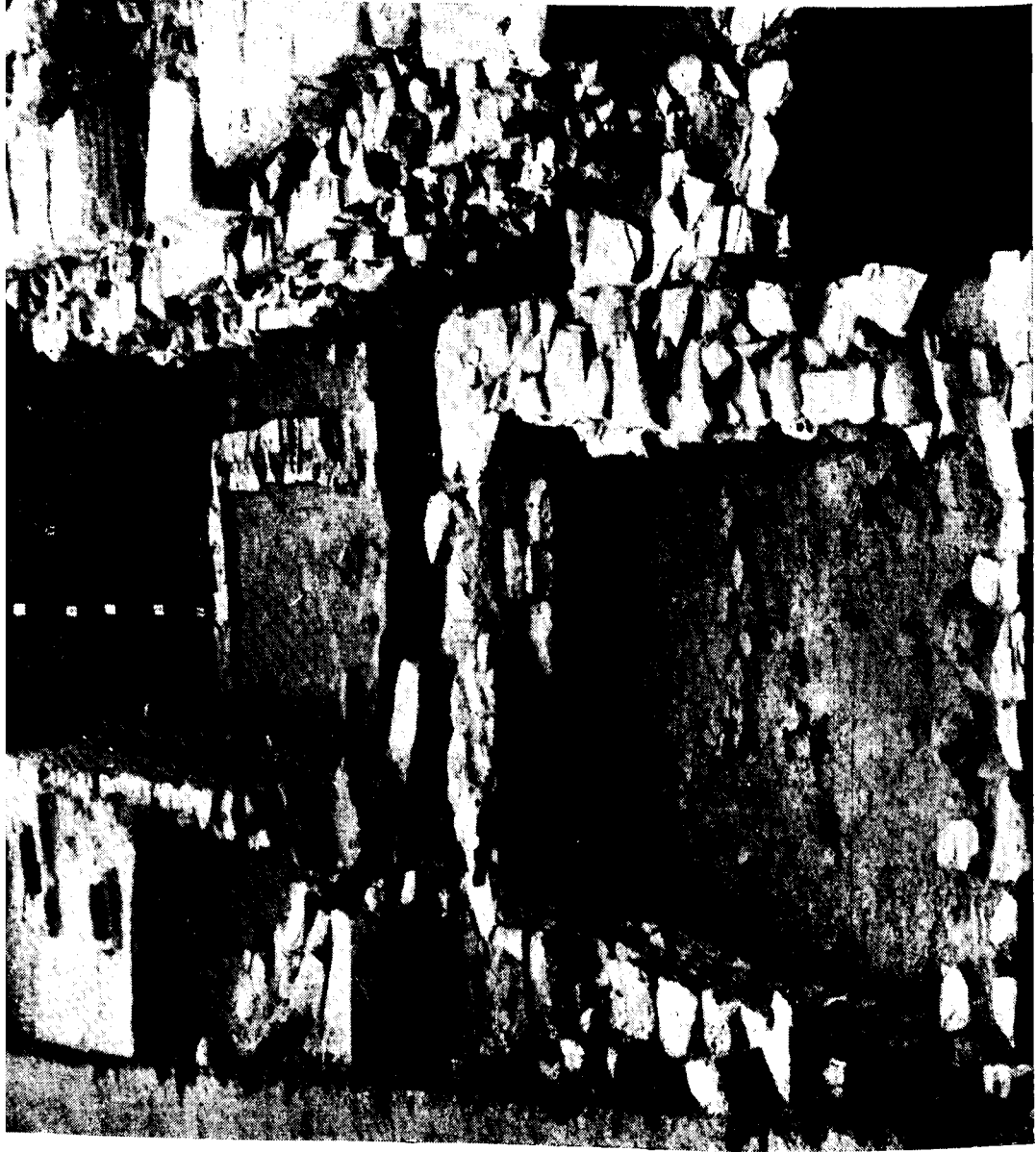
Vishnu from Malhar—the earliest Cult image of four-handed Vishnu
(Courtesy : Department of Ancient History, Saugar University)



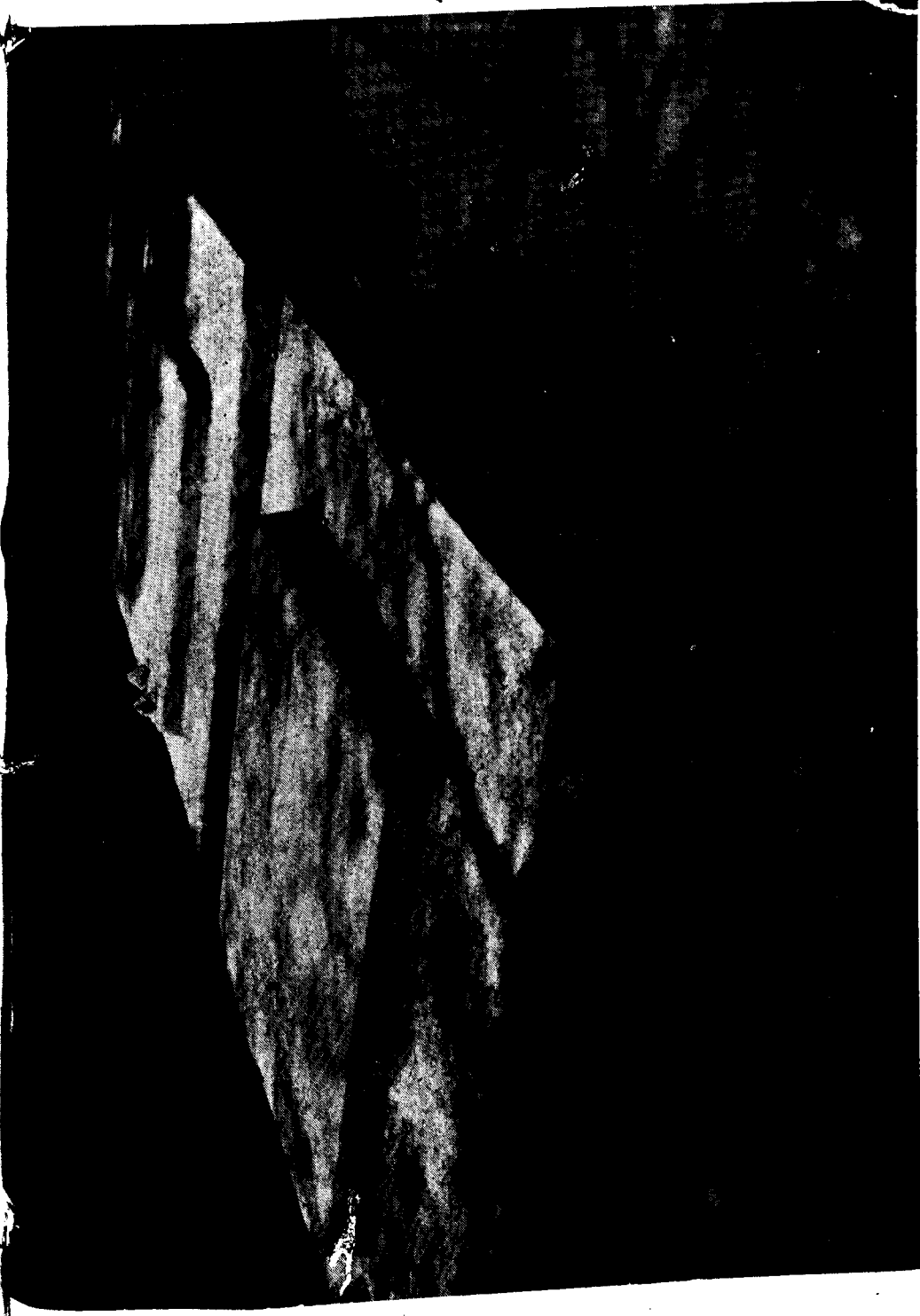
Goddess Parvati in Dhyana mudra, Malhar
 (Courtesy : Deptt. of Ancient History, Saugar University)



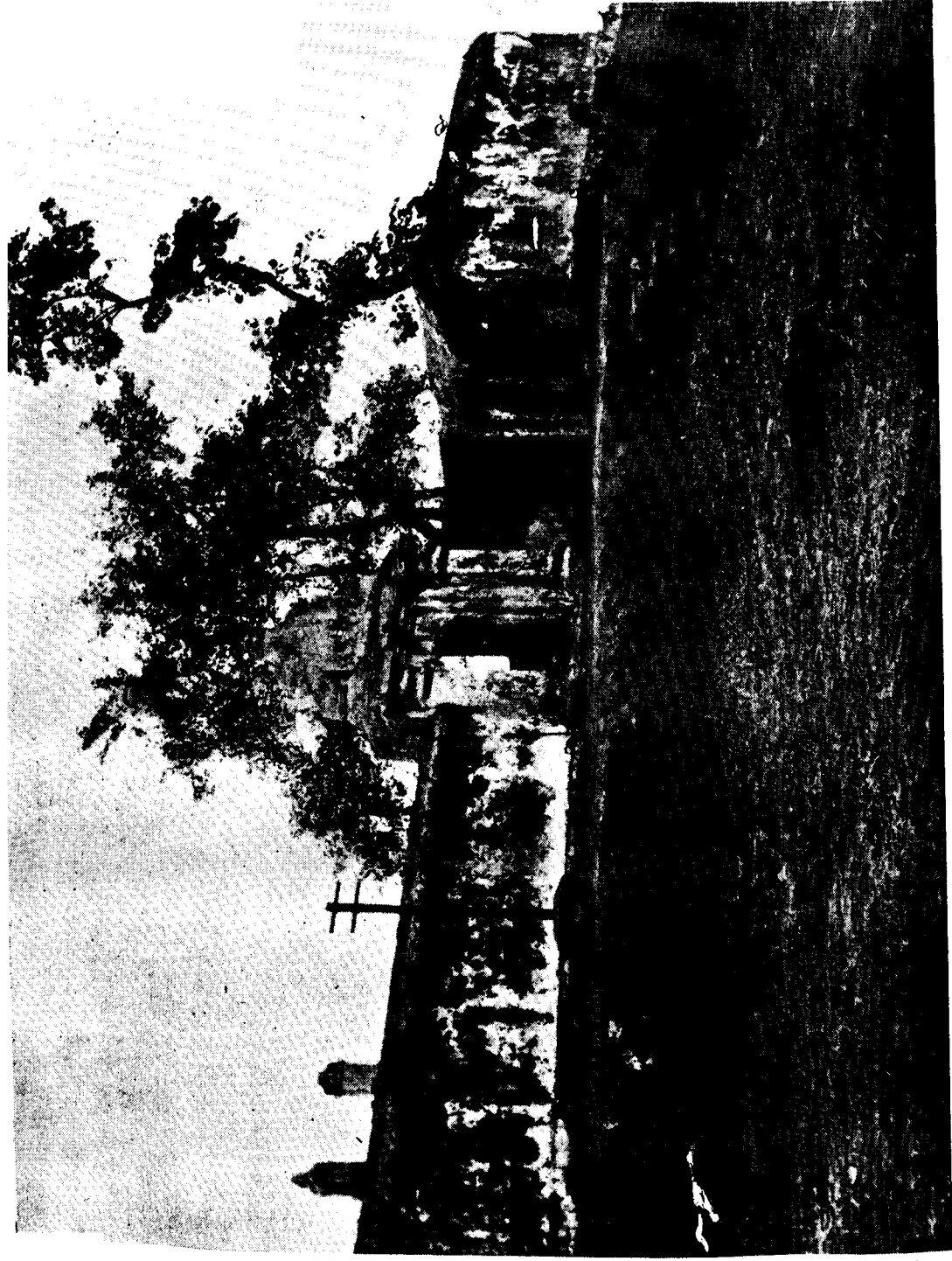
Skandamata from Malhar
 (Courtesy : Deptt. of Ancient History, Saugar University)



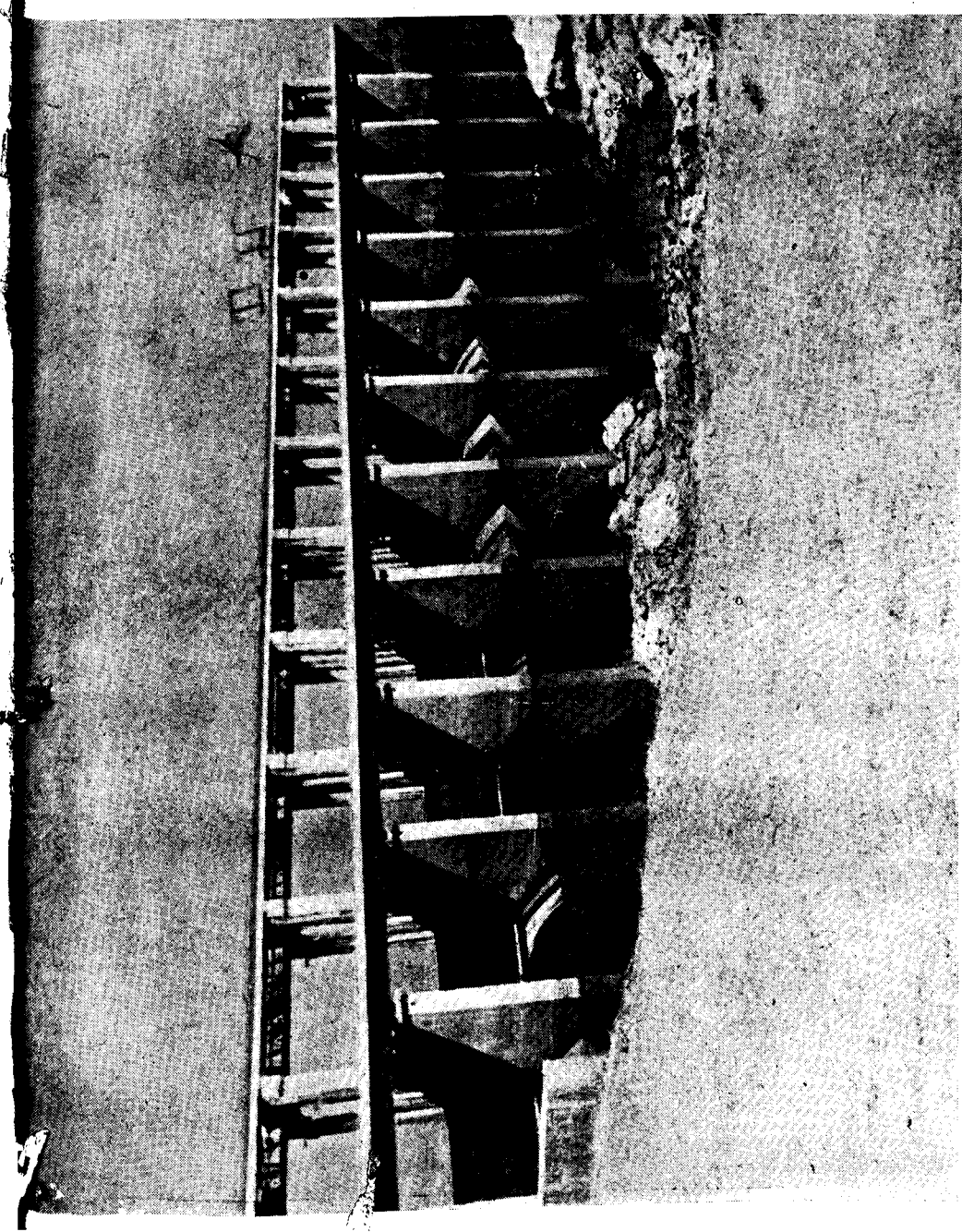
Excavated Site at Malhar showing Stone and brick Structures
 (Courtesy : Deptt. of Ancient History, Saugar University)



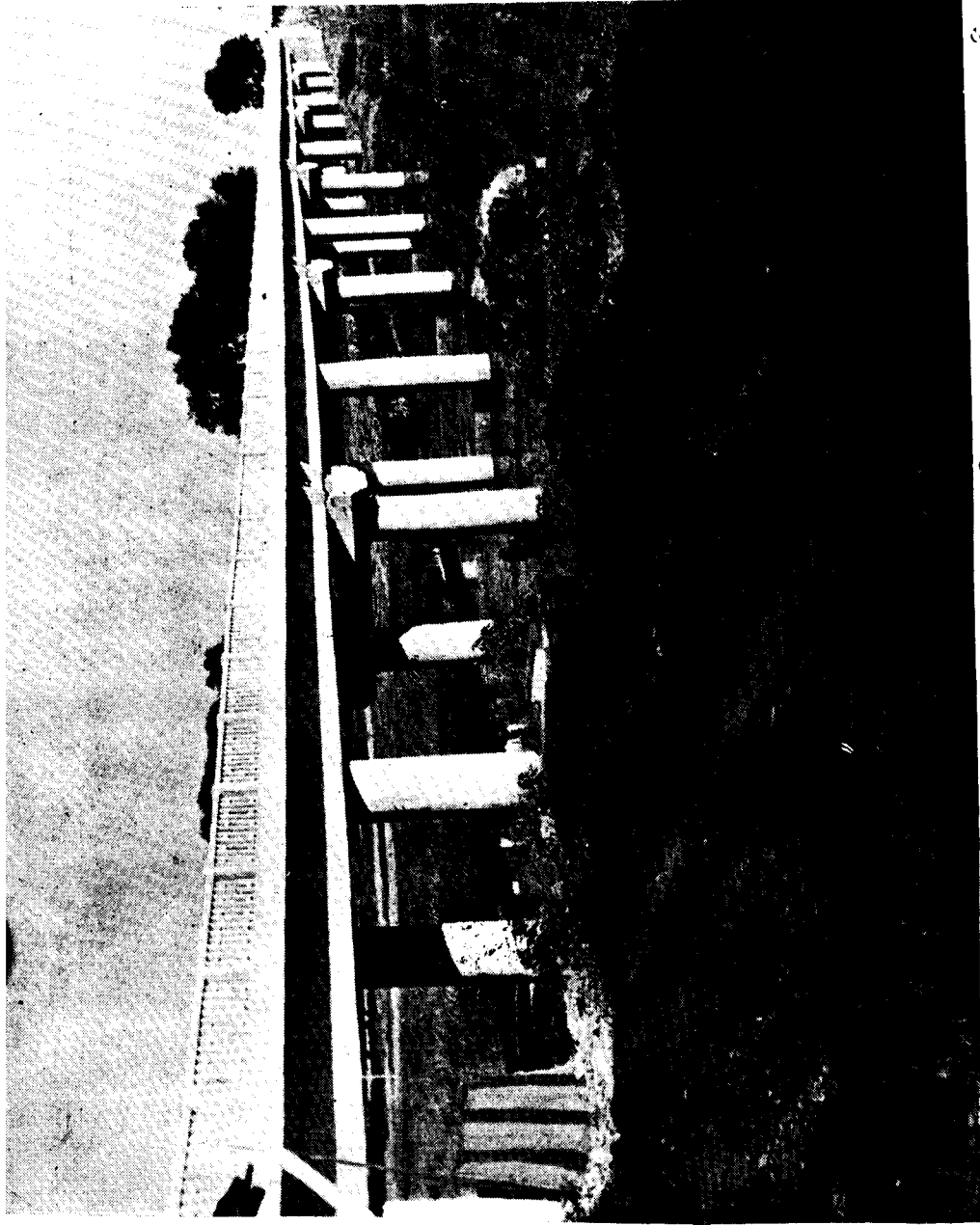
Samadhi of Kabirpanthi Sadguru, Kudarmal
 (Courtesy : State Archaeology Department)



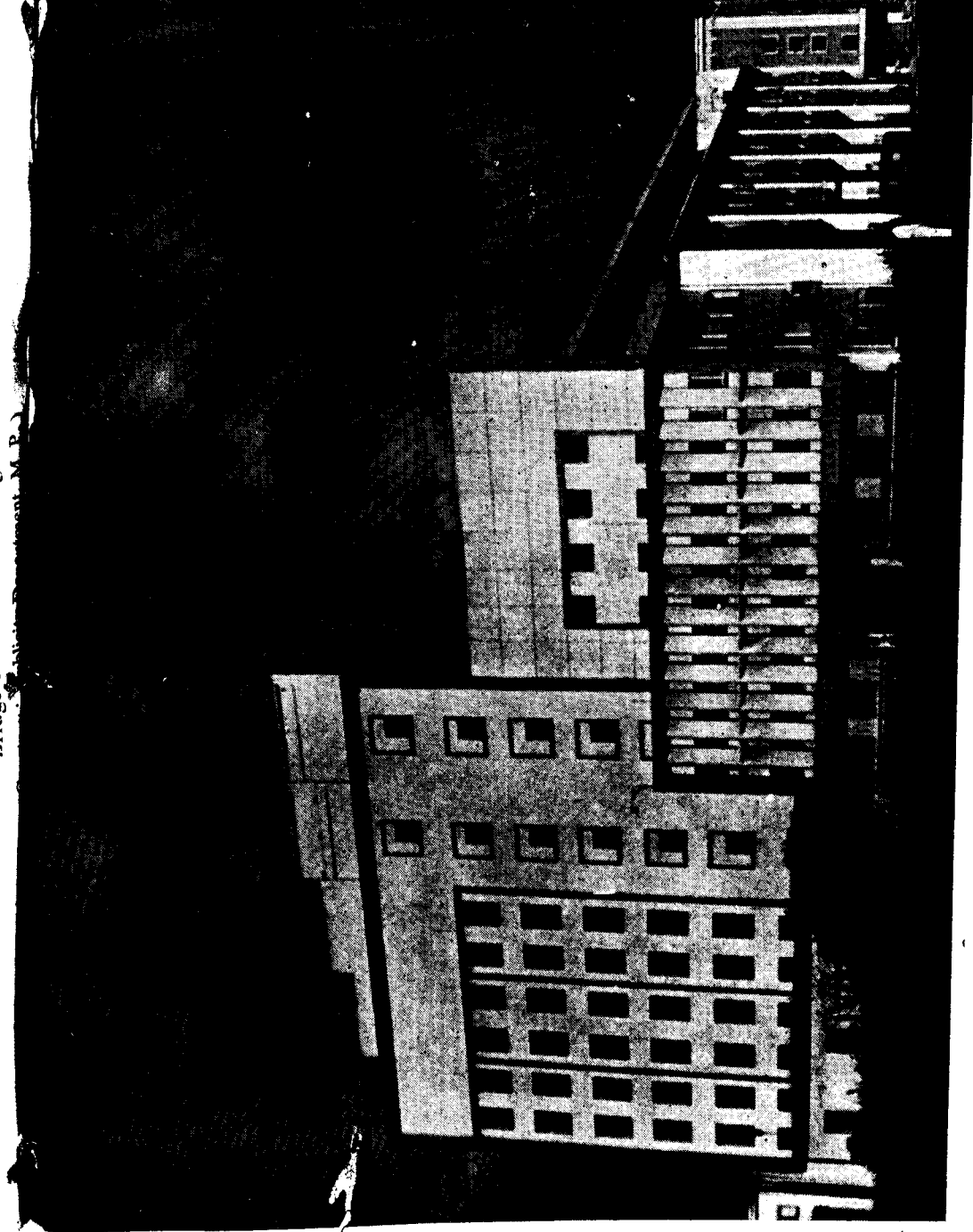
Moose Khan Ki Dargah, Ratanpur
(Courtesy : State Archaeology Department)



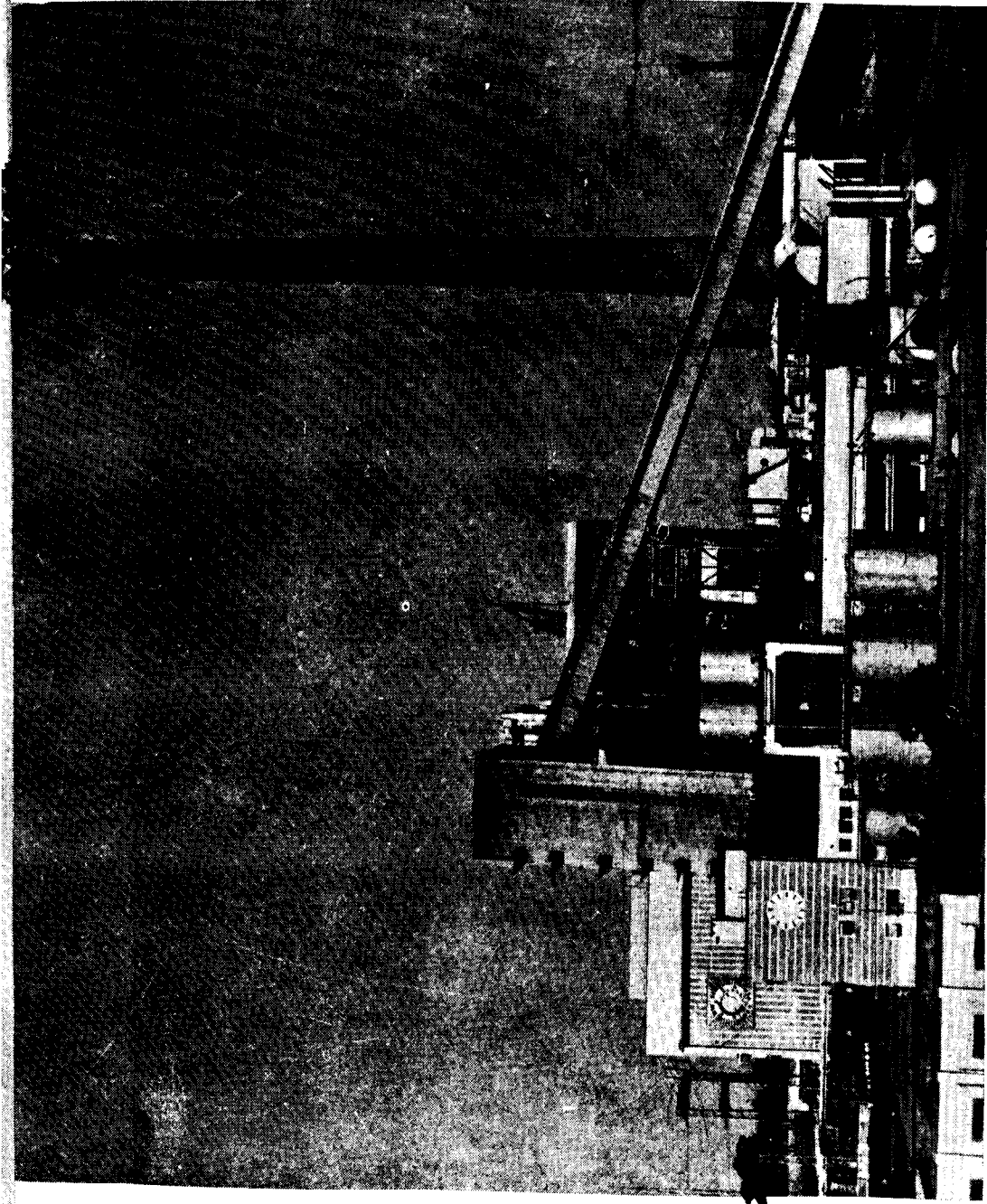
A view of Hasdeo Barrage
(Courtesy : Publicity Department M. P.)



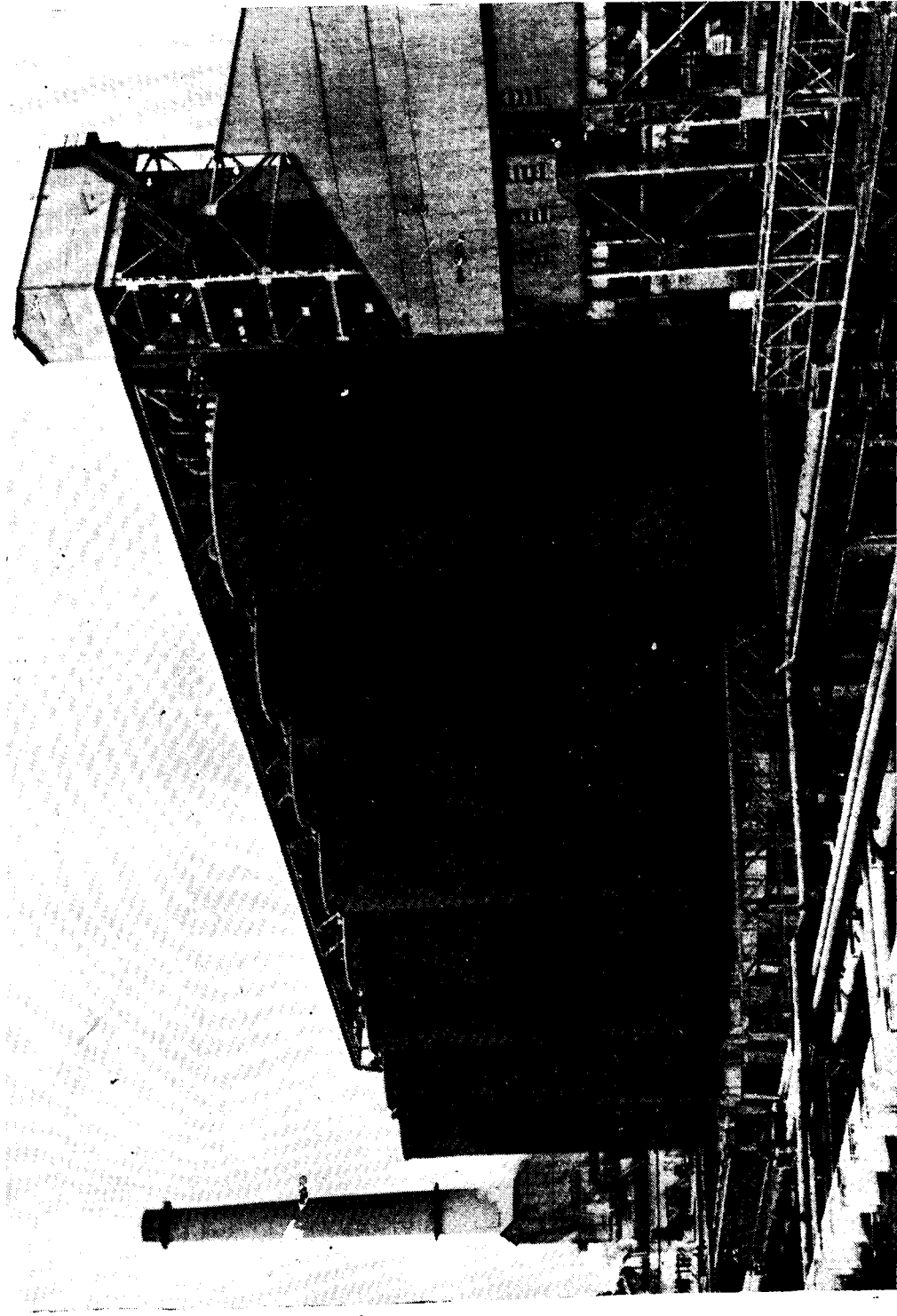
Bridge over River Kharang



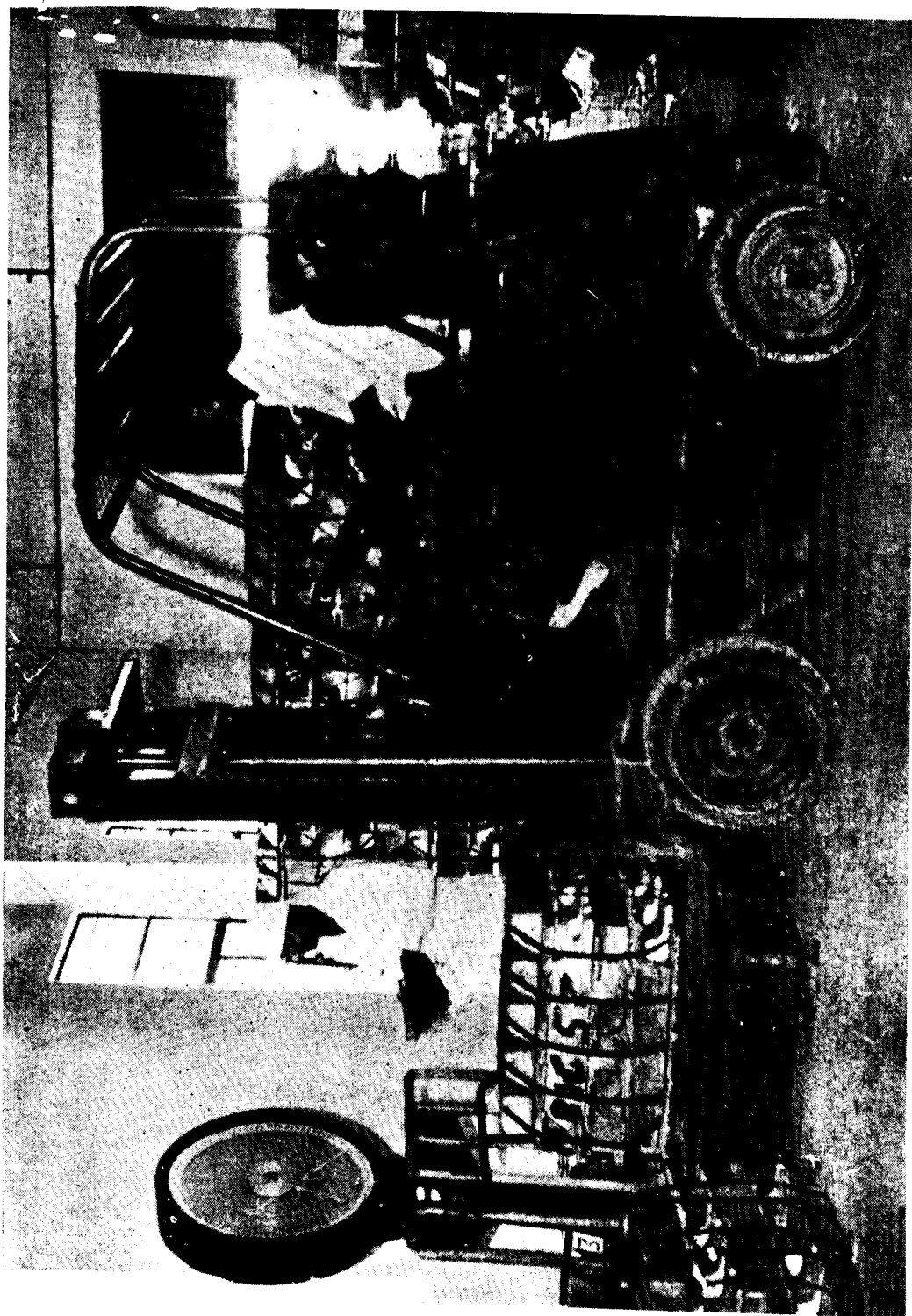
Korba Thermal Power Station (100 MW)
(Courtesy : MPEB)



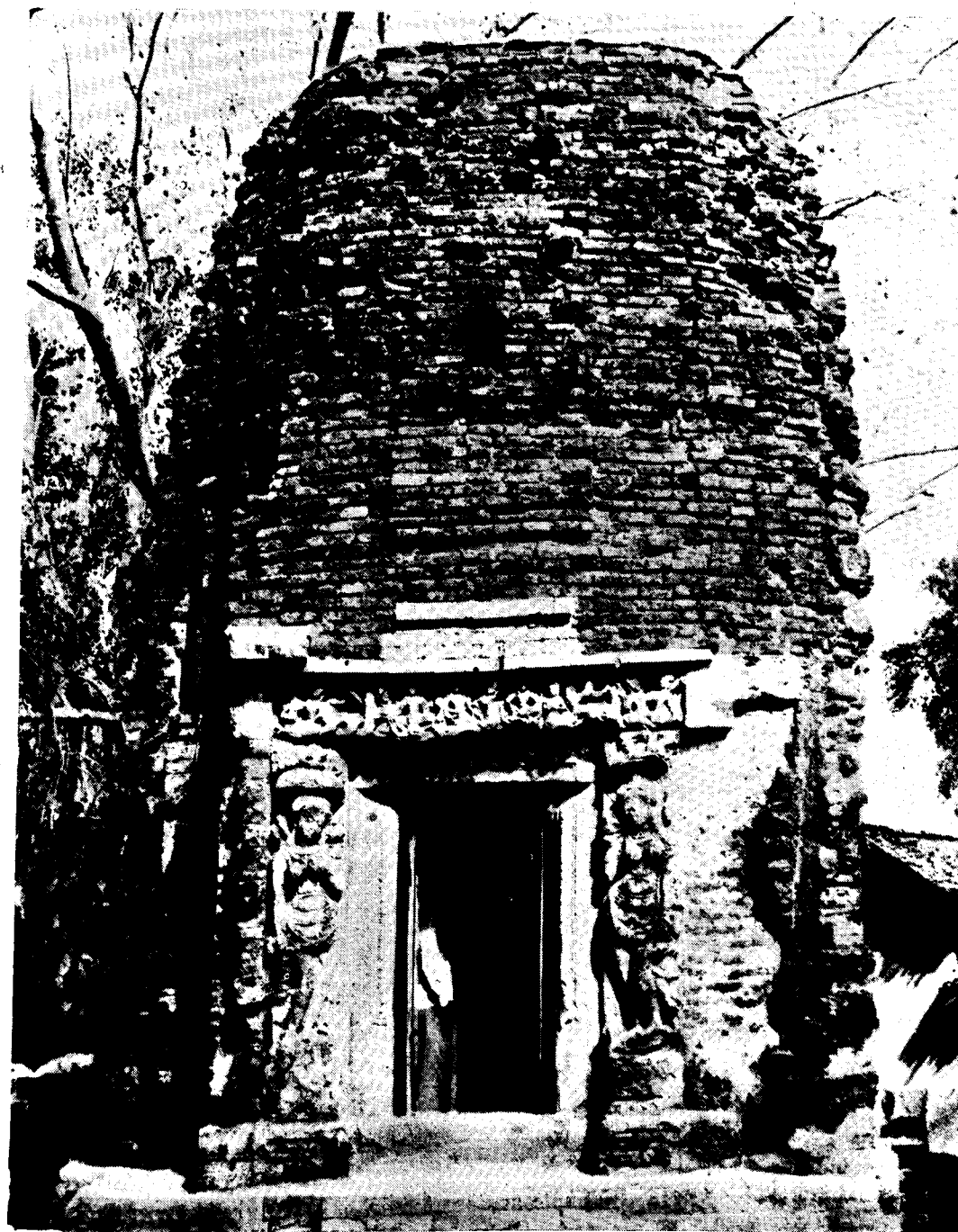
Korba Thermal Power Station (200 MW)
(Courtesy : MPEB)



Precipitators of BALCO Alumina Plant
(Courtesy : BALCO)



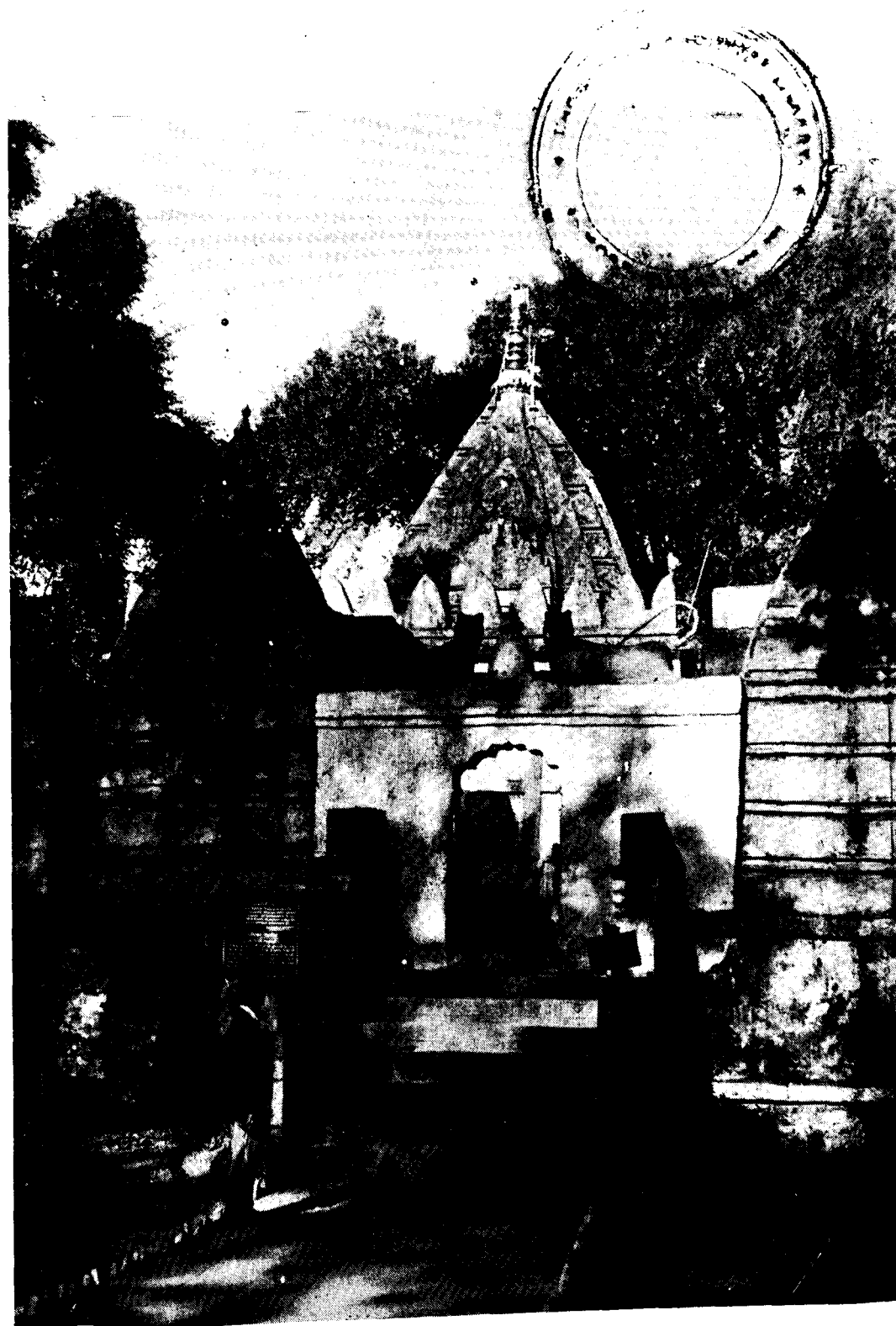
Fork-lift carrying ingots at BALCO
(Courtesy : BALCO)



Brick Temple, Kharod
(Courtesy : Department of Ancient History, Saugar University)



Temple at Sheorinarayan
(Courtesy : Publicity Department, M. P.)



Lakshmaneshwar Temple, Kharod
(Courtesy : State Archaeology Department)

ERRATA

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17	3	5	Hlosepet	Hosepet
20	2	2	from	form
28	4	2	Black	Block
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44	6	3	whitling	whistling
55	F.N. 8	—	pp. 200-201.	pp. 200-201.
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103	2	1	movents	movements
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189	3	1	1951	1958
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192	2	11	1934	1924
200	3	1	Over	Once

BILASPUR

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321	1	1	Rs. 45	Rs. 435
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457	4	11	healthy of	healthy contacts of
469	2	3	Polutry	Poultry
521	2	2	gracejul	graceful
521	3	1	reecat	recent

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19.6.79

ECMORE, MADRAS