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UTTAR PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS



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MIRZAPUR

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PREFACE

This is the fourtieth in the series of the revised gazetteers of the State which are being published under a scheme sponsored by the Government of India. The first official document of this type relating to the area covered by the Mirzapur district was published in 1883 and known as the *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India*, Volume XIV Part II (Allahabad, 1883); a work compiled by Grierson, J. W. and edited by F. H. Fisher; followed by *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* (Varanasi, 1969) by A. Fuhrer. In 1905 an account of the appeared in the Imperial Gazetteer, United Provinces, Benaras Division and in 1909 was published. D.L. Drake-Brockman's *Mirzapur : A Gazetteer*, being Volume XXVII of the District Gazetteer of the United Provinces which was supplemented by Volumes B, C and D in 1914, 1927 and 1935 respectively. The different sources utilised in the preparation of the present gazetteer have been indicated in the bibliography which appears at the end of the book.

I should like to place on record my sincere thanks to chairman and members of the State Advisory Board, Dr P.N. Chopra, Editor, Gazetteers, Central Gazetteers Unit, Government of India, New Delhi and to all those officials and non-officials who have helped in bringing out this volume.

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Dr PARMANAND MISHRA

July 25, 1979.

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Idol of Vindya Vasini Devi, Vindhyachal

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin of Name of District

According to tradition, the name of this town, after which the district itself is named was Girijapur, which in turn derives its name from the goddess Parvati (Girija) who sacrificed herself here in a *vajna*. *Mirja*, *Vindhyavasini*, and *Lakshmi* are the other names of the goddess whose temple exists at Vindhyachal. The present name of the district is derived from the goddess *Lakshmi* who emerged from the sea. The word *mirja* is formed from two words; *mir* meaning sea and *ja* meaning outcome, with the additional *pur* standing for town.

It is also locally believed that the town was founded by raja Bannar and was known as Girijapur, but later on it came to be known as Mirzapur.

The earliest mention of the town is found in the writings of Tiefenthaler, who drew up his description of the country between 1760 and 1770. He mentioned it, under the name of Mirzapur specially as a great mart. In the records of Jonathan Duncan, who was resident of Varanasi, frequent mention is made of the place as Mirzapur.

Location, Boundaries, Area and Population

Location and Boundaries—The district of Mirzapur lies between the parallels of 23° 52' and 25° 32' North latitude and 82° 7' and 83° 33' East longitude. It forms a portion of the Varanasi Division. On the north and north-east it is bounded by the Varanasi district; on the south by the territory of Sarguja; on the east by the districts of Shahabad and Palamau of Bihar; on the south-west by the territory of Rewa, and on the north-west by the district of Allahabad. Its southern boundary extends to a greater distance south than that of any other district in Uttar Pradesh. The shape to the north and west is somewhat irregular. In no direction, except for about 13 km. in the north-east where the Ganga separates the tahsil of Chunar from the district of Varanasi, has Mirzapur a natural frontier.

Area—According to Central Statistical Organisation the district of Mirzapur had an area of 11,501 sq. km. in 1971 and occupied the first place in the State in regard to size. Mirzapur is thus the largest district in the State of Uttar Pradesh.

Population—At the census of 1971, the population of the district was 15,41,088 (males 8,09,685 and females 7,31,403) of which 13,55,708 were living in rural and 1,85,385 in the urban areas of the district. The district occupies the 29th position in population in the whole State.

HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT

The district of Mirzapur, with the exception of the villages namely Mowat, Nerikatani, Maheshpur, Durjanipur, Mangarahi, Deohat, Katra and Bamsaur received from Allahabad in 1861, falls entirely within the tract of country once known as the province of Benares. The sovereignty of this was formally ceded to the East India Company in 1775 by the nawab-vizir of Avadh; but the tract itself was included in the zamindari of the raja of Benares and remained in his actual possession until 1794, when Mahip Narayan Singh surrendered its control to the Governor General of India by the agreement of 27th October of that year. It is not until 1830 that Mirzapur became a separate revenue jurisdiction of its own, because until that year it had been included in Varanasi. Mirzapur was then placed under a local collector of customs, the subdivisions assigned to new collectorate being *tappas* Chaurahi, Chhiyanve, Upraudh, Kon and Saktेशgarh of paragana Kantit and seven other parganas, Bhagwat, Bhuii, Haveli Chunar, Qariat, Sikhar, Agori, Barhar and Bijaigarh. Bhadui, Kon and Majhwa were restored to Varanasi on the protest of the raja but were afterwards re-annexed to Mirzapur. Kera-Mangraur and Singrauli were added later. There has been no change in the territorial limits of Mirzapur since 1833, when the revenue and judicial administrations were made to coincide throughout the Benares province; but several alterations have been made in the subdivisional boundaries since the tract came to the possession of the British. In 1801 every pargana and *tappa*, with a few exceptions, had a separate tahsildar. In 1804 it was resolved to abolish the office of tahsildar in the Benares province. In 1806, tahsildaris were established for *tappas* Chaurasi; Upraudh, Chhiyanve, Saktेशgarh and Bhagwat at Chaurasi; and for parganas Agori-Barhar and Bijaigarh at Kusancha. The first of the two tahsils created in 1809 corresponds to a great extent with the present Mirzapur tahsil. Saktेशgarh and Bhagwat have been taken away from it and Kon and Majhwa added. To the tahsil which had its headquarters in 1809 at Kusancha, Singrauli and Dudhi were added and the whole was for some time known as the Shahganj tahsil. It obtained its present name of Roberts Ganj in 1854, when the headquarters were transferred to the place of that name, called after W. Roberts, a well-known collector of the district who was deputed to Mirzapur in 1847 as settlement officer to settle the pargana Singrauli. The remaining parganas and *tappas* that were left *huzur* tahsil (in which payment was required to be made at the tahsil headquarters) in 1809 are divided between the Chunar tahsil, constituted in 1845, and the family domains. Though annexed to the Mirzapur district, parganas Bhadui and Kera-Mangraur have remained under separate jurisdiction since the agreement with raja Mahip Narain Singh in 1794.

There are thus no intricate changes of subdivisional limits to confuse an account of the fiscal history of Mirzapur and the district is permanently settled since then. However, in 1953, the village Pandera of tahsil and district Varanasi was transferred to the tahsil Mirzapur. Again, in 1961, two villages of district Mirzapur were transferred to Varanasi district.

SUBDIVISIONS, TAHSILS AND POLICE STATIONS

The district has four tahsils, namely Mirzapur, Chunar, Roberts Ganj and Dudhi.

The tahsil of Mirzapur lies in the north-western portion of the district. On the north it is bounded by the district Varanasi; on the east by Chunar tahsil; on the south by the Rewa district (Madhya Pradesh) and on the west by the Allahabad district. The population of the tahsil in 1971 numbered 6,02,355 of which 3,15,402 were males and 2,86,953 were females. It is the largest tahsil in Mirzapur district and has an area of 3,359.5 sq. km. It contains 1,266 villages and two towns.

The tahsil of Chunar forms the north-eastern portion of the district. It is bounded on the north by the river Ganga which separates it from Varanasi on the east and north-east by the district of Varanasi; on the west by tahsil Mirzapur and on the south by tahsil Roberts Ganj. Chunar is the smallest tahsil of the district and has 1,592.9 sq. km. of area. It has 734 villages and two towns. In 1971, it had a population of 3,74,779 of which 1,95,433 were males and 1,79,346 were females.

Roberts Ganj is the central tahsil of the district. On the north lie the tahsils of Chunar, Mirzapur and Varanasi; on the south Dudhi tahsil; on the west it is bounded by the district of Rewa and on the east by the district of Palamau of Bihar State. At present the total area of the tahsil is 3,647.5 sq. km. There are 1,124 villages and five towns in the tahsil. According to the census of 1971, the tahsil had a population of 3,72,180 persons of which 1,97,020 were males and 1,75,160 were females.

Tahsil of Dudhi forms the southern part of the district. It is bounded on the north by the tahsil of Roberts Ganj; on the south by Sarguja; on the east by Palamau and Sarguja; and on the west by the Rewa district. The total area of the tahsil is 3,508.7 sq. km. It contains 296 villages and three towns. In 1971, the total population of the tahsil was 1,91,774 (males : 1,01,830 and females : 89,944) of which 1,70,424 persons were living in rural and 21,350 in urban areas.

Police-stations—There are 20 police-stations in the district.

TOPOGRAPHY

The physical aspect of the district presents a variety of landscape which is as pleasing as it is surprising. The district falls into three great physical divisions. In the north is the alluvial plain which skirts the Ganga on either bank and reaches from the northern boundary southwards to the abrupt scarp of the low flat topped line of hills into which the range of the Vindhyan here subsides. Next follows a tableland stretching from the summit of the Vindhyan scarp southwards to the Kaimur range and the valley of the Son river and beyond this lies the tract commonly known as Sonpar, a wilderness of hills and valleys, jungles and ravines and crags with here and there hill-encircled alluvial basins, which make up southern Mirzapur. Each of these natural divisions is sharply demarcated from the others and has different characteristics.

Alluvial Plain—The portion of the district which lies within the basin of the Ganga is divided by that river into the two unequal parts. North of the stream lies a fertile and populous tract. It is about 64 km. in length from east to west and about 32 km. from north to south. From agricultural point of view, it is the most valuable portion of the

district and the aspect is the familiar one of the Gangetic plain. No elevations are more considerable than the high bank of the river Ganga. South of the Ganga, a plain extends for nearly 100 km. or the whole breadth of the district in this quarter. Its total area may be computed at nearly 960 sq. km. but it varies greatly in extent from north to south. In some places, as at Chunar and Vindhyachal the hills advance to the very bank of the river, while in others the scarp is 15 km. or more away. The soil is similar, though on the whole inferior to that of the northern portion; and the surface owing to a large number of watercourses which carry off the drainage of the hills, is considerably more broken by ravines. Commencing on the west, this plain includes the northern portions of Chhiyanve, with its broad expanse of rich alluvial land and of Chaurasi, where luxuriance of the crops is proverbial among the people. It then narrows to a mere strip below the hills of Sakteshgarh and the fortress-crowned rock of Chunar; but, once this barrier is past, the plain broadens out and the hills gradually recede till they fade out of sight from the river altogether. The lowlands that are situated between them and the stream are extensive but of varying fertility and comprise soil as different as the Khadir of Chunar, the rice-lands of Bhuili and northern Kera-Mangraur, and thin sandy deposits scoured into a labyrinth of ravines of nodular limestone, where cultivation is difficult and precarious.

Tableland

The central or Vindhyan Plateau includes the whole tract lying between the Vindhyan escarpment and the Kaimur range. This is in extent about 112 km. from east to west and varies from 30 to 40 km. in width from north to south and containing an area of above 1,600 sq. km. The southern boundary is formed by the Kaimur range, which, in the western portion is about 300 m. to 365 m. above the plain. After sinking to a series of inconsiderable hills in the centre, where the plateau terminates in an abrupt precipice overhanging the valley of the Son, it rises again and, sweeping southwards, culminates in the great crag Mangeswar, the fort-crowned rock of Bijaigarh and the peak of Bagdharua above Argarh. It thence trends away eastward, with gradually diminishing height, to the boundary of the district. The eastern portion of the plateau comprises the southern half of the pargana of Kera-Mangraur. It may be generally described as a tableland extending between two parallel ranges of hills; but it is by no means regular in its surface, and is intersected everywhere by low wooded ridges, between which lie valleys watered by hill torrents; the latter find their way, some to the Karamnass, some to the Chandraprabha. The tract where the hills meet the plains is known as Damon-i-Koh and is matchless for its pristine beauty in the district. Further west lies the Sukrit pass above Ahraura which was far long the chief outlet for traffic in grain and jungle produce from the south. Further west still to the south of Chaurasi and the northern portion of Upraudh, the forest gives way, first to scrub jungle and then to an open and undulating plain formed of rock, thinly covered with a red ferruginous clay and in parts with a gravel closely resembling laterite. To the south of this, along the Deccan road, the district descends with gentle south-westerly slope towards the river Belan. The gradual improvement in the fertility of the soil is marked by a change of crops: but beyond the Belan there is another rise and a corresponding falling off in fertility, succeeded by a long and slightly inclined stretch of tolerably productive tract extending to the base of

the Kaimurs. East of this and continuing almost to the Bihar border, is found a remarkably fertile tract of land which runs in a narrow strip through Halja, Ghorawal, Roberts Ganj and past Bijaigarh, roughly parallel with the Kaimurs. The limits of this tract are clearly marked by the numerous groves of well-grown trees over its surface, contrasting strongly with the stunted jungle beyond. The western portion is, like the rest of the elevated part of the district, hampered by difficulties of water supply. Beyond, a short stretch of rock and jungle leads to the southern extremity and precipitous descent into the valley of the Son.

Sonpar—The area south of the Son river consists for the most part of numerous parallel lines of rocky hills, of no great height, but rugged and impracticable, and clothed with jungle usually of a stunted and ill-grown description. Entering it at Chopan, we find the blue water of the river, flowing swiftly over broad stretches of silver sand, with the dark castellated heights of Mangeswar forming an imposing background all along the north as far as the eye can reach, but further south, the splendid vision fades away into stretches of arid waste, intersected by ridges and nullahs, only opening out in a few places to enclose lowlying patches of culturable soil. Starting from Agori, there is first of all a long, narrow strip of fertile land, bordering on the Son and backed by some rows of hills. Crossing these at Gai Ghat, where the fertile land ceases, one reaches the Son valley. This is fairly extensive and runs parallel with the Son. After the Kon valley, with the exception of little scattered cultivation near the Pandu river, no more culturable land is seen till the passes near Pandochattan are surmounted and Jarukhar, the northern out-post of the Dudhi valley is reached. The Dudhi valley is bounded on the north by the rugged mass of broken country which lies between it and the Son; on the east by the Palamau district; and on the south by the southern range of hills, of which Gonda has the highest elevation. It is a fertile and prosperous valley, which is much wider and more extensive to the south, where it opens out round Muirpur and merges into the Singrauli basin. The Singrauli basin is triangular in shape; its base lying around Kota on the Rewa frontier, and the apex running nearly up to the Aundi hills. The soil is a rich alluvial loam and cultivation is in a better state than in Dudhi owing to the absence of intersecting rivers. These three valleys, together with the strip along the Son in Agori, contain practically all the land available for cultivation. The area of the whole Sonpar tract is about 2,720 sq. km.

RIVER SYSTEM AND WATER RESOURCES

Rivers

The chief rivers of the district are Ganga and the Son. Besides these there are four medium-sized streams, namely the Belan, Karamnass, Rihand and Kanhar, and a host of minor channels. The latter are mere torrents. South of the Kaimurs, there is only one small stream; the Ganghar, which flows into the Son on its left bank; but south of the river, the Singrauli and Dudhi basins are drained by a large number of tributary channels, which, like the Ajhir, Bichhi, Lauwa, and Thema, either join the Rihand and Kanhar, or like the Bijui, flow into the Son direct.

Ganga—It flows from west to east across the northern portion of the district, touching it a few kilometres west of Hargarh village. Then it flows towards north and makes a remarkable loop enclosing a peninsular land, belonging to the district. Thence it pursues an easterly course to Mirzapur. North of the district it flows due north and shows a tendency to double back; but after about 6 km. it regains its easterly direction and continues thus to Chunar, where its trend becomes north easterly. It finally leaves the district near Mirzapur Khurd or some 17 km. above the city of Varanasi. For the last 13 km. of its course, the land on its northern shore belongs to the Varanasi district. From point to point its total length within the Mirzapur district is about 80 km. but the actual course of the stream is increased by the extensive loops to some 115 km. Among the many drainage channels which join the river on the right bank, the Jirgo, which enter it near Chunar, the Belwan or Dahwa, the Khajuri, the Lighla and the Karnauti may be mentioned.

Karamnass—It rises near Sarodag, on the northern face of the Shahabad continuation of the Kaimurs, some 26 km. west of Rohtasgarh, where it forms a rapid streamlet of pure and limpid water. Flowing north-west, it forms, at the villages of Banki, the boundary between pargana Bijaigarh and Bihar. Then it sweeps round in a semi-circle, after being joined by two small affluents known as the Bijra and the Panchan. It leaves the district some kilometres north of the Semariya village.

Son—This river enters the district from Rewa between the villages of Silpi and Kurari. It runs a course of about 56 km. across the district, in almost a due easterly direction and leaves the district a little beyond the old village of Argarh and the Bagdharua peak. Its course lies along a deep valley.

During its course through the district the Son receives from the south two considerable tributaries the Rihand and the Kanhar. Both these streams rise among the former tributary states of Chota Nagpur, the Rihand in Udaipur and the Kanhar in Sarguja. The former flows past Gaharwargaon, the pargana of Singrauli and enters the Son at Sindhuria after a course of about 70 km. in the district. The Kanhar unites with the larger river at Kota, some 19 km. below the mouth of the Rihand, after a course of about 24 km. roughly parallel with that of the Rihand. The only other tributary of the Son, which calls for separate mention, is the Ganghar. This is peculiar in being the only affluent of that river in the district on its left bank. It starts at Sathari in the east of the district and makes its way through the Kaimur range, joining the Son opposite Chopan.

Belan—The Belan is the principal drainage channel of the central plateau of the district. It rises in pargana Bijaigarh, east of Robarts Ganj, and holds a sinuous course with a westerly direction through the fertile strip lying in the centre of pargana Barhar, until it reaches the vicinity of Ghorawal. Here, after making an angular curve to the north, it bends south-west and forms, for a short distance, the boundary between this district and Rewa. At the south-western corner of Barhar it turns north at right angles and passes along the border between Barhar and Upraudh for about 14 km. This portion of its course is of considerable

beauty, the stream flowing over a rocky bed, first through a precipitous gorge, into which it falls by a single leap of over about 30 metres at the Moka Dari and then through an intricate mass of ravines. A little west of Baraundha, it passes through the south of the Allahabad district to its junction with the Tons. It is joined by many affluents but all, with the exception of the Adh and Bakhar, are insignificant.

Drainage—The rivers and streams, together with their tributaries, constitute the natural drainage lines of the district. Though the whole of the natural drainage of the district finds its way eventually into the Ganga and the land is, in a broad sense, a part of the Ganga basin it is more convenient to distinguish locally five areas of drainage. The alluvial plain south of the Ganga, which lies some what higher and has a considerably steeper gradient from the foot of Vindhyan to the river bank, is amply provided with drainage channels. In Barhar and Upraudh, the surface drainage flows westwards into the Belan. The whole of the south of the district, including the portion of Bijaigarh pargana lying south of the Kaimurs, drains into the Son or one of its tributaries.

GEOLOGY

For the purpose of geological description the district may be divided into six tracts, namely, the alluvial Ganga plain, the Vindhyan tableland, the Kaimur hills, the Son valley, the hilly tract south of the Son, and the Singrauli basin. Each of these divisions has the shape of longitudinal strips with their length east to west.

In the north is the alluvial plain which skirts the Ganga on either bank and reaches from the northern boundary southwards to the abrupt scarp of the low flat line of hills into which the ranges of the Vindhyan here subsides.

The Vindhyan tableland consists principally of upper Vindhyan sandstones. The subdivisions of these are the upper and lower Kaimur stones, the upper Rewa sandstones and the Rewa and Bijaigarh shales. The lower Kaimur sandstones and the Bijaigarh shales occur especially in the south of the plateau and form the lower spurs of the Kaimur range, while the upper Kaimur sandstone constitutes the greater part of the tableland. The latter which is of great thickness and massiveness; and has long been renowned for its excellence as a building stone. The Rewa shales and sandstones are found only at the western limit of the district, where they form a second scarp range resembling the Kaimur range. The shales are particularly seen in the upper Adh valley and in the east of the Katraghat.

The Son valley is occupied by the lower Vindhyan, which consist, in Mirzapur, of four subdivisions. The lowest, Garbandh group, usually occurs at a short distance from the Son. This group takes its name from the Garbandh tableland situated close to the western boundary of palamau and adjacent to the eastern border of Mirzapur. It consists of conglomerates, shales, carbonaceous beds, limestones, porcellanites, and glauconitic sandstone. The conglomerates may be best seen near Agori Khas and the shales near Kon. The second subdivision of the lower Vindhyan consists of trappoids and porcellanites. They are

indurated, highly siliceous, volcanic ashes and are usually found in the immediate neighbourhood of the south bank of the Son. The third subdivision, or Kheinjua group, consists of limestones and of shales with calcareous concretions. It usually forms the northern bank of the Son and its name is derived from a range of hills lying south of the Kaimur scarp at and beyond the western boundary of the Rewa in the Son valley. The last group in this formation which is represented in the district, is the Rohtas. It consists of thin-bedded limestones, some of which are suitable for lithographic printing and are found at the foot and along the lower slopes of the Kaimur range.

The numerous ranges of the hilly tract for some distance south of the Son are occupied by the Bijawars, a sedimentary series older than the Vindhya. The prevalent rocks of this formation are slates, either slate-coloured or else green, red, or purple: some of them, especially the dark grey ones, are perhaps of a good quality to be used for roofing purpose. The other rocks are quartzites, limestones, basic volcanic rocks and hematite jaspers. The last-named are one of the most common characteristic rocks of the Bijawar formations and are stratified rocks consisting of chalcedonic quartz with a varying admixture of hematite. Owing to the brilliant red colour of these bands the jasper assumes a ribboned appearance, which is very remarkable and thoroughly characteristic; sometimes the proportion of hematite increases till it predominates to such an extent that the rock becomes a valuable iron ore. The Bijawars and the Vindhya are completely unfossiliferous and for this reason their ages can not be exactly determined. From all indications, however, the latter can not be later than the geological period known as Devonian, they may well be as old as Cambrian. The Bijawars formation in all probability are pre-Cambrian.

The red-shales or Jungel series form a lofty east and west range, whose eastern end terminates south of the village of Jungel, about 12 km. west of Agori Khas. It consists principally of massive sandstones with subordinate bands of conglomerate and red or rather deep purple shales. No complete section of the series is seen any where.

Gneiss—Gneiss and Gondwana constitute the southernmost tract of the district. The Archaean gneiss is of course the oldest of all the formations in the district. It includes granites, diorites, mica, hornblende schists, quartz reefs, crystalline, serpentinous and dolomitic limestones, magnetite and quartz beds. These are traversed by veins of acid pegmatite and of basic epidiorite.

The Gondwana beds occur in the western part of Singrauli. They consist for the most part of the lowest division, the unproductive Talchir beds, which comprise of shales, sandstones and boulder beds, supposed to be of glacial origin. Some of the productive coal measures belonging to the Damuda group are found near the western boundary of the district, where they constitute the Singrauli coal field.

The other geological formation of the district that calls for notice is the fertile black soil which occupies the western portion of the Kaimur tableland. This is probably the result of the disintegration of some basaltic rocks of the Deccan trap formation.

Mineral Wealth—The mineral products form a long and varied list. Some of them have already been noticed in connection with the geological character of the hills, but owing to the inaccessible nature of the tract where they occur, none of them has been exploited with the exception of building stone and limestone the former of which supports a large and flourishing industry.

Limestone—The lower Vindhya of the Son valley contain, lithologically, the best limestones of the district. But they are cut off by their distance from the Mirzapur market. Hence the demand of the Son country is supplied by more convenient quarries situated lower down the course of the river. There are some stones in this series, along the lower slopes and at the foot of the Kaimur range, and a considerable import of stone lime is carried on by way of Deccan road, partly from kilns in this district and partly from sources in the top of upper Vindhya beyond its boundaries. A very fine lime is also burnt from the stalagmitic deposits below many of the falls over the Rewa and Kaimur escarpment. These limestones are used for the manufacture of portland cement.

The other minerals which exist in the district are as follows:—

Felspar—In the southern area of Archaean gneiss, the felspars, orthoclase and oligoclase are usually co-existent in the rock or in the coarse pegmatic veins by which it is traversed. It mainly occurs around piparkhar, west of Nakti and north of Injani.

Mica—Mica, in the form of biotite, of a black or dark-brown colour occurs generally in a small laminal but is occasionally associated with hornblende, the rock passing by gradations into hornblende gneiss. One vein to the south-east of Bura village is worth mentioning as it alone yielded mica of good quantity. A poor quality of mica was also obtained from the south of Kamharia and the east of Khairi.

Iron—Beds of iron ore in the shape of magnetite interminated with granular silicious layers are met with frequently and more noticeably in the crystalline inliers near Koelkot. This ore has long been used for the manufacture of iron. In Dudhi there are mines at Korji on the Pagan river, which are the richest in iron.

Clay—A number of small clay pockets occur in the Barakar sandstones. Clay is used by the villagers for whitewashing. The other localities where clay is found are Aundi, Bansi, Makrikah and Nakti. In addition to this the China clay is also found to the north of Kaldomri.

Corundum—It occurs on the Rewa boundary between the villages Dipra and Kadopani about a kilometre east of the Rihand river.

Epidote—A very beautiful epidote rock is found in low hillocks to the south-west of Pokhra. This is composed of pink felspar and epidote with a little quartz.

Coal—The coal fields of the Singrauli basin belong to the Damuda group of the Gondwana series and are continuous with those of Rewa; the whole extend for about 50 kms. to the west. The eastern limit is uncertain, but does not pass beyond the Rihand river; while to the north and south, the limits are marked by the Aundhi hill and the Ballia rivulet.

Magnetite—A few crystals of magnetite were obtained from a pegmatite east of Khairi. The occurrence is, however, of no economic importance.

Haematite—Besides the magnetite of the gneiss area, there is good iron ores in the Bijawar rocks, in the shape of haematite.

Sulphate of Iron—In the Bijaigarh shale series of the upper Vindhyan, an impure and granular sulphate of iron, which in places forms a thick efflorescence, is found and collected.

Building Stone—The renowned building stone of Mirzapur is upper Kaimur sandstone. The chief quarries are at Mirzapur and Chunar. The best stone is fine-grained and homogeneous, usually yellowish and greyish-white in colour, occurring in beds several feet thick. It is perfectly free for long stretches from any kind of fissure or joint. Consequently, a very large block can be extracted. Besides this, a rose-coloured variety of stone is very common and greenish beds are also occasionally met with. Both are used for building purposes but the red stone is reputed much better than the lighter-coloured varieties.

Kankar—The *kankar* and the *bajri* are found plentifully in the district.

Cale Tufa—There are a number of pockets of cale tufa near Kirwan, Belwadh, Aundi, and Morai. It is used for betel-lime and whitewashing.

Calcite—Large crystals and aggregates of calcite occur within a band of crystalline limestone about 3 km. north of Parsoi. The mineral is opaque and is iron-stained along cracks near the exposed surfaces. The calcite has been formed because of the dissolution of the limestone and re-precipitation of pure calcium carbonate in the cavities of the limestone. It is used in chemical, steel and glass industries.

Dolomite—It closely resembles crystalline magnesite and sometimes it is very difficult to differentiate between the two. Pockets of crystalline dolomite, sometimes associated with crystals of calcite, are found at numerous spots on the ridge of Bhurgaon and Kajrahat belt of the district. It is used as flux material in steel melting.

Marble—In the bed of Rihand, just to the north of Karaunti, there is a bed of marble. Its colour is white and it is suitable as building material. A bluish-grey, fine-grained marble was noticed about 2 km. north-east of Mahdia. A similar deposit occurs near Gidher. It is utilized for cement manufacture.

Seismology

The district of Mirzapur lies in the areas where no earthquake of any significance has occurred in the past. It has experienced earthquakes originating in the Himalayan boundary fault zone and the earthquake of Rewa of June 2, 1927, which occurred in the Narbada-Son zone. The maximum intensity that could have been experienced at Mirzapur because of Bihar-Nepal earthquake of January 15, 1934, was at VI Modified Mercalli Scale. In the earthquake zoning map of India, the district of Mirzapur has been placed in zone III intensity of VII Modified Mercalli Scale.

FLORA

The total area under forest is about 2,68,400 hectares in the district. The vegetation of the district can be placed into the following divisions :

Southern/Northern Dry Mixed Deciduous Forests—This botanical division covers about 3,874 hectares and mostly occurs in Kaimur hills as well as in some area of the Vindhyan plateau. The common floristic composition is of *asna* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *dhao* (*Anogeissus pendula*), *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *sidha* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *tendu* (*Diospyros tomentosa*), *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *jigna* (*Lannea coromandelica*), *piar* (*Buchanania lazzoni*), *mahua* (*Madhuca longifolia*), *aonla* (*Ennallia affinis*), *kakor* (*Liziphus glaberrima*), *palas* (*Butea monosperma*).

Dry Plains Sal Transitional to Peninsula Sal—It occurs near Bishar, Dhurkari, Roberts Ganj and Rajpur blocks. The common species found in it are, *sal* (*Shorea robusta*) associated with *tendu*, *piar*, *asna*, *dhao*, *mahua*, *khair*, *dhak*, *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*) and *bahera* (*Terminalia belerica*).

Dry Deciduous Scrub—This is common on the plateau. The common flora comprise *Karaunda* (*Carrissa carandas*), *katai* (*Flocourtia romontdhi*), *reonja* (*Acacia leucophloea*), *tendu*, *khair*, *palas*, *kakor* and *harsingar* (*Nyctanthes arbor-tristis*).

Anogeissus Pendula Forests—Mostly seen in Burhi Khar, Mahuli and to some extent in Banjari block. The main species are *kardhai* (*Anogeissus pendula*) associated with *khair*, *kakor*, *reonja*, *tendu*, *sidha* and *ber*.

Boswellia Forests—This type of vegetation can be seen in Mahuli, Babura, Banjari, Songarha, and Mangara blocks. The main species are *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) associated with *jigna*, *tendu*, *khair*, *kakor*, etc.

Butea Forests—The *Butea* forests mostly occur on the plateau and in clayey soil. It is composed of *palas* (*Butea monosperma*) associated with *kakor*, *khair* and *karaunda*.

Dry Bamboo Breaks—This type of vegetation is found on the slope of Kaimur hills such as Babura, Banjari, Songarha Sakteshgarh, Ban Imli and Latifpur blocks. The main species is bamboo associated with *jigna*, *khair*, and *tendu*.

Grass Preserves—No such preserves are needed in the division as plantation areas are already fenced and act as grass preserves. The fodder grasses are sold by public auctions.

Plantation—Fast-growing plantation of bamboo and other species have been raised in the district. Plantation work has provided employment to local people. These forests provide fodder to the cattle and fuel to the local people. The plantation scheme is also helpful in checking soil erosion and acts as wind breaker. Wild animals take refuge in the forests of the district. The plantation of bamboo has been done over 3,000 hectares annually since 1971. Clearance of bushes and shrubs is done in the areas before plantation.

Game Laws—In order to protect wild life from ravages, the Wild Life (Protection) Act of 1972 and the Wild Life Protection Rules of 1974 are in force in the district, through these the game laws have been rendered more stringent with a view to conserving and preventing the extinction of certain species, such as the panther, the swamp deer, the musk deer, the gazelle, the four horned antelope, the black buck, the tiger, the elephant, the great Indian bustard, the mugar, the gharial, the peafowl, the pink headed-duck, the monal and the tragopan etc.

There are 10 game preserves under the forest division Mirzapur, namely Bajia, Singrauli, Harnakachak, Gohra, Mirpur (all completely closed to shooting), Halia (open to big game), Mirzapur, Roberts Ganj, Ahraura, and Hathwani (all open to small game).

Hunting licence can be had from the chief wild life warden, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow, or from the divisional forest officer concerned. The following species can be shot—sloth bear, wild boar, porcupine, hare, spotted deer, barking deer, blue bull, teal, spot bill, quail, partridges, migratory duck, pigeon, sand grause, and florican, etc.

Hunting of wild animals during the close season i.e. from June to September, is strictly prohibited in the government forests.

FAUNA

Animals—A wide variety of wild animals are to be found in the district numerous and varied. Among the carnivora, the tiger (*Panthera tigris*) is practically on the verge of extinction. It is estimated that there are only two tigers in the entire division confined to Halia range. The panther (*Panthera pardus*) is found all over the district but is mostly concentrated in the southern region in Halia and Roberts Ganj ranges. About 30 panthers were reported to be present in the district according to 1971 census. The sloth bear (*Melursus Ursinus*) is mostly found in Halia and Roberts Ganj. The jungle cats (*Felis chausaffinis gray*) are usually found in scrub forests.

The herbivora of the district consist of the blue bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus pallas*) the Chinkara (*Gazella gazella*), the black buck (*Antelope curvicastra*), chausingha (*Tetracenus quadricornis*), and the spotted (*Axis axis*). The other animals found in the district are hare (*Lepus nigricollis ruficandatus*), porcupine (*Hystrix indica indica*), wild boar (*Sus scrofa cristatus*), monkey (*Macaca mulatta*), and langur (*Presbytis entellus*).

Birds—The common game birds of the district are the black partridges or kala titar. (*Francolinus francolinus asiaticus*), painted partridges (*Francolinus pictus*), grey partridge (*Francolinus pondicerianus finter positus*), red spurfowl (*Gallus dierhardi spadica*), grey quails (*Coturnix coturnix*), and bhat titar (*Pterocles exustus*). Among the migratory birds, various kinds of geese, pochard, and pintail visit the district in the winter season.

Fish—Fish are found in the rivers, lakes, and ponds of the district, the common species being rohu (*Lebeo rohita*), mangur (*Calarias betragus*), nain (*Certhius mirigla*), katla (*catla catla*), silaund (*Silundica gangetica*), and moh (*Nolopterus Chital*).

Reptiles—Among snakes the cobra (*Naja naja*), the Karait (*Bungarus Coeruleus*), and the dhaman (*Ptyas mucosus*) are found in the district.

Of sauria, the magar or crocodile (*Crocodilus palustris*) and goh (*Varanus monitor*) are also found.

CLIMATE

The climate of the district is characterised by a hot summer, and a pleasant monsoon, and a severe season. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from about the middle of November to the end of the February is followed by the hot season from March to about the middle of June. The south-west monsoon season is from the middle of June to the end of September. October and the first half of November constitute the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall—The details of the rainfall for the district are given in Statement I at the end of the chapter for the period of 50 years i.e. from 1901 to 1950.

The average annual rainfall in the district is 1,129.9 mm. It generally decreases from the south-east to the north-west, except around the Hasanpur region which gets a little more rainfall than the surrounding regions. About 80 per cent of the annual rainfall in the district takes place during the south-west monsoon months from June to September, August being the month of the heaviest rainfall. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is appreciable. In the period of 50 years, from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 171 per cent of the normal occurred in 1948. The lowest annual rainfall, which was 62 per cent of the normal, occurred in 1912. During the period of 50 years, the annual rainfall in the district was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 10 years, two of them being consecutive, considering the rainfall at the individual stations two or three consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once or twice at most of the stations. On an average there are 56 rainy days (i.e. days with rainfall of 2.5 mm. or more) in a year in the district. The number varies from 51 at Ahraura to 61 at Dudhi. The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 318.5 mm. at Chunar on August 8, 1936.

The following statement shows the frequency of the annual rainfall in the district :—

Range in mm.	No. of years
1	2
701—800	2
801—900	8
901—1,000	6
1,001—1,100	10
1,101—1,200	9
1,201—1,300	8
1,301—1,400	2
1,401—1,500	2
1,501—1,600	0
1,601—1,700	2
1,701—1,800	0
1,801—1,900	0
1,901—2,000	1

Temperature—There is no metrological observatory in the district. The description is based on the records of the observatories in the neighbouring districts which have similar climate. From about the beginning of March temperature rises rapidly. May is generally the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 41°C and the mean daily minimum at about 26° C. The heat is oppressive in May and early part of June, before the onset of the monsoon, the maximum temperature on some day goes up to 46° C with the onset of the monsoon over the district by the middle of June, the day temperature decreases appreciably but the nights continue to be as the nights in summer season. During the break of rains in July and August, the day temperature may reach 40° C. In October when the south-west monsoon withdraws the day temperature continue to be as in the previous month but the nights become cooler. After October, both the day and night temperatures decrease rapidly till January which is the coldest month. The mean daily maximum temperature during January is about 23° C and the mean daily minimum about 9°C. During the cold season in association with passing western disturbances cold waves affect the district and the minimum temperature on such occasions drops to 1°C.

Humidity—Humidity is usually high during the monsoon season, exceeding 70 per cent. The air becomes dry after the monsoon, and by summer the relative humidity is very low, particularly in the afternoon.

Cloudiness—During monsoons and sometimes in winters in association with passing western disturbances the sky is heavily overcast. In the rest of the year the sky is clear.

Winds—Winds are generally light throughout the year, strengthening a bit during the afternoon. During the non-monsoon months the winds blow predominantly from directions between south-west and north-west. By the month of May the winds begin to blow from directions between north-east and south-east. During the monsoon season winds from the west or south-west blow on some days.

Special Weather Phenomena—Some of the monsoon depressions from the Bay of Bengal, particularly in the early part of the season, move across the country and affect the district and its neighbourhood causing widespread heavy rain. Duststorms and thunderstorms occur in the hot season, sometimes accompanied with squalls. Thunderstorms also occur during the cold season in association with passing western disturbances. Rain during the monsoon season is often associated with thunder. Fog occurs occasionally during the cold season.

STATEMENT—1

Rainfall

Reference Page No. 13

Station	No. of years of data	Normal rainfall												Extreme rainfall				Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours	Amount	Date
		January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as per cent of normal	Lowest annual rainfall as per cent of normal	and year			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
Mirzapur	50	a 21.1	22.3	10.2	4.8	6.6	93.0	316.7	828.4	185.9	40.1	7.9	7.4	1,043.4	169	49	292.1	August 8, 1936		
		b 1.8	2.0	1.0	0.6	0.8	4.8	14.5	14.6	8.7	2.1	0.6	0.6	51.9	(1936)	(1918)				
Dudhi	50	a 25.7	31.0	17.0	6.9	13.5	132.3	323.9	340.1	182.4	43.9	11.2	5.8	1,133.7	153	62	193.0	August 12, 1910		
		b 1.9	2.4	1.6	0.7	1.5	7.3	16.0	16.7	9.1	3.1	0.8	0.4	61.5	(1943)	(1912)				
Robarts Ganj	50	a 23.9	29.7	14.0	6.6	14.5	111.8	351.5	369.1	202.4	40.4	7.6	4.8	1,176.3	184	50	269.7	July 31, 1937		
		b 1.9	2.1	1.4	0.6	1.2	6.3	16.3	16.8	9.6	2.4	0.6	0.5	60.0	(1917)	(1915)				
Chunar	50	a 21.8	21.3	11.7	6.1	11.2	95.0	326.1	341.4	204.7	42.4	7.0	6.1	1,095.7	188	56	318.5	August 8, 1936		
		b 1.9	1.9	1.0	0.6	0.8	5.1	14.5	14.8	8.7	2.2	0.6	0.5	52.6	(1948)	(1912)				
Hasanpur	8	a 24.6	22.9	6.1	4.3	9.4	90.2	352.0	420.9	221.7	56.9	13.5	0.0	1,222.5	204	63	251.5	August 4, 1948		
		b 2.6	2.9	1.1	1.1	0.9	4.1	16.9	16.6	9.0	3.5	1.0	0.3	59.1	(1948)	(1945)				
Ahaura	27	a 22.9	17.5	8.1	4.8	7.9	90.9	352.5	353.1	204.7	34.0	6.3	5.6	1,108.3	171	56	279.4	August 8, 1936		
		b 1.8	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.6	4.8	14.6	15.3	8.4	1.8	0.6	0.6	51.3	(1917)	(1933)				
Mirzapur district		a 23.2	24.1	11.2	5.9	10.5	102.2	337.1	353.8	200.3	42.9	9.1	4.9	1,129.9	171	62		...		
		b 2.0	2.1	1.2	0.7	1.0	5.4	15.3	15.7	8.9	2.6	0.7	0.5	56.1	(1948)	(1912)				

(a) Normal Rainfall in mm.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

(a) Normal Rainfall in mm.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

CHAPTER II
HISTORY

ANCIENT PERIOD

The district contains more remnants of an aboriginal population than any other in Uttar Pradesh. In the fastnesses of the Vindhya and Kaimurs, and in the valley of the Son, abound those caves which formed the earliest dwellings of the primeval inhabitants, and which, though in many cases not yet systematically or thoroughly explored, have yielded relics of the remotest antiquity¹. The caves are merely such shallow hollows as have been naturally formed in the rock². Those chosen for habitation appear generally to have commended themselves to their occupants from their difficulty of access and the ease with which they might be defended from the attacks of man and beast. In the soil within and around these dwellings occur large quantities of stone implements, mostly of a few simple shapes. The coarser and clumsier of these implements are made of a hard quartzitic sandstone occurring in the vicinity, but there are many of a finer sort flaked off with infinite pains from pebbles of quartz, jasper, chert, agate, and cornelian, procured apparently from the bed of the river Son. These are evidently contrived, some as weapons of the chase, some to assist in stripping and dressing skins, and some for the commoner domestic uses. Bone implements and fragments of fossil bone belonging to very large mammals are common in the caves, and it may be concluded that one of the chief uses of the stone knives was to scrape bone spear and arrow-heads and also the shafts of arrows and spears to make them round and straight. Some of the shapes of these implements are very curious and some are saw-backed flakes and borers. The flakes were evidently set in bone and wood and would thus make effective saws, rasps, and borers; while some of the last-named implements are very fine, tapering from a tenth of an inch to a point as sharp as that of a needle³. So far search has not revealed a single representation of an axe, though it is well-known that it was with the stone axe that prehistoric man wrought the destruction of the primeval forest. These stone implements belong to the class known as "pygmy flints," and are believed to be of the neolithic age⁴. The available evidence goes to show that their manufacture extended over a long period and there is reason to believe that the earlier examples go back to the beginnings of the neolithic age. It is possible that they are the memorials of the survivors of palaeolithic man, working as the slaves of dependants of the more advanced neolithic races.

1. Deshpande, M.N. (Ed.) : *Indian Archaeology 1970-71 Review*, (New Delhi, 1972), p. 69
2. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *Mirzapur : A Gazetteer*, (Allahabad 1911), Vol. XXVII, p. 197
3. *Ibid.*, 198
4. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People the Vedic Age*, Vol. I, p. 137

The stone implements from the south of Mirzapur are associated with neolithic interments. In prehistoric as in modern India, various methods for the disposal of the dead were adopted¹. The men of palaeolithic times probably abandoned their dead in the forests; in the neolithic age burial is older than cremation. Examples of sepulchres which can be referred with confidence to the neolithic period are rare, but besides those in the south of the district, a veritably neolithic cemetery near the town of Mirzapur was explored by Rivett Cornac and Cockburn. The grave fully excavated was six or eight feet deep, enclosed in a stone circle about twelve feet in diameter, and contained the skeleton of an adult male over six feet in length, lying on a stone slab pointing north and south. A flat dish of glazed pottery was placed at the head of the skeleton, and a similar vessel lay at each corner of the tomb, which also contained a long narrow lachrymal vase of green glass about seven inches long². In a second grave that was opened, two stone hammers and sundry flint flakes were found.

Coeval, in part at least, with the "pygmy flints" are rock drawings, which are found in many places in the Kaimur hills, under boulders, in rock shelters, on vertical precipices, and on the roofs of caves. They are executed in red, yellow, and white pigments, the red predominating and only traces of the yellow and white being visible. Cockburn was the first to point out that as the red pigment was an oxide of iron, and all sandstone contained iron, many of the drawings were in the nature of a stain on the rock, and that as the sandstone on which the most perfect drawings had been done is a vitreous quartzite harder than granite, weathering very slowly, the drawings in protected situations were of great antiquity³. These drawings generally depict hunting scenes. Some of the more interesting ones deserve description. In one cave Cockburn discovered a collection of characters and symbols which are in the earliest Asoka characters and may belong even to an older era and be one of the sources of the Asoka characters. Some of the symbols associated with them represent the nine planets, the influence of which is considered to play a very important part in the life of a Hindu, and which must have been drawn by a civilized people. Another drawing represents a tiger drive and is better executed than the others⁴. It was found at China Durra and is evidently a mediaeval picture, for barbed iron arrows of a form impossible in wood or stone, swords, shields, and spears are conspicuous in it. On the other hand, no fire-arms are visible. This picture is probably about 500 years old. In one rock shelter was discovered the drawing of the plan of an ancient city and the exodus of its inhabitants. The latter from their dress appear to be men of northern race. They are represented with their hair flowing down to their shoulders and curling up, with long robes, and with turned-up shoes like those of aborigines. The plan of the city is interesting. It is entirely surrounded by a wall while outside is a temple or *stupa*. Possibly, the city intended to be represented is Varanasi and the *stupa* may be Sarnath. The roads are evidently drawn on a plan by one who knew them. Various other plans on much more simple lines of what appear to be large villages have been found, similar to the plans engraved on stone discovered in Switzerland and Germany. Among other drawings there is a picture of two war chariots apparently opposed by aborigines. One

1. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *op. cit.*, : p. 198

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 198-199

3. *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 1884, p. 141

4. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *op. cit.*, pp. 198-199

of the chariots has a protective mantlet in front and a pole with a standard or crest on top; it has only two wheels behind and is drawn by four mules. A savage with a mace and shield opposes it. The second chariot is a four-wheeled one and the charioteer flourishes what looks like a spare wheel; the animals drawing it are evidently, from their tails, horses. Most interesting of all are the drawings of animals whether in hunting scenes or otherwise; the latter include the rhinoceros, swamp deer and buffalo¹. One drawing depicts a rhinoceros hunt by men using a multi-barbed spear, which argues a high antiquity. It is impossible to turn from these antique pictures, the earliest expression of the thoughts of man, without considering the dim vistas of history they open up. They establish the fact that the rhinoceros was once found in and around these hills, and suggest that extensive swamps once existed here side by side with primeval forest, that the climate was then different and the rainfall heavier, and that the forests have been gradually cleared by the patient labour of man, who has, in his efforts to grow food-producing grasses only, levelled the soil and at the same time destroyed the inequalities of surface loved by arboreal vegetation, causing a change in climate, the drying up of springs, and the many changes in the habits of man that these have brought about. It is possible that some of the rock drawings of the Kaimurs are 3,000 years old or even more; but some, as has been seen, are more recent. The caves were inhabited, first by savages, and then by Buddhist and Hindu ascetics; and holy men from Varanasi even yet occasionally take up their quarters in them. But most of the drawings are probably the work of aborigines, and represent scenes in their lives dating from the remotest antiquity to the time when they were driven by the stronger immigrants from the north to the fastnesses of the hills, where the latter did not care to follow them². Many of the drawings are palimpsests, while others are covered with a deposit of carbonate of lime, the satisfactory removal of which may yet display older pictures. The numerous rock shelters show that in prehistoric periods Mirzapur had innumerable cultural stations. The Institute of Archaeology, University of Allahabad, resumed exploration of the ancient mound at Patharaho, located on the river Koi, 22 km. east of Mirzapur, and found shreds of black and red wares³. In this assemblage, the Northern Black Polished Ware seems to be absent. Significantly enough some of the types represented were found to be similar to those from Kakoria in district Varanasi, while others showed resemblances to the forms normally associated with the Northern Black Polished Ware. The site in question, therefore, seems to represent a transitional stage between the palaeolithic cultures of the Vindhya on the one hand, and that associated with the Northern Black Polished Ware of the Ganga plains, on the other⁴.

Its traditional history from the earliest times to the end of Mahabharata War is mainly gleaned from the *puranas* though the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana* occasionally give dynastic list and deal with traditional accounts. According to the *Satapatha Brahmana* Manu Vaivasvata was the originator of the human race and all the dynasties mentioned in the *puranas* spring from him⁵.

1. *Ibid.*, P.200

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 200-201

3. Deshpande, M. N. (Ed.) : *op. cit.*, p. 69

4. Lal, B.B. : *Indian Archaeology 1968-69 A : Review*, (New Delhi, 1971) p. 35

5. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 275

The history of Mirzapur from the remote ancient times has been a colourful one. This area was known, in early days, as the land of Karushas—a troubled area consisting of autonomous non-Aryan tribes¹. The early and later Vedic literatures do not mention them. It is in the tangled skein of the Pauranic traditions, that Karushas are mentioned. According to the *Padma Purana* their earliest king, Dantavakra, was of Chedi lineage. His father was Vriddhasarnan and his mother was Sruta Devi. His family is reported to have had marital relations with the Chedis, the Yadavas, and the Pandavas. Dantavakra was killed by Krishna at Mathura. The *Mahabharata* too, combines them with the Karushas while Karusha happens to be the name of one of the nine sons of Manu². They were a gallant people. The *Bhagavata Purana* mentions that the Karushas were stout defenders of the faith and valorous fighters. Dantavakra was supposed to be an *Asura*.

Historically interpreted, this accumulation of traditions, possibly amounts to the eastern expansion of the Vedic Aryans. The term *asura* need not be taken as implying an ogre³. There is an overwhelming majority of instances in which the word *asura* is used in a good sense. Probably bitter hostility existed between the Aryans and the *Asuras*. In the *Satpatha Brahmana* there is a passage which states that one *Asura* race was Prachyas, which was the term used to designate the people of eastern India, particularly of Magadha. *Asuras* are also mentioned by Panini, the grammarian, and according to him they spoke probably a Mlechha language. Thus it is evident that the whole area of Mirzapur had been inhabited by a set of people who were pronouncedly anti-Vedic in the beginning and who were gradually brought under the Aryan fold.

F.E. Pargiter placed Karushadesha as extending from Rewa to river Son. According to Panini, too it is so. B.C. Law⁴ thinks that they had four different settlements. The first was in Rewa, the second was in Shahabad as stated in the *Balakanda* of *Ramayana*, the third was in Pundra-desa, (*Bhagvata Purana*) and the last was in the Vindhya (*Vayu Purana*).

From an analysis of the Pauranic data, the earliest home of the Karushas seems to have been near Rewa and Mirzapur hills, on the Vindhya (Vindhyaprishatha nivasinah) as recorded in *Vayu Purana*, *Matsya Purana* and *Markandeya Purana*. From there they possibly migrated in two directions. One party proceeded towards Malava, then known as Dasarna and Avanti, as mentioned in the *Brahmanda Purana*, while the second party following the Bhojas settled from Mirzapur Shahabad to Palamau and Singhbhum, as stated in the *Balakanda* of *Ramayana*. It was here that geographers of *Vishnu Purana* locate them, associated with the Matsyas, Kasis, Chedis, the Panchalas and Bhojas. It is probable that the descendants of those people who stayed on in Mirzapur, came to be known as Bhars and Cheros, who according to the local tradition, were the earliest occupants of the country.

Several legends are connected with this region. Tradition says that Chunar is the actual footprint of some divine being of the Dvapara-yuga who, in stepping from the Himalayas to Cape Komorin, rested his

foot upon this hill and impressed it with his mark.¹ The fancied resemblance of the ground plan of the whole upper surface of the rock to a gigantic footstep, with the toes and ball of the foot projecting into the river and the heel towards the land side has apparently given Chunar its name, which is an abbreviation of Charandari, or footstep hill. According to one legend Bharthari, the elder brother of the famous Vikramaditya of Ujjayini, having embraced the life of *yogi* (sage) selected as his place of retirement the rock of Chunar. Vikramaditya is said to have discovered the hiding-place of his brother and to have visited Chunar and built for him a residence there.² The ancient town of Bindhachal, or Vindhyaachala, famous in the *puranas*, is said to have been included within the circuit of the ancient city of Pampapura.³ Another legend, explaining the ill-repute of the Karamnass river, relates how raja Trishanku, relying on the superhuman power he had attained by a long course of austerities, once attempted to ascend into heaven. Half way he was opposed by the immortals who, in their wrath at his audacity, suspended him for ever, head downwards, midway between heaven and earth. In his torment there exudes from his mouth, continually, drops of a baneful moisture, which fall into and taint the waters of the Karamnass beneath.⁴

The early disappearance of the dynasties of the kingdoms established by Karusha, Nabhaga, Dhrishita, Narishyanta, Piamses, and Prishadhra seems to be due to the victorious campaigns led by Pururavas, Nahusha and Yayati, of the Lunar dynasty, who displaced all these kingdoms and expanded the Paurava realm.⁵ Vasu, the fourth successor of Sudhanvan, conquered the Chedi kingdom from the Yadavas and founded a dynasty there an exploit that won him the epithet Chaidyoparichara (overcomer of Chaidyas). Vasu was a *samrat* and a *chakravartin* and extended his sway over adjoining Magadha, and possibly over Matsya also. He had five sons, among whom he divided his territory, establishing them in separate kingdoms. Magadha came as the share of his eldest son Brihadratha, Kusa was given Kausambi, Yadu had Karusha, and Pratyagraha got Chedi. Probably, the last son got Matsya which adjoined Chedi in the north-west.⁶

With Brihadratha establishing himself in Magadha, with Girivraja, as his capital, and the consequent founding of the Barahadratha dynasty Magadha assumes great importance in traditional history. Jarasandha in the Barahadratha line was a very powerful king, and under him Magadha rose to great prominence. Jarasandha was killed by Bhima, the Pandava, and his son Sahadeva became an ally of the Pandavas.

Karusha was annexed to Magadha, and thus in 400 B.C. Mirzapur district formed a part of Magadha.

1. Fuhrer, A. : *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*, p. 258
2. *Ibid*, p. 257
3. Sherring : *Hindu Tribes and Castes*, p. 359
4. Grierson, J. W. : *Statistical, Descriptive, and Historical Account of the North Western Provinces of India*, (Allahabad, 1883), Vol. XIV Part II, p. 23
5. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *op. cit*, Vol. I, p. 276
6. *Ibid.*, pp. 300-301

1. Pargiter, F.E. : *Ancient Indian Historical Traditions*, (Delhi, 1962) p. 253
 2. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *Op. cit*, Vol. I, pp. 275-276
 3. D.R. Patil : *Cultural History of the Vayu Purana*, (Poona, 1946), p. 45
 4. Law, B.C. : *Historical Geography of Ancient India*, pp. 203-273

The first historical record in the Karushas, is a minor rock edict of emperor Asoka in a rock shelter, on the Chandan Sahids' hill. Emperor Asoka had established the quarry workshop at Chunar (S.K. Charanadri)¹ Dr D.R. Bhandarkar has pointed out that Asoka's edicts are mostly found at places which separate his dominions from those of his independent and semi-independent neighbours². For example, Rupnath and Sasaram edicts were inscribed at the western and eastern frontier of a primitive forest area, known as Atavi country. The edicts are very simple, and in clarifying the character of the imperial religion, as has been done on the rocks and pillars in more advanced areas of the empire. This is significant and suited the primitive folks who were a source of anxiety to the emperor.

Regarding the location of the Atavi country it is clarified in Rock Edict XIII, which deals with the *antas* or the frontier territories. Centuries after the downfall of the Mauryan empire, another emperor, Samudragupta, refers to this territory, as 'all the kings of the forest country'. Elucidation of this 'forest country' is met with, in the Khoh Copper Plate of Maharaja Samkshoba, where, the monarch is credited as the ruler of 18 forest kingdoms. Vanarastras (forest states or republics), as opposed to Vanarajyas (forest kingdoms), are referred to in *Brihat Samhita* in the north-east division of India. Very correctly, the late D.R. Bhandarkar concluded that the *Atavika* country, extended from Baghelkhand to the sea coast of Orissa³.

Then for centuries we have no information. The empires of the Sungas the Kanvas, and the Kushanas all became 'one with Nineveh and Tyre.' Towards the end of the second or the beginning of the third century A.D., Kushana rule seems to have come to an end in this region, probably because of the revival of the long suppressed Naga power; as a branch of the Nagas, known as Bharashiva with its centre in Kantipuri (modern Kantit in Mirzapur) appears to have conquered this region about that time.⁴ Mirzapur, undoubtedly, was included in the empire of the Guptas. In the 7th century of the Christian era light on this subject from various sources is forthcoming.

King Sasanka is described as the lord of Gauda in Bana's *Harsha Charita*, and as king of Karnasuvarna by the Chinese pilgrim, Hsien Tsang. Early in his life he seems to have been a feudatory because at Rohtasgarh we have his seal, inscribed on a rock, with the legend Mahasamanta Sasanka.⁵ Anarchy was then reigning in Magadha. The long drawn-out contest between the Guptas and the Maukharis was about to end with the extinction of the latter dynasty. It was probably from this area that Sasanka reached Kannauj and defected and killed Grahavarman, the husband of Rajyasri, the sister of Harsha, and later also Harsha's elder brother, Rajyavardhana.⁶ It was too from here that Sasanka succeeded in establishing his power and taking advantage

1. Brown, Percy.: *Indian Architecture (Buddhist and Hindu Periods)*, (Bombay, 1956) p. 18
2. Bhandarkar, D.R.: *A. Asoka*, (Delhi-1923), p. 36-37
3. *Ibid.*, p. 42
4. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalkar, A.D.: *op. cit.*, p. 169
5. Chaudhury Roy, P.C.: *Gazetteer of India, Bihar Shahabad*, (Patna, 1866) p. 51
6. Tripathi, R.S.: *History of Ancient India*, (Delhi, 1980), p. 293

of the chaotic political condition, laid the foundation of a considerably big kingdom with his headquarters at Karnasuvarna. The end of Sasanka is still unknown to history. It is quite possible, however, that he met with a natural death after he had lost his territories in the plains to the allied armies of the Kannauj and Kamarupa kings; and had retired to the jungle-clad ancient Atavika country.

The next to rule over Mirzapur was probably king Yashovarman of Kannauj whose historicity can no longer be denied. An uncritical but detailed account of the short-lived triumph of this king is derived from a Prakrit Kavya named *Gaudavaho*, composed by Vakapatiraja. He was a junior contemporary of the more famous Bhavabhuti¹. *Gaudavaho* states that after issuing from his capital at Kannauj, the king came to a hilly country where he halted during the rains. The identity of the area is clarified by the incident of his worshipping Vinchesvari Devi. Therefore, his retreat during the monsoon was the hill tracts of Mirzapur district. After the end of the monsoon, he pursued the retreating king of Magadha (Magadhanatha-lord of Magadha), identified with Jivitagupta II. (Jivitagupta II was the son of Vishnugupta and his queen Ijjadevi). The king of Magadha was ultimately defeated and killed in a swampy land.² Subsequently, in the year 733 A.D., Yashovarman himself suffered a reverse at the hands of Lalitaditya of Kashmir.

The next monarch was the Saila king of the Central Provinces. Our information is derived from a land grant: Regholi copper plates of Jayavardhana. It informs us that the elder brother of his great-grandfather, who was an expert in defeating his enemies, inflicted a defeat on an unnamed or unspecified Paundra king, and annexed his territory. This royal family, known only from this grant, seems to have had a distinguished history. The family is reported to have held some territory in the Himalayan region, emigrating from which they conquered the Gurjara country. Still later they migrated to the east, and three brothers from it established themselves at Kasi, Vindhyadewa (Mirzapur and Shahabad), and Paundra. The palaeography of this record belongs to the 8th century A.D. The glories of Yashovarman and the Saila family were probably eclipsed by Lalitaditya—Muktapida of Kashmir. According to Kalhana,³ his *digvijaya* comprised not only the whole of northern India, but southern India as well, extending up to Kaveri river and Malaya mountains.³ Since Kalhana credits the Kashmirian monarch with defeating Yashovarman, there can be little doubt about our assumption. The same reliance, however, cannot be placed in respect of Jayapida, except indicating, possibly, that the alleged conquests of northern and southern India ensued from the campaign. Next came Vatsaraja of Bhinnmal, the Gurjara monarch. All these repeated invasions created anarchy in this region (Mirzapur) which ended with the feudal lords ushering in the Pala dynasty.

1. Tripathi, R.S.: *op. cit.*, p. 316; Majumdar, R.C.: *The Classical Age*, (Bombay, 1962), Vol. III, pp. 133-134
2. *Rajatarangini*, ed. by Durga Prasada, (Bombay, 1892), English translation by Sir Aurel Stein, (London, 1900)
3. Tripathi, R.S.: *History of Kanauj*, pp. 204-205

Gopala,¹ the founder of the dynasty, consolidated his position in Bengal. The extension of the Pala power in northern India was made by his more famous son Dharmapala, who was installed as an emperor in the presence of the chiefs of Kuru, Yadu, Avanti, Gandhara, Kira, Bhoja, Matsya and Madra countries, possibly at Ahichhatra. The mention of Bhoja clearly suggests, as C. Mark² pointed out as early as 1907, that Berar, Mirzapur, and Shahabad, where Bhojpur still exists, were included in the first Pala empire. The empire, however, disintegrated, and the finds of Pratihara (Gurjara) inscriptions in Gaya, Biharsharif, and Nalanda indicate that some portion of Mirzapur was conquered by Mahendrapala.

The Pala dynasty, nevertheless, revived in the IIth century A.D. in the time of Mahipala I³; whose, bases of operation seem to have been Anga (Bhagalpur), Kajangala (Santal parganas and Purnea), and Magadha. The find spots of his inscriptions would support this theory. He, however, came into conflict with Rajendra the great Chola emperor and with the Kalachuri king Gangeyadeva. The struggle continued during the reigns of their successors. The Paikor Image Inscription in West Birbhum possibly indicates the area of the second conflict. The most rational way of explaining these seemingly conflicting and contradictory evidences of territorial possessions, is by regarding them as temporary gains, the areas changing hands repeatedly. In the wake of the Kalachuri invasion came the Chalukyas under Vikramaditya and, possibly, the Orissan legions under Mahasivagupta-Yayati. The former left its backwash, in the form of the Karnata dynasties of Mithila and Radha. Mahasivagupta-Yayati's claims of conquests have, however, yet to be established. What is evident is that the fabric of the great Pala empire was again crumbling to the dust, and Mirzapur was probably lost to them. The revival of the empire, for the third time, by Rampala probably again saw Mirzapur under the Pala rulers, and it is possibly to this area that Govindapala must have turned when he lost his control of the plains.

The decay of the Pala empire led to the extension of the Gahadvala dominions in the east. The most important regions for our purpose are those of Govindachandra⁴ (1114-1152 A.D.) and his successors, who undoubtedly annexed Mirzapur. The Maner Copper Plate of the same monarch, dated V.S. 1183 (1124 A.D.) shows that his conquests extended up to Patna district. But the Tarachandi Rock inscription, near Sasaram, clearly establishes his annexation of Mirzapur also. This record, which is the earliest evidence of corruption in the civil services in ancient and mediaeval India, is of great historical importance. It was inscribed on a rock shelter (*pragbhara*), dated in V.S. 1225 (1168-69 A.D.), by Mahanayaka Pratapdhavaladeva, lord of Japila (Japla). It proclaims as fraud the grant of the villages of Kalahandi and Badapila by the lord of Kannauj, Vijayachandradeva, son of Govindachandra, to certain Brahmanas living in the villages in the neighbourhood of Kalahandi, and obtained, by bribing (Utkochya) Deva, an officer of the sovereign of Gadhinagara⁵.

1. Tripathi, R.S. : *op. cit.*, p. 354.

2. Mark, C. : *The Geographical data of Dasakumara Charitram and Raghuvarsam*, (Leipzig, 1907) pp. 28-37.

3. Tripathi, R.S. : *op. cit.*, p. 359.

4. Niyogi Rana : *The History of the Gahadwala Dynasty*, (Cal., 1959), p. 66.

5. *Journal of American Oriental Society*, Vol. VI, pp. 547-549.

It will not be correct to presume that Mirzapur must have felt the weight of Muslim arms and the zeal of Muslim missionaries long before its conquest by Muhammad ibn Bakhtyar Khalji. Such a presumption is based on the discovery of the Maner Copper Plate, dated in V.S. 1183 or 1126 A.D., of the Gahadvala king, Govindachandra of Kannauj, grants of lands to a Brahmana of *pargana* (pattala), Manihari and also the levy of an obligatory tax *turushka danda* or Turks' duty.¹ This view does not appear to be correct. Admittedly, the *turushka-danda* was a special levy to fight the Turks, who were sometimes also referred to in mediaeval records as Hammiras (Amirs). But it was not Mirzapur alone that was involved since it is mentioned in many other records, not found in Mirzapur. The epigraphs of Gahadvala dynasty acquaint us fully with the situation, and we find how for generations they had been fighting successfully the Muslim encroachments from the north. A uniform and consistent claim has been made in the Gahadvala records in respect of these indecisive actions. For example, it is stated that Chandradeva protected the holy places of Kasi (Varanasi), Kusika (Kannauj), Uttara Kosala (Ayodhya), and Indrasthana against their attacks². The Rehan grant claims that a Muslim king laid aside his enmity on seeing the display of valour by Govindachandra³. The Sarnath inscription of Kumardevi states that "Hari, who had been commissioned by Hara in order to protect Varanasi from the wicked Turushka warrior, as the only one able to protect the earth, was again born from him, his name being renowned as Govindachandra"⁴. As long as Govindachandra ruled over Uttar Pradesh, no Turks could advance up to this region, and we shall have occasion again to note that, even after Chandwar, they continued the struggle, of which no mention has been made by the Muslim historiographers.

The Nayaka Pratapdhavala of Japila (modern Japla), was evidently, the Durgaswamin of Rohitasva (Rohatasgarh). He is mentioned in several inscriptions found at Rohtasgarh and the adjoining territories. Pratapdhavala belonged to the Khayarvala dynasty which ruled, probably in this region also (Mirzapur) in the 12th century A.D. From epigraphic evidence, he appears to have ruled at least for about 11 years from V.S. 1214/1158 A.D. to V.S. 1215/1169 A.D. The Khayarvala dynasty is probably represented today by the Kharwar tribes, which still occupies the region round Rohtasgarh (Robarts Ganj in Mirzapur) and claims descent from the sun. His earliest record is found near Tutla (Tutrahi) falls, dated V.S. 1214 (1157-58 A.D.). Unfortunately, the inscription has never been edited. Phulwari, which according to Kielhorn is the name of a part of Rohtasgarh, better known as Khane Bagh or flower-garden, has supplied another inscription, which is now missing. It was also dated V.S. 1225 (1168-69 A.D.), recording the construction of a road at Phulwari. The next inscription is dated V.S. 1279 (1223 A.D.) about 30 years after the battle of Chandawar.

Significant changes are met within the record. For example, Pratapa (*dhavala*) is no longer described as Mahanayaka (general) but Kshitindra (lord of the earth), who was filling the earth with great fame, having in mere sport cut up the Yavanas⁵. The last inscription was found at a place called Lal Darwaza near Rohtasgarh.

1. *Current Affairs of 1951*, p. 5.

2. Niyogi Rana : *op. cit.*, pp. 45-46.

3. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IX, p. 324.

4. Niyogi Rana : *op. cit.*, p. 77.

5. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IV, p. 811.

The conquest of Koil, in 1194 A.D., had opened the gates of the upper Gangetic valley, as well as of the east, to the Turkish converts to Islam. Koil was given as fief to Hisham-ud-din Aghulbak by the sultan of Ghor. The muslim analysts are silent about the extent of Hisham-ud-din's domain; but it was he who bestowed Bhiuli and Bhagwat to Malik Ikhtyar-ud-din Muhammad ibn Bakhtyar Khalji¹. The grant has a great significance for the historian. Thus with Chunar, as his base of operations, the Khalji Malik with an unprepossessing appearance, carried fire and sword in the neighbouring district. The whole of Magadha was in flames.

But it cannot be said that Hindu resistance had completely collapsed, as borne out by some epigraphic finds during the last half the century. The first of these was the discovery of a copper plate at Machlishahr, dated 1253 and 1257 V.S., which states that *Paramesvara-Maharajadhiraja-Paramabhattarak-Parama Mehesvara-Asvapati-Gajapati-Narapati-rajatrayadhipati*, etc., i.e. Sri Harishchandra, mediating at the feet of Sri Jaichandradeva, granted the land to certain Brahmana². This Harishchandra was born in V.S. 1232 on the 8th day of Bhadra, equivalent to 10th August, 1175 A.D. because, on account of his *jatakarma*-ceremony and cutting of his navel, a Brahman was granted a village by his father Jaichandra³. It is quite evident that Harishchandra maintained his independence after the battle of Chandawar, while Muslim historiographers seem to indicate the extinction of the dynasty after the death of Jaichandra.

Next is the Belkhara inscription, noticed by Cunningham and discussed by R.D. Banerji and R.S. Tripathi⁴. Belkhara a village, 24 km. to the south of Ahraura Road station, in the Mughalsarai-Mirzapur-Allahabad section of the Northern Railway, and is situated about 3 km. from the big village of Ahraura in the Mirzapur district. At this place there is a stone pillar engraved with two inscriptions, one of which has become very much defaced. The object of the other was to record the erection of this very pillar by a person named Rauta Sakaruka, who was the son of Rauta Aranda, when *Ranaka Vijayakarna* was the ruler of Belasara or modern Belkhara. Yet the incidental information that it furnishes is of considerable importance⁵. The name of the sovereign has been unfortunately lost, but significantly enough, it starts with "Parama Bhattarakatyedi" and ends with "Vachaspati," so that it is not difficult to determine the lacuna. The date is 1253, but the era is referred to as commencing from the conquest of Kanyakubja, which is to be equated with the Vikrama Samvat, and the year comes to 1196-97 A.D.; that is, two years after the death of Jaichandra, when a king of Kannauj was briefly mentioned. It appears, therefore, plausible that *Ranaka Vijayakarna* was originally a feudatory of the Gahadvala kingdom, and after the dynasty had met with its Waterloo at Chandawar, he continued to maintain himself independently in the fastnesses of the Vindhya hills. He probably declared his independence, and merely showed lip-allegiance to the fugitive Gahadvala king. Apart from this,

1. Chaudhury, Roy, P.C. : *op. cit.*, p. 57

2. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I X, p. 93

3. *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 127

4. Tripathi, R.S. : *History of Kannauj to the Moslem Conquest*, (Delhi, 1951), pp. 334-335

5. *Journal and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, (N.S.), Vol. VII, 1911 p. 757

were other important factors, which have to be taken into consideration. In the jungles of Gorakhpur, Basti, Deoria, and Jaunpur was the 18-years old de jure monarch, fighting his battles with the help of loyal people, to regain his kingdom. At his back was the general or the Marechal of Japla Pratapadhavala lord of Rohtasgarh.

Bakhtyar's appointment as governor of Chunar was a necessity. The new Muslim power in the doab and Ayodhya had been imperilled by the 18-years old boy of Jaichandra on the one hand, and by the loyal feudatories of the former Gahadvala kings in ancient Karushadesa, on the other.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

With the defeat and death of Jaichandra, the ruler of Kannauj, in 1194 at Tarain, came the end of one of the powerful kingdoms of northern India. Thereafter, the Gahadvala's power as an organising force was almost completely crushed, resulting in the victory of the Turks under Shihab-ud-din Ghuri, whose empire now extended from Monghyr in Bengal to the North-West Frontiers¹. The district of Mirzapur appears to have come under the shadow of Turkish domination from this period, but their influence remained confined much north of the river Son. An inscription of the same period of one *Ranaka Vijayakarna*, discovered in this district, refers to the Gahadvala kingdom as if it was still continuing and omits the reigning king's name, possibly to indicate the recent political change². In the middle of the 13th century, a new dynasty arose south of Yamuna and a hundred miles from Kara under Vyaghra, who made himself master of most of the territories between Kalpi and Chunar in this district³. At about the same period two important ruling houses appear in the district, who seem to have offered no resistance to the Turkish sultans and remained semi-independent rulers. The political history of this district was probably in a comatose stage till the advent of Khwaja-i-Jahan Malik Sarwar of Jaunpur in 1394.

Some smaller Rajput states were established in the south of the district, somewhere about the same time as the house of Kantit in the north⁴. The new acquisitions of the Rajputs were still known as the Agori-Barhar and Vijaigarh. In the early times to which only the dim light of tradition penetrates, the whole country south of the Son, and probably a considerable extent north of that river, stretching to the scarp of the Kaimurs, where it is now sealed by the great pass on the Chunar and Sarguja road, and westward along the Belan river beyond Ghorawal, was held by the rajas of Baland race, as the ruling family of the Kharwar tribe was styled. In the twelfth century A.D., the kingdom appears to have reached the summit of its prosperity⁵. In the last decade of that century, it fell out that a party of Chandels, fugitives from the great Chandel-Chuuan battle on the Vetravati (the modern Betwa), under the leadership of two brothers whose name tradition has handed down

1. Tabibullah, A.B.M. : *The Foundation of Muslim Rule in India*, (Allahabad, 1961), p. 64

2. *Ibid.*, p. 65

3. *Ibid.*, p. 149

4. Fisher, F.H. : *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India, Mirzapur*, (Allahabad, 1883), Vol. XIV, Part II, p. 120

5. *Ibid.*

as Bari Mal and Pari Mal, reached the court of the Baland king, Raja Madan, and were perhaps taken into service and retained as the immediate guardians of his castle and person. They rapidly proved themselves valuable, and from their position of trust and importance were able to develop ambitious schemes, which only needed a suitable opportunity to be put into practice and this opportunity was afforded by the mortal illness of Raja Madan. The dying king according to the custom of his race was carried to the northern shore of the river Son, to die on what was esteemed to be holier ground. He summoned his heir to give to him his parting blessing and his last commands. The message was entrusted to a Chandel and was never delivered. The Rajput mercenaries arranged that one of their members should personate the heir. The failing faculties of the dying king facilitated the imposition, and the Chandels obtained information from the dying king which enabled them to seize upon the royal treasure and establish themselves in the strongholds, before news of his father's death was carried to the absent heir. It was then too late to oust the usurpers and the prince, fled into the southern hills, leaving the Chandels masters of his father's kingdom. For nearly a century, and for three generations, the usurpers remained undisturbed¹. But all the while the exiled Baland were biding their time, and about the year 1290 were able to collect a force which, under the leadership of Ghatami, a descendant of Raja Milan, surprised the fort and the palace of Agori and recovered the lost domain². This time the conquerors sought to make their future secure by destroying every male of the hated Chandel race. This done, they believed they had accomplished their object. But one of the queens of the fallen Chandel raja was pregnant at the time, and in the confusion, escaped with her nurse and a few faithful attendants into the forest. There she gave birth to a son, and cradled him on the shield (Oran) of one of her followers. Hence the child was called Orandeo. His mother died, and the faithful nurse fled with the child to Bilwan, a village on the stream by that name, half-way between Mirzapur and Chunar, where she found refuge in the house of a Scori. The young prince grew up, and with the help of the Raja of Kantit regained his lost dominions and married one of his daughters. The date of Orandeo's restoration is put at about 1310 A.D. The exiled Baland returned to Marwar where they held a tract of country under the Maharajas of Rewa till the first quarter of the twentieth century³. The last Raja, Keso Saran Shah, who died in 1871, was a lineal descendant of the younger of Orandeo's sons, and at the decease of his widow, who held the title and estates, the Babu of Jamgaon, who was also collaterally descended from the hero of the shield, came into them⁴.

The very origin of the Gahadvala race is lost in the remote antiquity. It is said that there was a Gahadvala rule in Kantit. A more satisfactory view seems to be that the family originally came from Kannauj. By common consent Varanasi is regarded as their earliest seat and the first settlement by Gahadvalas in this district was made from Varanasi

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 120-121
 2. *Ibid.*, p. 121
 3. *Ibid.*
 4. *Ibid.*, p. 122
Ibid.

when they overran and subdued Kora Mangraur in this district¹. Their descendants are said to have embraced Islam but they retained in all domestic matters Hindu laws and customs, prefixed the Rajput appellative "Babu" to their Muslim names, and took a pride in being the elder branch of the house².

The earliest name in the pedigree of the Kantit Gahadvalas is that of Gudan Deo. He presumably came from Varanasi on the pretence of a pilgrimage to Ramgaya, opposite Vindhyachal, and then seeing the opportunity which the incompetence of the Bhar Raja afforded, reduced under his sway the whole of the *tappas* known as Chhiyanve, Chaurasi and Upraudh. Tradition also attributes to him the conquest of Khairgarh which on his death fell to his elder son Bhojraj, while the younger, Ugra Sen, succeeded to the Mirzapur dominions. The forts of Bijaipur and Kantit are attributed to Gudan Deo. The latter, however, is in all probability of a much earlier date. The conquest seems to have been succeeded by a massacre of the Bhar chief, his adherents, and many of his people, and the Bhars, henceforth, disappeared almost entirely from the Ganga valley³.

The next name of note in the pedigree of the family is that of Sakat Singh. He was a contemporary of Akbar (1556-1605 A.D.) and is placed twelfth in descent from Gudan Deo. He conquered the Kol country and founded Saktesgarh. He also, by a judicious marriage with the daughter of the Monas chief of Bhadohi, obtained as a dowry the *tappa* of Kon, which henceforth became a division of pargana Kantit. The family continued to enjoy their dominions, as thus extended, until 1758⁴. They appear to have been in possession of practically undisturbed sovereignty, and to have had little dealings either with the imperial court or with the subahdar of Allahabad, beyond paying an annual tribute which is estimated at something less than a lakh of rupees⁵.

The district appears undisturbed by the Muslim rulers of Delhi till the foundation of Sharqi kingdom of Jaunpur under Khwaja-i-Jahan Malik Sarwar.

In 1394, Muhammad Shah Tughluq conferred on Khawaja-i-Jahan Malik Sarwar, the title of Malik-us-Sharq (Lord of the East), who shortly after the fall of the Tughluqs carved out the independent kingdom of Jaunpur including portions of this district. On his death in 1399, his adopted son, Malik Mubarak, assumed the royal state under the title of Mubarak Shah, and two years later was succeeded by his brother, Ibrahim Shah. Ibrahim Shah died in 1440, and was followed in turn by Mahmud Shah and Muhammad Shah. Mahmud Shah is considered important in the history of Mirzapur because he took the

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 118-119
 2. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *op. cit.* p. 207
 3. Fisher, F.H. : *op. cit.*, pp. 119-120
 4. *Ibid.*
 5. *Ibid.*

fort of Chunar which at the beginning of the sixteenth century became the key to the east¹. Moreover, it was probably his successor Muhammad Shah who first allied himself with the powerful independent princes on the south of the river Ganga, who lent his own successor, Husain, help in his struggle with the Lodi Sultan, Sikandar Shah².

In 1493, Sikandar Lodi, the Sultan of Delhi, marched on Chunar with the intention of chastising some of Husain Sharqi's nobles³. But after encountering a determined opposition from the officers of Husain Sharqi the Sultan diverted westward to Baghel or Bhata country⁴.

In the year 1493, Kantit was the dependency of Panna, and Raja Bhedachandra was the ruler of Bhath or Rewa⁵. In 1493, Sikandar Lodi, who was operating against Sultan Husain of Jaunpur confirmed this Raja in his possession of Kantit in this district⁶. The latter at first accompanied the Sultan in his expedition, but shortly after fled in alarm from the camp⁷. In 1494, Sikandar invaded his dominions in order to bring him to book, fought a battle with his son, Bir Singh Deo, at a place called Khan Ghati, somewhere in the south of Allahabad or Banda, and penetrated as far as Panna⁸. According to Ferishta, the Raja of Rewa came to wait upon the Sultan at Kantit, but distrustful of his intentions, fled away at night. In revenge the Sultan ravaged Arai near Allahabad and then returned to Delhi⁹. According to the Sanskrit *mahakavya Virbhanudaya* of Madhava, Bhedachandra had extended his authority along the line of the Ganga up to Kantit on the west and up to Gaya in south Bihar in the east¹⁰. The continuing strife between the Lodis and the Sharqis had ensured the safety of the Baghels but then the loss of Sharqi power threatened to disturb the political balance¹¹. At this time Raja Man of Gwalior and Raja Bhedachandra of Rewa extended their help to Husain Shah Sharqi after his crushing defeat at Sonhar in Etah¹². In 1493, when the Bachgotis were instigated by Husain Sharqi to revolt, Bhedachandra colluded with them and imprisoned Mubarak Khan Nuhani the governor of Kara. Having failed in his opposition to Sultan Sikandar, Raja Bhedachandra thought of making terms with the Sultan at Kantit. But the cloud of suspicion could not be lifted between the two and hence, Sikandar launched a campaign against Raja Bhedachandra and the other princes of Baghelkhand in 1495. The Sultan devastated the country and on arrival at Kharan Ghati was encountered by Vahararaya Deva, son of Bhedachandra. The prince was defeated and was forced to vacate his capital. Bhedachandra and his son fled towards Sarguja near Chhotanagpur, but Vahararaya died on the way and his father, having failed to survive the shock of his death, also died¹³. The Sultan, therefore, gave up their

1. Drake-Brockman ; *op. cit.*, p. 207

2. *Ibid.*

3. Lal, K.S. : *Twilight of the Sultanate*, (Bombay), p. 169 ; Pandey, A.B. : *The First Afghan Empire in India*, p. 125

4. Lal, K.S. : *op. cit.*, p. 169

5. Drake-Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 209

6. Pandey, A.B. : *op. cit.*, p. 125

7. Elliot and Dowson : *The History Of India As Told By Its Own Historians*, Vol. IV, p. 461

8. *Ibid.*

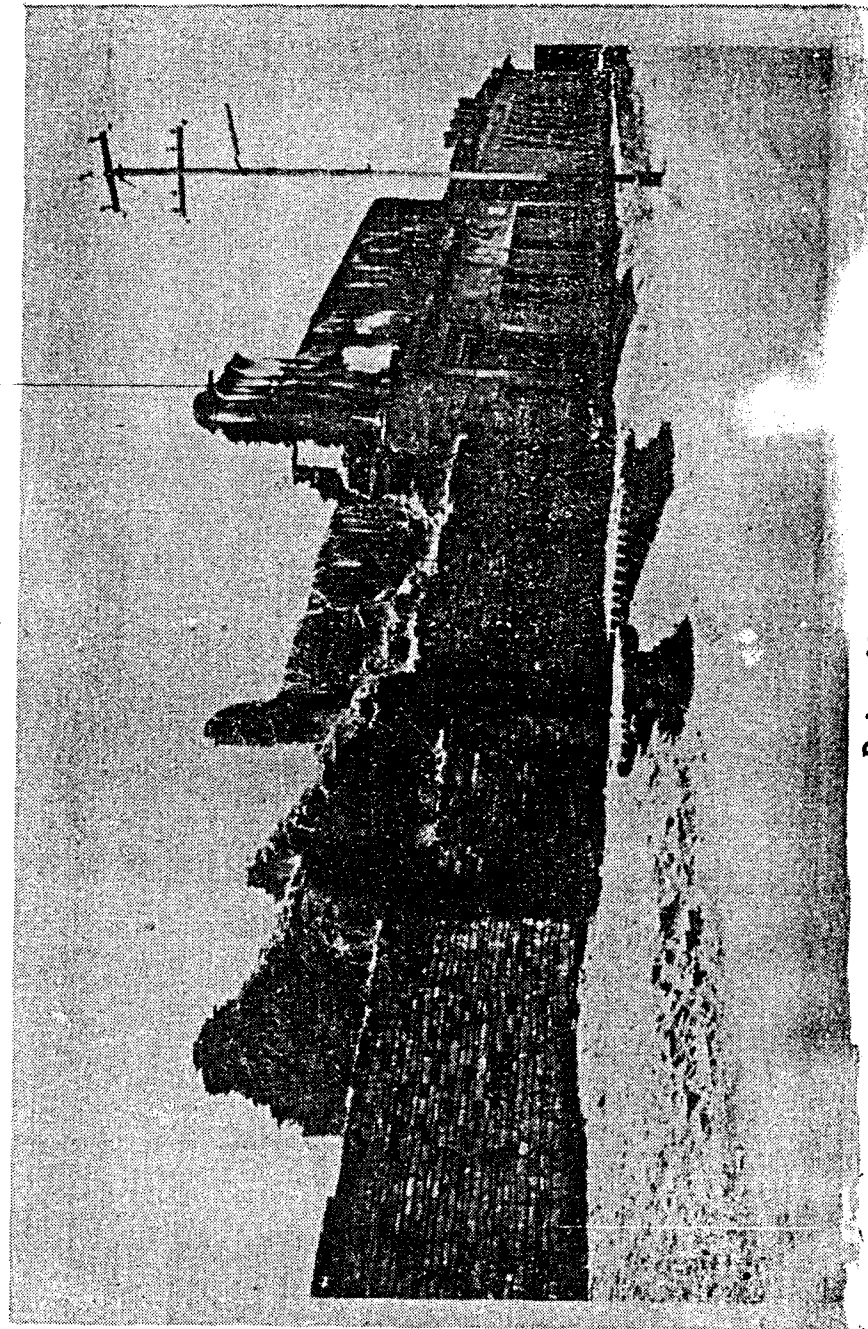
9. Lal, K.S., *op. cit.*, p. 169

10. *Ibid.*, pp. 169-170

11. *Ibid.*

12. *Ibid.*, p. 170

13. *Ibid.*



Ruins of Kantit

pursuit and returned to Bandugarh, 96 km. south of Rewa¹. At this place an epidemic carried away many of his men and ninety per cent of his horse, and he was forced to retreat². Raja Lakshmi Chand son of Raja Bhedachandra, and some other zamindars, utilised the opportunity of the Sultan's vulnerable situation by informing Husain Shah about it³. Husain Shah appears to have been waiting for such an eventuality and needed no time for making preparations. He collected a force in Bihar including a hundred elephants⁴. He seems to have gone to Chunar where some of his nobles had previously defied the arms of Sikandar⁵. Thence he crossed the Ganga at Kantit and arrived near Varanasi⁶. From Varanasi he sent a messenger to Salivahan, the prince of Bhatghora in Banda and the successor of Bhedachandra, asking for his help. But Sikandar in the meantime had won over Salivahan who, afraid lest Lakshmi Chand after victory should lay claim to the throne, readily accepted the Sultan's offer of friendship. Reinforced by Salivahan, Sikander met Husain in battle near Varanasi and inflicted a crushing defeat on him⁷. He gave Husain hot pursuit and chased him out of Bihar, whence the latter fled to Colgong in Bhagalpur district⁸ and never again troubled the dominions of the Lodi sultans⁹.

The district began to play an important part in the history of India owing to the strength of the fortress of Chunar since Babur's invasion. After reducing to subjection the north-eastern portion of this country, Babur also determined to annex to his empire the country of Bihar and Bengal which was under the turbulent Afghans. Therefore, he sent his son Askari Mirza towards the east for this purpose in 1528¹⁰. On January 20, 1529, Babur himself left Agra to deal with the Afghans of this eastern region. He reached Dugdugi, a pargana in Kara, where Askari came to pay him respect. Here he was informed that the Afghans had organised a three-pronged drive. Therefore, he sent Fateh Khan Sharwani and Sultan Mahmud to Chunar with other officers to counter-attack the Afghans. On March 23 of the same year Babur himself reached Chunar and visited the fort¹¹. He spent some days in hunting and encamped near the junction of the Ganga and the Ghaghara¹². The Afghan chieftains of the eastern region submitted to the authority of Babur except Nusrat Shah, the king of Bengal¹³. This chieftain seems to have been casting jealous eyes on the kingdom of Bihar, the titular emperor of which, Jalal-ud-din sandwiched between the Bengalis and the Afghans, opened negotiations with Babur and sought his aid. Babur inflicted a severe defeat on the armies of Nusrat Shah and the Afghans, and became the master of the whole of northern India¹⁴.

1. *Ibid.*

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 170-171

3. Pandey, A.B. : *op. cit.*, p. 127; Lal, K.S., *op. cit.*, p. 171

4. *Ibid.*

5. Pandey, A.B. : *op. cit.*, p. 127

6. Lal, K.S., *op. cit.*, p. 171

7. *Ibid.*

8. *Ibid.*

9. Drake-Brockman. *op. cit.*, p. 210

10. Tripathi, R.P. : *Rise and Fall of the Mughal Empire*, (Allahabad, 1960), p. 49

11. *Ibid.*, p. 50

12. Drake-Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 211

13. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 50.

14. *Ibid.*, pp. 50-51

This battle broke the back of the Afghan rebels but did not crush them. While Babur was still in Ghazipur, two gallant Afghan commanders, Biban and Bayazid, crossed the Ghaghra and besieged Laknur (now Shahabad in Rampur) and captured it. Babur, therefore, ordered Muhammad Zaman Mirza, Sultan Zunaid Barlas (who was bestowed with the pargana of Chunar in place of Jaunpur), Mahmud Khan Nuhani, Qazi Ziya, and Taj Khan Sarang-Khani to check them at Chunar². On 2nd June, 1529, he issued orders to his officers to pursue them hotfoot towards Dalmau in Rae Bareilly. Terrified by Babur's westward march Biban and Bayazid fled to Mahoba³. In the June of the same year Babur deputed Malik Shark to give the emperor's message to Taj Khan to hand over the fort of Chunar to Zunaid Barlas⁴.

After Babur's death his eldest son, Humayun, ascended the throne at Agra on December 29, 1530. His most powerful rivals, the Afghans, caused him much trouble throughout his reign and ultimately forced him to surrender his empire to them. The story of his misfortunes is centred much on Chunar and its celebrated fort.

In 1530, the fort of Chunar was held by Taj Khan Sarang-Khani. He was entrusted the charge of this fort by Sultan Ibrahim Lodi, long back, and it was used as the place for the imperial treasury⁵. As the fort was regarded impregnable, Taj Khan refused to accept Ibrahim Lodi's suzerainty and assumed independence. When Mahmud Lodi, brother of the late Ibrahim Lodi, wanted to take it; he offered stout resistance, allied himself with Babur to whom he offered his personal homage. In June 1529, Babur asked him to surrender the fort to Junaid Barlas. The actual transfer probably never took place⁶. After the murder of Taj Khan by his eldest son, the fort fell into the hands of Sher Khan, who was to become the master of this country shortly after and whose occupation of the fort was the stepping-stone to his success. It so happened that Sher Khan was impressed by the perspicacity of Taj Khan's widow Lad Malika⁷. He exercised an extraordinary influence on her and she readily accepted his offer of marriage⁸. In this way, besides a position of much strength, a large amount of treasure passed into the hands of Sher Khan and took his place in the fort⁹. In 1531, when Humayun was besieging the fortress of Kalinjar, he received the news that Mahmud Lodi, brother of the late Sultan, Ibrahim Lodi, who had received support in Bengal, had invaded the east of his territory and taken Jaunpur¹⁰. Sher Khan joined him after having been promised Bihar in the event of the success of Mahmud¹¹. In order to break up this combination Humayun despatched an army to invest the fort of Chunar. Humayun thought it advisable to recover it. Its importance was unquestionable and it commanded the land and the river routes

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 51-52

2. Rizvi, S.A.A. : *Mughal Kalin Bharat, Babur*, (Aligarh, 1960), p. 333

3. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 52

4. Rizvi, S.A.A., : *op. cit.*, p. 334

5. Rizvi, S.A.A. : *Mughal Kalin Bharat, Humayun*, (Aligarh, 1961), p. 8

6. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 69

7. *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9

8. *Ibid.*, pp. 9-10; Elliot and Dawson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, pp. 342-344

9. *Ibid.*, pp. 445-446

10. Hultz W. and Burn, R. : *The Cambridge History of India*, (New Delhi, 1957), Vol. IV, p. 21

11. D. C. Brockman ; *op. cit.*, p. 213

between Agra and the east¹. It was known as the gateway of eastern India. He, therefore, laid a demonstrative siege, which produced no appreciable effect on the morale of Afghan garrison. As the Afghan menace was getting more and more serious, Humayun did not consider it proper to waste more time. He raised the siege and marched to Agra².

After having settled the claims of Kamran who had occupied Multan and Lahore earlier, Humayun was free to deal with the eastern region (1532). He fought with the forces of Mahmud Lodi near Lucknow and defeated them. Two of their best leaders, Ibrahim Khan Yusuf Khail and Bayazid Farmuli, were killed. Mahmud Lodi fled to Bihar and retired once for all. Sher Khan who was the ally of Mahmud Lodi deserted him at such a critical juncture. His main objective appears to have been to avoid incurring the displeasure of the Mughals in order to retain his possession of Chunar³. But shortly after this Humayun asked Sher Khan to surrender the fort of Chunar and sent Hindu Beg to take possession of it⁴. Sher Khan declined to give the fort. Humayun, therefore, marched against Sher Khan and besieged the fort⁵. Sher Khan, on the other hand, entrusted it to his son Jalal Khan and himself withdrew into the hilly tract of Bihar⁶. His principal aims were to keep his family at a safe place and then return to harass the besiegers from outside, and to keep up a continuous flow of supplies into the fort. The siege continued for about four months which gave Sher Khan ample time to organise his army. The Afghans defended the fort gallantly. The Mughals lacked good siege-guns, could not cut off the supplies effectively on account of the Ganga. On the other hand, the guns on the ramparts of the fort were handled skillfully by the Afghans which produced a deadly effect. The Afghans seemed determined to hold the fort. Sher Khan did not deem it proper to waste time because the ruler of Bengal, Nusrat Shah, appeared to him unsympathetic as he scarcely relished the growth of a powerful kingdom in Bihar under the supreme control of an astute man like Sher Khan⁷. He, therefore, decided to disentangle himself from the Mughals. Luckily his dream was fulfilled when news came that Bahadur Shah of Gujarat had annexed the whole kingdom of Malwa (March, 1531) and extended his empire to the confines of Gondwana. He also planned the conquest of Mewar and in November-December, 1532, besieged Chitor. This considerably alarmed Humayun and he gave up the idea of conquering the Chunar fort while expressing his willingness to come to any reasonable terms with Sher Khan⁸.

Both parties being eager to come to terms, peace could not possibly be delayed. Sher Khan, who had been watching these developments with a keen and intelligent interest, did not fail to take advantage of the situation⁹. Hence in a most respectful tone he wrote to the emperor, saying, "I am your slave, and the client of Junaid Barlas. Moreover, the good service which I did at the battle of Lucknow is known to you, and as you must entrust the fort of Chunar to someone, make it over

1. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 69

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Ibid.*; pp. 70-71

4. Elliot and Dawson : *op. cit.*; Vol. IV, p. 350, Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 71

5. *Ibid.*; Elliot and Dawson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 350

6. *Ibid.*; Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 71

7. *Ibid.*

8. *Ibid.*, pp. 71-72

9. *Ibid.*, p. 72

to me, and I will send my son Qutb Khan to accompany you in this expedition (of Gujarat). Do lay aside all anxiety as regards these parts; for if either I or any other Afghan do any act unbefitting or disloyal you have my son with you; inflict on him such reprisals as may be a warning to others." Humayun was pleased to accede to the request and replied, "I will give Chunar to Sher Khan"¹. He raised the siege and returned to Agra². Both the parties appeared quite satisfied, but the whole transaction was a relief and an encouragement to Sher Khan in the pursuit of his plans, while it brought some discredit to Humayun³.

The absence of Humayun now enabled Sher Khan to strengthen his power in the east. After Bahadur Shah's defeat in Gujarat, he was joined by all the Afghan nobles in the service of that chieftain, and having obtained some money, he equipped his army and attacked Bengal, with the result that the whole of that province west of Monghyr fell into his hands.

When Humayun came back from Gujarat, the Khan-i-Khanan, Yusuf Khail (who brought emperor Babur from Kabul to India) told him that it was not wise to ignore Sher Khan, for he was rebelliously inclined and had all the Afghans ranged round him⁴. Moreover, by the treaty of Chunar Sher Khan had undertaken to send an Afghan contingent under his son Qutb Khan to serve in the Mughal army, yet the latter had escaped from Mandasor. Freed thus from all anxiety, by the return of his son and his troops Sher Khan adopted an aggressive policy and imposed his authority along the Ganga as far as Chunar.

When Sher Khan heard that the emperor intended marching himself towards Bihar, he sent magnificent presents to Hindu Beg, governor of Jaunpur, and gained his goodwill. At the same time Sher Khan wrote thus "From what I promised I have not departed. I have not invaded the emperor's country. Kindly write to the emperor; and assuring him of my loyalty, dissuade him from marching in this direction; for I am his servant and well wisher." When Hindu Beg beheld Sher Khan's presents, he approved of them and was well pleased, and wrote to the emperor, saying: "Sher Khan is a loyal servant of Your Majesty, and strikes coin and reads the khutbah in your name, and has not transgressed the boundaries of Your Majesty's territory, or done anything since your departure which could be any cause of annoyance to you." The emperor, on receipt of Hindu Beg's letter, deferred his journey that year (1537)⁵. But hardly a month had elapsed, when the news came that Sher Khan had again invaded Bengal (June, 1537). Sher Khan had accepted the position of a vassal by the treaty of Chunar, and had been professing loyalty to the emperor. As such, he was not entitled to declare war on or claim tribute from any state without the emperor's permission. But his policy clearly indicated that he had assumed himself as a sovereign. Apart from this, his successes in Bengal, the large

1. Elliot and Dowson: *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 351

2. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 72

3. *Ibid.*

4. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 356

5. *Ibid.*

army that he commanded, the resources which he possessed and the influence and prestige that he had built up in the east from Chunar to Gaur were sufficient reasons for Humayun not only to show vigilance but also to take some action, diplomatic or military¹.

In July 1537, Humayun marched from Agra. When he arrived near Chunar, he consulted his nobles as to whether he should first take Chunar, or march towards Gaur, which the son of Sher Khan had laid siege, but which he had not yet taken². All his nobles advised that he should first take Chunar, and then march on Gaur, and accordingly it was so determined. But when Humayun asked the Khan-i-Khanan, Yusuf-Khail, for his opinion, he (having previously heard that the Mughal nobles had agreed it was advisable to first take Chunar) said, "It is a counsel of the young take Chunar first, the counsel of the aged is, that as there is much treasure in Gaur, it is advisable to take Gaur first; after that the capture of Chunar is an easy matter."³ The emperor replied, "I am young, and prefer the counsel of the young. I will not leave the fort of Chunar in my rear." Abbas Khan Sarwani, the author of *Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi*, and a contemporary of Sher Shah, is said to have heard from Khan-i-Khanan Yusuf-Khail's companions, that when he returned to his quarters he observed: "The luck of Sher Khan is great, that the Mughals do not go to Gaur. Before they take this fort (Chunar), the Afghans will have conquered Gaur, and all its treasures will fall into their hands."⁴

Humayun seems to have overestimated the power of resistance by the ruler of Gaur or to have underestimated the power and resourcefulness of Sher Khan and, therefore, did not expect the fall of Gaur in a short time. He took the advice of the Mughal officers. Besides this he was assured by Rumi Khan, one of his noted generals, that the fort of Chunar could be captured in a short time. Besides its great strength and impregnability, it was bravely defended by the Afghans⁵. The Afghan gunners and matchlockmen used their weapons with the most deadly effect, causing havoc among the Mughals, and thus frustrated the repeated efforts of Rumi Khan to capture the fort. At last Rumi Khan managed to collect a good deal of information regarding the defences of the fort through his spies, and with the help of a most ingeniously and skilfully constructed floating battery, commenced such a vigorous bombardment that the garrison was compelled to surrender. The capture of Chunar took no fewer than six months (June, 1538). The time spent in capturing Chunar is generally believed to be a tremendous mistake and is supposed to have cost Humayun his empire. During the time the Mughals were laying siege to Chunar, Sher Khan had carried away not only his family to Rohtasgarh (Bihar), but had also captured it from its Raja, Chintamani⁶. Here he received the news that the fort of Gaur had fallen⁷.

1. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 89

2. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 357

3. *Ibid.*; Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, pp. 89-90

4. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 357

5. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 90

6. *Ibid.*

7. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 360

From Chunar Humayun went to Varanasi, where he came to know that Gaur had either fallen or was about to fall.¹ Without wasting much time there he at once marched with the intention of attacking Rohtasgarh. The attack was calculated to create a powerful diversion, which could be an indirect relief to Gaur. Before reaching Patna he got firm news that Gaur had fallen (April, 1538).

Humayun now decided to come to a settlement with Sher Khan. He sent a message to him to the effect that he would allow him to keep Chunar and Jaunpur provided he delivered the insignia of royalty captured by him from the ruler of Gaur, transferred to him the kingdom of Bengal and the fort of Rohtasgarh and personally attended on him. Professing, as usual, his loyalty to the Mughal emperor, Sher Khan submitted his own proposals and virtually refused to accept those sent by Humayun. The emperor sent another message to Sher Khan warning him of the serious consequences of refusing the royal offer and asking him to reconsider it. But in the meantime he learnt from the messenger of Mahmud, the king of Bengal, of the decision of Sher Khan to stick to his own proposals.² The emperor, therefore, marched towards Gaur and reached there in September 1538, and remained there for three months³. But after sometime, the emperor learnt that Hindal, his brother, had assumed sovereign authority at Agra and, what was more alarming that Sher Khan had conquered the country between Varanasi and Kannauj. As such, he was compelled to retrace his steps in order especially to check Sher Khan, and reached Chausa after crossing the Karamnass in March 1539, and encamped on the western side of the river. Finding the emperor's position strong (as Chunar was still in the hands of the Mughals), Sher Khan thought it prudent to offer his submission by assuring the emperor to read the khutbah and to strike coins in the latter's name, provided he was allowed to keep Bengal and the fort of Chunar. Humayun expressed his willingness to accept the proposal on condition that Sher Khan left the eastern bank free and withdrew his army. Some more proposals were accepted by Sher Khan, but he learnt that the Mughal army had suffered from shortage of equipment and means of transport. He, therefore, decided to take time by the forelock. The emperor on the other hand, seemed to be so satisfied that he decided to return. Just before the day fixed for Humayun's return Sher Khan fell upon the Mughal army about early dawn and surrounded it on three sides⁴. The Mughals, taken by surprise and panic stricken, were mercilessly slaughtered by the Afghans and no fewer than seven thousand of them lost their lives in this battle including some distinguished men and officers. Consequently, after his defeat at Chausa Humayun returned to Agra in July 1539⁵. Sher Khan celebrated his victory of Chausa by declaring himself at Varanasi, an independent king with the title of Sher Shah Sultan-i-Adil. He now proposed a big offensive against the country and himself led an army to Kannauj where he finally defeated Humayun (May 17, 1540), and thus became the master of northern India⁶.

1. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 91

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 91-92

3. *Ibid.*, p. 93; Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 368

4. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, pp. 93-95

5. *Ibid.*, pp. 95-96

6. *Ibid.*, pp. 98-100

During the reign of Sher Shah nothing worthy of note appears to have occurred in Mirzapur, except that his successor removed the Suri treasures from Chunar to Gwalior¹. After dealing with Islam Shah in 1553, Mirzapur became a part of the nominal territories of Muhammad Adil Shah Sur, for one of the first acts of this usurper was to march to Chunar and secure possession of the fortress and treasures left there². He exercised his authority from Chunar to Bihar³. Some of the parganas in Varanasi, and possibly also in Mirzapur appear to have been included in the jagir of Taj Khan Kirani. This nobleman fearing for his life at the court of Adil Shah, fled in 1554, from Gwalior to Chunar and shut himself up in the fortress. Thither he was followed by Adil Shah and his general Hemu, who defeated Taj Khan and recovered the fortress for his master⁴. Meanwhile, two claimants arose in the west for the throne of Delhi. One was Ibrahim Khan Sur, a cousin of Sher Shah and brother-in-law of Adil. He was with Adil Shah at Chunar, and fearing that he would be put into confinement, fled from Chunar to his father Ghazi Sur at Bayana. A force sent against him under Isa Khan was defeated at Kalpi, and when Adil Shah advanced in person, Ibrahim Khan won over all his nobles to his side and compelled Adil Shah to return to Chunar. He then proclaimed himself sovereign of Delhi and Agra, but his claim was immediately disputed by Ahmad Khan, a nephew of Sher Shah who had married another sister of Adil Shah and assumed the title of Sultan Sikandar⁵. Their rival armies met at Farah in the Mathura district and Ibrahim was defeated and driven out⁶. Meanwhile Humayun, encouraged by the hopeless confusion of affairs, marched from Kabul and took Lahore. Sikandar advanced to meet him, Ibrahim Khan collected a new army and proceeded towards Kalpi, while Adil Shah sent a large force under his general, Hemu, to recover Delhi and Agra⁷. Hemu marched to Kalpi and defeated Ibrahim, who fled to Bayana, which was besieged⁸. Confusion now became worse confounded by an invasion of Shams-ud-din Muhammad Khan Sur of Gaur. To meet the new danger in the east, Adil Shah recalled Hemu from Bayana, defeated Muhammad Khan of Gaur at Chapparghat where the latter was killed, and then returned to Chunar⁹. Hemu was then sent to Delhi to drive out the Mughals. But the battle of Panipat in 1556, in which Hemu was defeated and killed, put an end for ever to Adil Shah's power in the west. It was not long before his career came to a close in the east.

In 1559, Ali Quli Khan, Khan Zaman was sent by Akbar to reduce Jaunpur and Khizr Khan, the son of Muhammad Khan of Gaur, who had assumed the title of Ghiyas-ud-din Bahadur Shah, advanced against Adil Shah at Chunar to avenge the death of his father. Adil Shah started eastwards to meet him, but was defeated and slain near Monghyr in 1560. When news of this calamity reached them at Chunar, the Afghan

1. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 485

2. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 45

3. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 160

4. Elliot and Dowson : *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 506

5. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 243-244

6. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 244-245

7. *Ibid.*

8. *Ibid.*

9. *Ibid.*, pp. 244-246

nobles unanimously elected his son as their emperor under the title Sher Shah II. A large army was collected and led across the Ganga to recover Jaunpur, now held by Ali Quli Khan on behalf of Akbar. Jaunpur was besieged, but the attack was ultimately beaten off, the Afghan forces dispersed, and Sher Shah II driven away in flight. With his disappearance, the Afghan rule came to an end and the curtain falls on this troubled period of history with the surrender of the fort of Chunar². This place appears to have been held after Sher Shah II's flight by one Jamal Khan, the Afghan commander who negotiated with the imperialists for its surrender. He was promised five parganas in Jaunpur in return, and Mihr Ali Khan Sildoz was sent by the emperor to take over the fort from him. But Jamal did not deem the offer sufficiently advantageous and delayed Mihr Ali with vain promises. Mihr Ali at last suddenly left for Agra³. The episode is an interesting one as Mihr Ali was accompanied on this occasion by the historian Badaoni. Jamal Khan then opened negotiations with Khan Zaman at Jaunpur, and with Fateh Khan, the Afghan governor of Rohtasgarh. It appears that the fortress passed into the hands of Fateh Khan later⁴. It was in the sixth year of Akbar's reign (or 1562) that Fateh Khan wrote a letter offering to surrender the fort of Chunar⁵. Sheikh Muhammad Ghaus and Asaf Khan were accordingly sent to take over the fort from him, and when it had been delivered over, it was placed in the charge of Husain Khan Turkoman⁶. In 1565, after the conclusion of peace with Khan Zaman, Akbar visited the fortress of Chunar and ordered it to be repaired and strengthened. Here the emperor hunted elephants in the jungles⁷. In 1567, after Khan Zaman had for the second time rebelled and been defeated, all his estates, as well as those of Bahadur Khan, including Jaunpur, Varanasi, Ghazipur and the forts of Chunar and Zamania, as far as the ferry of Chausa, were conferred on Munim Khan, Khan-i-Khanan⁸. This nobleman resided at Jaunpur, where he built a bridge over river Gomati, but Chunar formed a part of his estates till his death in Gaur at the beginning of 1576. It was from Chunar that he started on the Bengal expedition in 1573⁹. He was succeeded by Raja Surjan Hada of Ranthambhor, who was apparently governor of the fort for six or seven years. In the territorial distribution of Akbar, the district of Mirzapur fell within the subahs of Allahabad and Bihar and the sirkars of Allahabad, Varanasi, Chunar and Rohtas¹⁰.

During the reign of Jahangir, Shah Kasim Sulaimani, an Afghan saint, was sent at the emperor's order to be imprisoned in the fort of Chunar. He was suspected like many others of favouring the claims of prince Khusrav. After his death in 1607, his followers built a *dargah* which is a building of considerable architectural pretension and is still in a good condition. The *dargah* is said to have suggested to Shah Jahan the design of the Taj at Agra¹¹.

1. *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 508-509

2. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 494

3. Blochmann, H.: *The Ain-i-Akbari*, Eng. Trans. of Abul Fazl's original Persian text, (Calcutta, 1939), Vol. I, p. 481

4. Drake-Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 217

5. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. V, p. 287

6. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 288

7. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 306

8. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 323

9. *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 39

10. Blochmann, H. q.: *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 450; Drake-Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 218

11. Fuhrer, A.: *op. cit.*, pp. 259-260

During the reign of Jahangir's successors no significant event comes to notice. There were local chiefs who were busy in family feuds. One of them belonged to the house of Kantit, which held a large tract and were vassals of the Delhi court. Muslim zamindars appear to have been settled in Bhuili, Bhagwat, Chunar and Kera Mangraur while the southern portion of the district which was in the possession of the Chandel rajas of Agori Barhar. None of these tracts seem to have been disturbed. Only in the extreme north and extreme south are any events to record. In the latter direction a semi-independent principality was set up by a family of Benbansi Rajputs in Singrauli¹. The founder of the family as ascertained first rose into prominence by marrying the daughter of the chief of Raipur in Madhya Pradesh². He and his descendants gradually acquired possession of the whole of Singrauli, till the third in descent was driven out by the combined forces of the rajas of Agori Barhar and Bardi about 1550. After this for nine generations the family remained in exile. Later, two brothers, Dariao and Dalel, said to be the twelfth in descent from the founder of the house, seized and divided between them a portion of their ancient dominion, Dalel taking the Rewa lands and Dariao those falling within the district of Mirzapur. Subsequently, Dariao slew Dalel and usurped his inheritance, thus becoming the lord of all Shahpur Singrauli. His son, Fakir Shah, obtained the *tilak* as mark of sovereignty, and assumed the sacred thread as well as the title of Raja about 1700³.

MODERN PERIOD

On the eve of Aurangzeb's death the local chieftains rose to establish their own principalities in the district. Thus Fakir Sah, a Benbansi Rajput (whose ancestors had established themselves in Singrauli, a place south-west of Dudhi, and were ultimately expelled by the Chandel Rajas of Agori Barhar, south of Robarts Ganj,) returned and recovered his lost ancestral possession of Singrauli. He obtained the *tilak* and assumed the sacred thread (which were the customary insignia for a ruler) and procured for himself the title of raja⁴. It appears that Fakir Sah declared himself practically independent from the rule of his traditional foes, the rajas of Agori Barhar, to whom he is not found to have paid any tribute⁵.

Such was the state of the bulk of the district at the accession of Muhammad Shah in September, 1719⁶. Many Rajput chiefs of Bhaduhi (which was then a part of this district and is now in Varanasi), namely, Zorawar Singh, Achal Singh, and Gaj Singh acquired considerable power. They died about 1723⁷, leaving behind numerous descendants who divided Bhaduhi among themselves. It appears that a fratricidal war followed among them over the division of the territory. Ultimately about 1728⁸ Jaswant Singh, the seventh of the sons of Zorawar Singh, succeeded in ousting all the rest of the family and assumed charge of the whole pargana, establishing himself at Suriawan (a place in the Bhaduhi pargana).

1. Drake-Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 220

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 220-221

3. *Ibid.*, Fisher, F.H.: *op. cit.*, Vol. XIV, Part II, pp. 122-123

4. Drake-Brockman, D.L.: *op. cit.*, pp. 220-221

5. *Ibid.*, p. 221

6. Joshi, E.B. (Smt.): *Varanasi: A Gazetteer*, (1965), p. 59

7. Drake-Brockman, D.L.: *op. cit.*, p. 221

8. *Ibid.*, p. 221

Muhammad Shah, in his early years of reign, gave in jagir to Murtza Khan, one of his courtiers the sirkars of Banaras (Varanasi), Jaunpur, Ghazipur, and Chunargarh or Chunar (the whole area corresponding roughly to the present districts of Varanasi, Ghazipur, Jaunpur, Azamgarh, Ballia, and the eastern portion of the Mirzapur district)¹. Murtza Khan entrusted the management of these jagirs to Rustam Ali Khan (a relative), who promised to pay the former a sum of rupees five lakhs annually, retaining the rest of the income from revenue for himself. It appears that this amount could not be deposited with the jagirdar on time. The latter was found virtually incapable of managing all this, and Murtza Khan eventually around 1728 leased his jagir to Saadat Khan (who was appointed subahdar of Avadh in 1722), who had by then showed his capability of establishing peace and order in Avadh territory, for a consideration of seven lakhs of rupees². Saadat Khan, too, allowed Rustam Ali to continue in charge of these districts on the stipulation that he would pay the former a sum of rupees eight lakhs annually instead of paying five lakhs to Murtza Khan³.

This arrangement continued till 1738, when Rustam Ali fell under the displeasure of Saadat Khan, and consequently was called for an explanation of his misdeeds. Finding himself incapable of facing this predicament, Rustam Ali deputed his chief subordinate, Mansa Ram (a Gautam Bhuihar Brahmana of Gangapur in Varanasi), to proceed to settle matters and effect a compromise with the nawab. Mansa Ram took advantage of the situation and tactfully got things turned in his own favour by which he succeeded in securing for himself in the name of his son, Balwant Singh, the office of *nazim* of the sirkars of Varanasi, Jaunpur, and Chunargarh⁴ in the same year (1738).

On Mansa Ram's death about a year later, Balwant Singh became the actual, as he had been the nominal ruler of this territory. His title was formally acknowledged by the emperor, Muhammad Shah. He established his headquarters at Gangapur (at a distance of seven miles south-west of Varanasi) and built a residential fort there.

Balwant Singh then strengthened his position tactfully by crushing the powerful zamindars of his domain, and gradually attained almost an independent status within the empire, acquiring the title of Raja. Following his own policy the raja diplomatically continued to pay tributes on time, by way of revenue taxes, to the nawab with a view to avoiding any suspicion about his authority⁵. Saadat Khan, expired on March 19, 1739 and was succeeded by his nephew and son-in-law Safdar Jang on May 13, 1739⁶, who was later appointed wazir by the emperor Ahmad Shah on June 29, 1748⁷. During all the time that Safdar Jang remained busy with the affairs of Delhi, Balwant Singh continued to strengthen his position. By then the Monas landlords had already come to the position of recognising the raja as their overlord. It was in 1751-52 that Balwant Singh first began to covet as a place of safety for

1. *Ibid.*, p. 222

2. Srivastava, A.L. : *Awadh Ke Pratham Do Nawab*, (Hindi translation of the *First two Nawabs of Awadh*), (Agra, 1957), p. 47

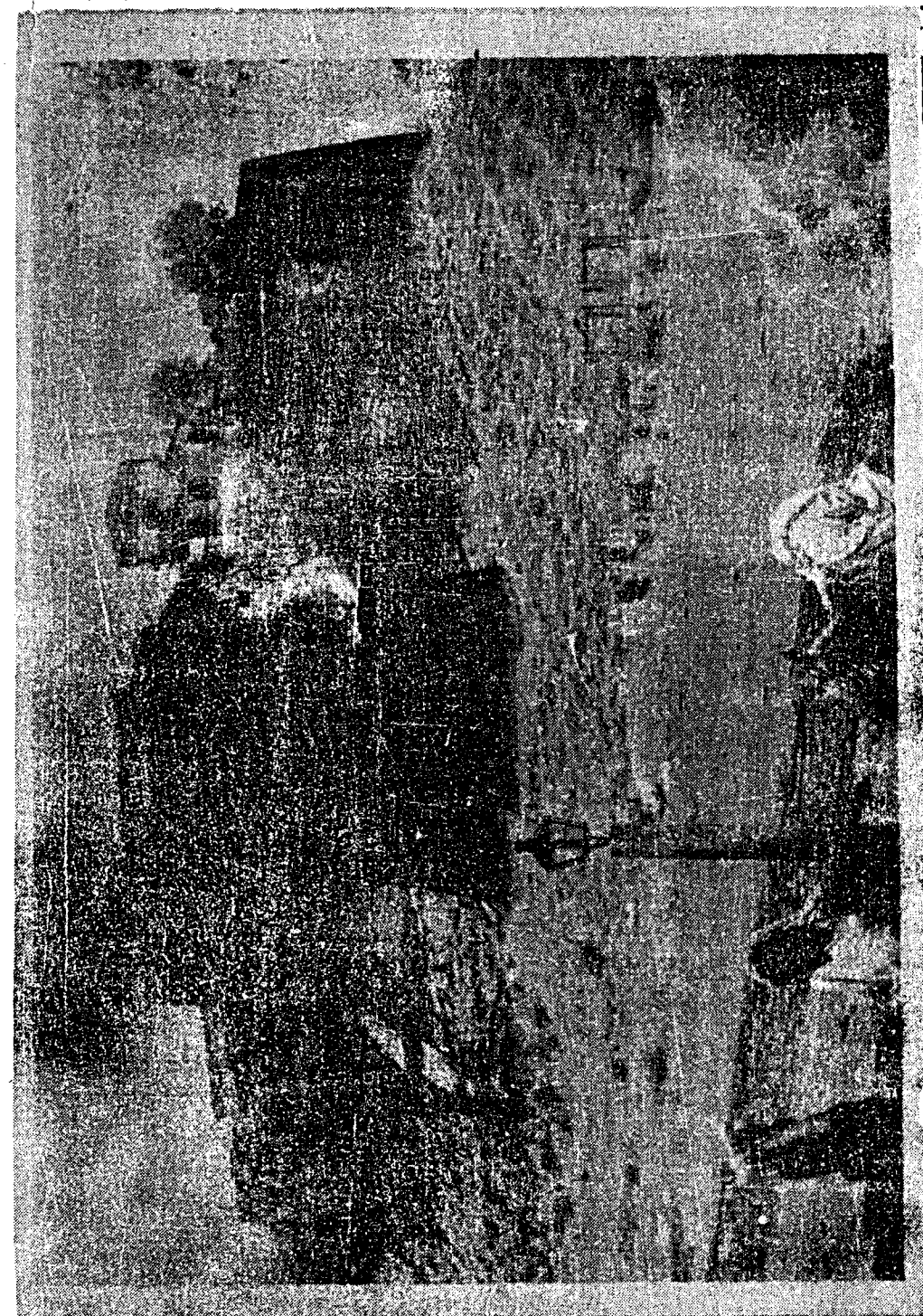
3. *Ibid.*, p. 94

4. *Ibid.*, p. 203

5. *Ibid.*, p. 204

6. *Ibid.*, pp. 95-96

7. *Ibid.*, p. 133



Chunar Fort, Mirzapur

his valuables the mountain fort of Bijaigarh¹. By the same time (1752) he had been able to inflict defeat upon Ali Quli Khan², deputy governor of Allahabad. He began to flout the authorities and withheld the annual tribute due to the Avadh treasury. He was also astutely watching Safdar Jang's open rebellion against and prolonged war with emperor Ahmad Shah. This afforded the ambitious landed aristocracy in the province a sufficient pretext for defying the authorities and making a bid for independence. He took the fullest advantage of Safdar Jang's difficulties³. His chief objective was the control of Bijaigarh fort (in tahsil Robarts Ganj) in order to realize his ambition of securing a strong, natural frontier in the south, where by he could establish his authority over the southern extremity of what is now the Mirzapur district⁴. But the way to Bijaigarh was intervened by the fortresses of Patiata, between Chunar and Ahraura, and of Latifpur, situated in the Kupsa hills 24 miles due south of Varanasi. This intervening territory was held by a few petty chieftains who owed allegiance directly to the nawab and barred Balwant Singh's expansion southwards. The reduction of these forts was first determined⁵. The fort of Patiata has been erected by the ancestors of Jamaait Khan who were zamindars of Bhagwant pargana. Balwant Singh led a mighty force against it, and after a short siege, captured it together with the surrounding land towards the middle of 1753⁶.

The way being so far cleared, his next move was for the strong fortress of Latifpur. Malik Farrukh was in command of it as also of the surrounding zamindari which was many miles in area. Fortunately for Balwant Singh, the commandant of the fort died about September October, 1753⁷, leaving two youthful sons, Malik Ahsan and Malik Ahmad. The latter was then in his nearby fort at Ahraura. He was surrounded by Balwant Singh and slain while making a futile attempt to escape. Seeing the fate of his brother Malik Ahsan was so terrified that he fled away towards Zamania (in Ghazipur district) without offering the least resistance to the invader. Balwant Singh fortified the fortress of Latifpur and thus established his sway over the parganas of Ahraura and Barhor. Emboldened by these successes Balwant Singh moved on towards Bijaigarh and after bribing its killadar captured it⁸.

Although Balwant Singh was successful in establishing his authority in the northern part of the district, his authority was still far from being acknowledged in the southern part of the district. Shortly afterwards, however, the Singrauli chieftain, despite the fact that the remoteness and poverty of his country protected him from invasion, had also made terms with Balwant Singh and agreed to pay annual tributes.

1. Grierson, J. W. : *op. cit.*, p. 132

2. Srivastava, A.L. : *Shuja-ud-Daula*, Vol. I, (Agra, 1961) p. 25

3. *Ibid.*, pp. 24-25

4. *Ibid.*, p. 25

5. *Ibid.*, p. 25

6. *Ibid.*, p. 25

7. *Ibid.*, p. 26

8. Grierson, J. W., *op. cit.*, p. 133

All this time while Balwant Singh was triumphantly bearing his victorious standards to the southern extremity of what is now the Mirzapur district and carrying everything before him, Safdar Jang had been in the grip of a life-and-death struggle at Delhi. Immediately after he had succeeded in patching up a peace with the emperor, he set out to chastise the raja for his recent aggressions. He reached Varanasi on February 17, 1754¹. On his near approach Balwant Singh had taken shelter in Chandraul, 19 km. north-east of Varanasi². But, fortunately for Balwant Singh, Safdar Jang was called back to Delhi to join the expedition against the Marathas and Imad-ul-mulk and thus the raja was again left free.

Safdar Jang died on 5th October, 1754, and was succeeded by his son Shuja-ud-daulah³. On his accession Shuja-ud-daulah, thirsting for revenge, demanded an increase in the revenue due from Balwant Singh, but the later being secure in his newly acquired mountain fastnesses unceremoniously refused to comply with the demand. Shuja-ud-daulah bided his time in anger. This was a period of unprecedented eclipse for the nawab's family and of crisis for his provinces. The town and fort of Chunar, situated on the Ganga, 32 km. due east of Mirzapur, were also in the throes of a revolution. This fort was the only place of considerable importance in raja Balwant Singh's dominion and was in the hands appointed directly by and owing allegiance to the subahdar of Avadh⁴. The raja, being conscious of the consequences, did not prefer the use of force. He tempted Agha Mir, its killadar, with a handsome bribe of one lakh of rupees to betray the fort. As the plot was to mature Shuja-ud-daulah got wind of it and his intervention miscarried the deep-laid plot. The nawab occupied the fort, whence the traitor Agha Mir had immediately sought refuge by flight. After appointing a trusted officer as commandant of the fort, Shuja-ud-daulah proceeded to chastise Balwant Singh towards the close of 1756. On hearing of Shuja-ud-daulah's march towards Varanasi, Balwant Singh at once retired to his fort of Latifpur⁵. Entering Varanasi the nawab directed Fazl Ali Khan, the *faujdar* of Ghazipur district, to drive Balwant Singh out of Latifpur. This was a difficult task and the nawab was rightly offered sane advice by the celebrated Shaikh Ali Hazir of Banaras to come to terms with the powerful raja. But laden with the impetuosity of youth, the nawab did not pay any heed to it and bargained with Fazl Ali, who demanded as the price of his undertaking the expedition against the raja⁶ that he should be furnished with 10,000 cavalry, be exempt from the payment of the current years revenue (rupees 10 lakhs) and be confirmed as the ruler of the Banaras (Varanasi) state on the same annual tribute as Balwant Singh used to pay if he succeeded in ousting the raja from it⁷. But the news of the invasion of Ahmad Shah Abdali obliged Shuja-ud-daulah to enter into alliance with Balwant Singh, whereby he was confirmed in his estate in February-March, 1757⁸.

1. Srivastava, A.L. : *op. cit.*, p. 26

2. *Ibid.*, p. 27

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*, p. 28

5. *Ibid.*, pp. 28-29

6. *Ibid.*, p. 30

7. *Ibid.*

8. *Ibid.*, p. 30-31

Though Balwant Singh was restored to the district, one of its chiefs, Bikram Jit Singh of pargana Kantit, still cherished his traditional freedom. For several years he withheld the payment of revenue due to Muhammad Quli Khan, the deputy governor of Allahabad. When the deputy governor brought Bikram Jit Singh to submit and pay the amount due, Balwant Singh lost no opportunity in bringing the pargana under his control. He stood surety for Bikram Jit Singh for payment of arrears and when the latter failed to do so, Balwant Singh himself annexed pargana Kantit to his estates in 1759-60¹.

After the defeat of the combined armies of Shah Alam, Mir Qasim and Shuja-ud-daulah in the battle of Buxar (October 23, 1764) by the British, Shuja-ud-daulah took refuge in his fortress of Chunar where its commandant Sidi Muhammad Bashir Khan advised the defeated nawab to reinforce his troops and resist the British who were not likely to be able to capture the impregnable fortress². The nawab, however, was so panic-stricken that he would not heed the proposal and marched away to Allahabad leaving instructions with the commandant to defend the fort. Meanwhile Shuja-ud-daulah's minister Bari Bahadur made an unsuccessful attempt to bring about a compromise between the nawab and the British. But as the negotiations fell through both parties made war preparations³.

As stated above, it was not an easy task to capture Chunar. The British, therefore, thought it advisable to enter into agreement with Balwant Singh⁴. Being assured of help from Balwant Singh and the emperor Shah Alam, Munro (the British commander) encamped in a garden, about three kilometre away from the fort of Chunar on November 29, 1764⁵ with a strong force. Though primarily a soldier, Munro was also a diplomatist of no mean order, and he naturally decided to employ both diplomacy and threat before having recourse to force. He had easily procured a firman from Shah Alam, calling upon Sidi Muhammad Bashir Khan, the commandant of the fort, on pain of imperial displeasure, to deliver it into the hands of the English. Intimidated by the royal threat, Muhammad Bashir wished to submit, but the garrison, being firmly determined to offer a brave defence, turned the killadar out, and quickly completed their arrangements for standing a siege. Sidi Ballal and Sidi Nasir took the command and two thousand Abyssinians armed with *jizails* and their Indian colleagues began firing the guns arrayed on the ramparts of the fort⁶.

The British after completing sufficient preparations, besieged Chunar under Major Munro in December, 1764. In spite of two successive attempts, they failed to breach the defence of the besieged and suffered a tremendous loss. Some 50 European troops and one thousand sepoy were slain and wounded⁷. On receiving the news of Shuja-ud-daulah's start from Allahabad and his arrival within about 20 km. of Chunar on his marches against Varanasi, the British broke up camp and retired to Varanasi to save the town from a surprise attack on December 7, 1764⁸.

1. Grierson, J. W., *op. cit.*, p. 135

2. Srivastava, A.L. *op. cit.*, p. 219

3. *Ibid.*, pp. 224-225

4. *Ibid.*, p. 226

5. *Ibid.*, pp. 228-229

6. *Ibid.*, p. 229

7. *Ibid.*, pp. 230-231

8. *Ibid.*, pp. 231-236

Shuja-ud-daulah's march towards Varanasi was intercepted by the English and to chase him out of the country the English continued his pursuit till he fled towards Faizabad¹ allowing the fall of Jaunpur. Once again the immediate problem was the reduction of the important fort of Chunar, and the British now directed their attention to it².

This time, before coming to extremities with the garrison in the fortress, the art of persuasion and diplomacy was again tried and Major Robert Fletcher, who was handed over command by Major Munro on January 6, 1765³, requested the emperor to address a royal firman to the commandant of the fort to deliver the fort to the English troops. The emperor was further requested to march to Chunar in person to pressurise the garrison. In response to Major Fletcher's request Shah Alam joined the English with his army together with a contingent of Balwant Singh's troops, who had already taken the side of the English. But Sidi Muhammad Ballal, the commandant, disregarded the pressures and refused to surrender the fort⁴, and the garrison numbering about three thousand fighting men defended the fort with great determination and courage. The besiegers, however, avoiding the mistakes of the first siege, ultimately succeeded in breaking the spirit of the garrison. Sidi Ballal had then no option but to surrender the fort on the morning of February 8, 1765⁵. A suitable garrison was posted in the fort and the fort remained in the possession of the English until the last instalment of the war indemnity of 50 lakhs of rupees, as agreed upon vide article seven of the treaty of friendship between Shuja-ud-daulah and the English on August 16, 1765, was paid off by the vizier⁶. As per tenth article of the treaty the Company's troops necessary for garrisoning Chunargarh were not to be withdrawn.

Going into the history of the district as far back as 1770, since the accession of Balwant Singh, it is seen that, despite the nawab's protracted cold relations with him, the raja's imperialistic endeavours pervaded the whole of the history of this region. Though some conciliatory gestures were imperative on the part of Shuja-ud-daulah, as when Balwant Singh was first pardoned by him in 1765⁷, and again in 1766 when the latter was confirmed in his zamindari as a vassal of Avadh⁸, the relations between the two remained strained till Balwant Singh's death on August 23, of 1770⁹.

Thus the whole of the present district of Mirzapur, with the solitary exception of the fort of Chunar, fell under the domination of Balwant Singh. The administration of the raja had possessed at least the merit of vigour which, however, relaxed greatly during the later years of his life¹⁰.

1. *Ibid.*, p. 239
2. *Ibid.*, p. 240
3. *Ibid.*, p. 237
4. *Ibid.*, p. 243
5. *Ibid.*, p. 244
6. Srivastava, A.L. : *Shuja-ud-Daulah*, Vol. II, (Lahore 1945), pp. 14-15
7. *Ibid.*, p. 7
8. *Ibid.*, p. 31
9. *Ibid.*, p. 115
10. Grierson, J. W. : *op. cit.*, p. 135

After the death of Balwant Singh his son by a Rajput lady, Chait Singh, succeeded him as the raja on October 10, 1770, with all the rights and privileges enjoyed by his late father¹. Though Chait Singh was already nominated by Balwant Singh as his successor during his lifetime, and the English were interested in the confirmation of Chait Singh in his father's place, yet Shuja had always sought, albeit without success, the opportunity of chastising the raja's family. Despite Shuja's objections under the pretext of two other claimants to succession, Chait Singh's claim prevailed owing to English support².

Though the subsequent events belong rather to the history of Banaras than to that of this district yet a brief mention is necessary to explain the course which matters took in Mirzapur. In 1775³, the sovereignty of the district dependent upon raja Chait Singh was ceded in perpetuity to the British Government. A *sanad* was given to the raja confirming him in his zamindari and in the civil and criminal administration thereof, subject to a tribute of sicca Rs 22,66,180, and on condition of his adopting measures for the interest and security of the country and the preservation of the peace. The new raja was also allowed to coin money. In 1781⁴, in consequence of Chait Singh's refusal or neglect to obey the orders of government as to the placing at their disposal of a contingent from his forces, occurred the attempt of Warren Hastings to effect his arrest. This resulted in a general uprising in his capital Varanasi, where a number of British were massacred, and in the flight of Hastings to Chunar. The position of the Governor-General at Chunar had been of great peril where he shut himself up in the fort with the remaining 450 men in his force. Chait Singh, had, meanwhile, retired to Latifpur, where he succeeded in collecting a force, regular and irregular, estimated about 22,000 men, besides camp-followers. The Governor-General was for some time without reinforcements. Yet somehow he managed to secure, from Colonel Morgan, then at Kanpur, a reinforcement of two regiments of sepoys, thirty European artillerymen, and two companies of a European regiment, with five guns, under the command of Major Crabb, for his assistance⁵. At the same time the forces under the command of Lieutenant Polhill at Allahabad and of Major Roberts at Lucknow were also summoned to Chunar. Lieutenant Polhill, remaining for sometime on the opposite bank of the river, attacked and dispersed a rebel force under Shahab Khan, which was holding the town and fort of Sikhar (in Mirzapur). Patnata was then a considerable and strongly fortified town and the rebels had, meantime, collected in some force there. After due calculation of their strength an obstinate engagement ensued, ending in the defeat of the rebels. They fled in disorder to the fort. The attacking force was not strong enough to pursue the advantage so gained, and thus the action, except for its moral effect, was barren of immediate results⁶.

1. Srivastava, A.L. : *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 159
2. *Ibid.*, p. 158
3. *Ibid.*, p. 136
4. *Ibid.*
5. *Ibid.*
6. *Ibid.*, p. 137

On the 10th of September, 1781, Major Crabb arrived followed by Major Roberts on the 13th. On the 15th, the detachment under Lieutenant Polhill crossed the river and joined the camp under the fort¹. The whole force at the disposal of the Governor-General thus amounted to three companies of European infantry, with thirty artillerymen, four-and-a-half regiments of the Company's sepoys, and six companies of the nawab's body-guard. With this force an immediate attack upon Patia and Latifpur was resolved upon. In consequence a force under Major Crabb was sent by the route of the Sukrit pass to attack Latifpur and Major Popham, who was in command of the whole force, simultaneously marched out towards Patia with the other division. Major Popham carried Patia after a few days of battering with the loss of only eleven men. On the other hand Major Crabb, after a most arduous march of five days through almost impassable country, had advanced to the head of the Sukrit pass. The fall of Patia, and the appearance at the same time of a force in his rear, reduced Chait Singh to despair who, without risking an engagement, fled to his last fortress of Bijaigarh with a scanty remnant of his original forces.

Now the remaining operation was the reduction of Bijaigarh whence Chait Singh again fled on the approach of the attacking force with the greater part of his treasure, through Rewah and Bundelkhand to Sindhia's dominions and died at Gwalior in 1811². The governor of the fort made a brief resistance after which the fort was captured and thus all traces of the rebellion ended. After the flight of Chait Singh, Mahip Narain was invested and proclaimed raja on 30th September, 1781³.

Raja Mahip Narain was made just a nominal head and the responsibility of the administration was vested in his father Durgvijayi Singh who was at the same time invested with the office of Naib. The raja was to pay forty lakhs of rupees annually as tribute to the Company⁴. Hastings resolved not to allow Mahip Narain the exercise of any privilege or authority on which an opinion of independency could be founded. Only revenue was still under the raja, which too was virtually under the management of the Naib and the Resident, and thus the whole administration passed in to the hands of the British. Such a general settlement of the affairs of the Benaras province was made by Warren Hastings. The three parganas which were henceforth known as the Benaras family domains (Bhadoli and Kaswar Raj) were acknowledged as the jagir of the raja and Kara Mangraur as a revenue-free grant were left to the raja⁵. He was allowed only the administration of justice in civil suits referring to land and revenue matters in the family domains, subject to the collector's advice and the orders of the Governor-General in Council.

The history of the district after the accession of raja Mahip Narayan is almost wholly concerned with fiscal matters and the settlement of the revenue. The year 1794⁶ was important as marking the great change in the system of administration whereby the raja was removed from

1. Grierson, J. W. : *op. cit.*, p. 137
2. Saleore, G.N. : *Selections from English Records of Benaras Affairs*, (1816, 1858), Vol. II, pp. 4-5
3. Narain, V.A. : *Jonathan Duncan and Varanasi*, (Calcutta, 1959), p. 31
4. *Ibid.*, p. 32
5. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *op. cit.*, pp. 237-238
6. Grierson, J. W. : *op. cit.*, p. 139

the government of the province and left with only a limited jurisdiction as indicated above. Mahip Narain was succeeded in 1795 by his son, raja Udit Narayan Singh Bahadur, who unsuccessfully memorialised the government in 1805, asking for the annulment of the agreement of 1794¹, but no change was effected in the administration till 1826, when W.W. Bird was appointed a special commissioner to enquire into the grievances which were alleged to be rife in the family domains. In 1830², Mirzapur, which had until then been included in the district of Varanasi, was made a separate revenue jurisdiction and, excepting for some disturbances resulting from disputed possession of lands, the peace was not broken till the great rebellion of 1857³.

At the time of the outbreak of the freedom struggle in 1857 the outlook in Mirzapur district was, on the whole, favourable. The sympathies of the countryside were neutral and were generally on the side of law and order. The city life, with its essentially mercantile community, was too alarmed and defenceless to be a cause of anxiety. The only difficulty was to preserve the district from the incursions of pillagers from outside. The district administration was in the hands of St. George Tucker and the district treasury contained, in May, 1857 only two lakhs of rupees which were guarded by half of the Ferozpur regiment of Sikhs⁴.

On 19th May the news of the outbreaks at Meerut and Delhi was received. All possible measures were taken to meet any untoward happening. There was great uncertainty as to the course events would take. The news regarding outbreaks at Varanasi and Jaunpur on the sixth of June renewed anxiety. The tide of excitement had by this time spread over the whole district. Even the arrival of the 47th Native Infantry could not restore confidence and its fidelity was far from assured. The Sikh guards were called away from Mirzapur to Allahabad, and rupees sixty thousand of the treasure was also shifted with them in such a haste that they were not able to take with them the spare arms or to remove or destroy the large quantity of ammunition in their magazine, which was later thrown into the river by Colonel⁵ Pott's order. The remaining treasure was sent to Varanasi by steamer. Neither road nor river was safe from armed freedom fighters. The turbulent Thakurs of Akorhi, a village near Vindhyaachal, were said to be mediating a descent upon the city and large bodies of armed men were reported to be collected at Manda in the Allahabad district, with their faces towards east. On 9th June, the rumours of an attack from Manda assumed a form so definite that all the non-official inhabitants of the station and some of the civil officers retired to Chunar⁶. On the 10th June the property of the East Indian Railway, then under construction, and the contractors' plant, were plundered in broad day light some 6 km. from the court-house. A severe retribution, followed with the capture of twenty seven persons who were their leaders⁷.

1. Drake-Brockman, D.L. : *op. cit.*, p. 238
2. *Ibid.*, p. 239
3. *Ibid.*
4. Grierson, J. W., *op. cit.*, p. 140
5. *Ibid.*
6. *Ibid.*, p. 141
7. *Ibid.*

Shortly afterwards an entrenchment was commenced on the river bank, next to the present post-office for the reception of an expected detachment of European troops. But this was nabbed. At the same time a large village, Gaura, on the right bank of the Ganga near the Allahabad frontier, attracted notice as its people had made themselves obnoxious by a series of daring dacoities by land and water. Their headquarters were at Ramnagar Sikri, about 13 km. from the station. On 22nd June an attack was made on these dacoits. These expeditions made the right bank of the river and the adjacent country up to the base of the first hills tolerably safe¹.

On the left bank, early in June, the head of Monas clan of Rajputs, Adwant Singh, had collected a force of his clansmen. He had been able to establish himself as a self-styled raja. Supplementing his income by imposing taxes he had grown strong enough to block the Grant Trunk Road. Soon an European levy and the agent of the raja of Varanasi in those parts succeeded in suppressing freedom struggle and in capturing the chief along with his diwan. They were at once tried and hanged. This led to a vowed vengeance by his family and his widow offered a reward for the head of Moore, then joint magistrate of Mirzapur, who, they argued, must be responsible for the execution. Their opportunity soon came. On the 4th of July², when Moore arrested a number of persons and brought them to the indigo factory at Pali, Jhurai Singh, a relative of the raja, at once surrounded the factory with a number of men and killed Moore along with two English managers of the factory who had made an abortive attempt to escape. Moore's head was duly presented to the widow of Adwant Singh. The magistrate, with a brother of the murdered officer, arrived from Mirzapur, and the following day attacked and dispersed the freedom fighters, but Jhurai Singh, the real murderer, escaped the two successive searches. He was, however, caught and hanged some two years afterwards³.

In August a new direction was given to the anxiety of the British by the approach of the freedom-fighters from Dinapur. Having found their intentions of some action at Varanasi forestalled, they passed on to Sukeit, Robarts Ganj, Shahganj, and Mirzapur. Meanwhile, a force of about three hundred men of the 5th Regiment accompanied by most of the district officers and some volunteers, went out from Kotwa to meet them⁴. They passed on into Allahabad district after an unimportant skirmish on the 20th. This was the occasion on which the city of Mirzapur was directly threatened⁵.

The next incursion was that of the freedom-fighters from Hazaribagh. They were checked on Son river and were compelled to turn towards south through Singrauli. Reaching Kota they affected a good deal of utterly purposeless damage to the buildings and working of the coal mine, and then passed on into Rewah⁶.

A more serious inroad was that of Kunwar Singh, who arrived and encamped at Ramgarh on 24th August. With the assistance of the Bijaigarh Chandel, he passed on through Robarts Ganj where he burnt all that was inflammable to Shahganj and then to Ghorawal, where he reached on the 29th. Thence he endeavoured to enter Rewah but was compelled to retreat northwards and then go into Allahabad district¹.

The Dinapur freedom-fighters, after leaving Mirzapur, had successfully tempted the 50th Native Infantry stationed there, to revolt and succeeded in accompanying some of their officers to Rewah. On 24th September a wing of the 17th Madras Native Infantry arrived at Mirzapur, and four days afterwards the remnants of the 50th from Nagode came in, and were at once ferried across the river, disarmed, and sent on leave².

The district was now rapidly settling down and October passed tranquilly. The Madras troops were recalled and the guns and stores of the entrenchment were sent to Chunar. There were still, however, disturbing causes at work in the pargana of Bijaigarh. One Lachhman Singh and some Chandels had been in communication with the freedom-fighters in Shahabad ever since the incursion of Kunwar Singh. He then called the Shahabad men to his aid, proclaimed himself raja and commenced collecting revenue³. The tahsildar of Robarts Ganj, who was sent out at the commencement of the rebellion to summon him to Mirzapur, was obliged to fly for his life, and for a couple of months the whole pargana was thrown into confusion. Tucker and other of the civil officers, with a small force, moved out against them. The rebels, who had retired to the dense jungles below Rohtasgarh were attacked successfully at dawn on 9th January⁴. Several freedom-fighters were killed, captured and hanged. The leaders, however, had escaped, and in February made another incursion from Rewah but were ultimately driven out of the district. An incursion by Jhurai Singh in May, which was the last event of importance pertaining to this district. There were still some isolated freedom-fighters roaming in the south, but the freedom struggle ended and the complete pacification of the district was once more left to the civil officers.

After 1857 the district remained in a peaceful state for a few decades. During this undisturbed period the authorities got the opportunity of attending to its administration and a number of multiphase reforms were introduced in order to provide a sound footing to the British rule. The various groups which combined to trigger off the 1857 outburst had only been able to initiate the idea of ultimately overthrowing the authority of foreigners. Thence among many factors which were at work, the main was the establishment of the Indian National Congress in 1885 to promote the cause of India's freedom.

The second phase of the history of the freedom struggle in the district starts with the establishment of a committee of the Indian National Congress, some time between 1890 and 1895 at Mirzapur. This was the only committee for the whole of the district and its functions were limited.

1. *Ibid.*
2. *Ibid.*, p. 142
3. *Ibid.*
4. *Ibid.*
5. *Ibid.*
6. *Ibid.*, p. 143

1. *Ibid.*
2. *Ibid.*
3. *Ibid.*, p. 144
4. *Ibid.*

to sending its representatives to the annual sessions of the Congress and also to helping it with monetary contributions, apart from the primary object of the organisation, of cultivating political consciousness and national spirit among the masses of the district.

The organisation and the populace of the district received a fresh impetus from the annual session of the Indian National Congress held in the nearby town of Varanasi in 1905, under the presidency of Gopal Krishna Gokhale. This session was attended, among others, by eminent leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Lala, Lajpat Rai and Madan Mohan Malaviya. The impact of the wave was obvious for this district too. Then the district was busy in strengthening the Congress organisation at its level, and had expanded its limited functions with such a vigour that within a short time it had been able to infuse an impassioned sense of duty and love for the country through its length and breadth. Within a decade after 1905 the district had acquired a good political image. With the arrival of Upendra Nath Banerji and Yusuf Imam in the town of Mirzapur, both of whom were commanding good credential concerning the freedom struggle, the district had acquired a truly imaginative leadership. Upendra Nath Banerji had held the office of chairman of the local Congress committee. By the end of the second decade of the 20th century the patriotic spirit among the masses of the district had touched the acme.

In 1921 Mahatma Gandhi launched the Non-co-operation Movement to attain the Independence of the country in which thousands of Congress volunteers participated by boycotting the use of foreign goods and picketing the shops selling these goods. Schools and colleges imparting English education were boycotted, too, by students.

The district had by then acquired a sound footing in this direction to cope with the situation. It joined the movement with all energy and enthusiasm and the various objective programmes were actively carried forward. The authorities took stern measures to suppress the movement and in a police raid on the Congress office at Mirzapur the register of the volunteers was captured. Some top-ranking leaders of the district were arrested on the basis of this register. Some of the noteworthy among them were Upendra Nath Banerji and Barrister Yusuf Imam. This incident, instead of causing dejection among the fighters, flared up a retaliatory spirit.

The students of the district did not lag behind. In those days only two schools, viz., London Mission School and Government School, Baria Ghat, were imparting English education. Many enthusiastic students left their studies boycotting these institutions. The prominent student leaders were arrested and sent to jail. A youth organisation was also formed in the town of Mirzapur, which too, had played an important role and spread the movement to all corners of the district. The business class and women also participated in the movement. At a meeting held at Roberts Ganj on 19th February, 1922, local merchants resolved not to give *rasad* (ration) to officials on tour.

The movement in the district ended when after the Chauri Chaura incident Gandhiji called it off. During this movement about 38 freedom-fighters were punished with imprisonment. The solidarity of the people was reflected in the processions and meetings, the important amongst them attracting large numbers of people.

During the whole period following the non-cooperation movement, the district of Mirzapur remained sensitive in catching the vibrations of political activities pervading the country. Its association with the neighbouring city of Varanasi, which had come into prominence as a centre of political activities, particularly owing to the presence of eminent patriots like Madan Mohan Malaviya, Bhagwan Das, and Shiva Prasad Gupta, was of no small significance.

Fortunately for India's struggle for freedom, the fatal inertia that had practically put an end, following the calling off of the non-co-operation movement, to all its earlier tempo was cast away by an action of the British Government, namely, the appointment of the Simon Commission in 1928. On February 3, the day of the arrival of the Commission in Bombay, complete *hartal* (strike) was observed in the district, as in all other important cities and towns of the country. Huge processions of demonstrations marched through the main streets of the town, waving black flags and carrying banners with the words "Go back Simon", inscribed on them. These processions ended in a public meeting to register their protest. The people of the district received a fresh impetus with the visits of Gandhiji and Jawaharlal Nehru during these days. On March 4, 1929 a public meeting was held at Chunar which was addressed by Jawaharlal Nehru, Narendra Das, and Sri Prakash. They highlighted the aims and activities of the Congress and urged the people to continue the struggle with solidarity according to the Congress programmes. On the morning of November 19, 1929, Gandhiji arrived at Mirzapur and was received at the railway station by about five thousand people. He also addressed a huge meeting of some 10,000 persons and was presented with purses amounting to more than six thousand rupees. Besides shedding light on the current topic of the Simon Commission, Gandhiji urged the people to unite and prepare themselves for Congress action planned for 1930. In the afternoon Gandhiji addressed another meeting at Chunar, where he received a further contribution of rupees five hundred.

The Civil Disobedience and Non-co-operation Movement which was suspended by Gandhiji in 1922¹ was again revived in the Congress session of 1929². On April 6, 1930, Gandhiji broke the salt law at Dandi, as the first phase of the civil disobedience movement.

The repercussions of this action were immediately felt in Mirzapur district. *Sunghash Samitis* were organised at each tahsil headquarters of the district to motivate the salt satyagraha. J.H. Wilson steered the movement in the whole district. On April 6, 1930 a number of volunteers of the district went to Hamlia to witness the process of salt-making.

1. Majumdar, R.C. : *History of the Freedom Movement in India*, (Calcutta, 1963), Vol. III, p. 307.
2. *Ibid.*, pp. 325-326

In Mirzapur town thousands of people of the district witnessed the violation of the salt law, when small packets of publicly manufactured contraband salt were auctioned, as a token of civil disobedience. Contraband salt was made at Chilh, Vindhyachal, and Chunar in May, 1930, and at Mirzapur in June, 1930.

The technical breach of the salt law by Gandhiji on April 6, 1930 was a signal for the countrywide repetition of the same¹. Where natural conditions did not permit the illegal manufacture of salt, violation of other laws was resorted to. An intensive campaign was started in the entire district of Mirzapur. The main activities of this campaign were open reading of seditious literature in public meetings, and boycotting of liquor and intoxicating drugs, foreign cloth, British goods of all sorts, and even institutions imparting English education with the help of voluntary organisations of pickets. On April 12, 1931, there was a public meeting in village Hansapur in which about 4000 cultivators were present. They were urged to pay their revenue at a reduced rate.

On May 2, 1931, a political conference was held at Mirzapur. The first session of this conference was presided over by T.A.K. Sherwani and was attended by about 3,000 persons. Resolutions were passed expressing sorrow at the death of Moti Lal Nehru and others, eulogizing their sacrifices to the nation and appreciating the patriotism of Bhagat Singh.

The second and third sessions were held on May 8 and 4, and were presided over by Purushottam Das Tandon. These sessions were attended by about 4,000 and 6,000 persons respectively. Madan Mohan Malaviya was also present at the third session. It was resolved on the second session that no constitution would be acceptable which did not provide for complete control over foreign affairs, the army, and finance. The resolution was carried with the amendment (supported by Govind Malaviya and Keshawa Das Malaviya) that if the British Government insists on safeguards the working committee should not send a representative to the next Round Table Conference.

In the third session a resolution on the Congress declaration of rights was moved by Sampurnanand and was carried unanimously. The topics of the day were discussed at length and the audience were urged to consolidate their activities to reap better results at the Round Table Conference. A resolution on the hardships of the cultivators was also passed, laying down the policy of the fixation of rent.

In 1932 a reign of terror prevailed in the district. Stern measures were being adopted by the authorities against individuals, groups and organisations in order to put down Civil Disobedience. Besides so many oppressed by several other measures, about 100 freedom-fighters of the district were punished with imprisonment or fine, or with both, in connection with this movement alone. The objective programmes of the district, in spite of the various repressive measures of the police, were a constant challenge to the district authorities. The people of the district started publication of a *patrika* (newspaper) called *Ranabheri*. For

1. *Ibid.*, p. 339

about four years of its presence, place of publication, and the persons connected with it remained undetected. The Civil Disobedience Movement continued in the district unabated till May, 1934, when Gandhiji suspended and accepted the entry of congress members into legislature as part of the Congress programme¹.

On July 18, 1934 Gandhiji passed through Mirzapur making a short halt there, and again on July 22, 1934, he did the same en route to Kanpur from Calcutta. At Mirzapur railway station about 5,000 persons had assembled to welcome him. Some money was also contributed.

The district participated with its support to the Congress in the general elections held in 1937. This election was significant for the district. It forced the Congress to come into close contact with the masses and this aroused political consciousness among them. It also gave an impetus to the awakening of women, in the district, and stirred civic consciousness among them.

With the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, the Congress ministry in the province resigned as the Congress decided not to co-operate with the government in the war effort. The people started a widespread campaign against the war fund contributions.

In Mirzapur district this campaign was started vigorously. Many public meetings were held at several places in the district in which anti-government leaflets were distributed. In 1941, the campaign took the form of a Satyagrah. The Congress volunteers of the district were offering this individual satyagrah after giving prior intimation of their intention to the authorities. About 300 people courted arrest all over the district and were summarily tried and sent to jail or fined or suffered both penalties.

There was another political conference in the district during this period in which an anti-war speech was made by Rafi Ahmad Qidwai. Earlier on March 8, 1940, Subhash Chandra Bose had also visited the district and addressed well-attended meetings at Majhra, Haskara, and Mirzapur, urging a mass struggle for India's freedom.

On July 14, 1942, the working committee of the All India Congress Committee passed an elaborate resolution generally referred to as the Quit India resolution. The resolution was further worked out when the All India Congress Committee met in Bombay on August 7, 1942, sanctioning thereby "the starting of a mass struggle on non-violent lines on the widest possible scale under the leadership of Gandhiji²".

The people of Mirzapur district participated in the movement along the usual lines of non-violence in the form of *hartals* and processions over nearly the entire district. The authorities adopted stern measures to put them down. Very soon the non-violent demonstrations turned violent on the part of the people and the government had to face a revolt which, though unarmed, was most violent in character.³ Mirzapur

1. Majumdar, R.C. : *op. cit.*, op. 533

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 639-643

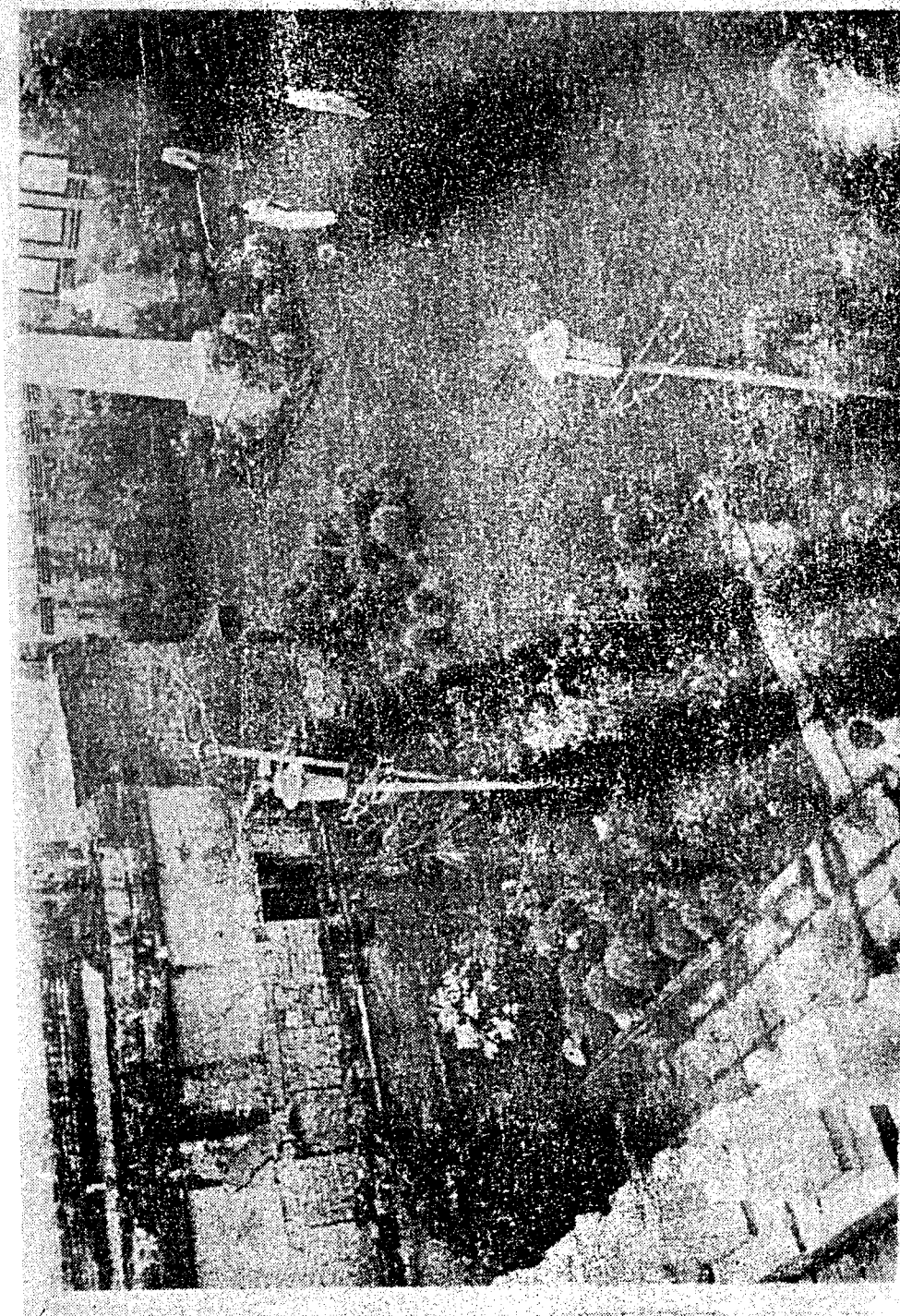
was one of the eastern districts of Uttar Pradesh where the movement took a very serious turn. In particular, it assumed an alarming intensity in the rural areas of Narayanpur, Kaila Hat, Ghaipura, Jigna, Paharpur, Ahraura, Kachhwa, Bajha, and Sikhar, etc., besides the town of Mirzapur. On August 13, 1942, there was police firing at Ahraura Bazar in which two persons were killed and three injured. On August 17, 1942, five persons lost their lives when Pahara railway station was set on fire. In the Bajha police action on August 24, 1942 five persons were seriously injured. Besides these casualties about 600 freedom-fighters were arrested and imprisoned or detained in jails and many suffered unwept and unsung. Property worth lakhs was destroyed in the movement. A collective fine of one lakh of rupees was realized by the government from the people of the district.

The Congress leaders were released in 1946, and in the general elections for the provincial legislature the Congress again emerged in strength to form the government. Then came the long-cherished dream of real Independence on the midnight of August 14-15, 1947. The country was partitioned and a sizeable number of persons migrated from one part of the country to the other.

On hearing the news of the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi (January 30, 1948), the whole district was plunged into grief. All markets and offices were closed. Several processions were taken out and meetings held to mourn the tragic and irreparable loss of the father of the nation.

With the enactment and adoption of the Constitution of India on January 26, 1950, India became a Sovereign Democratic Republic.

The nation has always venerated in a befitting manner all those who participated with distinction in the struggle for its freedom. Thus on the occasion of the celebration of the silver jubilee of Independence in 1973, 256 persons of the district who had figured prominently in the country's freedom struggle (in some case their dependents) were awarded *tamra patras* (copper plates) a gesture whereby the sacrifices made, and the services rendered, by them or their forebears were placed on record. This is a number which can well be the cause of envy in many a districts in the country.



Shahid Park, Mirzapur

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

POPULATION

The population of the district in 1971 comprised of 15,41,088 persons, with 8,09,685 males and 7,31,403 females. In respect of population the district occupies 29th position in the State. The density of population was 136 persons per sq. km. as against the State average of 300 and stood lowest among the districts of the Varanasi Division. The sex ratio of the district in 1971 was 903 per 1,000 males, which was considerably higher than the State average of 879.

The tahsilwise distribution of district population in 1971 was as follows :—

District/Tahsil	Area (sq. km.)	Population		
		Persons	Male	Female
District total	11,301	15,41,088	8,09,685	7,31,403
Mirzapur Tahsil	3,359.5	6,02,355	3,15,402	2,86,953
Chunar tahsil	1,592.9	3,74,779	1,95,433	1,79,346
Robarts Ganj tahsil	3,647.5	3,72,180	1,97,020	1,75,160
Dudhi tahsil	3,508.7	1,91,774	1,01,830	89,944

Mirzapur tahsil was the most populated tahsil, containing 39.08 per cent of the districts total population. The percentage of population in the remaining three tahsils, namely, Chunar, Robarts Ganj and Dudhi tahsils was 24.32, 24.16 and 12.44 respectively. The tahsilwise density of population (persons per sq. km.) was 235 in Chunar, 179 in Mirzapur, 102 in Robarts Ganj and 55 in Dudhi, the corresponding figures in 1961 were 187 in Chunar, 149 in Mirzapur, 107 in Robarts Ganj and 46 in Dudhi. The tahsilwise sex ratio (number of females per 1,000 males) in 1971 was 909 in Mirzapur, 917 in Chunar, 889 in Robarts Ganj and 883 in Dudhi, while in 1961 the tahsilwise sex ratio was 977 in Mirzapur, 966 in Chunar and 923 each in Robarts Ganj and Dudhi.

Growth of Population

The first attempt to number the inhabitants of this district was made at the enumeration of 1848, when population was estimated on the basis of persons to a house and the total was returned at 8,31,388 persons. At the census of 1853, the population of the district was found to be 11,04,315 persons with the density of 214 persons per sq. mile. A

decrease of 47,978 persons or 4.3 per cent was noted at the census of 1865, when the population was recorded to be 10,56,337 with the density of 203 persons to a sq. mile. This decrease was probably due to the commercial decay of Mirzapur town and over estimation of rural inhabitants at the last census. The population again decreased by 40,511 persons or 3.8 per cent at the census of 1872, when it numbered 10,15,826 with the density of 195 persons per sq. mile. This decrease in population was attributed to the continued commercial decline of the town of Mirzapur, and the scarcity accompanied with epidemics of 1868 and 1869.

The census of 1881 showed an increase in population by 1,20,970 persons or 11.9 per cent over the figures of the previous census, giving the total of 11,36,796 persons. The density had also increased to 217.6 persons per sq. mile. A rise in population by 24,712 persons or 22 per cent was noted at the census of 1891, when the population was found to be 11,61,508 with the density of 222.4 persons per sq. mile.

A decline in population by 79,078 persons was noted at the census of 1901, when the population of the district comprised 10,82,430 persons with a density of 207 persons per sq. mile. This decline is to be accounted for chiefly by the effects of scarcity conditions caused by drought. It is also probable that emigration to the eastern districts of Bengal had increased in this period.

The decennial growth of population in the district during the period 1901-1971 was as follows :—

Year	Persons	Male	Female	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
1901	7,30,962	3,57,404	3,73,558	—	—
1911	7,23,311	3,57,543	4,65,768	— 7,651	—1.05
1921	7,22,700	3,60,897	3,61,803	— 611	—0.08
1931	7,86,789	3,93,658	3,93,131	+ 64,089	+8.87
1941	8,98,094	4,48,672	4,49,422	+1,11,305	+14.15
1951	10,15,236	5,13,059	5,02,177	+1,17,142	+13.04
1961	12,46,958	6,42,895	6,04,063	+2,31,722	+22.82
1971	15,41,088	8,09,685	7,31,403	+2,94,130	+23.59

A noteworthy feature is that between 1901 and 1921, the population of the district recorded a decrease of only 1.13 per cent, when that of the State decreased by about 4 per cent. The decrease in population during the first decade of the present century was chiefly due to scarcity caused by drought, etc., and in the second decade it was due to transfer of Konrh and Chakiya tahsils to the erstwhile Benaras state,

The maximum rate of the growth in population i.e. 23.6 per cent, was noted during the decade 1961-71, which was higher than the State average of 19.78 per cent. During 1901-71 the population of the district registered an increase of 110.8 per cent, much higher than that of State average during the same period, which was 81.7 per cent.

Emigration and Immigration

In 1961, among the people enumerated in the district, 90.7 per cent were born within the district 6.5 per cent in other districts of the State, 2.6 per cent in other parts of India, and 0.1 per cent in other countries. Among those from other countries, 622 were from Pakistan, 244 from Nepal, and 105 from other countries. Of the immigrants from other States, the largest number was 12,849 from Madhya Pradesh, 11,832 from Bihar, 2,008 from Punjab 366 from Rajasthan, 155 from Delhi, and 11 from Himanchal Pradesh. The number of immigrants from other districts of the State was 81,816. The duration of residence of nearly half of the immigrants (48.9 per cent) was over ten years. About 88 per cent of the immigrants were returned from rural and the remaining 12 per cent from urban areas. Among the immigrants 26.3 per cent were males and 73.7 per cent females.

Distribution Between Rural and Urban Areas

In 1971, the district contained 3,420 villages, 2,993 inhabited and 427 uninhabited. The rural population comprised 87.97 per cent. The remaining 12.03 per cent of the population was confined to 12 towns. The tahsilwise break-up of population with the number of villages and towns, as in 1971, was as follows :—

District/Tahsil	Villages		Town	Population		
	Inhabited	Uninhabited		Persons	Male	Female
District						
Total	2,993	427	12	15,41,088	8,09,685	7,31,403
Rural	2,993	427	—	13,53,703	7,05,068	6,50,635
Urban	—	—	12	1,85,385	1,04,617	80,768
Mirzapur tahsil						
Total	1,066	200	2	6,02,355	3,15,402	2,86,953
Rural	1,066	200	—	4,89,306	2,54,551	2,34,755
Urban	—	—	2	1,13,049	60,851	52,198
Chunar tahsil						
Total	621	113	2	3,74,779	1,95,433	1,79,346
Rural	621	113	—	3,33,086	1,84,001	1,69,085
Urban	—	—	2	21,693	11,432	10,261
Roberts Ganj tahsil						
Total	1,022	102	5	3,72,180	1,97,020	1,75,160
Rural	1,022	102	—	3,42,887	1,78,467	1,64,420
Urban	—	—	5	29,293	18,553	10,740
Dudhi tahsil						
Total	284	12	3	1,91,774	1,01,830	89,944
Rural	284	12	—	1,70,424	88,049	82,375
Urban	—	—	3	21,350	13,781	7,569

Rural population—The extent of population in 2,993 inhabited villages, as in 1971, was as follows :

Range of population	No. of inhabited villages	Population			Percentage of rural population
		Persons	Males	Females	
Less than 200	1,108	1,09,351	57,312	52,039	8.06
200—499	1,036	3,38,998	1,76,077	1,62,921	25.01
500—999	522	3,65,342	1,89,619	1,75,723	26.95
1,000—1,999	264	3,54,134	1,84,447	1,69,687	26.23
2,000—4,999	58	1,52,865	79,054	73,811	11.27
5,000—9,999	5	35,013	18,559	16,454	2.58
Total	2,993	13,55,703	7,05,068	6,50,635	100.00

Urban Population—In 1971, the urban population consisted of 12.03 per cent of the total population and was distributed over 12 towns. The population, showing the number of males and females, was as follows in 1971 :

The tahsilwise rural and urban area and population of the district are given in Statement I at the end of the chapter.

Name of town	Tahsil	Persons	Males	Females
Mirzapur-cum-Vindhyachal Municipal board	Mirzapur	1,05,939	57,166	48,773
Kachhwa town area	Mirzapur	7,110	3,685	3,425
Ahaura notified area	Chunar	11,453	5,957	5,496
Chunar municipal board	Chunar	10,240	5,475	4,765
Obra notified area	Robarts Ganj	11,505	7,806	2,500
Churk Ghurma notified area	Ditto	7,429	4,929	2,500
Robarts Ganj town area	Ditto	7,093	3,907	3,186
Chopan notified area	Ditto	1,954	1,224	730
Markundi	Ditto	1,312	687	625
Renukoot notified area	Dudhi	10,566	7,452	3,114
Pipri notified area	Ditto	5,700	3,507	2,193
Dudhi	Ditto	5,084	2,822	2,262
Total	—	1,85,385	1,04,617	80,768

In 1961, the district contained only 6 towns and by inclusion of Chopan, Churk, Ghurma, Dudhi, Markundi, Obra and Renukoot in the list of towns for the first time in the 1971 census, their number rose to 12 in 1971. Mirzapur-cum-Vindhyachal municipal board, the headquarters of the district was the most populated town, containing about 57 per cent of the total urban population.

The average density of urban population in the district in 1971 was 1,931, while in 1961 the urban density was 2,599 persons per sq. km. The Robarts Ganj town was the most density populated town and contained 8,345 persons per sq. km.

The following statement gives density of population per sq. km. of towns according to 1971 Census :

Name of town	Density of population
Robarts Ganj	8,345
Ahaura	4,442
Chunar	3,593
Renukoot	3,312
Mirzapur-cum-Vindhyachal	2,727
Churk Ghurma	1,760
Dudhi	1,753
Chopan	1,602
Kachhwa	1,373
Obra	1,266
Pipri	451
Markundi	106

Displaced Persons

After 1947, 452 (254 males and 198 females) displaced persons, particularly Hindus, Sikhs and Jains, mostly from Pakistan, migrated to this district as per details given below :

Years of arrival of displaced person	Displaced persons from Pakistan			Displaced persons from un-stated districts		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1947	279	179	100	71	35	36
1948	29	21	18	43	8	35
1949	—	—	—	1	—	115
1950	6	4	2	1	—	1
Year unstated	12	9	3	—	7	—
Total	336	213	123	116	50	78

Most of the displaced persons are settled in urban areas of the district and are mainly engaged in business.

LANGUAGE

Prior to the census of 1951, Hindustani was recorded as the language of the people who declared their mother-tongue to be Hindi or Urdu, but at the census of 1951 the actual mother-tongue, whether Hindi, Urdu or Hindustani, was recorded as such. In 1961, Hindi was returned as the mother-tongue of 97.5 per cent of the population and Urdu as that of 1.7 per cent. The number of persons who returned other languages as their mother-tongue was insignificant.

In 1971, as many as five languages were spoken as mother-tongues. At that time 95.78 per cent of the people returned Hindi, 2.28 per cent Urdu, 1.63 per cent Bhojpuri, 0.09 per cent Punjabi and 0.07 per cent Bengali.

The ordinary language of the majority of the people is Bihari, which is also the common tongue of the districts to the north and east. The dialect in vogue is known as western Bhojpuri.

Mirzapur consists of three distinct areas. First there is a small portion in the north of the Ganga; then comes the main or central part of the district lying to the south and the north of the Ganga and the Son respectively; and finally we have the tract south of the Son known as Sonpar. Practically western Bhojpuri is the common speech of the whole tract lying north of the Son river and in, Kon, Majhwa and Karyat Sikhar. The same form of Bhojpuri is spoken in the region of Mirzapur which lies between the Ganga and the Son. In the Son Purna region, on the contrary, it appears that the mixed population settled there speaks a form of Eastern Hindi, which for the sake of convenience may be called Sonpari.

The Bhojpuri spoken in the centre of Mirzapur differs in many particulars from the standard Bhojpuri of Shahabad (Bihar). The most striking distinction is the abandonment of the oblique form of nouns and pronouns which end in an a and which are so characteristic of all the dialects of Bihari, and the substitution of an oblique form such as we meet with in standard Hindi.

Bilingualism—Hindi, being the predominant language of the district, naturally claims the highest number. It is also the medium of communication with the local people by those whose mother-tongue is non-Hindi.

According to the 1961 Census, persons speaking languages subsidiary to their mother-tongue returned between themselves as many as 32 languages. The most important languages among them are Hindi (12,18,474), Urdu (21,465), Punjabi (2,934), and Marathi (1,359).

Among the Hindi speakers (12,18,474) the general order of preference was English and Urdu.

Script

The main scripts are Devnagri for Hindi and allied languages, Persian for Urdu, Gurmukhi for Punjabi, and Bengali for Bengali.

RELIGION AND CASTE

The population of the district, as classified according to religions at the census of 1971, comprised 94.26 per cent Hindus, 5.51 per cent Muslims, 0.10 per cent Christians, 0.09 Sikhs, and 0.04 per cent Jains. The statement below shows the rural and urban distribution of each community :

	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Buddhist	Sikh	Jain
District	14,52,543	84,950	1,490	51	1,370	678
Rural	12,99,888	54,962	305	34	311	203
Urban	1,52,655	29,988	1,185	17	1,059	475

Principal Communities

Hindus—Of the total population of the district 94.26 per cent were Hindus. The Hindu community includes representatives of no fewer than 75 separate castes, excluding subdivisions. Mirzapur presents a greater variety in the composition of its population than does any other district. Many of the castes, however, are found almost everywhere, and are too well known to call for detailed mention.

The bulk of Brahmanas are Sarvarias or Sarjuparis, but Kannaujias, Gauris, and Sakaldips are also found though only in small numbers. Their advent into the district is due probably to the grant of lands in return for services as family priests.

Ahirs are almost entirely Gwalbansi. By occupation they are cowherds or cultivators and are well distributed.

More than half of Kurmis are confined to the Chunar tahsil. The Kurmis of Mirzapur have a large number of subdivisions, the best represented of which is the Jaiswar. They are the most skilful section of the agricultural population.

The Rajputs comprise a large number of clans, they are most numerous in Mirzapur tahsil, and first among the clans comes the Gaharwar. The next are Bais Rajputs who are scattered over all tahsils. They and the Bisens probably came into the district for the most part through intermarriages with other Rajputs.

There are Kewat, Koris, Telis, Banias, Lohars and, Gadariyas. Koris, Telis, and Lohars are well distributed over all tahsils and follow traditional occupations. Banias belong for the most part to the Kesarwani, Agrahari and Umar subdivisions. They are found in all tahsils, but are, of course numerically most prominent in Mirzapur. Gadariyas are most numerous in Mirzapur tahsil. They are professional shepherds, and belong for the most part to Nikhar subdivision. Other castes are Kahars, Kalwars, Nais, Lunias and Mallahs.

The Harijans are still socially, economically, and educationally backward. For rapid development, a large number of their groups and sub-groups have been classified as the Scheduled Castes, and they receive special concessions from the government for their uplift.

In 1971 the number of persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes was 5,17,456 which formed nearly 33.58 per cent of the district population. They are found in every tahsil in the district and comprise the general labouring population of each tract.

The following statement gives tahsilwise number of the persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes.

District/Tahsil	Scheduled Castes		
	Persons	Male	Female
1	2	3	4
District			
Rural	4,93,084	2,52,978	2,40,106
Urban	24,372	13,689	10,683
Total	5,17,456	2,66,667	2,50,789
Mirzapur			
Rural	1,51,830	78,035	73,795
Urban	13,972	7,436	6,536
Total	1,65,802	85,471	80,331
Dudhi			
Rural	1,00,258	50,980	49,278
Urban	2,339	1,502	947
Total	1,02,707	52,572	50,225
Robarts Ganj			
Rural	1,62,970	84,234	78,736
Urban	4,420	2,857	1,563
Total	1,67,390	87,091	80,299
Chunar			
Rural	78,026	39,729	38,297
Urban	3,441	1,804	1,637
Total	81,467	41,533	39,934

Tribes

According to the 1971 census, there were 1,840 persons belonging to the Scheduled Tribes most of whom were residing in rural areas. The Mirzapur tribes have dark brown to black complexion, flat nose, depressed at the root, short stature, long head, and low sitting height in proportion to stature. The hair on the scalp is thick and often curly but no frizzly or spirally curved hair could be detected even in crowds of several hundreds. The colour of the hair is dark and even among old people the pigment of the scalp hair is not entirely lost while the hair on the body is thin and sparse. The lips are usually thick but not inverted, the chin not prominently developed and the teeth small and irregular but strongly set. The forehead is not large, neither is it vertical.

Though the tribes in Mirzapur have been able to maintain their identity by strictly and scrupulously following the rules of endogamy and exogamy based on a complicated system of *kuris* and degrees of avoidance there is no doubt that they share many common deities, spirits, beliefs and superstitions and observe many common rituals. Besides the fact that these tribes have been living in close proximity to each other for ages, another factor responsible for their common religious and ritual life is the Baiga who is the doctor and the priest combined.

The tribals believe in a large number of gods and deities whose popularity is generally confined to a few villages only. There are some of the deities, spirits and *devis* held in reverence by the tribes—Mahadani, Bhawani, Shitaladevi, Jwala Mukhi, Ghaman Thakur, Dohwar, Danwa, Dakhini Devi, Chaturbhuji Davi, Raja Chandol, and Nauhar Baba.

The usual offerings to gods are coconuts, roti (big *rotis*) *puri*, *ghee* and liquor. Sometimes bucks and cocks are sacrificed to propitiate malevolent deities.

Kols—The numerically strongest of the aboriginal tribes are the Kols whose figures stood at 65,622 in 1961. Most of the Kols are found in Mirzapur and Robarts Ganj tahsils. They claim to be descendants of Sevari of *Ramayana* fame. They say that they are emigrants from a place called Kutali in the territories of the Bardi raja in Rewa state. They name one Nanhu as their ancestor and have a tribal temple at Pipri near Chunar, where stands the shrine of Birnha Devi. Like many of the kindred tribes, they have legends of a kingdom in the Gange-tic valley, from where being expelled by the Aryans, they retired into the hill country above Chunar that was formerly called Kolava.

The name is probably derived from "Ho" which means a man in the pure Kol dialect; and the tribe is certainly related to the Mundaris and Mundas of Bengal. The customs of the Kols have now become deeply tinged with Hinduism. They have shaken off the elaborate system of totemistic septs still found among the Mundas of Bengal and have formed a subdivision into endogamous *kuris* or *gotras*. The Kols are divided into seven sects (*gotras*). They believe in Rama, Hanuman, and Siva, besides Banaspati Mata, Phulmati Devi, Bhaghant, Raja Lakhan, Dulladeva, Babadeva, Bhagat, Bradeva, Blasuria, Bhairon, Mata Sharda, Subban, and Amina. The Kols also worship demons and

spirits, (whom they greatly fear), and the souls of the dead. The chief god of the Kols is Raja Lakhan : he has sometimes a rude shrine of his own but in general he is believed to inhabit the village *bargad* tree, and is worshipped by the head of the family who sacrifices a ram in his honour and pours a little liquor near the shrine. The goddess Sitala Mata is worshipped when small-pox breaks out, and the Nag or Snake-god, at the Nag Panchami festival.

The Kols have a panchayat organisation for settlement of disputes. The head of the panchayat is called *chaudhari*. Among the Razwaris, the *chaudhari* is assisted by a lieutenant called *deewan* and has at his disposal a number of *sipahis* who work as process servers. The decisions of the panchayat are rarely challenged.

The Kols are one of the poorest tribes. As they own very little land, they work as agricultural or industrial labourers to earn their livelihood.

The Kol women, too, have to work to supplement the income of the family and make their presence felt although educationally they are extremely backward.

Gonds

The Gonds are the next numerous community in Mirzapur. In 1961 they numbered 37,359 in Mirzapur. But in 1901, their population was only 7,611. This influx in their number is attributed to the fact that because of the reformist activities of the Gond Sabha, many of the akin communities which were separately enumerated, started calling themselves Gonds and were taken to be such by the census officials.

Socially and economically they are better off than other tribes, their status as former rulers of the forest being acknowledged. Most of the Gonds are agriculturists. They are also encouraging education among the younger generation.

Majhwars

Majhwars or Majhis are a sub-tribe of Gonds as are Dhuriya, Navak and Rajgonds. The name Majhwars is derived from the Sanskrit *madhya* or middle, and is said to mean either the holders of the middle land or leader or headman. Their appearance is of the ordinary Gond type, their heads being broader and their noses coarser than those of Kols and Pankhas.

The Gonds or Majhis commemorate their original home situated in different parts of Sarangarh by occasional pilgrimages to shrines there. There is a legend that when Rama Chandra snapped the famous bow at the court of Janaka, king of Videha and Mithila, its pieces fell at four places, one of which was on the banks of the Narbada, where these people still go on a pilgrimage. Like Gonds, the Majhis worship Bucha Deo or Ningoo and his attendant Baghiya. In the district, however, Ningoo resides either in the common village shrine, *dechar*, or in some ancient *sal* tree which no Majhi will cut or injure. The Majhis are divided

into five exogamous sub divisions known as Poiya, Tekam or Tekma, Marai, Oika or Waika, and Olku, each of which includes a number of totemistic septs and is said to have been derived from a Gond who had five sons. The Majhis used to have their own priests from amongst the Patharis. Many of these priests were bards and genealogists who narrated the stories about the genesis of the Majhi families, the abodes of their ancestors and the glorious deeds achieved in the mediaeval centuries. The Majhis have, however, stopped inviting the Patharis in recent years. The Brahmana has now almost completely displaced the Pathari. The Baigas have invented many tribal ghosts and spirits for the Majhis which they have adopted, but they continue to worship Buddha as the supreme god. His worship before the start of a festival is compulsory. Among the gods of the Majhis, many ghosts and spirits, mostly feminine, have been included who are notorious for their anti-social and destructive acts.

Kharwars

The majority of Kharwars are found in Robarts Ganj. The name of this clan is derived, on local authority, either from their occupation as makers of catechu from the *khair* tree or from their traditional seat Khairgarh. Of all the aboriginal tribes of the district they are most deeply influenced by Hinduism. In appearance the more advanced members of the tribe are in strong contrast to the primitive families. They call themselves Hindu. But they do not worship any of the usual Hindu gods, except the Sun, to whom they appeal in times of trouble, and to whom the householder bows when he leaves his house in the morning. They declare their original seat to have been Rohtas, so called from its having been the chosen abode of king Rohitaswa, son of king Harish Chandra of the family of the Sun. Considering themselves to be of the same family as their chief some of them call themselves Surajbansis. Others say they are a mixed race that originated in the time of King Ben and call themselves Benbansi Rajputs. The former have received some admixture of Hindu blood, but the real Kharwars have a distinctive appearance of their own. The hair is black and straight, the form of the face is more oval, and nose and lips are thinner than is the case with the other hillmen, the Chero, who has more regular features, alone excepted. The internal tribal organization differs in different parts of the district, but throughout they seem to have shed the elaborate organization of totem septs.

The Kharwars are found on different levels of cultural development. One branch is engaged in large-scale production of catechu by indigenous methods. They are Suryavanshi Kharwars. The Dualbandi and Pattbandi Kharwars consider this occupation as mean. The Suryavanshi Kharwars call themselves as Khairaha, and claim to be a separate caste. The other principal Kharwars have no connection with Khairaha and are agriculturists and still collect fruits and herbs. The Kharwars of this district are still leading tribal life.

Their tribal deities are Jualamukhi Devi and Raja Lakhan, the former's shrine being at Kota in the Singrauli valley. Other local deities are Mahadeva, Raja Chandai and Dharti Mata or mother earth, who are usually worshipped in association with the collective village gods in

the month of Vaisakha. Kharwars of the better class have, among other Hindu customs adopted that of presenting offerings to the manes of the dead (*shraddha*).

The Kharwars are divided into endogamous clans. Widow remarriage and junior levirate are practised. The custom of serving prospective father-in-law's house is also prevalent.

Bayars

Most of the Bayars are to be found in Chunar tahsil. The Bayars are a tribe of labourers and cultivators. The word *biar* means a seed bed and this may be the origin of the name, for their principal occupation is rice cultivation and the construction of tanks and embankments. The tribe may be of aboriginal stock, but now they seem to be mixed and the members are not noticeably different from the Chamars and other such castes as surround them. They consider themselves autochthones of pargana Barhar in Mirzapur and have no traditions of immigration. They are slight, dark, wiry men noted for their skill in earth-work and are habitually employed in excavations of all kinds. They have formed themselves into two endogamous divisions, the Barhariya, who take their name from pargana Barhar, north of the Son, and the Dakkhinaha or southerners who live south of that river. Their main deity is Mahadeva in the form of a lingam. They worship Sewanriya, the deity of boundaries, and Dharti Mahadeva the earthgod. The former has a shrine on the village boundary, consisting of a mud platform under a *semal*, *bahera*, or *pipal* tree. The Bayars are a very quiet, respectable race, and are very seldom seen in the courts.

Binds

Binds, a non-Aryan tribe, are found chiefly in Chunar tahsil. They have no traditions of immigration from any other part of the country.

The name is said to be derived from the Vindhya hills of Central India. One legend quoted by Mr Risely tells how a traveller passing by the foot of the hills heard a strange flute-like sound coming out of clump of bamboos. He cut a shoot and took from it a fleshy substance which afterwards grew into a man, the supposed ancestor of the Binds. The myth seems to be of a totemistic character, but other traces of totemism are not forthcoming. One account makes Binds, Kewat, Mallah, Paskawata, Kuchbaudhiya, and Musahar the descendants of Nikhad, who were produced by the rishis from the thigh of raja Vena. Another legend tells how, in the beginning of all things, Mahadeva made a lump of earth and imbued it with life. The creature thus created asked Mahadeva what should he feed on. The god pointed to a tank and told him to eat the fish and the wild rice (*tinui*) which grew near the banks. Since then this is the food of the Binds. They are divided into two sub-castes, Khare and Dhusiya, the latter of whom probably take their name from Jhusi, an old town on the Ganga in Allahabad district.

The Binds are almost completely Hinduised. Their favourite deity is Mahadeva. They also make annual pilgrimages to Baijnath in Shahabad, where they pour Ganga water over the *lingam*. They, however, believe in the usual omens and demonology and practise sorcery through the *ojha*. Their patron deity is Kashi Baba. He is a maleficent spirit who sends on murrain on cattle and represents a dified Brahmana. Binds are for the most part agricultural labourers. They also do fishing and well-sinking and are engaged in mat and basket-making and preparing saltpetre.

The Bind festivals are Pachainiyan, Tij, and Kajari. The last is the women's saturnalia in the rainy season when they get drunk, dance, sing songs, and indulge in unbridled debauchery, which on this occasion only is condoned by their husbands.

Dhakars

Dhakars are really a subcaste of the eastern Doms, and are also known as Benthansis, because they work in *bent* (cane) which some corrupt into Benbansi or of the race of raja Vena. Their sections are quite distinct from those recorded by Risely in Bihar. South of the Son there are four sections (*kuri*) which are exogamous. Aril, which is said to be the name of a fine kind of bamboo used in making winnowing fans, baskets, sieves etc. Neoriya is said to be derived from *newar*, a young soft bamboo. Dauriha is said to derive its name from *dauriwa*, a strong hard bamboo which is not infested by weevils and is used for making baskets. Nagarha from *nagar*, a very high thick bamboo. These sections intermarry on equal terms except the Aril, which is the highest and with which others practise hypergamy.

The Dhakars say that when Parameshwar created their ancestor he created him under a bamboo and gave him the curved knife (*banka*) with which he was to make his living by basket-making etc.

Cheros

More interesting and historically important are the Cheros, most of whom live in tahsil Roberts Ganj. In 1961 they numbered 11,916. They are undoubtedly a Dravidian race and are probably a branch of the Kol tribe, with whom they enjoy connubium. The word Chero may be of a non-Aryan origin. It has been connected with the Hindi *chela* (Sanskrit *Chetaka*, Chedaka a slave). The ethnology of the Cheros has been to some extent obscured by the fact that they were perhaps the most advanced of the Dravidian races in Bengal. As they exist today, the Cheros are a race of labourers and cultivators.

The Cheros vary in colour, but are usually of a light brown complexion. They have, as a rule, high cheek bones, small eyes obliquely set, and eyebrows to correspond, low broad noses and large mouths with protuberant lips like the Kols and Majhwars etc. They are popularly known as Baigas, the devil priest, which is the special vocation of the non-Aryan races. They exorcise demons of diseases among the aboriginal communities. The term Baiga is synonymous with *ojha* and their functions are identical. They are not economically well-off. At times they work as labourers and ploughmen. They are industrious and clever as compared to other aboriginal tribes. They are excellent sportsmen,

cunning at making traps, pitfalls, and shooting with bow and arrow. The speed with which they ascend trees on an alarm of tiger is wonderful. They have their own dialect, though gradually it is being discontinued. Generally these tribes are endogamous and prefer to wonder and reside in dense forests North of the Son the Cheros' great god is Gausam Deo, but in Dudhi they are mostly ancestor worshippers. Raja Chandol and Bariyar Sah are other local gods whom they venerate.

Panikas

The Panikas (Pankhas) live in different villages of the district. In 1961, they numbered 7,703. The men work as weavers and are employed as watchmen. They are indifferently known as Panka, Panika or Pankya and Kotwar, the last of which in relation to their occupation as village watchman means keeper or porter of a castle. The name Panka or Panika is usually taken from *panik*, which means the elastic bow which the weaver uses to extend the cloth as it is woven. Though they have lost their totemistic signs, still their appearance clearly indicates their connection with the Dravidian races like the Majhwars. They say that Parmeshwar created the first man of the caste out of water (*pani*) and appointed him as his water-carrier. One day Parmeshwar sent him to bring fire. He went in search of fire to a place where the Majhwars were dining, and they gave him a share of their food. He returned to Parmeshwar, who charged him with eating with such degraded people. He denied the charge, but Parmeshwar gave him a blow on his back and he immediately vomited up a quantity of rice and pulse. So Parmeshwar turned him out of heaven and the Pankas have since then gone down in the world and eat with Majhwars. The Pankas describe themselves as emigrants from Bahandeva in Rewa.

Like Gonds they are divided in a number of *kuris* such as Gaigual Bajar, Bakehhal, Teria, Parvar, Korva, Sonva, Kothi, Karait, Dud, Kaura, Chikenjuri etc. All the *Kuris* are exogamous. Their Baigas come from Chero tribe. The Brahman, too, is associated in their religious ceremonies. Their two great festival are the Holi and Dasami or Dasahra but they in no way follow Hindu usage on these festivals and offer a burnt offering to a marriage god, Dulha Deo, who is represented by a piece of rudely cut stone on a mud platform. They observe the Nag Panchami festival and are much afraid of evil spirits, which are commonly supposed to reside in *mahua*, *pipal* or *bargad* trees.

Most of them are either small cultivators or landless labourers. They are also employed as watchmen. Fishing, hunting and the collection of minor forest produce are their other means of subsistence. While educationally, backward too they can still boast of producing the first graduate and the first M.A. from amongst the Mirzapur tribes.

Baiswar—The Baiswar are a tribe found in the hilly region of Mirzapur. Their origin is doubtful. According to their own account they are Rajputs of the famous Bais stock of Daundia Khara, descended from two brothers being condemned to death escaped into Rewa, and received estates from rajas of these parts. They are now, however, endogamous and have no connection with Baiswara. Their tribal worship is conducted at the temple of Bhawani in Bardi, the south-eastern

division of Rewa, abutting on Mirzapur, and it is very doubtful if they really have any Rajput blood, for they are dark and have much of the characteristic look of the Dravidian races by whom they are surrounded. In matters of religion, they principally worship Devi through Brahmans and the local gods (*dih*) through the Baiga with sacrifices of pigs and goats. They rank as respectable high caste Hindus. They dress and wear ornaments like ordinary Rajputs.

Bhuiyas

Bhuiyas are a Dravidian tribe, most of whom live in tahsil Mirzapur. In 1961 their number was 2,905. Their legend in Mirzapur runs that two ancient sages, Moma Rishi and Kumbha Rishi, had each a son known respectively as Bhadr or Bhadra and Mahesh. They claim descent from these sons of the two rishis, and for this reason they often call themselves Rishasan Bhuiyas. The legends assert their kinship with the Musahars and Bhuinyars, but these claim to be distinct tribes. The Bhuiyas call themselves Hindus. Their chief deity is the Hindu Kali, who has doubtless succeeded some aboriginal goddess, such as the Pauri or Pahari Devi of the Bhuiyas in Singhbhum. Kali and Parmeshwar are worshipped in Aghan with an offering of sweet cakes and a burnt sacrifice (*hom*). They also worship, through the Baiga, the village gods and Dharti Mata. Goats, young pigs, and fowls are offered to these deities. Women do not join in this worship. Most Bhuiyas are hereditary ploughmen but some are makers of catechu and are hence known as Khairhas. They are a quiet, industrious and simple people.

Dhangars

Dhangars is also a Dravidian tribe. In 1961 they numbered 1,218. Local tradition has it that the tribe immigrated from a place called Barwari, somewhere in the south. They say that they occupied a narrow valley called Sathorwa, where they used to waylay and rob travellers, till an imperial general made terms with their leaders Jura Mehto and Buddhu Bhagat. By the promise of a rent-free estate he induced them to lay down their arms, and then treacherously ordered a general massacre. The few survivors escaped to Mirzapur. These two leaders, Jura and Buddhu are the deified heroes of the tribe. The Dhangars are nominally Hindus, but worship none of the regular Hindu deities. They venerate the *deohar*, or collection of village gods, through the Baiga, but the special objects of their veneration are Barna Bhawani and Goraiya Deva, the god of cattle.

Generally, they work as ploughmen and are economically a little better off. Steeped though in poverty and ignorance like their counterparts, they rarely stick to a particular place or occupation and almost live a nomadic life. Dhangars have a custom which appears to be of a very primitive type. After they have buried a corpse, they return to the house of the dead man, kill a hog, and bury its trunk in the court-yard of the house, making an invocation to it as the representative of the dead man, and ordering him to rest there in peace and not to trouble his descendants.

Bhuiyars

The Bhuiyars are another Dravidian tribe found in the hill country of south Mirzapur. They are also known as Beonriha from Beonra, which is a local term for daliya system of cultivation by which patches of jungle are periodically burnt down and brought under the plough. The traditions of their origin are very vague. They speak of a place called Bhaunrodh as their original headquarters, but they know nothing more than that it is somewhere to the south. They call themselves Hindus, but their tribal god is Siwanriya, the deity of boundaries, and some worship Dharti Mata or mother earth and some Mahadeva. They do not keep priests of any other tribe and have no regular temple, while ancestor worship is carried out by the head of the family who also, if, as is usually the case, he is a Baiga, performs similar functions to Mahadeva, Dharti Mata and Siwanriya. They have nothing to say to Brahmanas for whom they entertain a contempt, and most Bhuiyars are Baigas and officiate in this capacity for other tribes besides their own.

The Bhuiyars are one of the wildest aboriginal tribes. Their usual occupation is the cutting of wood and bamboos, collecting silk cocoons, lac, dyes and other forest products. They are expert with the bow and arrow.

Agarias

Peculiar to Mirzapur are the Agarias who numbered 6,432 in 1961. In appearance the Agarias approximate very closely to allied Dravidian tribes such as Korwas and Parahiya, but they have a particularly gaunt appearance and worn expression of countenance, which is probably the result of the severe occupation which they follow.

They say that about a century back they immigrated from Rewa, hearing that they could carry on their business in peace in the British territory. Their first settlement was in the village of Khairahi in Pargana Dudhi. They do not, however, make any pilgrimages to their original settlement or draw their priests or tribal officials from there.

They call themselves Hindus, but worship none of the regular Hindu deities. In the month of November-December they get the Baiga to worship the village gods (dih). The offering consists of five fowls and a goat. The Baiga chops off the heads of the victims with his axe and takes the heads as his perquisite, while the worshipper and his family cook and eat the rest of the meat at the shrine. In the month of December-January they worship the tribal deity, the goddess of iron Lohasur Devi.

The Agarias function as the *luhars* (blacksmith) of the Mirzapur tribal people. Therefore, they are scattered throughout the tribal area. They usually confine themselves to mining and smelting of iron. They make utensils and crude iron implements used in agriculture and forest operations and for wood cutting. They work as labourers to supplement their income. They are poorest among the tribal people.

Korwas

In 1961 they numbered 429. They are shy and try to be aloof from non-tribals. The advance of civilization has not shaken their primitive beliefs and habits. Both economically and socially they are extremely backward. They mainly subsist on forest produce and indulge in shifting cultivation wherever they can.

The Korwas are found in pargana Dudhi, especially along the Sarguja, where from they immigrated only within the last four or five generations. Their appearance is particularly wild and uncouth.

They do not pretend to be Hindus, and neither their religious nor social ceremonies are tainted in any degree with the intricate rituals of Hinduism. They worship as their tribal god raja Chandol in Phalguna and they are much beset by malignant ghosts.

Some of the Korwas still inhabit the hilly and jungly (forest) tracts and are as backward as ever, but a few have settled on the plains at the foot-hills and have taken to agriculture.

These men are dark brown in complexion, strongly-built and active. But the Korwas are, as a rule, better-looking than the Gonds and the Oraons. The women appear ground down by the hard work imposed upon them, stunted in growth, black, ugly, and wretchedly clad.

Patharis

Patharis who numbered 1,125 in 1961, are really a branch of the Majhwar tribe. The legend is that they and Majhwars have descended from seven brothers the youngest of whom was compelled by the six others to become the family priest. The word Pathari synonym with Pradhan, appears as a sept among whom it performs religious functions. Thus the Patharis still carry on the profession of the family priest of the Majhwars. Though the Patharis are the family priests of Majhwars, yet they are socially at a lower level. The Majhwars do not eat or drink with them. By virtue of their profession the Patharis are scattered over a large area and are looked upon down with contempt as beggars. They have no regular source of income and very rarely take up any permanent occupation, except the traditional ones. Like any aboriginal tribes, they are superstitious, endogamous and observe certain taboos in their social life in such spheres as marriage, occupation etc.

Ghasias

Ghasias are another Dravidian tribe of south Mirzapur. They numbered 3,125 in 1961. A legend makes them of common origin with Kols, Bhuiyars, and Santals. The word Ghasiya appears to mean a grass-cutter. The clear distinction that now prevails between them and the neighbouring tribes, appears to be of a comparatively modern growth, but unlike many of the kindred tribes, they have retained a complete set of totemistic septs. They call themselves Hindus, but their religion is of a very irregular type. Sometimes they worship Mahadeva, but the boundary deity, Siwana, Dulha Deo, and an obscure tribal godling

called "Chhat Baba or lord of the sixth" are among the objects of their reverence. They live in great fear of evil spirits. They employ Baigas for most of their ceremonies. As regards social status, they stand on a very inferior level, and are stated to be beef-eaters. They generally indulge in petty thefts, such as cattle lifting, etc.

In spite of their being economically backward, they very rarely take to professions requiring physical labour and generally work as grooms and keepers of elephants.

Parahiyas

The Parahiyas are a Dravidian tribe found in small numbers in Dudhi. In 1961 they numbered 441. The word is said to mean in Gondi 'burners of the jungle.'

They pretend to be Hindus but their worship is of a non-Aryan type, and is offered to the *dih* or a collection of village gods and to, a female deity called Sairi Devi, with sacrifices of fowls, goats, and burnt offerings (*hom*). The time for this worship is on a Monday in the month of Sawan or Baisakh. At the same time they worship deceased ancestors and propitiate Mother Earth (Dharti Mata) by pouring a little milk or liquor on the ground.

The Parahiyas make a living principally by cutting and selling wood and bamboo, and by collecting and exchanging forest produce such as lac. They are a miserable people living in small huts with little clan feeling.

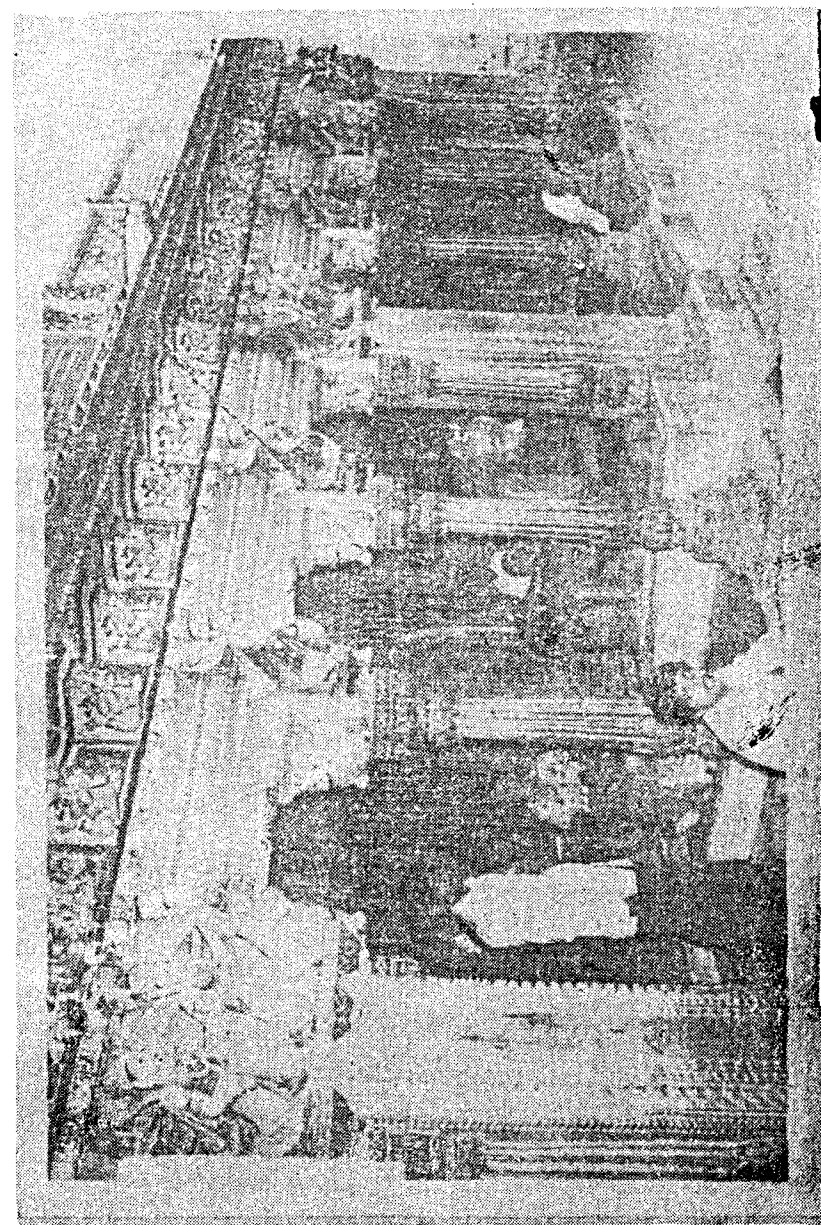
Muslim

The majority of the Muslims in the district belong to the Sunni sect. Among them the most numerous are the Julahas and Sheikhs. Julahas are found in fair numbers in all tahsils but are actually most numerous in the Mirzapur tahsil. Sheikhs are in the greatest strength in the same tahsil and, as usual, they belong for the most part to the Qureshi and Siddiqui subdivisions.

The remaining subdivisions, mostly occupational, are the Behnas, Darzis, Nais, and Faqirs, and are distributed over all the tahsils. The only Muslim caste which deserves detailed description is the Kingriya. They are a tribe of dancers and signers, the name being derived from *kingri*, a kind of two-stringed gourd on which they play. They are also known as Panwariyas, from *panwara* or the carpet on which they sit when they perform. They say that they came from a place in the west and settled in Bijaipur. They are Muslims of the Sunni sect and venerate Ghazi Mian, while some also make an occasional sacrifice to Kali Bhawani. They attend the houses of affluent Hindus and Muslims when a son is born and sing the *sohar* or song of rejoicing. Generally, they wander about from house to house begging and singing.

Christians

Their number in 1971 was 1,490, of whom 305 were residing in rural areas. They constitute only 0.10 per cent of the districts population.



Temple of Vindhyavasini Devi (Forecourt) Vindhyachal

Sikhs

The Sikhs numbered 1,370 including 594 females in 1971. Most of them are found in urban areas and are engaged in various trades and commerce.

Jains

In 1971, there were 678 Jains in the district out of whom 303 were females. They are usually called Sarogis.

Buddhists

In 1971, the Buddhists numbered 51 only. The majority of them were residing in rural areas.

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

Of Hindus—The term Hinduism is so elastic as to cover a number of sects and cults. Almost all the Hindus revere the Bahmanas and accept the authority of the Vedas and other ancient scriptures. Hindus venerate the cow. Another common feature of the sects of Hindus is the cult of rivers, of which the Ganga holds the first place. The practice of taking a holy dip in rivers is also common.

The religious beliefs of the Hindus of the district are similar to those of Hindus in other parts of the country. Mirzapur has some famous temples dedicated to deities which are centres of religious congregation and worship. Some people have a separate place for puja in their homes.

A well-known temple of Asht Bhuj is situated 4.8 km. in the west of Allahabad-Mirzapur road about 4.8 km. west from the headquarters. According to legend the Devi is the same whom Kans wanted to kill considering her to be the eighth progeny of Devki. Then the Devi herself told him (Kans) that Devki's eighth progeny was at Gokul and she was going to Vindhyachal. Thousands of people visit and worship this shrine every year during Chaitra and Asvina.

The famous temple at Vindhyachal is dedicated to Vindhyachal Devi. According to local legend, in ancient times the Vindhyachal Parvat was very high. Once the way of the sun-god was blocked due to the tremendous height of the hill. On this people became sad and fearing that half of the world will remain dark, approached Agastya Muni. On his arrival the hill bent to touch his feet. The Muni promised to bless it on his return and so the hill remained in the same position. Another legend says that there lived a great giant on the peak of the Vindhyachal hill. He meditated for many years and this Devi appeared before him and asked him to seek any boon. The giant asked her that except him nobody should worship her. Hence the giant founded the Devi's temple on the high peaks of the hill and worshipped her. People come from all parts of the country to offer prayers at the temple, particularly in Chaitra and Asvina.

Another temple is that of Garbara Devi in Garbara Gokul in Lalganj development block. Thousands of people of the district assemble there on the seventh day of bright half of Agradayana for worship.

The tribes of the district have their own peculiar religious rites and deities. Their religion is a curious mixture of animism, totemism, and crude polytheism. They treat the supernatural with more fear than reverence and perform various rituals to propitiate the gods and win their favour. In addition to worshipping Vishnu, Shiva, Rama, Hanuman, and other deities, the tribes also worship numerous village and jungle deities connected with the localities where they live. The chief god of the Kols is raja Lakhan. Some of them worship the Sun. They bow before Suraj Narayan or Sun when they leave their house in the morning.

The Majhwars worship Burha Deo or Ningo. The exorcism of evil spirits or devils, the discovery of witches and the like, are in the hands of the Baiga. They believe that all disease are due to evil spirits. The Kharwars worship Jualamukhi Devi and Raja Chandol. Pahar Pando is a sort of mountain-god of the Gonds and Dharkars. They worship Dulha Deo and the Panchon Pir also. It is also a feature of the religion of the tribal people that they worship the spirits of their ancestors and perform various rites to propitiate them.

Among all the Hindus of the district, ancestor worship is common practice. It has been customary to celebrate the death anniversary or *sradha* of ancestors. Offerings are made to the departed soul on certain occasions.

Fasts and Festivals

The orthodox Hindu has been a believer in fasts. Though the observance of fasts is not very popular now with the educated sections, it still has its hold on the orthodox sections of the community. Important fasts are those undertaken on the important festivals like Ram Naumi, Sivratri, and Janamastmi, etc. Discourses and recitations (*katha*) from religious books like the *Gita*, *Srimad Bhagwata*, and *Ramayana*, and collective singing of devotional hymns (*kirtan*) are also sometimes arranged privately and publicly. The illiterate and more backward sections of the community, on the other hand, indulge in various superstitious practices and in the propitiation of ghosts and spirits.

The series of Hindu festivals starts with Sheetla Asthmi, which falls on the 8th day of the first fortnight of Chaitra, the first month of the Hindu calendar, when the goddess Sheetla is worshipped.

Ram Navami which falls on the ninth day of the bright half of Chaitra, is celebrated as the birthday of Rama. Devotees fast on this day and the temples of Rama are beautifully decorated and illuminated at night. The *Ramayana* is recited in the temples.

Nag Panchmi is celebrated on the fifth day of the bright half of Sravana to propitiate *nagas* (serpent-gods). Offerings of milk, flowers, and rice are made to *nagas*. Women and girls sing kajaris (folk-songs). Swinging forms a customary part of this festival.

Raksha bandhan, associated with the Brahmanas, falls on the last day of Sravana. On this day, sisters in the family tie a *raksha-sutra* or *rakhi* (protective thread or cord) round the right wrist of their brothers as a token of protection they expect to receive from them.

Janamastmi falls on the 8th day of dark half of Bhadra and is celebrated to commemorate the birthday of Lord Krishna. The devotees fast the whole day, breaking it with the eating of *prasad* at midnight. Temples and small shrines in homes are specially decorated and *jhankies* are arranged depicting various phases of Krishna's life. Singing of devotional songs in praise of Krishna is a special feature of the festival.

The worship of Durga continues for nine days during the bright half of Asvina, known as *navratri*. During this period Ramlila celebrations are held at different places in the district. He-goats are sacrificed at the altar of the goddess Durga, the dreaded incarnation of Parvati on the tenth day, known as Dasahra, which marks the culmination of the festival. It commemorates the victory of Rama over Ravana. It symbolises the triumph of good over evil and reminds of the epic times when Lord Rama invoked the help of Durga, the war-goddess to defeat the demon-king Ravana.

The fourth day of the bright half of Kartika is known as Karva Chauth, when married women fast and worship at night when the moon is visible, for the well-being and long life of their husbands.

Dipavali or Diwali is one of the most important festivals of Hindus. This festival of lights falls on the last day of the dark half of Kartika. Festivities start two days earlier with Dhanteras. The birth day of Dhanvantari (the divine physician), when metal utensils are purchased as token of desired prosperity. The next day, on Narak Chaturdasi, a small earthen lamp (*diya*) is lit near the drain of the courtyard. On the main day of the festival every Hindu home is illuminated and the goddess Lakshmi is worshipped. Businessmen and traders close their yearly accounts on this day, and start their new fiscal year the next morning and pray for prosperity in it. This day has a special significance for Jains who also celebrate it as a festival because their twenty-fourth tirthankara Mahavir, attained nirvana on it. On the third day after Deepawali Bhaiya Dwaj is celebrated when ladies put mark (*tika*) on the foreheads of their brothers.

Kartiki Purnima, a bathing festival, falls on the full-moon day of Kartika, and attracts huge numbers of people to the banks of rivers, particularly the Ganga.

Sivaratri is celebrated in honour of Siva, and falls on the thirteenth day of Phalguna. A fast is observed during the day and a vigil is kept at night when the god is worshipped. The temples of Siva are specially decorated and the devotees offer water, flowers, rice, and *belpatras* (the leaves of the bael) to the icon, and devotional songs in praise of Siva are sung throughout the day.

Holi, the spring festival, falls on the last day of Phalguna. In the villages peoples start singing *phaags* (songs of Phalguna) during the nights of the month preceding the actual day of the festival. On the night of the festival big fires are lit at cross-roads of every town and village of the district, symbolising the annihilation of the forces of evil. The ears of newly harvested barley are roasted as offering to God. On the following day there is a common rejoicing when people throw coloured water and powder on each other and visit relations and friends, and exchange greetings. This festival is taking the shape of a national festival, being celebrated by all sects Sikhs, Muslims and Christians, excepting the ultra-orthodox.

The Scheduled Castes also celebrate all these festivals, and in addition processions on certain occasions connected with their forebears (Valmiki, Raidas etc.) are also arranged. The tribes also partially observe these festivals but often in a different manner. For example, the Bhuinyar and other tribes observe Holi but they do not burn the Holi fire, although they will attend it if the Hindus in the neighbourhood celebrate the festival. On this festival most of the tribes—especially Bhuinyars, offer a fire sacrifice (*hom*) and worship the sainted dead with an offering of fowls and liquor which they drink freely on these occasions.

Many tribes such as the Kols, etc., observe Nauratra. During this period they would get into an ecstatic state (*abhuana*), and some one would fall into a frenzy and screams out oracles.

The Kharwar's great festival comes in the middle of Bhadra, when a leafy branch of the *karam* tree is cut, daubed with red-lead and butter, and set up in the court-yard. This marks, as among the Oraons, the time for the transplanting of rice. The men and women dress in gala clothes, and place themselves into opposite rows. The drum is then beaten to the accompaniment of which they advance and retreat, and finally dance round the branch in a circle.

In Mirzapur the Bind festivals are the Pachainiyan, Tij, and Kajari. The last is the women's saturnalia in the rainy season, when women get drunk, dance, sing obscene songs, and indulge in rude debauchery, which on this occasion only is condoned by their husbands.

Inter-caste Relations

Inter-caste and inter-sub-caste relations are no longer very rigid. The dominant factor controlling the relations among various castes was the distinction between Savarnas (high caste Hindus) and Avarnas (low caste Hindus). The Brahmanas and the Kshatriyas were at the apex of the social hierarchy. The Chamars, sweepers, and the like etc, were considered as belonging to the lower strata of society and were prevented from having contacts with the higher castes. Inter-dining and inter-marriage were not looked upon with favour, and untouchability was observed on an extensive scale. Even among the members of the same caste there were factors which stood in the way of a free social intercourse. Some of the sub-castes claimed social superiority over the others and refused to have inter-marriage and inter-dining with those whom they considered as inferior to them.

Gradually, the restrictive influences on free relations between castes and sub-castes are breaking down. Several factors have contributed to this change. The work of social reformers, movements like the Ramkrishna Mission, and Arya Samaj, the growth of western education, the increasing pace of urbanisation, the rapid development of the means of communications, the advance in science and technology and the introduction of adult franchise are some of the factors which have contributed to the improvement in inter-caste relations in recent times. With the dawn of Independence and the declaration of untouchability as illegal, the social revolution entered a decisive phase.

Sikh—The important festivals of the Sikhs are the birthdays of their gurus, Nanak Dev, Teghbahadur, and Govind Singh, when processions are taken out and congregational prayers are held at *gurdwaras*. Portions from the *Granth* are read. The *Baissakhi* is another festival celebrated by them. Local fairs are held at *gurdwaras* on each occasion.

Jain—The Jains of the district celebrate the birth and nirvana anniversaries of Parshvanath and Mahavira, their twenty-third and twenty-fourth *tirthankaras* respectively. The other important festivals of the Jains are Paryushan, the last ten days of Bhadra, and Asthanika, falling on the last eight days of Kartika.

Buddhist—The principal festival of the Buddhists is the Buddha Purnima the day when the Buddha was born, got enlightenment, and attained nirvana. It falls on the last day of Vaisakha. On this occasion they worship in their temples and recite from Tripitaka.

Christian—The main festivals of the Christians are Christmas, the birth-day of Jesus Christ which falls on 25th December; Good Friday the day of Christ's crucifixion; Easter (which always falls on Sunday in March or April), the day of his resurrection; and New Year's Day which is the 1st of January. People attend services in churches and exchange greetings and presents. On Christmas eve scenes from the nativity of Christ are enacted and cribs are set up in the churches.

Muslim—The Muslims are noted for their religious fervour and are very punctual in going to their mosques for prayers. The Muslims strictly observe the five essentials of the religion, viz., the recital of the five daily prayers, the Ramzan fast, the duty of alms (*zakat*), and the *haj* or the pilgrimage to Mecca.

A brief account of the important festivals observed by the Muslims of the district (the occurrence of which corresponds with dates in the Islamic lunar calendar) is given below :

Barawafat, the birth day of the prophet Muhammad, is celebrated on the twelfth day of Rabi-ul-Awwal. On this occasion alms are distributed to the poor and people gather to listen to discourses (Maulud Sharif) on the life of the prophet.

Shab-e-Barat is celebrated on the night of the fourteenth day of Shaban. Prayers (*fatehas*) are offered by the people for the peace of the souls of their departed kin, and are usually recited or read over sweets and bread which are then distributed.

Id-ul-Fitr is celebrated on the first day of the month of Shawwal when thanks-giving prayers are offered for the successful completion of the fasts of the previous month of Ramadan. On this day Muslim men visit mosques for congregational prayers.

Id-uz-Zuha (or Bakra-Id) falls on the tenth day of the month of Zilhij to celebrate the occasion when the prophet Ibrahim submitted himself to the will of God. Men attend morning prayers in mosques and sheep and goats are sacrificed in God's name.

Giarhvin Sharif is a festival of special significance for the Sunnis of the district. It is observed on the eleventh day of the month of Rabi-us-Sani in honour of Abdul Qadir Jilani, an early Muslim divine of Baghdad, who is acclaimed as a descendant of the prophet Muhammad. Prayers, sweets, and flowers are offered in his memory on this occasion.

Muharram is observed by mourning on the first ten days of the month of the same name that commemorate the tragedy of Karbala which witnessed the martyrdom of Husain (the grandson of the prophet Muhammad) and his companions. Though this occasion has special significance for the Shias, the Sunnis of the district also take part in some of the observances. The *imambaras* are illuminated on the eighth and ninth days and *tazias* (replicas of the tombs of Imam Husain and Imam Hasan, generally made of coloured paper and bamboo) are taken out in procession separately by Shias and Sunnis on *ashra* (the tenth day).

In the district, fairs are also held at the tombs of prominent religious persons. These fairs are styled *urs* (anniversary). Fair of *urs* at Kantit is famous because Khwaja Ismail Chishti lies buried there. A list of important fairs held in the district is given in Statement II at the end of the chapter.

Manners and Customs

Each community and caste has its own peculiar customs and manners, though the external pattern of life of all communities is becoming almost uniform under the socio-economic stress of modern life. There is a prescribed ceremony for every important occasion in a person's life from birth to death in every community. Some of the ceremonies which are current among the Hindus are Namakaran, Vidya-rambha, Upnayan, *sradha*, etc. Namakaran, or the name-giving ceremony, is celebrated mostly within a month of the child's birth. Anna-prasan takes place when the child is five months old. This is the first feeding of the child with *khir* (made of rice and milk). Vidya-rambha or initiation into the letters of the alphabet, is gone through in the 3rd or 5th year of the child's life. Upnayan which is common among the Brahmanas is the investiture of the boy with the sacred thread. *sradha* is the annual ceremony of making offerings to the departed spirits of forefathers.

Among the Muslims, when a child is born a priest is called who recites in its ear the formula of the call to prayer.



Adivasi Woman

Some of the customs and manners of the tribes may also be mentioned here. Almost all the tribes observe certain taboos or restrictions connected with women in menses and with child-birth. As among others, women among the Kharwars and Agarigas are segregated during pollution. Some tribes refrain from hunting and engaging themselves in agricultural operations during the period of pollution connected with child-birth.

Funeral Ceremonies

The funeral ceremonies among all communities and most of their castes are more or less uniform throughout the State, with some minor local variations.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

Like the other districts of the State, Mirzapur has patrilineal system of inheritance. The succession to and inheritance of property other than agricultural holdings, among the Hindus, Sikhs, Jains and, Buddhists are being governed by the Hindu Succession Act, 1956. The Muslims are governed by their own laws and the Christians are governed by the Indian Succession Act, 1925. Before the enforcement of the U.P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, (Act No. 1 of 1951), right to inherit tenancy rights in agricultural land was exercisable according to the provisions of the U.P. Tenancy Act, 1939, and of proprietary rights by the personal law of the individual concerned.

Joint Family System—In this district, as elsewhere in the State, the joint family system—a distinctive feature of Hindu society, is breaking down due to certain economic and social factors, such as the impact of modern ideas and the individualistic outlook of the younger generation. The pattern of the family is patriarchal, and consequently most of the women are dependent on their menfolk for maintenance and protection. Only a few of them are economically independent and earn their own living. This system is breaking down in villages, too, as the village-folk are being allured by urban life.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS

Monogamy and Polygamy

The people of the district have generally followed monogamy but polygamy was not unknown. Polygamy was practised by the economically well-off persons, particularly by former zamindars. Though according to religious laws a Muslim can have four wives at a time, only a minority of Muslims seem to have kept four wives. The Christians strictly followed and still follow monogamy. Monogamy is the general rule among the tribes, but polygamy is also popular, and a plurality of wives is considered to be a sign of wealth. Bhuiyas and Bhuinyars may have as many wives as they can buy with the bride-price and can support. All of them, if possible, live in different rooms in the same house. The

senior wife is held in special respect and gets more jewellery and better clothes than her juniors. She alone represents the women of the family at social celebrations. In recent times enlightened legislation and public opinion have brought about a monogamous society. The legal responsibility of maintaining the wife and children also made polygamous marriages less attractive to Hindus like the Brahmanas and the Khatris. Legislative enactments of the government have also played a part in encouraging a shift towards monogamy. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, prohibits polygamy and makes it a penal offence for Hindus including Jains, Buddhists and Sikhs.

Polyandry

Polyandry was prevalent in ancient times among isolated Hindu communities in exceptional circumstances. The custom of one woman having several husbands no more exists. Even among tribes like the Bhuiyars and others polyandry is prohibited, and it is looked upon with such horror by them that it seems impossible to believe that it could ever have been a tribal institution.

Traditional Restrictions on Marriage Alliances

Marriage alliances among communities and their castes are subject to certain traditional restrictions based on caste and the degree of relationship between the parties. Marriage alliances are usually entered into with the members of the community and their castes. Nevertheless there have been exceptions to this rule. Among almost all castes and communities marriage between near blood-relations is also prohibited. That blood cannot mate with blood is an accepted dictum. The Brahmanas are divided into a number of endogamous subdivisions or *gotras* which cannot inter-marry. The cases of marriage with a daughter of a maternal uncle or paternal aunt are often found. The tribes also observe certain restrictions in this respect. Most of them prefer to marry locally and within the tribe. With the spread of education and urbanisation these restrictions are gradually disappearing. Now inter-caste and inter-religion marriages also take place and the government is encouraging such marriages to secure national integration.

Marriage Customs and Rituals

Among the Hindus of the district, as elsewhere in the State, marriage is regarded as a sacrament, its rites being prescribed in the scriptures and to some extent by customs and traditions. Though the parents arrange the marriage, yet the parties concerned have the right of selection of the bride or the bridegroom as the case may be. Among marriage customs and rituals the main are the ceremonies of *bhanwar* (or *saptapadi* literally seven steps) and *kanyadan* (giving away the daughter). Among most of the tribes the parents of the bridegroom have to pay bride-price.

Among the Muslims marriage is, however, a civil contract, and any Muslim who has attained puberty, may enter into such a contract. But a marriage without the consent of the concerned parties is void. The ceremonies include *sagai* or *mangni* (asking for the bride) which takes place just after the settlement of the match. *Nikah*, the chief marriage ceremony, is performed at the bride's house by Qazi who, after obtaining the consent of both the contracting parties through their two agents, reads the *khutab*.

Among the Christians, the marriage is governed by the Indian Christian Marriage Act, 1872, as amended in 1952. The marriage customs usually follow the same general pattern in the district as elsewhere in the State. A marriage is contracted either by the parties concerned directly or by their parents and relatives. The banns are published three times (once each week) by the priest of the church where the marriage is to be solemnised, in order to invite objections, if any. On the fixed date the marriage ceremony is performed in the church by the pastor. The main items of the ceremony are the taking of marriage vows by the bride and the bridegroom, the placing of the wedding-ring by the groom on the bride's finger (sometimes the two exchange rings), the pronouncement of the couple as husband and wife by the pastor and finally, the signing of the marriage register by the couple and a witness. Wedding festivities then usually follow.

The important ceremonies in a Sikh marriage are the recitations of extracts from the *Granth* and the circling the holy book by the couple several times.

In a Jain marriage, the sacred hymns from the scriptures are recited and puja of their deities is performed, besides the observance of some of the Hindu rites.

Dowry System

The dowry system (*stridhan*) has existed among all the communities in the district in some form or other. The dowry is usually paid in the form of cash, property, and jewellery. In spite of the attempts of modern social reformers to do away with dowry, the evil still persists. The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, provides that giving, taking, and demanding of dowry are offences punishable under law. The institution of dowry is deep-rooted in the present-day society. An enlightened public opinion and co-ordinated efforts on the part of the government can bring about its complete abolition.

A system of bride price is prevalent among most of the tribes in the district. In this system a nominal amount is paid to the parents or a relative of the bride.

Civil Marriage—The vast majority of marriages among all communities are solemnized according to their respective personal laws at their homes, temples and churches. People generally avoid civil marriage. They resort to it only when a marriage under personal law becomes impossible. Love marriages, inter-caste marriages and inter sub-caste marriages are registered by the parties concerned when parents of both the parties, or of either of them, raise objections to the marriage. One civil marriage was registered in the district in 1975.

Marital Age

Marriage before puberty was at one time prevalent among most of the communities, especially among the lower strata of society. In recent years all the communities have changed their old view in regard to marital age. Mature marriage is now the rule rather than the exception. The disseminations of education and the rapid growth of population have contributed to it. Legislative enactments of recent years have also helped in effecting this change. The Special Marriage Act, 1954, has fixed the minimum age for marriage at 21 for males and 18 for females.

The distribution of population by marital status and by sex as per the census of 1971 is given below :

Age group	Total population	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced		Unspecified	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0-9	4,71,090	2,44,366	2,26,724	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10-14	1,89,020	99,539	60,295	4,450	25,196	—	—	—	—	50	90
15-19	1,11,014	25,260	8,988	36,531	39,709	245	866	—	—	105	10
20-24	1,19,005	8,120	1,158	45,825	62,567	590	590	20	—	45	90
25-29	1,16,556	3,015	405	57,194	53,803	1,094	875	30	20	80	50
30-34	1,03,203	980	125	57,802	41,166	1,140	1,685	110	60	85	50
35-39	1,01,706	720	65	47,249	50,917	1,225	1,175	175	60	40	80
40-44	77,816	630	185	36,917	33,449	1,520	4,855	100	30	70	60
45-49	61,236	455	205	32,469	22,732	1,495	3,590	120	20	100	50
50-54	53,813	300	170	22,722	16,896	2,507	11,013	65	60	20	60
55-59	38,797	220	75	18,952	13,000	2,119	4,176	100	45	50	60
60-64	40,149	215	195	17,746	13,446	2,940	5,502	10	35	10	50
65-69	35,513	110	60	16,151	8,980	1,422	8,765	20	10	25	20
70 +	21,492	185	—	11,034	1,156	2,780	6,337	—	—	—	—
Age not stated	68	21	47	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	15,41,038	8,84,136	2,98,497	4,05,042	3,82,967	19,077	48,929	750	340	680	670

It will be seen from the above mentioned statement that about 44 per cent of the population was unmarried, and that the remaining 56 per cent consisted of 51 per cent married and 5 per cent widowed or divorced persons. The difference between percentages of married males and females was insignificant. Among the widowed persons the number of females was greater than that of the males but the case was reverse among the divorced persons. The distribution of unmarried persons in the various age-groups shows that there was no child marriage in the district. The number of married males was highest in the age-group between 30-34 and that among females between 20-24 years.

Marriage of Widows

Widow marriage is now sanctioned by law, but till recently by the custom was not generally favoured particularly, among some of the Hindu castes, such as the Brahmanas. Consequently, a widow had to remain unmarried till her death. The Agariyas recognise levirate but do not permit widow marriage. Levirate is the custom of marrying the deceased brother's wife. Among Bhuiyas widow marriage is permitted and levirate is strictly enforced. But only a younger brother can marry the deceased brother's wife. Among the Christians and Muslims the marriage of a widow has all along been allowed.

Divorce—Divorce, though permitted by law, is not a matter of common occurrence among the people. Marriage is usually celebrated with solemnity by all communities and their castes and the couples try their best to keep the vow of being united. However, it cannot be said that divorce is unknown in the district. People are generally averse to it. The applications for divorce filed in courts were 2 each by women in 1971 and 1972, one by a woman and three by men in 1973 and in 1974, and two by women and one by a man in 1975. In 1971 only two divorces were permitted, and one each was permitted in 1973 and in 1975. The figures are in no way alarming but they cannot be taken as an index of the incidence of divorce because several cases of desertion of wives by husbands have been noticed, particularly among the backward sections of the community. Among tribal people divorce is somewhat common. Habitual infidelity on the part of either husband or wife is a ground for divorce, but the fact must be proved to the satisfaction of the tribal council.

Economic Dependence of Women and Their Place in Society

In the past, the economic dependence of women was proverbial. Women were subject to social handicaps that usually went with their sex. In recent times women have successfully freed themselves from many restrictions and have become active in various fields. Many are employed as teachers, clerks, and typists. They also figure prominently in politics and the learned professions. These are some of the signs of the growing economic independence of women. Among the poorer classes women work in large numbers as daily labourers, agricultural and industrial workers, and thus supplement the family income.

Traffic in Women

Though with the enforcement of the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956, in the district, its red-light areas have ceased to exist, yet this social evil has not been stamped out completely. Instead, these activities have shifted to clandestine places in the city. Similarly immoral traffic in women, particularly among young girls from rural areas is also continuing. There is no local social institution for removing this vice. Often regional officers make surprise raid on these areas and action is taken against the prostitutes. In 1976, 13 prosecutions were made under this Act.

The Public Gambling Act, 1867 (Act No. 3 of 1867) as applicable to the State under the Uttar Pradesh Public Gambling Acts of 1952 and 1961 prohibits gambling in the district. The number of prosecutions under this Act was 76 in 1974, 67 in 1975, and 77 in 1976.

HOME LIFE

The statement III at the end of the chapter shows the Classification of households according to their size and tenure status in the districts.

Types of Dwellings—There is a vast difference between the shape, size, and durability of residential buildings found in the rural and urban areas of the district.

In villages, small one storeyed houses are common. The walls are generally constructed of mud, plastered inside and outside with clay, and bearing roofs of tiles, slate, and shingle. In 1971, about 84 per cent of the rural houses had mud walls and 75.6 of them had roofs of tiles, slate and shingle. The facilities and accommodation in the houses of the lower classes are, however, awfully meagre. They are generally small, windowless, single roomed houses thatched with grass and leaves. The floors of the houses are generally level with the ground and the entire construction is of a very poor type. In the areas where community development schemes have been implemented, ventilators, bathing platforms, improved cattle sheds, better drainage, etc. can be seen. Though covered area is scanty, a court-yard is a must. The entire accommodation is multi-purpose with very little privacy for individual life.

In the towns, one generally comes across pucca house which are built with burnt bricks and lime, and have cement plastering. Tiles are used for most of the roof material in urban areas. Generally speaking, durable materials are used in the construction of houses in urban areas. Stone is widely used for roof. Steel suspensions are fast replacing the wooden beams. The houses consist of several apartments, each for a specific purpose and provided with adequate ventilation and ingress.

Furnitures and Decorations—In rural areas string-cots, *lakhats*, *chaukies* and mats are common items of furniture. Kitchen ware consist of brass, aluminium and iron utensils. Glass vessels are rarely used. People in these areas decorate walls with caricatures in dark colours. Printed images of deities framed or otherwise are used for decoration. Most of the houses in urban areas possess all sorts of modern furnishings, items of furnitures, kitchen wares mostly of stainless steel, crockery, and decorative pieces. The quality of these things depends on

the income of the family. The items of furniture are made either of wood or steel. The doors and windows of houses are provided with curtains. Radio-sets and flower-pots are kept as decorations in every drawing-room.

Dress—Shadows cast by life in urban areas have brought about significant changes in the living pattern of rural people, influencing their clothing habits. The impact of western culture and contact with the rest of the country has in recent times brought about a more or less uniform pattern of dressing among the progressive sections of all communities and castes. The formal dress of a Hindu is a long coat or waist-coat and that of Muslims is a *sherwani* or *achkan*. Sari, blouse and petticoat-trio is the most favourite dress of ladies of both urban and rural areas. The Punjabi women, however, put on *salwar*, *kurta* and *dupatta*. In towns traditional dresses of women are being replaced by modern dresses like shirts and slacks, *sharara* and *garara* with *kurta* and *dupatta*. The wardrobe of well-to-do townfolk consists of various items of western dress. The shirt is usually tucked underneath the trousers. Men wear loose pants, bell-bots, and other western dresses.

The urban women use cosmetics such as face-powder, lipstick, eyebrow pencils and many other such items. The Muslim women use *surma* to enhance their beauty.

Ornaments—Men usually do not wear ornaments except rings on fingers or sometimes a gold chain round the neck. Women have a craze for ornaments. They wear different types of ornaments on the ear, nose, wrist, and round the waist and neck according to their status. Married women wear *bichhua*.

Fashions in ornaments have undergone a great change in recent years. Most of the old types of ornaments have now disappeared, and even if they exist are only objects of curiosity. The emphasis now is on a few simple ornaments having less weight and an artistic finish. Fashionable ladies these days wear only a gold necklace with a pendant round their necks, a pair of studs or ear-rings, and a pair of gold bracelets or bangles on the right wrist with a watch on the left one. Nevertheless some sections of the middle and lower classes still load the wrist with bangles of gold, glass or plastic. On important occasions like marriage women still put on more than their usual ornaments.

Food—The pattern of food habits of the people throughout the district is more or less the same, though there are minor variations in detail among the various communities. The staple food of the district is rice, wheat, gram, and other millets. The pulses consumed are *urd*, *arhar*, *moong* and gram.

In general, both in the urban and rural areas, in addition to the morning breakfast and afternoon tiffin, the people take two regular meals a day. Breakfast consists of milk or tea and *chapati* or *paratha*. *Gur* and sugar are the chief sweetening agents. Among edible fats *ghee*, vegetable oil, and mustard oil are commonly used. Consumption of fresh vegetables and fruits is increasing. Some people eat meat, fish, and eggs too. People are fond of spices, pickles and *chutneys*.

Amusements and Festivities

Several amusements and festivities which are common to the people in all parts of the State are prevalent in this district as well. In villages fairs, festivals, religious and social functions are the main occasions when the rural folk can enjoy a change from the daily routine of life. The people look for recreation during the rainy season and on winter nights, when they are comparatively free. They sing, *kajri*, *alha*, *holi*, *rasia* and devotional hymns to the accompaniment of handy musical instrument like *dholak*, *manjira*, and often harmonium too. Some people have transistor sets, and radios.

Ramlila, Raslila, *nautanki*, *kirtan*, and dramas are only occasional sources of recreation. Fairs, exhibitions, and cultural programmes also serve this purpose. Yuvak Mangal Dal and Pradeshik Vikas Dal arrange sports competitions. Youth clubs also arrange programmes of *kirtan*, folk-song, and playing of flute, harmonium. Folk-dances are also arranged.

Among the tribes of the district the only means of recreation are folk-dances of which the Karma dance is very popular. Through dance they strive to relieve the tedium of the day and enjoy life.

In urban areas a visit to a cinema-house provides ample pastime. Radio is also a means of present day recreation. The following table shows the number, the location of cinema-houses, and the number of seats in each :—

Name of Cinema	Location	Number of seats
Dwarka	Gurhath (Mirzapur)	381
Alpana	Bundelkhandi (Mirzapur)	468
Prabhat	Narghat (Mirzapur)	518
Naveen	Chattarsal Road (Mirzapur)	568
Natraj	Laldiggi (Mirzapur)	832
Tulsi	Mirzapur	700
Bijaygarh	Robarts Ganj	604

Besides, there are temporary cinema-houses one each in Chunar, Pipri, and Obra. Circus shows are also often held every year or two.

PUBLIC GAMES AND RECREATION CLUBS

The traditional games of the district are somewhat similar to those of the other parts of the State. These include *kabaddi*, *rope-pulling*, *kho kho* wrestling and archery. Swimming is also taught in the district.

Among modern games volleyball, football, cricket, and badminton are played in the district. Carrom, ludo, chess are some of the indoor games played in the district. Newspaper reading is also a popular pastime with the masses in the district.

There are five clubs known as City Club, Bengali Clubs, the Lion's Club, the Persian Club and the Rifle Club in the district. Besides, there are 190 youth clubs which had 2,984 active members in 1926.

COMMUNAL LIFE

Pilgrim Centres

Vindhyachal is the most famous pilgrim centre of the district where people from all over India come to worship Vindhyachal Devi especially in the month of Chaitra and Asvina. A great fair is held here on the 9th day of bright half of Asvina and Chaitra.

Communal Dances

In this district a particular type of dance, known as Karma dance, is most popular among the *adivasis* (aboriginal tribes). These tribals went to live in isolation and avoid mixing with the people. Their aim is to enjoy life to the fullest extent with drink and dance. At every function they sacrifice animals and feast and carouse dance, forgetting the woes and cares of the world. The Karma dance is prevalent among them from very old times.

IMPACT OF ABOLITION OF ZAMINDARI SYSTEM ON SOCIAL LIFE

The most far reaching social change in recent times is the rise of the new economic and professional classes into greater prominence in public life. Till a few decades ago the caste status enjoyed by a person together with the size of the landed property owned by him determined his prestige and standing in society. Both these factors were closely interrelated as most of the land-owners were also caste Hindus. In recent times such new factors as the spread of western education and liberal ideas, the large-scale entry of the so-called low-caste Hindus into the public services, adult franchise, the growth of industrialisation, the increasing pace of urbanization, etc., have led to the weakening of the hold of the caste-system. The possession of vast landed property is no longer looked upon as a mark of aristocracy. Many youngsters of old zamindars prefer to leave their village homes and to settle in the urban areas where they are influenced by new values and ideals of life. The introduction of tenancy reforms, safeguarding the interests of the tenants has also taken away from the well-to-do persons the incentive to invest their savings in landed properties. Abolition of bonded labour has given great relief to the agricultural labourer. The cultivator today enjoys better living conditions than before.

Improvement in the various means of transport and communication has brought the cultivator nearer to the market, giving him the opportunity of striking a better bargain for his produce. The money-lenders of the past who charged excessive interest have fallen upon lean times, as credit facilities have been made available to the cultivators at reasonable rates of interest through co-operative societies and similar institutions.

With the decline in the prestige values of castes and landed property, status has come to be associated with new professional and economic classes such as lawyers, engineers, industrialists, businessmen, etc. New values and incentives based on industry and commerce have taken the place of the old values and incentives based on land-holding. The fascination for learned professions and salaried government jobs has increased considerably, and this has induced the junior members of most of the old aristocratic families to take to modern education and qualify themselves for entering different professions and government service. Even if the income derived from the practice of the professions or from employment in government departments is merely adequate, there is a decided preference for such income to that derived from land and agriculture.

STATEMENT I
Area and Population

Reference Page no. 58

District and tahsil	Area		Population			
	Square km.		1961		1971	
			Persons	Males	Females	Persons
District	Total	11,042.2	15,41,088	8,09,685	7,31,403	12,49,653
	Rural	10,986.9	13,55,703	7,05,068	6,50,635	11,05,926
Urban	Total	55.3	1,85,385	1,04,617	80,768	1,43,727
	Rural	1,647.5	3,74,779	1,95,433	1,79,346	3,07,420
Chunar	Total	1,642.1	3,53,089	1,84,001	1,69,085	2,88,137
	Rural	5.4	21,693	11,432	10,261	19,283
Robarts Ganj	Total	3,647.5	3,72,180	1,97,020	1,75,160	2,75,462
	Rural	3,619.7	3,42,887	1,78,467	1,64,420	2,68,878
Urban	Total	27.8	29,293	18,553	10,740	6,584
	Rural	3,508.7	1,91,774	1,01,830	89,944	1,56,379
Dudhi	Total	3,490.0	1,70,424	88,049	82,375	1,44,472
	Rural	18.7	21,350	13,781	7,569	11,907
Mirzapur	Total	3,359.5	6,02,355	3,15,402	2,86,953	5,10,392
	Rural	3,315.5	4,89,306	2,54,551	2,34,755	4,04,439
Urban	Total	44.0	1,13,049	60,851	52,198	1,05,953
	Rural					

Reference Page no. 58

Reference Page No. 78

Note—(1) There has been no jurisdictional change in the district during the decade. The difference in area figures is due to the revised calculations of area done in the board of revenue.

(2) According to the central Statistical organisation, the area of the district was 11,301 sq. km. 1971.

MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

CH. III—PEOPLE

STATEMENT II

Fairs

Place	Name of fair or its association with	Period	Average daily attendance
TAHSIL MIRZAPUR			
Ast-Bhuja	Asht-Bhuja Devi	Asvina, <i>sukla</i> Chaitra, <i>sukla</i>	—
Bedeona Chhauhry	Mahadeoji	Pausa, <i>krishna</i>	1,000
Bhogaon	Kartiki Purnima	Kartika, <i>sukla</i> 15	500
Bhogaon	Makar Sankranti	January 14	500
Chak Jokhan	Makar Sankranti	January 14	500
Chandika	Makar Sankranti	January 14	500
Dewapur Pachwal	Mataji	Agrahayana, <i>sukla</i> 7	500
Garbara Gokul	Deviji	Agrahayana, <i>sukla</i>	1,000
Kachhwa	Dasahra	Asvina, <i>sukla</i> , 10	1,000
Kantit	Urs	Rajjab 6	5,000
Kotar	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	1,000
Kushaha	Gajanand Mahadeo	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	—
Larwak	Sarnath	Sravana (every monday) Asvina, <i>sukla</i> , 10	1,000
Lonhdi Kalan	Lonhdi Mahabir	Sravana (every Saturday)	—
Mirzapur-cum-Vindhyachal (M.B.)			
TAHSIL CHUNAR			
Arazi line Sultanpur	Shitla Devi	Chaitra, <i>sukla</i> 1-9	3,000
Bhuili	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	4,000
Dargah Sharif	Dargah Sharif	Every Thursday	1,000
Diehhitpur	Shiv Shankar	Chaitra, <i>sukla</i> 1-9	3,000
Dumduma	Ram Sarowar	Phalguna, <i>sukla</i> , 2-12	8,000
Pasiahi	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	1,000
Rajgarh	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana, <i>sukla</i> , 15	2,000
TAHSIL ROBARTS GANJ			
Baraila	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	2,000
Baraila	Yasanta Panchami	Magha, <i>sukla</i> 5	1,200

1	2	3	4
Barhda	Vasanta Panchami	Magha, <i>sukla</i> , 5	5,000
Deorimaideora	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	2,000
Gauri Shankar	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	7,200
Ketar	Vasanta Panchami (Nala Raja-ka-Mela)	Magha, <i>sukla</i> 5	2,200
Khem Pur	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	2,000
Kon	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	2,000
Kuriari	Rama Nayami	Chaitra, <i>sukla</i> 9	200
Patna	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	1,800
Robarts Ganj	Dasahra	Asvina, <i>krishna</i> 1-10	250
Rorwa	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	1,500
TANSIL DUDHI			
Aundi	Mahabir Mela	Kartika, <i>sukla</i> 14	10,000
Birar	Siva Mela	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13-14	3,000
Deori	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	4,000
Ghiuhi	Sivaratri	Phalguna, <i>krishna</i> 13	8,000
Hirachak (Shahpur)	Kanhar	Magha, <i>krishna</i> 13-14	10,000

STATEMENT III
The Classification of Households according to their Size and Tenure Status in the District

Total District		Total no. of census house holds	Tenure status		Households having number of persons					No. of persons unspecified
					One persons	Two persons	Three persons	Four persons	Five persons	
Rural	Urban									
District	total		Owned and rented		20,650	28,895	32,255	38,675	40,210	680
			Owned		14,540	25,050	29,125	35,995	37,955	575
			Rented		6,110	3,845	3,130	2,680	2,255	105
Rural	total		Owned and rented		14,375	23,005	27,885	34,385	35,800	480
			Owned		12,500	22,660	26,945	33,305	35,150	440
			Rented		1,815	1,245	940	920	710	40
Urban	total		Owned and rented		6,275	4,990	4,370	4,390	4,350	200
			Owned		1,980	2,390	2,180	2,630	2,805	135
			Rented		4,295	2,600	2,190	1,760	1,545	65

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CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

LAND UTILISATION AND RECLAMATION

Mirzapur is not agriculturally rich, like the other districts of Varanasi Division, because of its physical features and frequent droughts. In 1970-71 an area of 3,68,889 hectares was under cultivation, whereas 1,19,286 hectares was culturable waste and 78,840 hectares was unfit for cultivation.

The statement below compares the area of land utilisation in the district during the last three decades :

Utilisation purposes	Area in (thousand) hectares		
	1951	1961	1971
Total geographical area	955	1,181	1,272
Area under forest	72	391	512
Area not available for cultivation (water)	174	142	179
Other uncultivated area excluding current fallows	331	216	181
Current fallows	83	95	31
Total cultivated area	338	453	476
Net cultivated area	295	337	369
Area cropped more than once	93	116	107

Cultivable Waste—The area falling under this category includes the land under groves, forests pastures and also that prepared for the cultivation of sugar-cane or left fallow.

Limits of profitable cultivation have never been reached due to adverse conditions in the district. From 1885 to 1897 the average culturable land was 41.02 per cent, the actual extent being 2,59,868 hectares. Most of it was of a poor quality, especially that in the villages which lie in the Vindhyan plateau. Taking culturable waste and old fallow land together, the highest proportion was 33.84 per cent of the total area in Roberts Ganj, followed by 33.75 per cent in tahsil Mirzapur and 27.25 per cent in tahsil Chunar. In 1911 the area measured only 3,19,349 hectares, and in 1921 it was 3,63,834 hectares but fell to 3,38,770 hectares in 1931. The area fit for cultivation but not actually cultivated decreased during this decade, perhaps due to extension of the cultivated area in the district. In 1961-62, the culturable area was 1,37,793

hectares which further decreased to 1,19,286 hectares in 1971-72. Pastures measured 3,953 hectares and groves 37,577 hectares in the same year. The area of current fallow land was 31,587 hectares and that of other fallow land was 60,732 hectares.

Reclamation of Culturable Waste—No schemes for permanent reclamation of waste land in the district have been implemented. But decreasing figures of culturable waste show that more and more land is being brought under the plough. In 1970-71, only 60 per cent of the land was cultivated, which increased to 64 per cent in 1974-75.

Soil Conservation and Reclamation of Land

Land development through soil conservation measures is vital to successful agriculture. Wind and rain water are the main agents of soil erosion, which is further accentuated by deforestation and excessive grazing. The problem assumed alarming dimensions in the catchment areas of rivers.

Rainfall is uncertain and its distribution is unequal and untimely. The surface of the land is rocky and hence water flows into rivers and nullahs. In a short time the moisture of the soil vanishes. The land is mostly slopy and the fertile layer of the soil is washed away in the water.

Mirzapur is one of the six districts which are always affected by soil erosion which is a great hurdle in the way of agricultural programmes. Consequently, low production of food-grains, accumulation of soil in reservoirs and *bundhis*, lack of moisture in land and low level of underground water create conditions of drought. For an increase in production and the durability of reservoirs the soil conservation programme is very essential.

An area of 3,30,000 hectares is affected by soil erosion. The most affected tahsil are Dudhi, Roberts Ganj, and Chunar.

The soil conservation programme was started for the first time in 1957-58 by establishing a unit at the district headquarters. In 1959-60, dry farming scheme was taken up in the Chopan development block. In 1963-64, under the Rihand Rehabilitation Scheme soil conservation programme was taken up for improving the land which was distributed to displaced persons. Under this scheme cultivable land was conserved till 1967-68.

Under the Third Five-year Plan three additional soil conservation units were established and nine units were established in 1968-69. The total number of units functioning in the district in 1975-76 was 13. Since 1973-74 soil conservation programme is implemented in the form of integrated programme. The work of the levelling of land is chiefly undertaken with a view to facilitate irrigation. Small *bundhis* are constructed with the main aim of storing rain water for utilization when needed.

Till January 1977, an area of 2,13,593 hectares was conserved by various measures undertaken in the district. The following statement shows the year-wise progress since the Second Five-year Plan up to 1977.

Plan period/year	Target of soil conservation (in hectares)	Achievement (in hectares)
Second Five-year Plan	2,500	4,062
Third Five-year Plan	18,000	31,992
First annual Plan (1966-67)	7,500	7,920
Second annual Plan (1967-68)	10,000	11,947
Third annual Plan (1968-69)	10,000	11,533
Fourth Five-year Plan	1,22,200	1,24,379
Fifth Five-year Plan (up to 1975-76) (1976-77)	6,450	8,280
	5,000	2,495
Total	1,81,650	2,02,633

Cultivated Area

From 1885 to 1897 the average area under the plough in parts of the district excluding family domains was 5,87,240 acres, or 38.22 per cent of the total area. The area shows considerable fluctuations from year to year. These are due to the varying characteristics of the upland and lowland tracts; for, while in the alluvial plain of the Ganga, cultivation is on the whole constant, the parganas lying on the table-land are wholly dependent on the monsoon, any irregularity of which is at once reflected in large areas of fallow. During this period the highest recorded acreage was 6,30,978 acres in 1894, a season of regular and heavy rainfall, while at the other extreme was the year 1897, when only 3,85,808 acres were under the plough. In 1905 it advanced beyond 6,00,000 acres; and the decennial average from 1898 to 1907 amounts to 5,58,617 acres or 35 per cent of the total area. The state of development in the various parganas varied likewise with their natural characteristics.

The statement below shows the decennial figures of cultivated area from 1901 to 1971 :

Year	Area in hectares
1901	2,84,428
1911	3,87,537
1921	3,06,035
1931	3,43,275
1941	3,58,188
1951	3,88,565
1961	4,52,912
1971	4,70,040

Double Cropped Area

Double cropping is practised in the district to a considerable extent. From 1885 to 1897 the area bearing two harvests in the year averaged 95,466 acres or 16.25 per cent of the net cultivation. The acreage ranged from 58,898 acres in 1897 to the high figure of 1,52,080 acres in 1894. During the next ten years the average rose to 1,13,026 or 20.23 per cent; and although the high figure of 1894 was not exceeded in seven years out of the ten, the double cropped area rose well above 1,00,000 acres. The proportion was the highest in Chunar. In 1961 the area sown more than once was 1,15,980 hectares, which decreased to 1,07,152 hectares in 1971.

IRRIGATION

This district with varying topography, and without perennial rivers except the Ganga in the north, presents a unique challenge for providing irrigation facilities. The portion of the district which lies in the Gangetic valley is well provided with the means of irrigation one of the reasons for its comparative immunity from famine. In upland tracts little irrigation is done except in the water-logged strip of country below the Kaimurs; while in the Sonpar tract there has always been a dearth of water for human consumption, and consequently a very small area alone is irrigated. Actual figures for irrigation in the district are available from 1885 onwards. For the ten years ending in 1897, the average area irrigated was 47,111 acres or 8.38 per cent of the net cultivation, the maximum being 62,083 acres or 11.11 per cent in 1895-96, and the minimum being 28,085 acres or 4.78 per cent in the preceding year before. For the succeeding decade from 1898 to 1907, the irrigated area averaged 78,720 acres or 14.19 per cent of that cultivated area.

In 1975-76, only 27 per cent of the cultivated area was irrigated in the district. Out of the total irrigated area only 80 per cent is irrigated by government sources, while 20 per cent is irrigated by private sources. Among government sources canals form the chief source of irrigation, whereas among private sources wells, including tube-wells, figure prominently. Canals are dependent on rainfall, which is erratic and uncertain and its distribution throughout the year is unequal.

Means of Irrigation

State irrigation in the district comprised 1,062 km. of canals, 20 lift-pumps, 24 *bundhis* and 145 tube-wells. The following statement shows the extent of area irrigated from different sources in 1961-62 and in 1971-72 :

Reservoirs	Tank, lakes and ponds	Year	Area irrigated from wells (hectares)	Area irrigated from tube-wells (hectares)	Area irrigated by canals (hectares)	Area irrigated from other sources (hectares)
6	3,448	1961-62	5,047	2,835	55,902	14,103
16	2,989	1971-72	8,642	6,411	73,124	8,558

Sinking of wells is expensive. On the Vindhyan plateau, except in Bahar and Bijaigarh, the wells are for the most part shallow catchment pits, which seldom retain water throughout the year. The few that have a perennial supply of water have been sunk to great depths through the solid rocks at an enormous expense. The depth at which subsoil water is found beyond the Son varies greatly at different places. In Dudhi the deepest well is some 14 metres, while the shallowest has only a depth of 1.5 metres. The cost of constructing a well varies with the depth of water. The expense incurred on an earthen well is of course very small compared with that on a masonry well, but few such are ever sunk, the district being unsuited to them. In 1907-08, the number of wells in the district available for irrigation was 22,249. Of these 19,600 were actually used for irrigation. The season of 1907-08 was one of severe drought in the uplands of Mirzapur, so that the irrigating capacities of the district were probably tested to the utmost. A total area of 1,18,629 acres was recorded as irrigated from wells in that year, and this area in those circumstances might be considered as a maximum.

Till recently the soil stratum of the district was not deemed fit for the construction of tube-wells. Since the fifties of this century the government has taken up private irrigation works, generally classed as the minor irrigation works in the district.

At the end of 1975-76 there were 45 tube-wells out of which 140 wells were energised. The tahsils of Mirzapur and Chunar receive the most benefit from these. Blocks Majhwa, Kon, Narayanpur and Sikhar also have such areas as are benefited by tube-wells.

In 1975-76 an area of 7,660 hectares was irrigated by tube-wells. In 1976-77 a total number of 40 tube-wells are to be drilled. The area to be most benefited by this scheme will be in tahsils Mirzapur and Chunar. The tube-wells are expected to create a potential of 120 hectares per tube-well.

The Commercial banks, co-operative institutions and quasi-government financial corporations also provide financial assistance to cultivators for the construction of wells and the installation of pumping sets and Persian wheels in them. The following statement shows the details of minor irrigation works during various Five-year Plan periods :

Name of scheme	First Five-year Plan	Second Five-year Plan	Third Five-year Plan	Three annual Plans	Fourth Five-year Plan	Fifth Five-year Plan upto 1976
Masonry wells (No.)	140	300	1,709	2,955	4,068	1,481
Boring	2	35	255	1,275	2,170	649
Persian wheel	20	39	204	720	416	125
Pumping set	1	21	286	2,696	2,259	1,089
Private tube-wells	—	—	—	30	1,100	393
Bundhies (in hectares)	—	195	1,106	107	4,525	4,241

In 1975-76, 934 private masonry wells were constructed. In the same year the target of construction of private *bundhis* was 670 hectares. The achievement, which was 2,264 hectares, far exceeded the target.

The following table shows new schemes for minor irrigation to be taken up in the near future, giving the cost and the area to be benefited by them :

Name of schemes	During the year 1976-77	Cost (Rs)	Area to be benefited (in hectares)
Masonry wells	800	40,00,000	968
Boring	710	42,60,000	—
Persian wheel	150	3,00,000	121.50
Pumping set	400	64,00,000	1,296.00
Private tube-wells	325	26,00,000	2,632.50
Bundhies (ha.)	660	16,50,000	660.00
Irrigation potential (ha.)	—	—	5,678.00

Stored rain-water in tanks, lakes and ponds is used for irrigation. On the Vindhyan plateau and south of the Son, water is stored in tanks for the consumption of men and cattle rather than for irrigation, though it is used for the latter purpose also. Besides preventing the flow off of water, embankments are useful in arresting the denudation of the soil; and their importance in securing large areas from drought has long been recognised. In 1971-72, the area irrigated by tanks, lakes and ponds amounted to 2,989 hectares.

Canals—The Mirzapur canal system consists of a number of reservoirs through which canals have been taken out. Thus canals indirectly depend on rainfall which is uncertain and erratic.

Ghaghar canal which takes off from the Dhandraul reservoir on Ghaghar river is the biggest irrigation system of the district. The supplies into the Dhandraul reservoir are supplemented from Karamnass river through a feeder cut from Sylhat pick-up weir. Nagwa dam on river Karamnass was completed in 1950 for supplementing supplies to Ghaghar canal system, as well as for supplying 1566 m. cft. and 334 m. cft. of water to Khajuri and Harai canal systems respectively, through escapes of Marihan branch of Ghaghar canal.

Work on Ghori canal system was started in 1910 and completed in 1916 at a cost of Rs 4 lakhs. In the beginning its total length was 17.7 km. Afterwards another 5.5 km. long canal was added to it, and in 1975-76 the total length of this canal was 23.2 km. It commands an area of 3,312 hectares, out of which irrigation in 1,400 hectares in Kharif and in 1,200 hectares in Rabi is proposed every year. In 1976-77, it irrigated an area of 2,824 hectares.

Work on Bijaipur canal system was started in 1963 under minor irrigation scheme and was completed in 1965-66 at a cost of Rs 398 lakhs. It commands an area of 255 hectares, out of which irrigation in 154 hectares in Rabi and in 26 hectares in Kharif is proposed every year. In 1976-77, an area of only 40 hectares was irrigated.

Sirsi Baraundha feeder scheme was started in 1970-71 under the Fourth Five-year Plan and was completed in 1973-74 at a cost of Rs 112 lakhs. Under this scheme 36.4 km. long canals were widened and strengthened and 65 km. long canals were constructed. Canals constructed under this scheme command an area of 8,670 hectares out of which irrigation in 4,330 hectares in Kharif and in 1,735 hectares in Rabi is proposed. In 1976-77 an area of 7,811 hectares was irrigated.

In the Fifth Five-year Plan works on Lahangpur distributary was started in 1974 and was completed in 1976 at a cost of Rs 22 lakhs. The canal originates at 1.70 km. of right bank of Baraundha distributary. The length of the main canal is 14 km. Small canals of 12 km. have been constructed out of the main canal. The total command area of the canal is 5,254 hectares out of which irrigation in 1,576 hectares in Rabi and in 2,627 hectares in Kharif is proposed. In 1976-77 it irrigated an area of 649 hectares.

Work on Jamuhra distributary was started in 1974 under the Fifth Five-year Plan. It originates at 7.10 km. from the bank of Baraundha feeder, the length of which is 17.3 km. The total command area of the canal is 2,147 hectares out of which irrigation in 429 hectares in Rabi and in 1,078 hectares in Kharif is proposed. In 1976-77, an area of 551 hectares was irrigated by the canal.

In Pipri an irrigation scheme known as Kamhari Irrigation Scheme has been started at a cost of about Rs 27.75 crores. The length of the canal under this scheme is 300 km. with a total command area of 26,075 hectares.*

To improve the age-old system of lifting water from the rivers flowing in deep channels between high banks, which used to be carried out through *dal* or *daliya*, mechanised lift irrigation schemes known as pump canal schemes have been taken up in the district. The following statement shows some details about pump canals :

Name of pump canal	Date of operation	Place whence originates	Name of rivers	Length in km.	Cost (in lac rupees)
1	2	3	4	5	6
Sakhura pump canal	15-12-67	Viallge Sakhura	Ganga	20.05	—
Pipra pump canal	11-9-68	" Pipra	Ditto	8.02	5.00
Ramnagar Sikri pump canal	22-10-68	" Ramnagar Sikri	Ditto	12.08	11.14
Kanauraghat pump canal	18-12-68	" Kanaura	Ditto	3.20	2.85

(Contd.)



Sirsi Waterfall

1	2	3	4	5	6
Dubepur pump canal	20-10-71	Village Dubepur	Khajuri	2.67	1.00
Hargarh pump canal	9-12-70	„ Hargarh	Ganga	17.90	15.00
Kakarahi pump canal	27-11-73	„ Kakarahi	Khajuri	1.80	0.99
Illahpur pump canal	12-2-73	„ Illahpur	Ditto	2.03	0.99
Narayanghat pump canal	26-6-71	„ Aswan	Ganga	5.44	6.00
Kathnehi pump canal	2-2-73	„ Kathnehi	Ditto	2.20	3.00
Bakhar pump canal	1-9-73	„ Gopalpur	Bakhar nadi	1.62	0.99
Ghura Rara pump canal	1-1-74	„ Ghurakara	Ditto	0.94	—
Mahwari Kalan pump canal	8-7-74	„ Mahwari Kalan	Khajuri	3.20	5.00
Gangapur pump canal	21-2-74	„ Bhagwant pur	Ganga	—	12.12
Rampur pump canal	11-11-75	„ Rampur	Ditto	2.60	7.00

In 1975-76 these pump canals irrigated 1,214.48 hectares of Kharif and 3,960.76 hectares of Rabi area.

Besides, three pump canal schemes are under consideration—Jangarh pump canal of 2.25 km. in length and Saktesgarh pump canal of 4.38 km. to originate from Jirgo river. The third, Arjunpur pump canal, is to take off from Ganga, its length being 5.60 km.

Water Potential and Future Possibilities of Irrigation

There is good scope for the development of minor irrigation in the district.

AGRICULTURE INCLUDING HORTICULTURE

Soils and Crops

The soils of the district are as various as the rocks which underlie them. The soils of the Gangetic plain on either side of the river do not present any peculiar features. The same varieties, namely, *dumat*, *matiyar* and *balua* occur here as in other alluvial districts. The soils of the plateau are generally a stiff and shallow red clay, highly ferruginous, and passing at times into laterite and pisoletic iron ore. Little can be made of this soil which yields only the scantiest of crops with generally two fallows intervening. In the fertile strips lying at the foot of the Kaimurs, there are large areas of excellent loam and clay, such as obtain in the Ganga valley, as well as of a fine black soil resembling the black cotton soil of Bundelkhand and central India. Between the plateau and the north bank of the Son, there intervenes about a 10 km. stretch of light sandy alluvial soil, but of the tract beyond that river there is little to be said. The scanty cultivation that exists depends upon cold stiff clays or a loose sandy soil, according to the elevation of the patches of tillage. The Singrauli basin is covered with a rich black loam overlying the well-known boulder drift of the Tahchir series, which comes to the surface in the higher portions of the basin. The cultivated basin of the adjoining pargana of Dudhi is similar in character. No *usar* is found above the Vindhyan ghats, and in the Ganga plain the area is not extensive.

Local division of the soils is based in part on their physical characteristics or their productiveness, and in part on their relative situation. In the Ganga valley, *balua* is the name given to a slightly sandy but very fertile soil lying close to the village site, which is sharply distinguished from *baluhi* which consists almost entirely of sand and produces next to nothing. *Karail* is the same as the *matiyar* of the doab districts, and *gurmatta* corresponds to the better known *doras* or *dumat*. Alluvial or annually inundated lands, although their soil differs in no respect from that of the foregoing, go by the special name of *tari*. *Pahari* is as its name implies, the light sandy soil of the hills; and *Kankrali* is the poor land abounding in *Kankar*. On the Vindhyan plateau, *balua* is usually called *Sikta* and is the most prized of all soils. The wet clay which grows nothing but rice is *dhankhar*; and the name *gurnat* is applied in a wholly different sense to the poor varieties of the *pahari* soils. In the tracts south of the Son there is quite a different nomenclature of soils. In the cultivated basins of the south, the rich friable black earth is known as *bewal*. The lighter coloured soil is known as *dulhia*. Inferior qualities are called *balsundar*, a sandy soil needing much rain; *lalmatti*, a red earth like *pahari*; and *charak pathri* or *chhirak pathri* which, as the name implies, is full of stones and pebbles. In regard to position, the village lands near the site are known as *goenr*, the intermediate belt as *maddhim* or *majhiar*, and the fields farthest away are known as *dur*, *siwan* or *har*. In Son Purwa, however, *goenr* land is known as *kola* or *kolia* and yields a double crop; beyond this lies the single cropped *patia*.

Harvests

There are the usual harvests, known as the Kharif or autumn, the Rabi or spring and the Zaid or additional harvest. Of the two main harvests Kharif is the more important, its area having averaged 5,36,859 acres as against 4,65,677 acres sown in spring in the surveyed portion of the district and the family domains during 1903-1907. The relative position of the spring and autumn harvests not only varies with the nature of the season, but is also different in the different parts of the district. In 1970-71, the area under Kharif was 2,79,568 hectares, that under Rabi was 1,95,909 hectares, and Zaid occupied only 563 hectares. The double cropped area was 1,07,151 hectares.

Principal Kharif Crops

[In the] portion of the district which lies north of the Kaimurs including the family domains, the largest area covered by any crop in the Kharif harvest is that covered by rice. Between 1903 and 1907, rice occupied on an average 2,08,878 acres or 38.91 per cent of the total area devoted to autumn crops. The highest proportion in one pargana was 74.74 per cent in Kerwa-Mangrauha. The rice grown in Mirzapur is of many different varieties. In 1970-71, the Kharif paddy occupied an area 1,51,290 hectares.

Bajra is another important Kharif crop. It is sown by itself and also in combination with *arhar*. During 1903-07, it occupied an area of 74,430 acres or consisted of 13.86 per cent of the harvest. The bulk of this crop is raised in the Mirzapur tahsil, where the proportion rises to 54.12 per cent. About 98 per cent of the *bajra* grown in the district is grown in combination with *arhar*. In 1970-71, the area under *bajra* was 8,877 hectares.

Jowar, like *bajra*, is nearly always sown intermixed with *arhar*. Jowar alone or in combination, occupied between the years 1903 and 1907, an average of 55,949 acres or 10.42 per cent of the Kharif harvest. In 1970-71, it occupied an area of 4,431 hectares.

The cultivation of cotton is very limited in Mirzapur. After jowar, the next most important crop is *til*, which covered an average of the Kharif harvest during 1903-1907. In 1970-71, *til* covered an area of 4,935 hectares.

Maize is the most widely sown staple. During 1903-1907 it covered an average area of only 15,151 acres or 2.82 per cent of the autumn harvest. In 1970-71, it covered an area of 15,405 hectares.

The small millets hold a relatively unimportant position in the district. Among *sawan*, *kodon* and *mandua*, *kodon* had the highest area under it in 1970-71, which was 22,236 hectares; the area under *sawan* was 20,177 hectares, and that under *mandua* was only 169 hectares in that year.

Principal Rabi Crops

In the past the lead was taken by gram in the Rabi. When sown by itself, it covered an average of 90,411 acres or consisted of 19.41 per cent of the Rabi harvest. The proportion varies considerably in different parts of the district, for in Karyat Sikhar, Kon, and Uprandh over 30 per cent of Rabi cultivation was devoted to gram, while in Chaurasi, Chhionwey, Haveli, Chunar, and Kera, Mangrauha the percentage was over 20. In 1970-71, gram covered an area of 39,864 hectares.

Among the Rabi crops wheat is the most valuable cereal. It requires a rich and well-manured soil and abundant irrigation. It is sown in October-November on land ploughed more often than for barley. It is watered in December, January and February unless there are abundant rains, and is harvested in the end of March and the beginning of April. In 1970-71, the area covered by wheat was 69,524 hectares.

Barley is grown alone and also in combination with gram. In 1903-1907, the barley mixed with gram occupied 61,587 acres representing 13.23 per cent of the Rabi harvest. In 1970-71 the area under barley was 43,118 hectares.

Peas are grown alone and in combination with linseed, mustard and occasionally with barley and gram. Its variety known as *kirao* occurs most largely in Bhuli. In 1970-71, pea occupied an area of 4,604 hectares.

Among the remaining Rabi crops linseed is a crop of some importance. It is sown alone and in combination. In 1970-71, it covered an area of 4,935 hectares. Very much smaller areas are devoted to *sarson* or *lahi* mustard, rapeseed and to garden crops.

The following statement shows the decennial figures of area (in hectares) occupied by different food and non-food crops in the district from 1901 to 1971.

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Principal crops	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Food Crops								
Early paddy	19,385	33,118	23,490	51,059	22,772	30,839	31,759	32,959
Late paddy	37,536	42,307	53,633	59,889	65,695	86,766	1,00,125	1,18,331
Wheat	24,052	24,169	22,942	30,643	27,327	41,139	41,322	69,524
Barley	26,897	48,338	22,991	37,655	38,879	46,657	50,939	43,118
Jowar	6,591	8,963	6,153	7,693	6,927	7,137	8,840	4,431
Bajra	10,702	13,683	12,691	9,409	10,945	9,755	12,534	8,877
Maize	4,747	13,458	14,109	10,726	9,188	10,406	10,888	15,405
Gram	46,820	41,649	36,654	43,360	45,683	49,258	52,203	39,864
Potatoes	—	—	283	470	539	677	915	2,301
Non-food Crops								
Sugar-cane	3,322	4,690	3,999	4,221	6,367	5,209	4,712	4,904
Cotton	215	679	907	343	110	96	14	—
Oil-seeds	19,218	37,238	14,645	21,046	21,874	14,497	26,677	26,330

Progress of Scientific Agriculture

Before Independence farmers followed traditional method of cultivation as in other districts. They used the same traditional implements and manure, but after 1947 it was felt that the traditional methods of cultivation could not cope with the over-increasing demand for food-grains. Improvement and changes in the pattern and techniques of cultivation were, therefore, adopted. Development of agriculture has been given an important place in the Five-year Plans.

Agricultural production may be increased by two ways-extensive cultivation and intensive cultivation. Extensive cultivation requires bringing large areas under the plough by reclaiming waste lands, fallow lands, etc. Intensive cultivation consists of the applications of scientific methods of cultivation, provision of better seeds evolved through agricultural research, and the use of improved implements and chemical fertilizers etc.

Improved and scientific methods of growing wheat and barley and other crops have been popularised. The sixties of this century saw the beginnings of the green revolution in the country, under which, schemes of intensive cultivation and sowing of high-yielding seeds of wheat, barley, maize, jowar, *bajra* and other crops have been implemented. The government agricultural farms in the district and various other agencies of the Central and State Governments, the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, and the agricultural universities and colleges and research centres in the country are doing a pioneering job in orienting the farmers for adopting better and scientific methods and implements of cultivation. Kharif, Rabi, and Zaid campaigns have been undertaken in the package programme in paddy during Kharif and in wheat in the Rabi. During these campaigns the workers and progressive cultivators were imparted training in different agricultural operations. These campaigns had as their target the extension of the area under high-yielding varieties of crops. Great emphasis was laid on promoting the various methods of raising production such as the use of improved agricultural implements, of improved varieties of seeds, of plant protection measures, and of chemical fertilizers, etc. The agriculture department popularises the modern methods of cultivation and the development blocks play an important part in it.

With the adoption of the programme of intensive farming and improved methods of cultivation, there has been a considerable increase in the production of food-grains and, consequently, agriculture is developing as an industry. In 1970-71, per hectare average yield of rice was 8.44 quintals whereas it was 11 quintals in 1976-77. In 1972-73, the area under high yielding wheat was 8,566 hectares and that under exotic paddy was 15,973 hectares. The area under hybrid bajra was 1,865 and under hybrid maize was only 79 hectares.

Agricultural Implements and Machines

The old instruments like *hansiya* or sickle, *khurpa* or hoe, etc., have been replaced to a large extent by modern implements. The implements used in the district are tractors, graders, power threshers, bullock-drawn threshers, winnowing fans, mould wold plough, Singh patela and Singh hand hoe.

Seed Supply—Development of agriculture depends to a great extent on agricultural inputs, of which seeds form the most important part. Improved seed is defined as one that gives a minimum higher yield of at least 10 per cent to 15 per cent over the local seed.

Improved varieties of seeds of various crops are obtained from agriculture training and demonstration centres and then these are multiplied at district farms. The improved seeds of paddy, wheat, barley, gram, pea and oil-seeds thus multiplied are distributed amongst farmers through seed stores on cash.

High-yielding varieties of seeds are supplied by the government through seed stores maintained by the agriculture and co-operative departments besides some private institutions and registered distributors, such as National Seed Corporation and Terai Vikas Nigam, etc. In 1976-77, there were 36 seed stores maintained by the agriculture department and co-operative seed stores. The quantity of distributed seeds of paddy was 3,774 quintals, that of wheat 920 quintals, of barley 44 quintals, of gram 131 quintals, and that of pea only 2 quintals.

Government Agriculture Farms

In 1976-77, there were three government agriculture farms in the district at Mangarhi, Tisui, at Pipra Dand. All these farms were fully equipped with modern scientific agricultural implements and undertook seed-multiplication also. The average yield of Kharif paddy was 11 quintals per hectare, and that of wheat in the unirrigated farms of Mangarhi and Tisui 6 quintals, and in Pipra Dand 11 quintals.

Soil Nutrients

The traditional manures such as cattle dung, farm's refuse etc., are used comparatively less in the district. The cultivators have now begun to realise the efficacy of green manure crops such as *sanai*, *dhaincha*, *moong* and others as these provide nitrogenous ingredients to the soil and enrich it. After the introduction of the Plans various fertilizers have come to be used more and more in quantity by the farmers. The farmers generally obtain seeds of green manure crops and chemical fertilizers from the seed stores of the agriculture, co-operative Agro and sugar-cane departments and other sources. In 1976-77, the area covered by green manure crops was 13,517 hectares. In the same year a quantity of 1,414 quintals of *sanai* and *dhaincha* were distributed in the district.

Among chemical fertilizers used in the district are nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium. The statement below shows the quantity of each nutrient distributed in 1976-77 :

Name of nutrients	Quantity in metric tonnes
Nitrogen	820.586
Phosphorus	113.539
Potassium	70.258

Rotation of Crops

Generally the rotational Pattern extends to two years. In unirrigated plots in Kharif, *til* is followed by *urd*, *moong*, maize, early paddy, jowar and *bajra*. In irrigated plots Kharif paddy is followed by maize and then again by paddy. In Rabi wheat is sown in the first year, then it is followed by potato and wheat. Then gram is sown which is followed by *bejhar*, a mixture of barley and gram. In the next year of Rabi oil-seeds are followed by gram and then by *arhar*. Sugar-cane is often followed by wheat.

Fallowing—A *masel* (land which produces jowar and *arhar*) field is allowed to remain fallow all one rainy season and is then sown with cereal crops. After removal of the cane, the land is said to be *mari* or dead and a season of fallow follows.

Mixed Cultivation—The main mixed crops of the district are *arhar*, jowar, wheat-gram, wheat-barley and gram-linseed, etc. The practice of growing more than one crop in a field at the same time gives additional harvests besides maintaining its fertility. Usually pests, diseases and adverse weather conditions do not affect all the crops equally.

Horticulture—Groves of the ordinary type are practically confined to the Ganga valley and consist for the most part of mango trees. During the period 1903 to 1907, the average area under groves was 23,205 acres or 1.23 per cent of the district. In 1970-71, groves covered an area of 37,577 hectares. The district headquarters have a government nursery the area of which is 13.75 acres. The horticulture department provides farmers with improved varieties of seeds of vegetables for multiplication. In 1975-76, the government establishments distributed 26,500 fruit plants, and 46,500 fruit plants were distributed by other sources. The department distributed 255 quintals of potato seed to the farmers for multiplication.

AGRICULTURAL DISEASES AND PESTS

The crops of the district suffer from the plant diseases and pests which are peculiar to them. Jowar suffers from grain smut (*sphacelotheca sorghi*) which is identified by the presence of black powder in the cobs. One of the surest precautions is to treat the seed chemically before sowing. Among pests the stem borer (*Chilo zonellus*) is the main enemy of this crop. It bores the stem and reaches the foliage of the plant, causing it to dry up, the individual plants so affected having to be destroyed in order to save the harvest. Damage by birds and stray cattle is also a problem and driving them away is the only method adopting for saving the crops. *Til* is damaged by phollody. Late sowing of the crop minimises the adverse effects of this disease. Wheat and gram suffer from the diseases of wilt and rust and from pests such as cut worms, pod borers, termites and field rats. Late sowing is the only way to save the crops, the pests having to be destroyed by spraying and dusting of various insecticides. Barley suffers from stripe disease and smut. The diseases of smut and root-rot affect paddy (which is also affected by the gundhi bug). Rust damages linseed, and early and late blight spoils the harvest of potato.

The scientific methods for the control of pests and diseases among crops are dusting with B.H.C. and Sulphur, spraying with D.D.T., etc. In 1975-76, the total area covered under plant protection programme was 1,07,278.51 hectares. The following statement shows various programmes done for the progress of plant protection in the year 1975-76:

Item	Area covered (in hectares)
Treatment of seed borne diseases	46,951.76
Eradication of rat from the field	89,755.00
Eradication of ordinary insects	12,067.75
Intensive plant protection programme	42,740.00
Eradication of weedy growths	6,764.00

There are also various leafy growths and weeds which are harmful to the crops. These are usually overcome by systematic and timely intercutting and the deep ploughing of the fields. The plant protection staff posted in the district gives free advice to the cultivators for raising healthy crops including those of fruits and vegetables. They also provide insecticides, spraying and dusting machines and the services of trained staff at moderate charges.

Agencies for Scientific Method of Cultivation

Besides arranging for the supply of improved seeds, scientific implements, fertilizers, manures, and extending improved agricultural know-how to the agricultural masses, the agriculture department also gives technical advice and guidance to the cultivators on agricultural problems. Kharif and Rabi campaigns are also organised, the following being the achievement in this respect in 1975-76 :

Item	Achievement
Distribution of fertilizers	1,004,383 metric tonnes
Green manuring	13,517 hectares
Area under plant protection	1,07,278 hectares
Loan advanced	Rs 91,47,877
Taqavi issued	Rs 41,42,325
Number of irrigation wells constructed	934
Number of wells bored	649
Number of Persian wheels installed	125
Number of improved implements distributed	4,198
Quantity of seeds distributed	41,976

In 1976 there were 39 farming societies in the district and four marketing societies. The relevant details of marketing societies are given below :—

Name	Year of start	Amounts (in lakh Rs) marketed in 1975-76
Ahaura Co-operative Marketing Society, Ahaura, Mirzapur	1957	6.38
Mirzapur Co-operative Marketing Society	1957	1.42
Robarts Ganj Co-operative Marketing Society, Robarts Ganj	1961	0.73
Kachhwa Co-operative Marketing Society, Kachhwa	1976	0.19

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FISHERIES

Area under Fodder Crops

For the major part of the year the cattle have to subsist on stunted shrubs and coarse grasses. The area under fodder crops was 300 hectares in 1976-77. From July to November, cattle are extensively grazed throughout the hill tracts and find ample reserves of fodder in the Vindhyan and Son Purwa jungle, but at the close of the rains the herds move southwards through Dudhi. The first regular census of stock was taken in August 1899 when there were 1,90,973 bulls and bullock and 2,638 male buffaloes in the district, excluding the family domains, giving a total of 1,96,611 plough animals. This figure was considerably above the provincial average at the time, and in excess of that of other districts in the Division. Of other stock there were 1,81,231 cows, 38,511 she-buffaloes, and 1,65,289 comprising young stock. The next census was taken in January 1904 when there were 3,41,209 bulls and bullocks and 6,579 he-buffaloes in the district which included area of the family domains. Besides, there were 2,94,624 cows, 85,125 she-buffaloes and 2,96,155 head of young stock. At the census of 1909 when the figures of the family domains were not included, there were 2,59,978 bulls and bullocks, and 2,575 he-buffaloes. Besides, there were 2,48,000 cows in the district, excluding the area of the family domains and 56,462 she-buffaloes and 2,42,700 head of young stock.

In 1961, the number of bulls was 4,44,515 and that of cows 4,09,409. They were kept for breeding and milk production. According to the live-stock census of 1972, there were 3,33,358 bulls and bullocks, and 2,83,933 cows.

The number of buffaloes in the district has always been lower than that of the cows and bulls. At the census of 1972, there were 4,991 he-buffaloes and 75,888 she-buffaloes. The smallness of the number of the former may be ascribed to disinclination on the part of some persons to use these animals in the plough. On the other hand, the she-buffalo is bred for its milk and ghi. By and large, the buffalo of the district is a better bred animal than the ox.

Other Domestic Animals

Sheep and Goats—Sheep and goats are largely bred for the butchers, for their wool, milk, and are penned on the land for manure. The droppings of sheep serve as the most popular and valuable from of manure.

Sheep and goats are found in large number in the district where there is good grazing land. The returns of 1904 gave a total of 1,13,200 sheep and 1,39,889 goats in the district. In 1961, sheep numbered 59,337 and goats 1,53,090. In 1972 their number were 56,484 and 1,71,087 respectively.

For the development of the breed of sheep and improvement in the quality of wool the State Government has established drought prone area programme agency in the district.

For improving the breed of goats seven buck centres have been established at veterinary hospitals. There are two bucks of the Jamunapari and Barberi breed which are supplied to private breeders.

Poultry Farming

Poultry farming as an important subsidiary occupation has been popular among farmers. According to the live-stock census of 1972, the poultry numbered 1,51,389, out of which 1,49,365 were fowls, 1,916 ducks, and 108 other birds.

There is a government poultry extension centre at Chunar where there are 200 white Leghorn birds. Another poultry-farm consists of two hundred birds. Prisoners of Ghurma jail are also running a poultry farm. There are 40 private poultry-farms where the number of birds ranges from 25 to 200.

The statement below gives the number of birds of different ages distributed for the development of poultry-farming in the district in 1976-77 :—

Age of bird	Number
One day old	14,481
One month old	2,292
Two months old	899
Adult	209

There is a good market for poultry in Mirzapur town and also in the new developing industrial townships of Churk, Dala, Obra, Renukoot and Pipri, etc.

Development of Live-stock

The progress of agriculture depends largely on the development of live-stock as the latter provides the required motive-power for various agricultural operations including ploughing, sowing, etc., besides manure and milk. Moreover, the bullocks play an important role as a draught power for pulling carts which are still the chief means of rural transport.

Cattle development has been given importance since the introduction of the Five-year Plans. Prior to Independence the veterinary hospitals were concerned only with the treatment of diseased animals and with vaccination for the protection of healthy ones.

During the First Five-year Plan period the policy of the animal husbandry department was changed, and the emphasis was shifted to animal husbandry from the mere control of diseases. Under this scheme, the veterinary and animal husbandry departments were merged and a post of district live-stock officer was created. Tagavi is distributed for the purchase of better animals with a view to improving the breed. For expediting the improvement of breed by artificial insemination, an extensive programme of artificial insemination system along with the development of fodder crops is launched.

In 1976-77, there were 26 veterinary hospitals and 34 stockman centres functioning in the district, in addition to 12 artificial insemination centres.

The following statement gives the number of cattle castrated and of those provided with artificial insemination service during the Plan periods and in 1974-75 and 1975-76 :

Year/Period	No. Castrated	No. inseminated
First Five-year Plan	32,517	762
Second Five-year Plan	48,622	802
Third Five-year Plan	1,71,722	1,395
Annual Plans	41,448	8,222
Fourth Five-year Plan	1,55,389	29,659
1974-75	45,224	10,423
1975-76	35,985	9,927

Housing and Feeding

Cattle are generally housed in kutchha sheds with thatched roof. Only rich persons have pucca and well-ventilated byres for their cattle. The State Government also provides financial assistance to the cultivators for the construction of community cattle sheds.

The husk and dried and crushed stalks of various crops are used as forage for the cattle. Due to increase in the area of cultivated land, waste land and pastures are decreasing. Grazing facilities for cattle are also provided by the government and the *gaon* pinchayats in the forests and waste lands under their respective control.

Fodder crops of M.P. Chari, *lobia*, *berseem* and oat are sown in the district. In 1976-77 the area under different fodder crops measured 800 hectares.

ANIMAL DISEASES AND VETERINARY HOSPITALS

The commonest forms of diseases prevalent in the district are rinderpest or *mata* and foot and mouth disease known as *khang* or *khangwa*. Rinderpest has the highest incidence during the hotter months of the year, when animals are in a poor condition and more liable to infection. The treatment advocated by rural cattle doctors for foot and mouth diseases is the application of lime to the feet, and the fomentation of the mouth and the surrounding parts with a hot decoction of the bark of the *palas* or *dhak* tree. Occasionally, they also recommend a wash in pools of muddy water for the affected cattle. Cattle disease at times assume an epidemic character. Fowl-pox and ranikhet disease are common among the birds of the district. With the establishment of veterinary hospitals the rural folks have started realising the efficacy of modern methods of prevention and treatment of cattle diseases. For the prevention of infectious diseases, thousands of animals and birds are vaccinated every year. The statement below shows the number of animals treated in the district during the Plan periods and from 1974-75 to 1975-76 :

Year/Period	Number of animals treated
First Five-year Plan	1,85,857
Second Five-year Plan	3,42,528
Third Five-year Plan	3,68,805
Annual Plans	1,51,353
Fourth Five-year Plan	1,55,389
1974-75	1,85,300
1975-76	1,73,049

The following statement shows the number of vaccinations given to animals during the Plan period and from 1974-75 to 1975-76 :

Year/Period	Rinderpest	Haemorrhagic septicaemia	Black-quarter	Anthrax	Ranikhet disease	Fowl pox
First Five-year Plan	—	—	6,16,500	—	—	—
Second Five-year Plan	—	—	6,05,001	—	—	—
Third Five-year Plan	3,90,600	5,46,907	96,997	6,568	17,754	1,238
Annual Plans	2,61,906	1,65,206	65,515	68,764	10,862	8,903
Fourth Five-year Plan	69,395	7,13,905	1,54,807	69,237	1,14,955	48,813
1974-75	5,16,012	1,11,685	25,238	1,405	40,119	23,493
1975-76	98,696	1,40,675	24,260	7,882	39,693	17,770

Fisheries

All the usual species are found in river Ganga. Mahaseer are found in the Son and the Belan, and the methods of fishing do not differ in any respect from those practised elsewhere. Nets of different shapes and names and wickerwork traps of various sorts are employed. In the *jhils* wholesale captures are sometimes made by running off the water. In the hill streams of the district, poison is resorted to. Leaves of the *beri* and *tend* or the sap of the *sihaur*, are thrown in the evening into small *jhils* and ponds, or into the pools left in the course of a partially dried up stream. In the morning the fish are found stupefied by the poison and are captured without difficulty. In the rains mullet are harpooned. The principal fishing castes are Mallahs, Kewats, Khalites, Bindis, Pasis and Gonds. Very few of these devote themselves entirely to this occupation as a means of livelihood. Likewise few rely on fish as the principal article of diet, though the majority are occasional consumers of it.

The main activities of the fisheries department are development and exploitation of reservoirs for pisciculture, and supply of fingerlings to private breeders and Gaon Samaj under the small water scheme and applied nutrition programme.

Pisciculture is flourishing as an industry in the district. Some of the ponds and rivers are auctioned by the irrigation and revenue departments.

Most of the fish are exported to other districts and places specially to Calcutta. For this reason many people are employed in allied industries, such as basketery and making of leaf plates. Trade in fish and allied industries worth about Rs 50 lakhs is done in the district.

In 1976-77, there were seven fish farms and three nurseries in the district and 8,82,900 fingerlings were produced and distributed to the pisciculturists at the rate of Rs 40 per thousand.

Forestry

Mirzapur forests are more or less confined to the rocky portion of the district. The chief trees are *bargad*, *pipal*, *shisham*, mango, *nim*, *bel*, *jamun* and tamarind. There is hardly any tree which is not put to some use by the inhabitants. The silky wool which grows in the pods of the *semal* is used to stuff quilts, mattresses, and pack-saddles of animals, while its root is used to prepare a tonic. In 1976-77, the area covered by forests was 2,68,400 hectares.

The main forest products are honey, a gum called *Patila*, hides and horns, flowers and fruits, medicines, bamboo, firewood, and thatching grass, etc.

State Assistance to Agriculture

Farmers are mostly not in a position to make permanent improvements on their lands, or to purchase improved implements, seeds, and chemical fertilizers due to paucity of funds. The State

Government gives assistance to the farmers of the district in the form of taqavi loans for the above purposes. The amount of taqavi given by the agriculture department amounted to Rs 41,42,325 during the Fourth Five-year Plan.

The co-operative department also assists cultivators for agricultural purposes. The department distributed 41,976 quintals of seeds of different cereals during 1975-76. About 73,000 fruit trees and 7,18,000 seedlings of vegetable, and 9,895 kilogram of improved seeds of vegetables were distributed by the horticulture department in 1975-76. Besides, 255 quintals of potato seeds were distributed to farmers for multiplication.

NATURAL CALAMITIES

Mirzapur district is unfortunate in as much as some natural calamity or other visits it every year. Of early famines there are no records extant; local tradition tells of serious sufferings in the northern parts of the district during the great *chalisa* of 1783 A. D. For the next 47 years after this, Mirzapur formed a portion of the Province of Benares (Varanasi) and all that is known of the famines belongs rather to the history of Benares (Varanasi). After 1830 the first scarcity is that of 1864, when the rice crop withered on account of the scanty rainfall and it was found necessary to suspend a fifth of the revenue dues. The distress does not appear to have been very serious and some seasons of prosperity which followed soon restored the people to their normal condition.

In spite of the fact that the heavy rainfall of September, 1868 spread more or less over the whole district, there was considerable failure of crops and, consequently great distress, especially in the south, where owing to the wild character of the country, the poverty of the people and the absence of bazars and good roads, actual famine may be said to have existed. Here the rain came too late to save the rice, the staple crop of the tract. In January 1869, it became necessary for the government to undertake large scale relief work in Mirzapur tahsil, and to make private arrangements with merchants for the supply of grain. On January 25th the appearance of distress in the south called for special relief measures. There was no grain with the people themselves and even the markets were poorly stocked, hence Rs 5,000 worth of grain had to be purchased and despatched to Chopan on bullocks. In June of the same year a further supply was sent to Dudhi. The next important relief measures were undertaken in Mirzapur tahsil and did not altogether cease with the end of the month. However, about the middle of July the district magistrate found it necessary to re-start relief work. This was continued until August 4th, by which time heavy rain had fallen and the number of labourers greatly diminished. The total expenditure on relief is stated to have been Rs 1,10,247. The hill people, north of the Son river, preferred to support life as best they could in the jungles and refused to join the relief operations in the plains.

The scarcity of 1873-74 was not so severe as that of 1868. It was the culmination of a series of disasters that befell the crops in 1872 and 1873. The Rabi in the spring of 1872 was much below the average,

The yield of the Kharif in the same year in the Ganga valley and in the uplands to the south, it nowhere exceeded 50 per cent of the crop and was in some parts even less. The Rabi of 1873, owing to a shortage of rain, was (except in the immediate neighbourhood of irrigation wells) also a failure. It is estimated that nearly 44,000 cattle perished in the hot weather for want of fodder and water. Great distress prevailed in the south, and relief work had to be undertaken in Barhar and Dudhi. The district was visited once more by calamity in the following Kharif, for the rains of 1873 began late in July and, though they did not end till the middle of September, the fall was very uneven and most of the precipitation took place in July. Consequently the crops, especially *kodon* and rice, were greatly injured; and in the south of the district the yield was reckoned to be little more than one fourth of a normal harvest. Actual famine, however, was confined to the hill country. Relief works were opened as early as November. Taqavi advances to the sum of Rs 21,000 were freely made for the purchase of seed, grain and cattle; and grain was collected and stored at Dudhi, Kon and Robarts Ganj. Altogether some 2,84,000 persons received succour at a cost of about Rs 27,000.

The famine of 1877-78 did not affect Mirzapur to any great extent. The prices were high but there was neither lack of food for the people nor want of fodder for the cattle. It was not till June 1878 that the people of any portion of the district began to show signs of distress and a relief camp was opened in Dudhi for three days in that month. It engaged 281 labourers, but both it and another started on the Marihan road, were almost immediately closed, as timely showers during the first week of July made it possible for cultivation to be undertaken.

The next famine, that of 1896-97 affected Mirzapur as severely as most other district of the province. The monsoon of 1895 had been below normal but there was little distress, while that of 1896, after beginning well terminated soon after the middle of September. The early Kharif crop in the Ganga valley was a fair one, but in the upland tracts it was poor; and owing to the premature cessation of the rains the late Kharif was an entire failure, while ploughing for the Rabi except on irrigated land became impossible. An average fall of over one inch of rain in November raised hopes that the worst effects of scarcity might be averted; but it proved insufficient and could do no more than mitigate the impending calamity, and before December closed relief works had to be taken up in the district and poor houses set up in the city. By January 1897, both large works under the control of the Public Works Department and village relief works were general throughout the district, while poor-houses had to be started at Chunar, Robarts Ganj, and Lal ganj. Tahsil Robarts Ganj, the uplands of Chunar and Mirzapur, and taluqa Naugarhwa in the family domains were the portions of the district in which the visitation of the famine was severest, and next to them came tappa Chhionwey and pargana Kera Mangrauha. The southern portions of the Ganga valley east of Mirzapur were but slightly affected by the scarcity and parganas north of the river practically wholly escaped it. The first relief work opened under the Public Works Department was that on the Hala-Dalganj road. The numbers seeking relief having rapidly increased at this, other works had to be started, and during

March there was a daily attendance of over 30,000 people at eleven works. On the first of June the number of persons relieved was 37,915. In the portion south of the Son river works were carried out by civil agencies and those in receipt of relief at them or those who were gratuitously relieved in their own homes or in poor-houses amounted at the end of May to 23,000 persons. Village relief did not come to an end till the middle of October, 1897, and the Mirzapur poor-house was not finally closed until October, 19th. As indirect measures of relief, Rs 32,872 were advanced in loans to cultivators for the construction of wells, purchase of seed-grain, and for subsistence taqavi, and Rs 12,000 was distributed for similar purposes in the Dudhi estate.

The severest famine that has ever affected the district of Mirzapur was that of 1907-08. The monsoon of 1907 broke at the normal time towards the end of June. The total fall was actually a little in excess of the normal, but no rain fell in September or October, and it soon became apparent that the rice crop, the staple crop of the uplands of the district, would be a failure. As in 1897, the Ganga valley escaped the famine and with the exception of some gratuitous relief in the towns of Mirzapur, Chunar, and Ahraura, there was no need of relief operations in that area. On the Vindhyan plateau and south of the Son, famine was very severe and disastrous failure of the autumn crops could not be remedied in the spring as irrigation was practically non-existent and temporary wells could not be sunk. Relief works under the control of the public works department were confined to the region between the Ganga valley and the hills; the rest of the district was dealt with entirely by civil agencies. Relief works commenced operation in December and by the 28th of March there were 12 public works in operation; gratuitous relief was also being given throughout the famine-stricken area and in the large towns. The total number of relief seekers of all kinds during March averaging 1,25,000 persons. By the end of May there were 50 civil, 20 small departmental and 25 aided works in operation. The first rain fell early in July, and large advances, aggregating over five and a half lakhs, were poured into the affected parts. With the ripening of early autumn crops, gratuitous relief was closed on August 26th with a month's final dole. Four poor-houses remained open throughout the famine and a special famine orphanage was constructed at Dudhi. It was only by the indefatigable efforts of the district staff and by a most liberal allowance of gratuitous relief that the situation was prevented from becoming critical. As indirect measures of relief, a sum of Rs 2,18,180 of land revenue was suspended and one of Rs 7,98,860 advanced in loans for seed, cattle, petty improvements and wells. The total expenditure incurred by the public works department amounted to Rs 6,86,068 and that incurred by the civil authorities to the larger sum of Rs 17,92,593.

The district suffered heavy floods in 1940 with great loss to human and cattle lives. Crops were also destroyed.

After two years, in 1942, Dudhi tahsil was visited by a famine. Just after a decade, in 1952, due to lack of adequate rain the district was visited by a drought when crops failed almost completely.

In the present century the famines have been more noticeable in 1950-51 and 1958-59. But the worst famine started in 1964-65 and culminated in 1966-67, when relief measures had to be organised on such a large-scale that all other relief work of previous years paled into insignificance before it.

The district had been passing through a cycle of droughts and resultant scarcity conditions since the Kharif of 1965. The failure of the Rabi of 1966 was the fourth crop failure in succession with scant, inadequate, and unevenly distributed rainfall in the monsoon of 1965, for the second year in the Kharif, crops totally failed all over the district except in the tube-well irrigated areas across the river Ganga as also in certain small pockets of pargana Bhuli of tahsil Chunar, and Marihan block of tahsil Mirzapur, where some irrigation from canals could be possible. In the year 1966 the rainfall commenced well on time but it was inadequate and uneven and totally failed after the middle of August. The total average rainfall during the monsoon of 1966 was only 24.28" which too was erratic as against 37.33" in a normal year. In Lalganj and Halia block of tahsil Mirzapur it was only 12.9", and Nagwa and Chatra blocks of Robarts Ganj were the worst affected area of this district. The condition of tahsil Dudhi was, in no way, a better than the worst affected areas of Robarts Ganj and Mirzapur. Except Rajgarh block, the condition of tahsil Chunar was somewhat better than that of the rest of the district. With the initial failure of rains, the Rabi sowing was negligible in Dudhi and Robarts Ganj tahsils, and the subsequent failure of rains had almost devastated even the meagre Rabi sowing where irrigation by wells or pumping-sets could not be possible.

Thus on account of insufficient rains in 1966 the Kharif and Rabi crops suffered damage to a great extent in both irrigated and unirrigated areas of the district, resulting in acute drought and scarcity conditions in 3,274 villages of 15 blocks out of 3,447 villages of 20 blocks in the district. The people were not only deprived of nutritious and wholesome food but were reduced to craving for even a single meal a day. The government started a project of public utility which involved the construction and repairs of roads and *bundhis* together with the conservation of soil.

To provide adequate relief to the people from the acute distress created by such unprecedented drought and scarcity conditions certain relief measures were under taken.

Recovery of all government dues was postponed except that of miscellaneous dues such as sales-tax and income-tax etc. The details of the amounts postponed and remitted under the various items of government dues during the years 1965-66, 1966-67 and 1967-68 are given below :

Year	Postponement- suspension & remission	Heads	Amount (Rs)
1935-66	Postponement and suspension	Land revenue including surcharge	17,12,787.12
		Irrigation dues	4,61,156.54
		Takavi Act XII	2,94,221.41
		Takavi Act XIX	1,98,222.79
		Agricultural seed store dues	4,02,196.00
	Remission	Land revenue including surcharge	53,492.92
1966-67	Postponement and suspension	Land revenue including surcharge	83,01,425.12
		Irrigation dues	1,46,784.03
		Takavi Act XII	2,82,585.25
		Takavi Act XIX	2,53,837.82
		Agricultural seed store dues	3,98,121.00
	Remission	Land revenue including surcharge	322.17
1967-68	Postponement and suspension	Land revenue including surcharge	33,82,024.05
		Irrigation dues	13,32,386.44
		Takavi Act XII	4,52,901.39
		Takavi Act XIX	5,97,360.60
		Consolidation dues	3,95,184.00
		Agricultural seed store dues	86,751.00
	Remission	Land revenue including surcharge	18,42,410.29

Besides, tests works were started in November and December, 1965 to provide employment to the people and to save them from starvation. These tests works continued till September 1967. The total number of tests works opened was 637 and the expenditure incurred was Rs 1,04,49,818.

To relieve the people from distress the following amounts of distress *takavi* were distributed.

	Rs
1965-66	63,600
1966-67	19,92,800
1967-68	6,74,200

Over six lakh cattle were affected by fodder scarcity in the district. To provide fodder and water to cattle, twenty sites were selected all over the district near the dams sites, nullahs, and reservoirs.

Keeping in view the unprecedented distress and scarcity created by successive droughts, several voluntary agencies also started taking an active interest in the relief work. These organisations started 132 free kitchens which concentrated particularly upon the worst affected areas of the Roberts Ganj and Dudhi tahsils, on Halia and Lalganj of Mirzapur tahsil, on Rajgarh block of Chunar tahsil.

In 1976 the monsoon was a bit late and the district was apprehending drought in all the four tahsils. Afterwards the rain was deficient and erratic from May 1976 to 10th September, 1976. Drought conditions continued in all the tahsils. The total loss to crops on account of drought amounted to Rs 5 crores. The government sanctioned Rs 3 lakhs for test works in drought affected areas.

Suddenly, heavy rainfall took place between 12th and 18th September in many parts of the district, resulting in rise in the levels of rivers Ganga, Garai, Jirga, and Calcalia and their tributaries in tahsils Chunar and Mirzapur. Tahsil Mirzapur had a severe type water logging in 478 villages due to heavy rains. Tahsils Roberts Ganj and Dudhi were also affected by excessive rains and water logging. Water logging in some parts of Mirzapur city was a matter of great concern for several days and caused considerable trouble to the people.

Floods, excessive rains, and water logging affected 1,213 villages. About 63,720 hectares of cropped area was affected and the loss is estimated at Rs 1,79,56,000. In all 22,970 houses either collapsed or were severely damaged. The loss in this respect was estimated at Rs 1,02,43,465. Fourteen human and 1,165 cattle lives were lost. The value of the crops lost on account of drought, floods, excessive rains and water logging amounted to Rs 6,79,56,000.

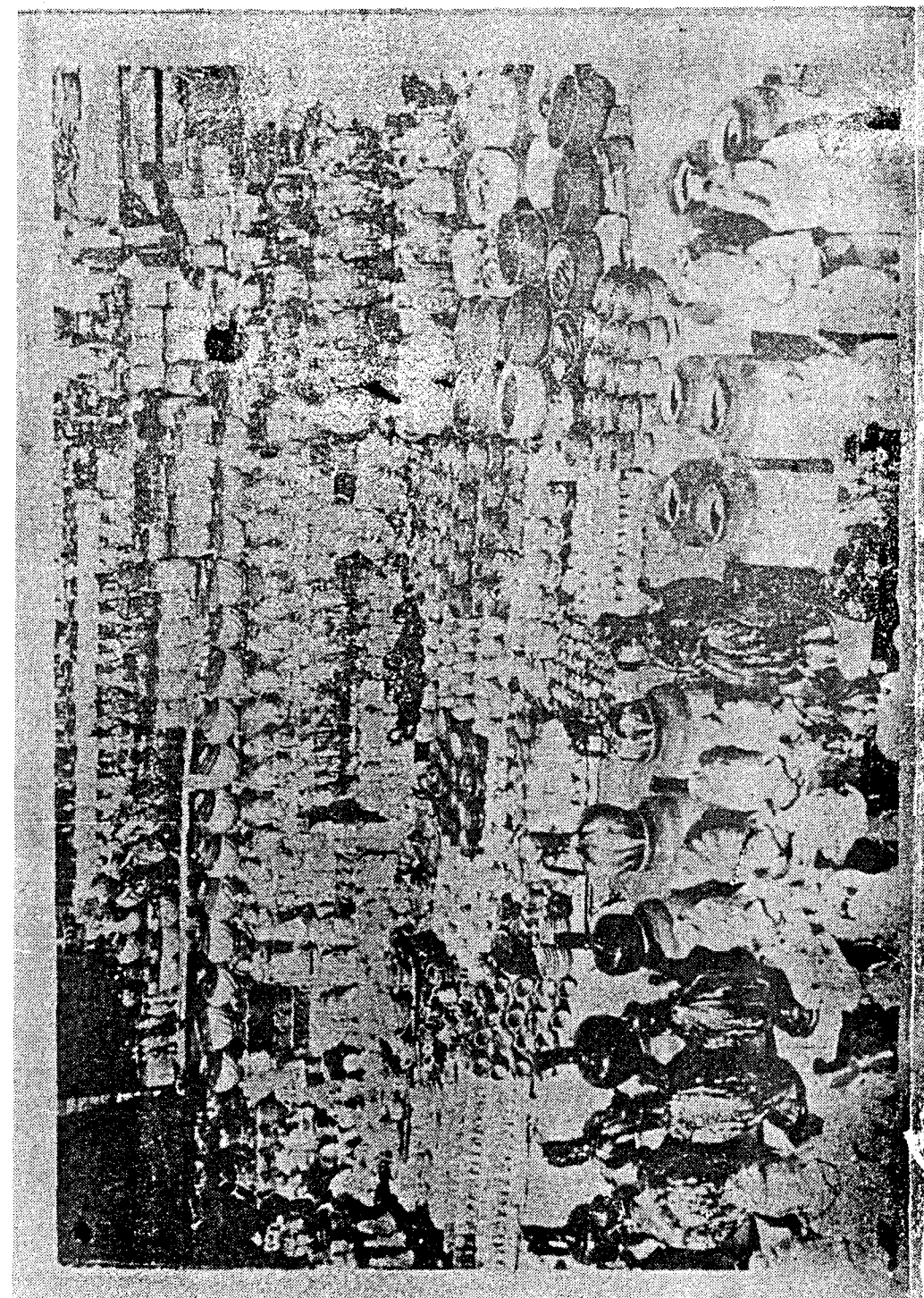
Relief measures consisted of flood protection schemes which were set afoot in all the affected tahsils, together with rescue operations such as evacuation of people from submerged and marooned areas, supply of essential commodities and anti-epidemic measures, etc.

The following statement gives tahsilwise data of loss due to floods, excessive rains, and water loggings in the district :

Particulars	Tahsil				Total
	Mirzapur	Chunar	Robarts Ganj	Dudhi	
					Rs
No. of villages affected	478	585	150	—	1,213
Total area affected in hectares	18,000	44,000	40,000	—	1,02,000
Cropped area affected in hectares	9,948	18,772	35,000	—	63,720
Estimated loss to crops in Rs	45,00,000	93,86,000	40,70,000	—	1,79,56,000
Population affected	1,15,000	1,88,509	1,18,000	—	4,16,509
No. of houses damaged or collapsed	9,705	12,015	1,250	—	22,970
No. of human lives lost	13	—	1	—	14
No. of cattle lives lost	1,164	—	1	—	1,165

The following table shows the amounts of remission of land revenue and land development tax during 1974-75 and 1975-76 :

Financial year	Amount of remission (in Rs)		
	Land revenue	Land development tax	Total
1974-75	91,567	5,28,862	6,19,929
1975-76	3,58,645	5,41,018	8,99,633



Chunar Pottery and Toys

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

OLD-TIME INDUSTRIES

The old-time industries in the district are not many, but they are significant. These industries are of local as well as international celebrity.

Tasar Silk Industry

There was formerly a certain amount of tasar-silk weaving carried on at Ahraura, but now only the spinning of thread from the cocoons is done there. According to the census of 1901, there were 187 persons enumerated as silk weavers or spinners by profession; and as their method of dealing with the cocoons differed from that in vogue elsewhere. The thread which is produced in this way is called tasar thread. This thread was exported to Varanasi where it was woven into cloth.

Pottery Industry

Chunar has a reputation for a species of pottery which was distinct from any other kind produced in Mirzapur. The chief articles manufactured are *surahis* (long-necked jars) of various shapes. These *surahis* are used in the summers for holding drinking water. They are made from two special clays, called *nakti* and *khāsi* and when unglazed are of a dark-brown colour. This colour is produced by mixing up powdered red stone with the clay paste. Vitreous and metallic glazes are applied. Red metallic glaze is very peculiar to the potters of Chunar though yellow glaze is also used. In Chunar the ornamentation and shape of the ware is purely English and is generally classic in character. It consists of embossed leaves and flower patterns made in moulds, manufacture of which has been hereditary among certain families of Kahars for generations. They also make a basket pattern in moulds which they buy from cane-weaving Khatiks. The art of glazing was introduced by Bacha, a Kahar. He had learnt this art from Bombay, but it is not applied as a rule to delicate ornamentation. A small export is done in the pottery of Chunar.

Brass Ware Industry

This is one of the most flourishing industries that Mirzapur has. The city, a centre for the manufacture of Hindu domestic utensils, such as *lotas* (a small metal pot), *batuas*, (a cooking pot) and *thalis* (a type of plate made of metal). At the census of 1901, the district contained 1,618 brass, copper, and bell-metal workers. The bulk of these were of the Kasera and Thathara castes. Broadly, three classes of artificers are engaged in this industry : mould-makers, brass-founders, and finishers. Yellow sandy clay is the best earth for mould which is known as *piari matti*, but only the *palla* (outer shell) is made of this, the *gakha* (core) being made of ordinary clay. The metals used in the manufacture of utensils are brass, *phul*, *kānsa*, *ledha phul*, *chilui phul*.

Shellac Industry

The manufacture of shellac was started in the nineteenth century by a Surgeon Turnbull. He was in the service of the East India Company. The beginnings of the industry were aided by the convenient situation of the city of Mirzapur on the Ganga. According to the census of 1901, there were 2,890 actual workers employed in or having connection with lac factories. In Mirzapur there were a large number of people who earned their livelihood by collecting lac and bringing it to the market. Stick lac was found in many trees such as *kusum* (a plant with yellow flowers), *palas* (a type of tree), *ber* (plum), *pipal* (a type of tree) *bargad* (banyan tree), *gular* (fig tree), but the best was obtained from the *kusum*. This is a golden resin known in the trade as *nagali*, from which the most valuable orange shellac was made. Another comes from the *palas*, which is known as *baisakhi* (the second month of the Hindu calendar year) or *kalki* (the eight month of the Hindu calendar year) because it is gathered in the month, Vaisakha or Kartika. These were the varieties which were used by the European firms. The indigenous factories mostly used the inferior article of any tree on which the lac insect was found. Today, however, the shellac industry is nearly non-existent.

Carpet Weaving Industry

It is not known exactly when the carpet weaving industry started at Mirzapur. In the days of Akbar carpets were made at Jaunpur and Allahabad, so it is possible that weavers might have migrated from these places to the district. There is no doubt, however, that the industry has been in existence for more than a hundred years. Manufacture of carpets first started in the village of Ghosia and then spread to the adjacent village of Madho Singh. These places are even today the chief centres of this industry in the rural tracts. These villages are situated on the Grand Trunk road and pilgrims pass this way on their way to Varanasi, Allahabad and Vindhyachal. Quite possibly, in early days the industry was stimulated by the demand for cheap carpets and prayer mats by these pilgrims. The district had later the advantage of producing wool. At any rate, the industry appears to have started in the rural tracts, and ever since it has maintained a rural character. It is remarkable that both Hindus and Muslims are engaged in it. Even Brahmanas and Rajputs are found among the Hindu carpet weavers. The Chamars and Pasis are excluded from it. Among the Muslims, Kalinbafs and *julahas* (weavers) form the majority of the workers. In both communities the majority of weavers were boys, who generally became apprentices at the age of nine or ten years, the period of apprenticeship lasting for about two years.

Carpet industry has put the name of Mirzapur on the industrial map of the world.

Other Industries

The other old-time industries of the district that deserve mention are the manufacture of iron vessels at Kachhwa and Mirzapur. At Ahraura lacquered toys of indigo, commonly known as "Benares toys," are produced in *tappa* Kon, and sugar is produced in Bhadohi. Iron vessels are exported from Mirzapur in increasing quantities. About

a hundred years ago there were two European indigo concerns, one at Khamaria in pargana Bhadohi which drew parts of its supply of raw material from the Allahabad district, and the other at Kachhwa in taluqa Majhwa. These turned out between them some eight hundred maunds of indigo. There were several other local firms also. Sugarcane is grown in nearly all the parganas and tappas. There was one sugar refinery working according to European methods. The methods do not differ from those in vogue in the other districts of Varanasi Division. The greater part of the produce is exported in the form of *gur* (Jaggery). Khajur palm is abundant round Chunar, and so palm sugar is manufactured there.

Every third or fourth day a good tree will produce *gur* (jaggery) more than three times the price of the corresponding produce of the cane. Besides these industries, there was one cotton spinning mill in Mirzapur town which employed a daily average of 560 hands. Apart from these, lime-making and wooden goods have existed as small industries since olden days.

Power

For agricultural and industrial development, power is an essential element. The rate of development of a society can be measured in terms of its power distribution and consumption.

Electrical power is available in the district from U.P. Grid. The per capita consumption of power was around 460 Kwh. in 1975.

The consumption of power in various sectors of the economy in the district in 1976 was as follows :

Sector	Total consumption (kwh.)	Number of connections (kwh.)
Industries	9,22,89,758	746
Agriculture and irrigation	2,82,75,149	2,522
Domestic, street, and others	2,02,58,118	17,621

Besides the town, electricity is available in around 400 villages of the district. The U.P. State electricity board has drawn up a scheme to electrify every village having a population of 500 or more. By the end of Fifth Plan, its programmes are likely to extend this benefit to 1,087 villages.

Large-scale Industries

There are five large-scale units in the district producing woollen blankets, caustic soda, and aluminium, while two other units produce cement.

lable this work is done through rolling mills. The raw materials needed for this industry are copper, galvanized nickel, and tin. In 1976-77 its total investment was Rs 270 lakh, total value of the production was Rs 1 lakhs and number of persons employed was 25,000.

Woollen Carpets—Woollen carpets are manufactured by 10 units in the district which are located in Mirzapur town and the rural areas near it. Carpets costing about Rs 4 crores are exported every year from this district. The main exporters are the Obeetee (Pvt.) Ltd., E. Hill and Co. and Union Commercial Corporation. To solve the problem of the shortage of weavers, teachers of the All India Handicraft Board are giving training to persons in groups of 50. In addition to this, the All India Handicraft Board is trying to open weaving training centres at Halia, Patehra, Marihan, Ghorawal, Rajgarh, Padri, Chunar, Narayanpur, Indarpur, Khajuri, Mohiakala, Sirsi, Kotwa, Lohara Kholi, Jamua, Maghara, and Baradih. The total investment and value of total production was Rs 100 lakhs and 400 lakhs respectively and number of persons employed was 10,000.

The following statement gives the total investment value of production the number of persons employed, and no. of units in the registered units of small-scale industries of the district :

Industry	Total investment (in thousand of Rs)	Total production (in thousand of Rs)	Number of persons employed	No. of units
Aluminium utensils	910	2,550	107	4* (all in Mirzapur)
Soaps	15	8,00,000	25	4*
General engineering	1,400	2,100	325	23
Chemicals	80	115	20	3*
Abrasives	225	450	50	11*
Potteries	600	810	180	12 (in Chunar)
Rubber items	4,250	600	62	1*
Cold storages	2,168	1,522	47	5*
Rice mills	966	1,888	18	4
Rolling mills	2,500	3,800	230	15*
Surkhi and lime	50	109	25	4*
Plastics	150	175	30	5*
Electrical engineering goods	2,400	1,200	250	23
Agriculture implements	1,400	1,200	325	23*
*All in Mirzapur town				

Cotton textiles, optical goods, surgical instruments, automobile parts, shellac, toys, metal utensils, transformers, woollen yarn, and china clay utensils, stable bleaching powder, insecticides and pesticides etc. are other important industries of the district.

VILLAGE AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

The village and cottage industries include mostly the handicrafts handed down from generation to generation. Leather, carpentry and smithery, pottery, and the production of ropes, Ayurvedic medicines, *gur* (jaggery) and *khandsari*, rice and pulses, soap, oil (from oil-seeds), matches, and woollen blankets are the main village and cottage industries of the district.

Leather—There are 21 units engaged in leather tanning which are located in Indarpur, Kotwa, Robarts Ganj, Drummond Ganj, Ahraura, City, Chunar, Ghorawal, Pattikalan, Bagha, Belkhara, Kolna, Ghurma Rorwa, Bisrekhi, Sundari and Rajkhar. As many as 235 persons are employed in this trade. Hides, babul bark and tanned leather are used as raw materials. Shoes and other leather goods are produced in these.

Carpentry and Smithery—There are 10 units engaged in this trade which manufacture minor agricultural tools and implements, tables, chairs, and doors etc. These units are located in Robarts Ganj, Baghi, Kachhwa, Meoli, Majhwa, City, Chunar, Dudhi, Maladharpur and Siltham. Only 25 persons are employed in this trade. Iron and wood are used as raw materials.

Rope—There are 2 units which are engaged in this industry. They manufacture ropes. These units are located in Pahar and Nairi Kathari. Hemp and reed are used as raw materials.

Ayurvedic Medicines—There is only 1 unit which is engaged in this trade. This unit is located in Narayanpur and 6 persons are employed in it.

Gur and Khandsari—There are 3 units engaged in this trade which are located in Kachhwa, Patharha, and Chak Sari. Sugar-cane is the main raw material and 13 persons are employed in this trade.

Soap—There are 4 units which manufacture soap. These units are located in Majhau, Kachhwa, Baghaur and Adalhat.

Oil—Production of oil is an old-time industry of this district. There are 8 units which are located in Majhwa, Chhionwey, Sikhar, Narayanpur and Rajgarh. About 70 persons are employed in this trade. Mustard seed is the main raw material used in this trade.

Pottery—As many as 62 units are engaged in the production of pottery. All of them are located in Chunar. About 130 persons are employed in this trade. They manufacture crockery. The raw materials used are clay, certain stones and chemicals.

Matches—Two units, which are located in Mirzapur and Narayanpur, are engaged in the manufacture of matches. Raw materials used are timber, potash, sulphur and other chemicals.

Dal and Rice—There are 13 units which are engaged in the production of dal and rice. These units are located in Patharha, Baghaura, Durgabazar, Vidlikatra, Rani Tal, Ratwal, Patehra, and Kachhwa. Only 33 persons are employed in this industry.

Other Industries—Sticks of cane and bamboo are produced in two units, which are located in Siltham and Domaria. About Rs 2,000 is invested in the trade in 1977. Woollen blankets are also produced in the unit which is situated in Mirzapur.

The following statement gives the total investment, the values of production and raw materials used in the village and cottage industries of the district in 1976-77 :

Industry	Total investment (in Rs)	Value of production (in Rs)	Value of raw material used (in Rs)
Leather	64,175	7,44,738	6,98,890
Carpentry and smithery	29,650	1,17,630	1,11,500
Ropes	14,920	22,675	19,400
Ayurvedic medicines	10,750	15,223	13,800
Gur and khandsari	8,010	21,000	16,000
*Soap	10,099	—	—
Oil (mainly mustard oil)	28,094	2,19,667	1,40,000
Pottery	59,385	1,46,850	1,28,500
*Matches	29,995	—	—
Dal and rice	31,407	27,350	24,250
*All the units were closed			

Industrial Estate

There is an industrial estate on Dr Ram Manohar Lohiya Marg, Mirzapur. This was established in 1965 in an area of 6.4 ha. The estate consists of 16 sheds, besides a few plots. 2 sheds are lying vacant. This estate was established at a cost of Rs 9,00,000 with 12 industries working in the city. These units manufacture various items such as centrifugal pumps and its spare parts, general engineering goods, power threshers, petroleum jelly, industrial waxes, hand-sewing needles, wire-cutters of non-ferrous metal, laundry soap, table-ware, etc. The production is worth Rs 2,67,200. It employs 67 persons. The estate has facilities of power and water.

AID TO INDUSTRIES

Mirzapur is one of the industrially developed districts of Uttar Pradesh. Even so, assistance is given to various industries in the district under the State Aid to Industries Act 1956 and the Credit Guarantee schemes of the State Bank of India and other nationalised banks in the district. Never the less, owing to dearth of enterprise in the district the credit facilities are not being fully utilized.

The U.P. financial corporation, Kanpur, extends assistance to industrial concerns on its own behalf and on behalf of the State Government. Its own plan of disbursement is known as the corporation loan scheme, while the loans advanced on behalf of the State Government are under the liberalized loan scheme and ordinary loan scheme. Under the former scheme, loans are advanced at reduced rates of interest (between 7 and 7.5 per cent with rebate for prompt payment) and for longer periods extending up to 15 years, and 50 per cent reduced guarantee commission. The corporation has been authorised to carry on and transact various types of business, but at present it has confined its activities to the granting of loans to industrial concerns and the issue of deferred payment guarantees to industrial units for the purchase of indigenous machinery from manufactures and suppliers, and to acting as an agent of the State Government for various schemes. The corporation can grant loans under the corporation loan scheme to the extent of Rs 30,00,000 in the case of private and public limited companies and registered co-operative societies, and Rs 15,00,000 in the case of proprietorship concern. The rate of interest is 11.5 per cent per annum with a rebate of 2 per cent for prompt payment. The loans under the ordinary loan scheme and liberalized loan scheme are considered for amounts ranging from Rs 5,000 to Rs 50,000. The applications for loans under the schemes are channelised through the district industries officer, Mirzapur. The interest charged is 7 per cent per annum. The loans are recoverable in eight equal instalments. The number of instalments is increased in the case of liberalised loan scheme. The following statement gives an idea of the loan assistance provided by the corporation :

Scheme	No. of units	Loan disbursement (in Rs) as on March 31, 1974	
Corporation Loan Scheme	7	6.39	Lakhs
Liberalised Loan Scheme	10	8.98	Lakhs
Ordinary Loan Scheme	6	0.63	Lakhs

The other institutions which have rendered assistance to the industries are Uttar Pradesh small-scale industries corporation, Kanpur, the national small industries corporation, and the Pradesh industrial and investment corporation, Lucknow. The State Government is also

providing help through the handloom industry scheme, the khadi development scheme, the intensive development scheme, the credit and grant scheme, and the industrial co-operative society scheme. Nationalised banks are also giving loans for the development of industries.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL

With the introduction of modern methods of cultivation and a minimum price guarantee for agricultural production, both the economic condition of the people has improved and the district has been provided a better base for industrial development. The prospects for establishing new industries may be analysed on the basis of available resources and existing and anticipated demand for manufactured items in the district. Since there are five large-scale units in the district, there is scope for the establishment of fresh units as also for some ancillary industries.

For industrial resources of the district the mineral resources offer a fair prospect. The cement industry has only used limestone among the available minerals.

The two cement factories in the district utilise only a small portion of the vast limestone reserves in the district, estimated, around 2,800 lakh tonnes. One more cement factory is proposed in Chunar, for the manufacture of blast furnace slag cement. The possibility of using productively the fly ash at Obra would bear investigation in this context. According to estimates, 20 per cent of the quantity of cement production can be done from fly ash. The cement units of the district could try to utilise the fly ash available to the optimum extent.

Further exploration, it is understood, may yield another 1,000 lakh tonnes of limestone in Mirzapur which can feed more cement units or aid the expansion of the existing ones. About 50 cement projects have been approved in the country in the public and private sectors, with a production capacity of 170 lakh tonnes, of which projects turning out are around 30 lakh tonnes, it is learnt, are under implementation. For 1978-79 the production target is around 250 lakh tonnes, corresponding to a capacity of about 290 lakh tonnes. Having regard to the cost of cement machinery and scale economies, higher capacity plants of 1,000 to 1,200 tonnes a day are now considered preferable.

Another possibility that can be considered in the large sector is the manufacture of calcium carbide from high grade limestone. For the manufactures of acetylene gas, which is used in the engineering and chemical industries, calcium carbide is used. It is roughly estimated that the calcium carbide required by 1978-79 would be 2,15,000 tonnes, where as the installed capacity for its production is around 74,000 tonnes. It is learnt that enough capacity has already been licensed, but its requirement may increase if organic chemicals and plastics now dependent on oil products are diverted through the acetylene route.

Industrial potential for small-scale industries is based on the infrastructure and the available resources.

For the manufacture of lime there are a few small units. Apart from some, most of these use conventional methods. Good quality lime finds extensive use in such industries as sugar, chemicals, or insecticides. As building materials lime and lime pozzolana are in demand.

A methodology for the manufacture of lime mixtures and lime pozzolana suited for building construction, is being developed by the Central Building Research Institute at Roorkee, it is learnt. There is scope at Mirzapur for setting up one or two modern lime-kilns in the district using improved shaft kilns at Robarts Ganj.

There is possibility for the manufacture of good quality bricks using fly ash as one of the raw materials. By the use of fly ash coal consumption will reduce at the rate of 5 tonnes per lakh of bricks produced.

Another possible avenue is the manufacture of caustic soda. Caustic soda is being produced by one unit. It is learnt that capacities upto 1.60 lakh tonnes have already been approved in the country against a requirement of 10 lakh tonnes by 1978-79.

There are rich deposits of fire clay in different parts of Mirzapur. But they cannot be utilised for industrial purpose because of their non-plastic nature and high porosity. This has been reported by samples of clay from three areas. But it is reported that it can be utilised for the manufacture of standard fire bricks if suitable plastic fire clay could be mixed with it. There is a good demand for fire clay bricks in the district, so one more unit may be set up at Robarts Ganj. An investment of Rs 3,50,000 to Rs 4,00,000 may be required for setting up one unit which can provide employment to about 35 persons.

A further possibility exists in the mineral field but intensive work in exploitation and development needs to be done.

High grade of dolomite is reported to be found in the Kajrahat belt of the district. Dolomite will be ideally suited for the use of flux material in steel melting because of its low insoluble and high MgO contents.

The marble which is found in the district is not suitable for the chemical industry because of its high silica content. But it is learnt that they can be utilised for cement manufacture and for making marble chips.

Cement pipes also have a fair market, and so one unit may be considered for establishment at Robarts Ganj with a production capacity of 12,000 tonnes. It will require an investment of Rs 70 lakhs and its prospect of employment will be 90 hands. This unit would need a connected load for power of 250 KW.

Another possible unit which may be considered for establishment at Robarts Ganj is that of cement poles, with a production capacity of 20,000 tonnes per year. This unit may require an investment of Rs 40 lakhs and may provide employment to about 150 persons. The power required for it will be 400 KW.

There is possibility of utilising the available skills to develop a pottery complex in this district which needs to be examined in detail. Production of items such as sanitary ware, electrical insulators, and crockery should be undertaken. The development centre could be strengthened so as to provide the necessary technical know-how, servicing facilities, supply of raw materials, and marketing assistance to the producers. The possibility of putting up one or two modern units also needs to be examined.

One unit may be installed for the manufacture of porcelain scientific ware, on an investment of Rs 3,00,000 to Rs 4,00,000 with an employment potential of 10, at Chunar or Mirzapur.

L.T. electric insulators is another area of manufacture where one unit could be set up at Chunar or Mirzapur, on an investment of Rs 5,00,000 with an employment potential of 20.

With an investment of Rs 6,00,000 Kit Kat could also be made in one unit at Mirzapur or Chunar with an employment potential of 20.

There is also scope for setting up one unit in the district for nuts and bolts because they are in great demand there. The investment required for this unit is Rs 2,00,000 and its employment capacity would be 15.

Engineering units working in Robarts Ganj are ill-equipped and are not in a position to undertake all the work that is available. So there is scope for setting up one modern unit with fabric facilities at Robarts Ganj on an investment of Rs 3,00,000.

Bamboo and *savai* grass which are available here can be utilised in the paper industry for chemical pulp. Bamboo plantation on a large scale can be taken up by the forest department which is expected to produce large quantities of bamboo in the district in a few years. Putting up a pulp unit at Mirzapur or Robarts Ganj may be considered on the availability of raw materials. Caustic soda and lime, which are the other raw materials required in this connection, are available in large quantities.

Salai timber which is found in the forests here could be utilised for making pulp in mechanical digesters. Setting up one mechanical pulp unit at Robarts Ganj or Chopan needs investigation, whether the raw materials available in these places are sufficient or not.

One wood working unit for the manufacture of such items as packing-cases, electrical wooden accessories, and furniture can be considered at Mirzapur with an investment of Rs 4,00,000 and an employment potential of 15.

Another possible avenue of industrial exploitation through the market potential is the manufacture of straw board, utilising paddy straw, bagasse, grass, and bamboo. In the large sector an integrated board

plant may be considered at Mirzapur with a production capacity of 100 tonnes a day. The power required for it will be around 1,200 KW. It will need an investment of Rs 300 lakh and could provide employment to about 400 hands.

At Ahraura and Mirzapur, toy industry is carried on at the cottage level. There is good scope for organising this industry more extensively and intensively by utilising the kurai wood which is available in the district. Provision of finance and marketing assistance to the small producers is strongly needed. There is possibility of putting up a toy development centre to provide such assistance at Ahraura.

Large quantity of shellac is produced in the district. Traditional methods of processing are employed by the existing shellac unit. To increase production, there is need to reorganise these and introduce modern techniques. Production of sealing-wax from shellac may also be considered.

There is also a possibility for the manufacture of bone meal. For this one unit may be considered at Roberts Ganj on an investment of Rs 2,00,000.

Another industrial possibility to be examined is the manufacture of starch from potato, which has an extensive use in such industries as textiles, paper, leather and pharmaceuticals. One unit may be considered at Roberts Ganj or Mirzapur with a production capacity of one tonne of starch a day. The unit requires an investment of Rs 5,00,000.

The utilisation of semal wood available here for the manufacture of match splints may be considered at Roberts Ganj.

Another feasible avenue is the manufacture of furniture and items like handles, stoppers, knobs, and door hinges, etc. Two or three units may be considered at Roberts Ganj and Mirzapur, each with an investment of Rs 3,00,000 to Rs 4,00,000.

One unit may be considered at Mirzapur for the manufacture of bicycle accessories like stands, carriers, etc. on an investment of Rs 8,00,000.

With the advancement of medical aid and expansion of hospitals and primary health centres, the demand for distilled saline and glucose water has increased and so some manufacturing units can be easily set up to meet this demand. Besides, units for the manufacture of steel furniture, rolling shutters, conduit pipes, mixed fertilisers, cattle feed, agricultural implements, electrical goods, hosiery items, ready-made garments, cycle parts, polythene sheets and bags, plastic novelty items, and toys and toilet articles can be set up in the district. There is scope for a few more cold storages also.

Labour Organization

There were 35 trade unions registered in the district in 1974, with a total membership of about 17,888 workers. The main objects of these trade unions are to ensure fair wages, good living and working condition, proper medical and educational facilities for labourers, and their general welfare. They also help in creating healthy relationship between the employers and employees. The district has three labour welfare centres at Ganeshganj, Renukoot, and Cement Factory Churk. The details of labour welfare organisations and activities have been given in chapter XVII of this volume.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

BANKING AND FINANCE

Indigenous Banking

In early days, when Mirzapur was a great commercial centre, many wealthy men and bankers, with correspondents in other parts of India, resided in the city. When it ceased to be a great emporium, their wealth likewise decreased, and in 1911 there was a bank and a few village banks (co-operatives) in the district. Village banks provided credit to their members in the village.

Although Mirzapur has grown into an important industrial and production centre yet there is still enough scope for indigenous banking facilities.

General Credit Facilities

During an agricultural or natural calamity, loans are granted to tide over the crisis caused by the failure of crops. Sometimes when there is extensive damage to dwellings, loans are also granted for the re-construction of houses. During such periods of difficulty, even agricultural labour is extended these facilities.

The village artisan is also given the credit facility to enable him to purchase raw material, equipment or tools for his craft. This facility is also available to small-scale entrepreneurs or technicians setting up their own production units.

Indebtedness

A large percentage of population is indebted both in rural and urban areas. Illiteracy, general backwardness, social customs and litigation account for rural indebtedness. In urban areas it is usually due to extravagant spending.

Usury prevails in the district and according to estimates about 6 per cent of the loan requirement is met by this system.

Generally it is a short-term loan which these people take on such occasions as marriages, religious ceremonies and festivals. Sometimes loans are taken for litigation, education of children and construction of houses. The marginal agriculturist has also to seek loans for purchase of seeds, fertilisers or other inputs. In urban areas, the low-paid employees, unable to meet their monthly expenditure, take loans towards the end of month repayable on the next pay day.

It is estimated that 85 per cent of the employees of such establishments as have provident fund facilities withdraw from the fund. Conveyance advance, where available, is availed of by about 15 per cent of the employees. Between 5 to 10 per cent of the employees are also indebted to their employers (including State Government) for house building loans.

Private Money-lender

The private money-lender is the most important agency in the district and meets the loan requirements of the public to the extent of about 60 per cent. The rates of interest vary according to security. On mortgage of landed property the rate varied between 6 to 12 per cent in 1911, while on pledging of ornaments, between 8 to 9 per cent. Unsecured loans were available at 18 to 36 per cent. The rates now are even higher. It is also customary to deduct in advance the interest for one month on the date of the advancement of loan.

By a recent legislation persons engaged in this profession have to obtain registration. The rates of interest have been prescribed. This measure is expected to afford relief to the people going in for loans from private money-lenders.

People find it convenient to get loans from the private money-lender, as he is easily available, is known to the parties, and they have grown accustomed to going to him in their hour of need, even though his rates of interest are high. And hence we have the private money-lender meeting more than half of the total loan requirements of the people.

There were 567 money-lenders registered in the district till December, 1976, under the U.P. Regulation of Money-lending Act, 1976. The total amount of loan advanced by them till December, 1976, was Rs 12,37,420 at the interest of 14 per cent per annum on secured loans and 17 per cent per annum on unsecured loans.

Commercial Banks

In 1911 an institution called the Indian National Bank was opened in Muhalla Bariaghat. It appears to have closed down at some later date, and no development took place for another thirty-five years.

The pioneer in commercial banking is the Central Bank of India which opened a branch in Mirzapur city in 1947. It was followed by Allahabad Bank (1948), Punjab National Bank (1951), and the State Bank of India (1953). The only addition during the latter quarter century being the Union Bank of India in 1973.

Banaras State Bank was the first to open a branch, in a place other than the district headquarters. This was at Kuchhwa in 1961, followed by Punjab National Bank at Roberts Ganj in 1962.

The main expansion in banking took place after bank nationalisation in 1969 and change in banking policies. By the end of 1975 there were thirty-one branches of seven banks in the district, besides Mirzapur city. The following statement indicates the position of banks in the district :

Place	Name of bank	Year
1	2	3
Robarts Ganj	Punjab National Bank	1962
	State Bank of India	1960
	Allahabad Bank	1975
	United Commercial Bank	1963
Chunar	Banaras State Bank	1968
	State Bank of India	1967
Churk	Allahabad Bank	1974
	State Bank of India	1971
Kachhwa	Banaras State Bank	1961
	Allahabad Bank	1972
Obra	Banaras State Bank	1967
	State Bank of India	1969
Renukoot	State Bank of India	1972
	United Commercial Bank	1963
Adalhat	Union Bank of India	1971
Ahaura	Banaras State Bank	1966
Beena	State Bank of India	1977
Chilh	Allahabad Bank	1973
Chopan	United Commercial Bank	1974
Dalla	State Bank of India	1972
Dudhi	Allahabad Bank	1970
Ghorawal	United Commercial Bank	1974
Khatra	Allahabad Bank	1975
Lalganj	Allahabad Bank	1972

(Contd.)

1	2	3
Marihan	Allahabad Bank	1974
Mirzapur	Union Bank of India	1973
Narayanpur	Allahabad Bank	1971
Renunsagar	United Commercial Bank	1974
Ramgarh	Allahabad Bank	1974
Vijaypur	Allahabad Bank	1972
Wyndhamganj	Allahabad Bank	1974
Vindhyachal	State Bank of India	1972

In 1975 the total deposits of all these banks amounted to Rs 1,93,307 thousands and the advances to priority and other sectors came to Rs 20,029 and 1,03,562 thousands respectively, the advance deposit ratio being 63.9. The advances to different units of priority sectors were as follows :

Priority sector	No. of units	Advances (in thousand Rs)
Agriculture	1,131	6,348
Small-scale industries	389	8,572
Retail trade and small business	257	1,409
Exports	8	2,597
Road and water transport	30	985
Professional and employed persons	37	118
Total	1,852	20,029

Co-operative Banks and Credit Societies

The District Co-operative Bank was established on September 5, 1916, to meet the need of financing the co-operative credit societies. There is a branch at Robarts Ganj. The District Co-operative Bank does not directly advance loans to individuals. By 1973-74, it had total deposit of Rs 80 lakhs and advances of Rs 190 lakhs. Nearly half of the advances were medium term.

As early as 1912 three co-operative credit societies were established. The number rose to 4 in 1913, and to 35 in 1916. In 1976 there were 331 societies with a total membership of 1,27,397. The amount of short-term loan advanced up to December, 1976, was to the tune of Rs 94 lakhs benefiting, 1,34,771 families. The rate of interest charged was 11.5 per cent.

However, the overdues of the societies amounted to Rs 1,13,08,000 in 1975-76, when 60 societies were uneconomic. The per capita loans advanced by societies was Rs 90 in 1970-71, which increased to Rs 122 in 1975-76.

There is also a U.P. Co-operative Land Development Bank Ltd, with branches at each tahsil.

The first branch of the bank was opened in 1960 at Mirzapur, second at Chunar in 1964, the third at Roberts Ganj in 1971 and the fourth branch at Dudhi in 1976.

The bank advanced loans amounting to Rs 89,63,000 in 1975-76.

There are other co-operative societies which also help their members who are only in a particular trade or profession. Their number at present is twenty-five comprising 6 fishermen, 1 poultry, 1 piggery, 11 salary groups, 2 rickshaw-pullers, and 4 housing co-operatives.

General and Life Insurance

With the nationalisation of life insurance only Life Insurance Corporation is carrying out this business. Its office was opened in Mirzapur on 1st September, 1956. Later another branch was opened at Roberts Ganj. The number of policies and the sums assured are steadily increasing as the following figures indicate :

	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76
No. of policies	2,279	2,081	2,441
Sum assured	Rs 2,29,43,000	Rs 2,54,66,000	Rs 3,56,77,250

General Insurance has also been nationalised and one branch functions at Mirzapur.

National Savings Organisation

The post-office savings bank scheme has been in vogue since the last decade of the nineteenth century. This and other subsequent small savings schemes have been formulated to tap the savings of those who generally do not subscribe to government loans and to inculcate the habit of thrift among people, as well as to utilise the savings in national development schemes. The defence deposits and national defence certificates were introduced in 1962. The funds were raised for the defence of the country. Various other securities have been floated from time to time. The Government of India introduced a 15 year public provident funds scheme in 1974-75, for the benefit of those people who have no regular saving schemes for old age like pension or provident fund.

The following statement indicates some relevant data about the district from April to December, 1976 :

	Rs
No. of accounts	17,430
Total value of mature securities	2,90,84,500

State Assistance to Industrial Development

The red clay industry based at Chunar manufactures utensils, toys, and decoration pieces, which are characteristic of this district. The Government Ceramic Development Centre at Chunar is engaged in developing white ceramics. It provides various raw materials and designs, under the guidance of a technical qualified officer known as ceramist. This industry has received the special attention of the government as it has existed from very ancient times. For other industries, assistance in various forms is provided. Feasibility reports about new projects are necessary in view of improvement in production methods and raw material availability, but an average entrepreneur is unable to bear the cost of preparation of the report. State Government gives grant-in-aid to the extent of 50 per cent through U.P. Industrial Consultants, Kanpur. Financial assistance is also provided by various State and Central corporations besides banks. U.P. Financial Corporation also sanctions loans for new industries at low interest rates. The difference in interest due to increase in rate of interest above 7 per cent to engineer entrepreneurs is also granted as aid by State Government through U.P. Financial Corporation where it has been taken after August 16, 1974, for purchase of land, plant, and machinery. Rebate on electricity dues to the extent of 9 paise per unit to some selected industries, with sanctioned load of up to 20 h.p. and where capital does not exceed Rs 25 lakhs, is given. In addition they get relief from electricity duty for just three years. The State Industrial and Investment Corporation grants interest-free loans equivalent to sales tax deposited by such industrial units registered under Factories Act, during the first three years of production. This facility is also available for the industries going in for expansion.

To overcome the difficulty of installation of new and improved type of machinery, the U.P. Small-scale Industries Corporation installs machinery on hirepurchase basis. Imported machinery is arranged by National Small-scale Industries Corporation, New Delhi.

The supply of raw materials is arranged by U.P. Small Industries Corporation for units requiring coal, cement, copper, lead, zinc, nickel, tin, aluminium ingot, iron and steel, sulphur, palm and coconut oil, mercury, and sodium nitrate, etc., through various sales depots, which sell them on the recommendation of the directorate of industries. This corporation also imports raw materials on behalf of such industrial units as get industrial import licences from the Government of India.

The State store purchase department grants priority to articles produced by small units of the State, and even when the difference in price is up to 15 per cent they are given preference over those produced by large-scale industry.

Certain products have demand in foreign countries. To overcome the handicaps of technicalities of export regulations, the U.P. Export Corporation registers items and gives assistance, by establishing contracts in foreign markets.

There is one industrial estate extending over 15.81 acres at Pathrauri in Mirzapur, since 1962, where plots and sheds are allotted at concessional rates, and power has been made available under the aegis of U.P. State Industrial Development Corporation. Since 1964 an industrial training cum-extension centre has been working. The manager/officer-in-charge of the estate is an engineer.

Tagavi loans are advanced by the government for agricultural purposes. The rate of interest was 8½ per cent. The following statement shows the amounts allotted and the actual amount of loans distributed:

Year	Amount allotted (in Rs)	Actual amount distributed (in Rs)
1974-75	3,80,000	2,07,500
1975-76	4,31,200	1,86,200

Currency and Coinage

The decimal coinage was introduced from April, 1957. The rupee was maintained as the basic coin and it was now divided into 100 paise in place of the earlier division of sixteen annas. The new coins are in the denominations of 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 25, 50 and 100 paise. Some special coins of 10 rupees and 50 rupees have also been introduced.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Mirzapur has been an important trade centre. Besides exporting the locally produced articles like iron and brass vessels, carpets, minerals, stone and forest produce like shellac and tendu leaf, and importing copper and lead, it was terminal centre for transit trade during the days of river traffic.

The river traffic reached its zenith in 1840, when from its position at the head of the steam navigation of the Ganga, Mirzapur city attracted a very large share of the cotton trade from the south. In 1847 the annual value of the transit trade in this article alone was stated at nearly a million and quarter sterling; and the traders of Mirzapur had their agents scattered all over Bundelkhand, then the main cotton producing region of the province. The boats that in those days plied over the Yamuna returned to Rajapur, Kalpi, Agra and other marts in upper India, freighted with sugar, rice and cloth in exchange for the cotton and gram which they had brought down. The development of the railway system changed the mode of transport in the country. The steam

traffic or river traffic nearly ceased and that of use of native boats was confined to the transport of stones from one bank of the river to the other.

The most famous article of export¹ are carpets. The carpet industry is very old and is located around Mirzapur city. About Rs 5 crore worth of locally manufactured carpets are exported, and a considerable amount of foreign exchange is earned as these carpets are in great demand in Europe and America. For the manufacture of carpets and woollen blankets, wool is imported. Barrack blankets, shoddy blankets and shoddy are also exported to the value of over a crore of rupees. Ready-made cotton clothes are also exported.

Another item of export is brass utensils and articles which have been manufactured in Mirzapur city from the good old days. Brass seraps are imported for this purpose.

Another famous industry, coming down from ages, is Chunar potteries. The exports amount to about Rs 5 lakh worth of goods comprising chinaware and decorative pieces per annum.

Other traditional items of export manufactured locally, are leather articles, wooden toys, and silk cloth from Ahraura; marble goods from Chopan and Chunar and chaff-cutters from Kachhwa. For these industries raw material imported are marble, stone, iron, and metal scraps.

Mirzapur has now become an industrialised district, manufacturing cement, aluminium, chemicals and electrical goods all of which are exported. For the manufacture of cement, gypsum, coal and laterite are imported. The factories are located at Churk and Dalla. Exports are estimated at Rs 1,000 lakhs per year.

Aluminium cables, ingots and sheets valued at Rs 2,962 lakhs are exported from Renukoot, for whose manufacture bauxite and flouride are imported.

Chemicals manufactured and exported from Renukoot are caustic soda, liquid chlorine hydrochloric acid, stable bleaching powder and benzene hexachloride which are worth about Rs 8.5 crores. Raw materials imported for their manufacture are common salt, lime, benzene, and soda ash.

From Pipri electrical goods worth about Rs 10 lakhs are exported.

Among forest produce the articles exported are tendu leaf, lac, honey, gum, and bark used for making dyes. Mirzapur is rich in minerals. Traditional exports are those of stone and stone articles and mica. Sanpatwa (sunn-hemp) is exported for the manufacture of artificial silk. For manufacture of *bidis*, tobacco is imported and more than Rs 10 lakhs worth of *bidis* are exported.

1. Figures mentioned in the draft indicate annual exports and imports, unless otherwise mentioned

Agricultural products exported are mustard, barley, jowar, paddy and pea. Fish is also exported from Pipri.

Articles imported for common consumption are salt, kerosene, cloth, rice, wheat, coal, pulses, gur, sugar, consumer goods, cosmetics, toilet articles, cycles and its components, petroleum products, besides fertilisers, seeds, agricultural implements for the farmer.

Regulated Markets

Four *mandis* of the district are regulated markets situated at Mirzapur city, Ahraura, Roberts Ganj and Chunar, which are also the centres of whole-sale trade.

Wholesale Trade—The Mirzapur city *mandi* is a very old market and is known as Mukeri Bazar. The *mandi* assumed special importance during the times of water-borne trade. It is chiefly the centre for the sale of stone, building timber, lac, tendu leaf, *bidi*, bamboos, woollen carpets, and brass utensils, besides food-grains and food-stuffs such as wheat, gram, barley, maize, pulses, rice, oil-seeds, ghee and fish. It is the main assembling market for food-grains, and about 2,23,600 quintals of food-grains are sold annually.

Ahraura is situated in paddy growing area, and is an important centre for marketing of paddy and rice besides other food-grains, the annual turn over being in the vicinity of 85,000 quintals. Hand-made silk and cotton fabrics are also traded here.

Roberts Ganj in the southern part of the district, is situated on a level plane in a paddy growing belt. Its grain *mandi* grew during the early British days and caters for the entire grain trade of the southern area. The products traded are paddy, wheat, mixed grains, mustard, ghee and *khora*. About 1,95,330 quintals of food-grains are traded in this *mandi* annually.

Chunar is more particularly famous for manufacture of clay utensils. It was a cantonment in its early days and hence grew into a trading centre, assuming special importance during Moghul times. It is a very old for food-grains *mandi* with an average annual turn-over nearly 27,000 quintals of food-grains.

These *mandis* are now regulated under the U.P. Mandi-Samiti Adhiniyam, which requires the wholesalers and brokers to obtain a licence to deal in different items. The samiti also charges a commission on sale and purchase of the same.

Other *mandis* are at Dudhi, Ghorawal, Kachhwa, and Majhwa.

Dudhi is situated on a level plane in a cleared area in the hilly and forest tract, which situation has helped it to develop into a good food-grains *mandi* from a village market. Other articles marketed are *khand-sari*, gur and oil-seeds. About 29,240 quintals of food-grains are sold in this market annually.

Ghorawal is also in a hilly and forest area and has developed into a flourishing grain trading centre. Raja Barhal's cantonment was situated here, which gave a fillip to its growth.

Kachhwa, being situated across the river Ganga, grew into a big *mandi*, meeting the needs of the trans-river area. It lies on the main route to Allahabad and Varanasi which considerably helped in its development. Food-grains, gur, rice, pulses are the main articles traded here. Majhwa is situated in the main wheat-growing area and has now developed into an important wholesale trading centre from a mere village market.

The agricultural produce is brought by the farmers, and business is transacted at 1.50 per cent *arhat* (commission) and 5 per cent brokerage.

The other agricultural commodities also traded in these *mandis* are barley, peas, millet, oil-seeds, potato and *mahua*.

Retail Trade—Mirzapur city, Chunar, Ahraura, Narayanpur, Kachhwa, Roberts Ganj, Chopan, Dulla, Renukoot, Obra, Dudhi, Pipri, Rousagar and Ghorawal are also important retail marketing centres. The growth of population in these towns has led to an increase in demand of consumer goods. Trading centres have come up in industrial towns to cater for the needs of the factory labour and employees. In addition, there are about 50 rural markets called *bats* or bazars, which are held once, twice or thrice a week. Food-grains, oil-seeds, cloth, vegetables and other consumer goods are sold in these markets. About 25,450 retail traders are operating in the district.

The following statement gives the number of bazars that are held at different places in each tahsil of the district :

Tahsil	No. of bazars
Mirzapur	18
Dudhi	12
Chunar	12
Roberts Ganj	8
Total	50

Fairs

In rural areas fairs, usually associated with some festivals, are held. They afford an opportunity to people residing in neighbouring areas to make purchases of their requirements. They have grown into seasonal marketing centres, where goods are brought by distant traders for sale. Important among them are the Vinhyachal fair during the two Navratras; the Shiv Shukra fair at Dikhitpur in Narayanpur block in Chaitra.

the Sivaratri fair at Bhuili (Jamalpur block), the Ramnauami fair at Kuriari (Chopan block) and the Dasahra fair at Robarts Ganj. The more important articles traded in these fairs are toys, bangles, cosmetics, toilet, handloom cloth, pottery, brass utensiles and wooden furniture, etc.

Rural Marketing Centres

There are certain villages where periodic markets are held, catering for the needs of a group of villages. In some of these such as Chilh, Khamria, Anrawal, Lalganj, Hanuman Road, Marihan, Turka, Madupur, and Jamwa, regular markets have sprung up.

Co-operative Movement in Trade

An integrated co-operative credit and marketing scheme was introduced in 1956-57, when two societies were formed. Co-operative marketing societies of Mirzapur and Ahraura, function as *kachcha arhatias*, for marketing the produce of their members only. They have capital investments of Rs 1.10 lakhs and Rs 9.50 lakhs respectively. Two more societies were established later at Robarts Ganj and Kachhwa with investments of Rs 8 lakhs and Rs 1 lakh respectively.

District Co-operative Federation also carries out business in certain items. It sells bricks manufactured at a number of brick-kilns operated by it.

There are three co-operative retail centres in Mirzapur city, namely Shiwala Mahant Consumers Co-operative Store, the Town Hall Trad Consumers' Co-operative Store and the Mahila Upphokta Samiti in Arya Kanya Degree College. The Churk Co-operative Store at Churk caters to the need of the people there, particularly those working in and about the cement factory.

There are 49 primary consumer stores and 11 salary earners' co-operative societies.

Fair Price Shops

Fair price shops were opened for distribution of wheat, rice, sugar, coarse grain, flour, maida, and suji, at controlled rates. In 1975-76, there were 106 such shops in the urban and 302 in the rural areas.

Merchant Associations

There has been a trend to form associations of different trade and merchants since the thirties, but lately it has gained momentum and now almost all these are covered in some association or other in Mirzapur city. The main body, however, is the Mirzapur Vyapar Mandal with a membership of 200 in 1975.

Another important association is the Mirzapur General Merchants Associations with membership of 180. The Mirzapur Metal Traders Association, the Chapra Vyapar Vahini Sabha, the Stone Merchants Association, the Quality Marked Woollen Carpet Manufacturers, the Tyre Dealers Association, and the Mirzapur Cheap Grain Dealers Union are some of the more important of the twenty five associations of different trades.

Weights and Measures

In the first half of this century the standards of weight used to be different for different commodities called *lagauri*, although the common weight in use was *dhara*, equivalent to four seers of 80 tolas each. Thus *lagauri* of refined sugar contained $34\frac{1}{2}$ *dhara*s, of unrefined sugar $33\frac{1}{2}$, salt 33, betel-nut 30, and lime 32. There were two kinds of *man*, the one of 48 government seers used for the weightment of fire-wood, metals and spices, and the other of 40 seers for sugar and grain. Dealers in oil-seeds employed a seer known as *anjai ser* (seer) equivalent to the weight of 82 rupees and 10 annas in silver. A common measure of capacity had as unit a *kama*, which was a quarter of a *ser* (seer) of 96 tolas. Likewise the common measure of length was *hath*, roughly equivalent of 18 inches. Pakka bigha was 3,025 square yards, while village bigha was variable.

A unified system of weights and measures was introduced for the first time in October, 1958, ending the confusion of multifarious system of weights and measures. Its most important feature was that the old weights and measures were completely scrapped and standard international measures like litre and kilogram, based on metric system, were adopted for volume and weight. Correspondingly the measure for length now is kilometre and for area the hectare. For cloth and similar articles the standard measure is the metric, while for precious metals it is the gram.

A table of conversion factors from old to the metric system of weights and measures appears in Appendix section of this volume.

CHAPTER VII COMMUNICATIONS

Trade Routes and Highways

Mirzapur has enjoyed a unique importance and from very early times warriors, traders, and pilgrims from far and near have flocked to it. It was commercially important as well and the Ganga constituted the great natural route between the east and the west, making it accessible by river which was a far easier means of transit than the very poor roads of ancient days. This river continued to be a well-frequented highway till the beginning of this century when, with the advent of metalled roads and railways, its importance as a mode of riverine transport dwindled. During the Mughal period there were tracks connecting Mirzapur with Ghazipur and Ramnagar but these were in a bad state, being negotiable by vehicle in the dry weather only and remaining impassable during the rains. It was under the British that road construction began rapidly and in 1883, the total length of roads was 1,600 km. of which three-fifths were mere beaten tracks, which except in rare and distant instances, received no attention and were never repaired. By 1911, the roads of the district were divided into two classes : provincial and local. The former were entirely under the control of the public works department, the cost of upkeep being met from provincial revenues; while the latter were under local management, though the actual work of repair to such of them as were metalled was carried out through the agency of the public works department, the expenses being met from the local funds. At this time the length of the metalled roads which were maintained by the district board was 131 km. Besides this, roads with a total length of 1,155 km. traversed the district in all directions. No fewer than 962 km. of this total were designated sixth class; and the majority of them, especially in the hilly tracts were mere bullock tracks more or less passable or impassable according to the season of the year. In all the total length of the metalled roads in the district was about 254 km. In 1920-21, the total length of the metalled roads under the public works department was about 131 km. and in 1931-32, because of further construction undertaken by the department, it rose to about 202 km. Consequently, the massive development of metalled roads took place in the district at a later date, and in the year 1947, the district had 406 km. of metalled roads out of which 251 km. were under the public works department, and 155 km. under the district board. During 1947 and 1963, construction of about 120 km. of new metalled roads and reconstruction of about 101 km. of local metalled roads was completed. During the Third Five-year Plan (1961-66), 16 km. of metalled road were constructed under *shramdan* (voluntary labour) which was later taken over by the public works department for maintenance. At the end of the third Five-year Plan there were 544 km. of metalled roads in the district, including 35 km. under the Zila Parishad. In 1975-76, there were in the district about 624 km. of metalled roads under the public works department, and about 86 km. of metalled and 1,100 km. of unmetalled roads under the Zila Parishad.

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The details of the highways and other roads are given in the following statement :

Nature/Name of road	Approximate length (in km.)
State Highways	
Lumbini-Dudhi	110
Jhansi-Mirzapur	29
Other Roads	
Ramnagar-Ahaura-Robarts Ganj	59
Robarts Ganj-Ghorawal	30
Mirzapur-Vindhyachal	7
Chunar-Ahaura	17
Kachhwa-Chunar	15
Inter-village Communication Roads (of length 10 km. or more)	
Adlhat-Bhanti-Sherwa	10
Jeonathpur-Kanchanpur	14
Lalganj-Halia	21
Lalganj-Kalwari	42
Lalganj-Vijayapur	15
Jargo feeder road	10
Feeder road	56
Roads under Zila Parishad (Of length 3 km. or more)	
Bihsada-Rampurghat	9.6
Jigna-Mishiapurghat	9.6
Pokhra-Bhatanlighat	6.9
Jhatna-Amol-Bikna	4.5
Sarkhaura-Birshahpur	5.8
Ramaipatti-Mahewaghat	5.5
Companyghat-Newadhiyaghat	4.8
Chilh-Gopiganj	10.7
Pillhi-Mujehra	5.2
Narainpur-Daranagar	3.2
Shahganj-Rajpur	3.2

MODES OF CONVEYANCE

Till the advent of the railways, bullock-carts and pack-animals have been the vital means of transport from very early times. The ox, the camel, and the buffalo have always been very useful beasts of burden through the ages. *Palkis* (palanquins) were generally used by affluent people. Consequently, with the passage of time, tongas and ekkas came in to use. But gradually, their number is declining. In 1975-76, there were 131 ekkas in Mirzapur city. Now technology has enabled the use of time-saving and economical means of transport such as bicycles and cycle-rickshaws, which are popular among the people, especially students, small traders, hawkers, and low-paid employees. In 1975-76, there were 3,953 bicycles in the Mirzapur city.

In the rural areas the bullock-cart is still a multi-purpose vehicle. It is employed for transporting cement, lime, sand, manure, fodder, and other building materials. People of the rural areas travel by bullock-carts during pilgrimages of short distance and fairs and festivals. In the year 1975-76, there were 3,000 bullock-carts in this district. Tractors, though mainly used for agriculture, are also a useful means of transport in the rural areas.

Mechanised Vehicular Traffic

Before Independence vehicles mainly lorries and trucks, were few in number. With the development of roads the number of motor vehicles constantly increased and they crowd all the important routes of the district. The trucks perform useful service in transporting consumers' goods, agricultural produce, building materials, and other similar goods. There are also two associations of the owners of these vehicles in the district. One is of private bus owners' association and the other is Zila Motor Operators' Sangh. The latter is functioning since 1966-67, and aims at ensuring the betterment of motor operators. The former has somewhat similar aims and emphasises timely and turnwise departure of the buses. The total number of permit-holders of the private buses is 34.

U.P. State Road Transport Corporation—The U.P. Government roadways organisation introduced roadways services in the district in the year 1948, and city bus services in 1971.

This organisation has become the U.P. State Road Transport Corporation with effect from June 1, 1972. By 1976, there were 53 buses operating inside and outside the district and covered 23 routes.

Railways

In 1911, the three important railway lines which connected the district with other places inside and outside it were Avadh and Rohilkhand Railway between Varanasi and Pratapgarh junctions and passed through the borders of Mirzapur. There were three railway stations on this line. The second was the main line of the East Indian Railway, which was in the south of, and parallel to, the Ganga and ran across the

whole breadth of the district for a distance of about 85 km. This section of the East Indian Railway was first opened to traffic in 1864. It had eleven stations within the boundaries of the district. The third one was the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Starting from Varanasi to Allahabad, it had seven railway stations on its way. There was also one branch line taken off from Madho Singh station which extended to the north of Mirzapur city, there being one station on it known as Mirzapurghat. There are two railway stations in the district situated on the North Eastern Railway line and 12 on the Northern Railway line.

TRAVEL FACILITIES

Before the introduction of locomotives and mechanised transport it was difficult to perform a journey alone in the district. Therefore, in order to avoid risk, people had to travel in groups. In ancient and medieval times a few serais provided shelter and food to the travellers as well as resting place for their animals. But in modern times this difficulty has been overcome. The dharmshalas serve a very useful purpose by providing shelter to the travellers and pilgrims. There are eight private dharmshalas, 4 in Mirzapur and 4 in Vindhyachal. There is only one private dharmshala in the town of Robarts Ganj. A list of dharmshalas is given in Statement I at the end of the chapter.

Dak Bungalows and Inspection Houses—In tahsil Mirzapur alone there are 25 dak bungalows/inspection houses/rest houses of which 12 belong to the irrigation department, 5 to Zila Parishad, 5 to the public works department, 2 to the forest department, and one to the hydel department. Similarly in Chunar there are 9 dak bungalows/inspection houses of which 7 belong to the irrigation department (canal), and one each to the Zila Parishad and the public works department. In tahsil Robarts Ganj out of the 12 dak bungalows/inspection houses, 9 belong to the irrigation department and one each to the Uttar Pradesh Electricity Board, the Government Cement Factory, Churk and the State Cement Corporation. There are 13 dak bungalows/inspection houses and the bungalows for V.I.Ps., in tahsil Dudhi of which 7 belong to the forest department, 3 to the irrigation department and one each to the public works department and the hydel department. The two bungalows for V.I.Ps., situated at Pipri belong to the irrigation as well as the hydel departments. The details regarding the dak bungalows, the inspection houses and the rest houses are given in Statement II at the end of the chapter.

POST-OFFICES

Before the coming of the British the distribution of letters was a local business in this district. Under the British the postal service became a very indispensable institution and henceforth were opened the channels of communication within and without the district. In 1880-81, there existed ten post-offices in the district. Gradually their number increased and in 1911-12, it rose to 40, including the head office at Mirzapur. In 1920-21, the number of the post-offices in the district went down to 33, while in 1931-32 it further decreased and was computed to be 28. In 1961, it was 113 and in 1975-76 it went up to 222.

STATEMENT I

Dharmshalas, Hotels, Guest Houses, etc.

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Village/Town	Name	Facilities available	Management
TAHSIL DUDHI			
Renukoot	Hindalco Guest House	Food and lodging	Hindalco
Renukoot	Kanodia Guest House	Ditto	Kanodia Chemicals
Renukoot	Renukoot Atithi Grih	Ditto	Mahila Mandal Renukoot
Renu Sagar	Renu Sagar Power Company Guest House	Ditto	Renu Sagar Power Company
TAHSIL MIRZAPUR			
Mirzapur	Bijaimal Dharmshala	—	Private
Mirzapur	Binani Dharmshala	—	Ditto
Mirzapur	Kesharwani Dharmshala	—	Ditto
Mirzapur	Raibat Jauhari	—	Ditto
Vindhyachal	Dhobi Dharmshala	—	Ditto
Vindhyachal	Goinka Dharmshala	—	Ditto
Vindhyachal	Jaipuriya Dharmshala	—	Ditto
Vindhyachal	Swan Kar Dharmshala	—	Ditto
TAHSIL ROBERTS GANJ			
Roberts Ganj	Raghunath Das Dharmshala	Lodging	Private

STATEMENT II

Inspection Houses, Dak Bungalows, Rest Houses etc.

Reference Page No. 147

Village/Town	Name	Management
TAHSIL CHUNAR		
Ahaura	Canal Inspection House	Irrigation Department (Canal)
Atrauli	Canal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department (Canal)
Chunar Fort	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department

1	2	3
Dogia	Canal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department (Canal)
Jargo Bandh	Canal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department (Canal)
Lusa	Canal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department (Canal)
Rastogi Talab	Zila Parishad Dak Bungalow	Zila Parishad
Tehua	Canal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department (Canal)
TAHSIL DUDHI		
Dabaha	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Dudhi	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Gohra	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Hathi Nala	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Jharoo	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Mundi Semar	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Muirpur	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Pipri	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
	V.I.P. Bungalow	Irrigation Department
	V.I.P. Bungalow	Hydel Department
	Field Hostel (Tourist House)	Irrigation Department
TAHSIL MIRZAPUR		
Ashat Bhuya	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Baraundha	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Bandhan Ganj	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
Bardghatti	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Bhaiswaar Balai Pahar	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Dadari	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Deori Katai	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Drummond Ganj	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Fataha	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
Fataha	Inspection House	Hydel Department
Harra	Forest Rest House	Forest Department

[Contd.]

1	2	3
Kachhwa	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Katwari Kurd	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
Khatjuri (Upper)	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Khatjuri (Lower)	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
Kota Shiv Parsad Singh	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Kotwa	Forest Rest House	Forest Department
Lalganj	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Marihan	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Mohanpur	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Nibi	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
Nibi	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Sirsi	Inspection House	Irrigation Department
Tanda Fall	Zila Parishad Inspection House	Zila Parishad
TAHSIL ROBERTS GANJ		
Barhauili	P.W.D. Inspection House	Public Works Department
Belordi	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Bisindhari	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Chopan	Chopan Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Churk	Inspection House	Government Churk Cement Factory
Dala	Inspection House	Cement Corporation
Karman	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Kekrhi	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Nisogi	Dhanrawal Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Obra	Inspection House	Uttar Pradesh Electricity Board
Purania	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Roberts Ganj	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department
Silhat	Dak Bungalow	Irrigation Department

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

In the decennial census of 1971, economic activities of the people have been divided into the main and subsidiary categories. All part-time workers were removed from the category of workers, as indicated in the census of 1961, and were included in the subsidiary category. Naturally, the total number of workers in 1971 was only 5,39,488, a figure which was less by 38,933 than that of 1961, which was 5,78,421.

All persons who are economically active, but who are neither cultivators nor agricultural labourers, may be considered to be engaged in miscellaneous occupations. An idea of their distribution among the major categories of miscellaneous occupations may be had from the following statement.

Occupation	1971
Mining and quarrying	1,010
Household industry and manufacturing	19,577
Construction	2,399
Trade and commerce	16,980
Transport, storage and communication	5,749
Services	43,619

Public Services

With the growing responsibility of the government towards planned economic and social development of the country, employment opportunities under the Central and State Governments at different levels have increased considerably. Side by side activities in the public administration of local bodies have assumed vast dimensions. Some idea of this may be had from the following table :

Type of establishment	No. of establishment		No. of employees			
	1973	1974	1973		1974	
			Male	Female	Male	Female
Central Government	1	1	8	—	4	—
State Government	119	125	10,720	474	9,951	461
Quasi-government (Central)	17	18	309	4	874	6
Quasi-government (State)	31	28	9,192	96	8,493	106
Local bodies	14	14	5,012	975	4,996	983

With the expansion of the socio-economic development schemes, the number of employees in public services has risen considerably. Dearness allowance is admissible to all classes of such employees at rates varying in accordance with their salaries. Facilities like regular subscription to provident fund, free medical treatment and free or subsidized residential accommodation, etc., are available to government servants and to some extent, to employees of the local bodies also. Leave rules have been revised to reduce disparity between the temporary and permanent staff. Encashment of leave is admissible to the majority of government servants. Other benefits include grants of advances for purchase of conveyance or residential plots and for construction or repair of houses. Pension rules have been so liberalised as to cater for the needs of the family in the event of the death of a government employee. The age for seeking voluntary retirement has been reduced and the quantum of superannuation pension raised. The employees of the State Government subscribe to the compulsory group insurance. In the event of the death of government employees, the members of the family get a lump sum immediately.

The employees are allowed to form associations or unions under the Societies Registration Act of 1860 for protection and promotion of their service interests.

There is a Collectorate Sub-Ministerial Association at the district headquarters, the branches of which are located in tahsils. This association is affiliated to the Ministerial Services Association at the State level. There are associations of peons known as Anjuman Chaprasian, of Lekhpals known as Lekhpals Sangh affiliated with Prantiya Lekhpals Sangh, Uttar Pradesh. There is also an association of Registrar Kanungos and Sahayak registrar Kanungos at the district level.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Education

The teachers, principals, and administrative officers of the education department come in this field. With the opening of a large number of educational institutions after Independence, the number of such employees has increased considerably.

According to the 1971 census the teachers number 4,699, of whom 4,195 were males and 504 were females.

Since 1964, the triple benefit scheme has been extended to the State-aided institutions run by local bodies or private persons, bringing the advantages of contributory provident fund, compulsory life insurance, and retirement pension which includes family pension, to members of the teaching staff. Payment of salary to teachers working in institutions which are in receipt of grant from the State Government, is made through cheques drawn jointly by the manager and a nominee of the district inspector of schools. Teachers' wards are entitled to free tuition up to the

Intermediate standard. Needy and disabled teachers receive financial help from the National Foundation for Teachers' Welfare Fund and those suffering from tuberculosis may avail themselves of free facilities of treatment at the Bhowali Sanatorium where a few beds have been earmarked for them.

The teachers in the district have joined some association or the other devoted to their welfare. The Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh is meant for teachers of the higher secondary schools, and the Prathamik Shikshak Sangh for their counterparts working in primary and junior high schools of the district. These associations were affiliated to the State level apex bodies. Representatives of the teaching-staff are included in managing committees of several institutions, and membership of the State legislative council has been thrown open to them through the formation of separate teachers' constituencies.

Medicine

The medical and health services in the district are State managed.

According to 1971 census there were 465 physicians and surgeons including dental and veterinary surgeons. Besides, there were 575 nursing and other medical and health technicians in the district in the same year. There were 211 private medical practitioners. There are a good number of vaides and homoeopaths.

Non-practising allowance is paid to certain doctors whose posts have been excluded from the list of offices carrying benefits of private practice. Higher allowances are admissible to post-graduate physicians and surgeons and to those possessing superior technical qualifications.

Established in 1928, a branch of the Indian Medical Association with laudable objectives such as the promotion and advancement of medical and allied services, the fostering of brotherhood among the members, the discussion of academic and non-academic problems, and the service of people in general through professional means, is functioning in the district. In 1976 it had 26 members.

Law

In 1976, there were 450 legal practitioners and advisers. However, there was no lady lawyer in the district.

With the large influx of new entrants, the legal profession has become more competitive in recent years. The lawyers generally play an important role in the public life of the district, particularly in the social, educational and political spheres.

In 1976 there were four associations of the lawyers two of which were located in Mirzapur, and one each in Chunar and Robarts Ganj.

In 1976, Zila Abhibhashak Sangh, Mirzapur, had 126 members and 50 associates who will become members after two years. Mirzapur Adhivakta Sangh has 105 permanent members and ten associates. The associations in Chunar and Robarts Ganj and 85 members each. The objectives of these associations are the promotion of the interest of the lawyers, the provision of facilities of library, periodicals and reference books to them and the ventilation of their grievances. Half of the membership fee is charged from the budding lawyers and all benefits of the library are enjoyed by them. Senior members take them on as their juniors and train them up. Besides, there is a branch of the National Forum of Legal Aid to the poor which provides legal aid to the poor litigants free of cost.

Engineering

In 1971, the district had 305 architects, engineers, technologists, and surveyors together with 350 engineering technicians. Mostly persons belonging to this class of workers are employees of the government or of the local bodies and corporations.

Arts

At the census of 1971 there were 15 poets, authors, journalists, and allied workers.

DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICES

These service were rendered by 2,324 people in 1971. Maids and other house-keeping workers numbered—929. The greater number of them lived with their masters and acted as multi-purpose workers. In the rural areas they cooked their meals separately but in the cities and towns they received food from the family kitchen. They worked during the pleasure of their employers and mostly picked up only an exiguous livelihood. There was no security of job either and often they had to remain idle. The socio-economic changes which have taken place recently in the life of the people, have largely curtailed avenues of employment in this sphere.

Barbers, Hairdressers, etc.

In 1971, the number of barbers, hairdressers, and related workers was 1,110. Those working in rural areas had to perform certain customary duties on the occasion of ceremonies in the houses of their patrons in addition to regular services. The rites now being simplified, their participation in extra-professional activities, is gradually diminishing.

Washermen

In 1971, there were 2,299 launderers, dry cleaners, and pressers in the district. Of these 1,939 were males and 360 females.

The growing popularity of synthetic fabrics has adversely affected the takings of the traditional washerman, but has proved lucrative to dry-cleaners and pressers. There were only two dry-cleaners in the district.

Tailors

In 1971, the tailors, dress-makers, sewers, upholsteres, and related workers numbered 2,079. The sewing machine is invariably used by the tailors. In the rural areas, people pay sewing charges in kind also, and in the wake of rising prices the tailors are glad to receive cereals for stitching simple shirts, *kurtas* (loose long shirts without collars), pyjamas and *lahangas*. On the other hand, the remuneration of the tailors in the urban areas depends on their ability to stitch new designs of both male and female dresses. Therefore, the economic condition of the tailors is better than before.

CHAPTER IX ECONOMIC TRENDS

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN

Workers and Non-workers

The percentage of workers and non-workers of the entire population in the district in 1961, was 46.3 and 53.7, while the corresponding figures of the State were 39.1 and 60.9 respectively. It was the agricultural workers (cultivators and agricultural labourers) whose population was highest, being 74.4 per cent. Next came the household industry and other manufacturing concerns with 8.6 per cent, followed by other services with 7.8 per cent, trade and commerce 3.3 per cent, and workers in other than household industry 2.6 per cent. The percentage in the remaining category was small claiming 3.3 per cent. Female participation in work was significant, their percentage being 33.8, as against the State average of 22.1. It was higher in agricultural activities (87.6 per cent), than in the non-agricultural (12.4 per cent) pursuits.

Regarding the percentage distribution of workers and non-workers of the total rural population numbering 11,05,926, the former was 47.7 per cent and the latter 52.3 per cent. The corresponding figures for the urban area were 35.4 and 64.6 per cent respectively. Thus, the proportion of workers was lower in towns than in villages due to low female participation. Of a total of 5,27,520 workers in the rural areas, in 1961, cultivators and agricultural labourers were 81.1 per cent and workers engaged in non-agricultural activities were 18.8 per cent. As usual, non-agricultural workers predominated in the urban areas, the percentage of agricultural workers being only 5.5.

The comparative data of the years 1961 and 1971 of workers in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors are as given below :

Year	Total population	Total workers	Percentage of workers to total population			
			Agricultural workers	Non-agricultural workers	Total workers	
					District	U.P.
1961	12,49,653	5,78,421	34.5	11.8	46.3	39.1
1971	15,41,088	5,39,438	27.9	6.7	34.6	30.9

The above table reveals declining trend in the working population, which in turn shows unemployment even among the already employed persons of 1961. But, this plausible deception emerged mainly on account of change in the definition of workers in the census of 1971. The definition of a worker adopted in the 1961 census covered a large number

of persons in the category of workers because it entitled a person to be treated as a worker, even if he performed as little as an hour's work in a day. Thus, a person was categorised as a worker even though his economic contribution was marginal. Consequently, a woman whose time was basically utilised in household-chores, was considered economically active even if she took food to her husband in the field or tended the cattle. In contrast to this the census of 1971 defined a person as a worker only if his main activity was participation in any economically productive work, physically or mentally. As a result, a man or a woman who is engaged primarily in domestic duties, such as cooking for the family, or is performing other household functions, or a boy or a girl who is primarily a student attending an institution, would not be treated as worker even if he or she lends a hand with the family economic activity. This would satisfactorily explain the appalling fall in the number of total workers in 1971, in spite of the rise in population by 23.5 per cent from 1961.

In the census of 1971, workers have been classified into nine major categories, the basis of the classification being those economic activities, which were similar in respect of process, raw material and the finished product. The details of the nine categories of workers in 1971, are as follows :

Number and category	Males	Females	Total	Percentage of total workers	Percentage of total population
I Cultivators	1,91,762	17,895	2,09,657	38.8	13.6
II Agricultural labourers	1,34,676	85,839	2,20,515	40.8	14.3
III Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantation orchard and allied activities	2,724	312	3,036	0.5	0.1
IV Mining and quarrying	805	205	1,010	0.1	0.0
V Manufacturing process servicing and repairing					
(a) Household industry	17,189	2,388	19,577	3.6	1.2
(b) Other than household industry	16,446	510	16,956	3.1	1.1
VI Construction	2,384	15	2,399	0.4	0.1
VII Trade and commerce	16,130	850	16,980	3.1	1.1
VIII Transport, storage communications	5,706	43	5,749	1.6	0.3
IX Other services	40,188	3,431	43,619	8.0	2.8
X Total workers	4,28,000	1,11,488	5,39,488	100.00	34.6
Total non-workers	3,81,685	6,19,915	10,01,600	—	—
Total population	8,09,685	7,31,403	15,41,088	—	—

All the non-workers have been brought under one single class for the purpose of this classification, although they have been categorised in the census of 1971 as follows :

- (a) Full-time students
- (b) Those attending to household duties
- (c) Dependants and infants
- (d) Retired persons or a rentier
- (e) Persons of independent means
- (f) Beggars and vagrants
- (g) Inmates of penal, mental, and charitable institutions
- (h) Others

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES AND WAGES

Prices

No separate records are extant to show the prices of food-stuffs in Mirzapur prior to 1857. But in those days the town was an important emporium of trade, situated as it was on the main artery of traffic, and it may be assumed that the rates were practically identical with those of the Varanasi district. In 1857, wheat was selling at Mirzapur at 19 seers for the rupee, gram at 24 seers, jowar at 28 seers, and Patna rice at 18 seers. Price fell somewhat soon after, but in 1865 it rose, and the rise continued for a period of over 20 years and ended only in 1888. From 1869 to 1888 the average rates for the chief food-grains for a rupee were : rice 14.50 seers, wheat 16.07 seers, gram 19.61 seers and jowar 22.81 seers.

On the whole, however, it may be said that prices were somewhat easier in the latter than in the first ten years of the period; for although there was little change in the rates of rice and wheat, that of gram fell from 17.90 seers per rupee to 21.33 seers, and of jowar from 21.55 seers to 24.08 seers. About 1888, prices rose to a marked extent through out northern India, the phenomenon being ascribed to widespread economic causes, such as the depreciation of silver and the growth of export trade stimulated by the rapid improvement in the means of communication and transport. The rise was a sudden one in the beginning, but it had been progressive thereafter and had continued with several occasional fluctuations. From 1889 to 1898 the prices of common rice averaged 11.80 seers to a rupee, of wheat 12.22 seers, of barley 17.72 seers, of gram 16.79 seers, and of jowar 16.76 seers. The decade was remarkable for the famine of 1897, which had a great effect on local prices, and consequently the average was somewhat vitiated. The upward tendency however appeared to have been checked to some extent by the succeeding years of prosperity. Prices were abnormally high again in 1900 though Mirzapur was little affected by the scarcity of that year, yet in spite of this scarcity and that of 1907, the average rates of the principal food-grains between 1899 and 1907 have, except in the case of rice, somewhat fallen. During this period the average price of gram was 17.14 seers per rupee, of jowar 18.16 seers, of barley 17.25 seers and of wheat 12.75 seers, while that of rice had risen to 10.75 seers. From 1861 to 1865, before the rise in prices set in, wheat was selling at the rate of 21 seers for a rupee, rice at 17 seers, barley at 31.50 seers, gram at 29.57 seers and jowar a 26t seers.

With the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, the general price level in the district, as all over the country, underwent a structural change accompanied with a considerable rise in the cost of food-grains. The trend kept on continuing, with minor changes now and then, until it witnessed a complete reversal due to economic depression in 1930. On account of the economic depression, which started in 1930 and continued with still greater severity in the following years, the price level registered a downward trend, so much so, that in 1934 it went down by about 40 per cent as compared to that of 1928. By 1939 the price trend registered a rise over that prevalent in 1934.

The following statement gives the general price trend in the district for the period from 1911 to 1944 :

Year	Price index
1911	100
1916	132
1928	190
1934	111
1939	141
1944	377

The Second World War began in September, 1939, creating several disturbances in the infra-structure of the economy all the world over. The district also fell a prey to economic imbalances and malpractices. A sharp rise in prices took place, accompanied with a scarcity of essential commodities. The main factors responsible for those unhealthy developments were hoarding, black marketing, speculation, and profiteering, which not only maintained but even further advanced the high level touched in prices.

The situation worsened so irretrievably that all steps to support the economy were virtually on the verge of total failure. At the beginning of 1940, price control measures, which included price fixation from time to time, strict checking of profiteering and licensing of food-grain dealers, and which had been put into operation at the outbreak of the war, were vigorously enforced by the district authorities. Even then, the prices continued to go up and it was experienced that effective control of prices was not possible without control over supplies. Therefore, in 1943, a partial rationing scheme was introduced, without disturbing the normal functioning of the open market, to help the poorer and other vulnerable sections of the society. In 1945, the rationing scheme was converted into one of total rationing in which rationed food-grains could be bought only from government ration shops.

Contrary to the expectations, the ever-rising price trend continued as usual in spite of the end of the war and the enforcement of severe price control measures by the government. The general food situation also remained as alarming as before. In 1944, the prices stood higher by 277 per cent than those of 1911. After August, 1944, the prices began to fall in the country. In spite of this the price level was considerably high in the district. It is, in fact, entirely unprecedented in the annals of prices in the district, as well as in the country, the level reached during the First World War (1914-1918) being much lower than that recorded during the Second World War (1939-45). The average rural prices in annas per seer in the district in December, 1944 were: wheat at 5.31, gram at 3.33, rice at 4.69, barley at 3.00, and dal (*arhar*) at 4.00.

This intractable price trend could still not be fully checked, though the entire period between 1944 and 1952 was that of strict control and rationing. Therefore, on an experimental basis, open markets were again allowed to function normally and restrictions on movements and prices of food-grains were also withdrawn in July, 1952, so that the general food and price situation could be eased off. In 1953 the prices tended to come down a little. The downward trend which had started at the end of 1953 could not be arrested and, by 1955, prices fell so heavily that the whole atmosphere was not conducive to healthy economic growth and stability. This was country-wide trend, which required to be immediately checked in the interest of the overall economy, particularly to the cultivator, who needed to be assured of a minimum price which stimulated a gradual upward trend as a result thereof. The prices, however, did not stabilize and continued to move upwards, particularly after 1965, due to scarcity and droughts in 1966. But they came down in 1970. The following statement shows the retail prices of certain essential commodities from 1950-1975.

Year	Retail prices in Rs per kg.			
	Wheat	Gram	Rice	Dal (<i>arhar</i>)
1950	0.43	0.31	0.66	0.57
1955	0.40	0.26	0.37	0.51
1960	0.44	0.42	0.57	0.50
1965	0.95	0.86	1.43	1.07
1970	0.80	0.95	1.10	1.70
1975	1.69	2.01	2.22	2.25

The retail prices in Mirzapur for certain other commodities in 1975 were as follows:

Commodity	Prices in Rs per kg.
Sugar	4.62
Vegetable oil	11.64
Jaggery	2.52
Mustard oil	6.62
Kerosene oil (per litre)	1.28

Wages

Where ever cash wages are paid, there has been in almost every case a considerable rise in the remuneration and the change is as a rule marked in the case of skilled than in the unskilled labour. In 1880, the boatmen received Rs 0.25 per day, and blacksmiths, workers in brass and copper, wood smoothers and sawyers were paid at the rate of Rs 0.19 to Rs 0.25 per day. In 1907, the boatmen received Rs 0.50 per day, while blacksmiths workers in brass and copper, wood smoothers, and sawyers received Rs 0.36 per day.

The remuneration of agricultural labourers is generally of a different description and is affected by different considerations. Except where the cultivating castes such as Kurmis prevailed, the field work was done by labourers such as Kols, Pasis, and Chamars. The usual remuneration of an adult male labourer of this description was of two seers of grain per day when employed, and when not employed, an advance was given to him which was deducted from subsequent payments. The regular labourer got in addition one rupee annually, called his *buda*; a coarse blanket worth perhaps Rs 0.50 or Rs 0.75, and sometimes a pair of shoes also. The ploughman also got a trifling quantity of grain from each field; and women and children employed to weed got one seer of grain a day each. There were very seldom any cash payments beyond the annual rupee, and whatever was needed in the way of clothes, tobacco, salt and so forth, was obtained from the Bania by barter of a portion of the grain wages.

The first wage census was carried out in the State in 1906. The results of the survey made at that time and in certain succeeding years are tabulated below:

Year	Wages in Rs per day	
	Unskilled worker	Skilled worker
1906	0.12	0.25
1911	0.12	0.23
1916	0.14	0.24
1928	0.22	0.75
1934	0.12	0.37
1939	0.17	0.37
1944	0.56	0.58

After the First World War a general rise in the wages occurred as revealed by the wage census of 1928. The year 1930 was one of world-wide economic depression which was reflected in the wage census of 1934. Thereafter wages began to mount. The steep rise in 1944 was attributed to the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. The wages rose and continued to go upwards as would appear from the following statement about urban wages :

Year	Wages in Rs per day	
	Unskilled worker	Skilled worker
1970	2.50	4.50
1971	3.00	5.00
1972	3.50	5.00
1973	3.75	6.00
1974	4.00	7.00
1975	5.00	8.00

The wages paid to the different categories of workers in urban area in 1976 for certain occupations were as follows :

Occupation	Unit of quotation	Wages (in Rs)
Gardener	(a) Per month (whole time)	175.00
	(b) Per month (part time)	120.00
Chowkidar	Per month	165.00
Wood-cutter	Per 40 kg. of wood turned into fuel	0.50
Herdsman	(a) Per cow per month	1.53
	(b) Per buffalo per month	6.90
Porter	Per 40 kg. of load carried for 1.5 km.	1.00
Casual labourer	Per day	5.00
Domestic servant	(a) Per month without food	80.00
	(b) Per month with food	20.00

(Contd.)

1	2	3
Carpenter	Per day	9.00
Blacksmith	Per day	9.00
Tailor	(a) Per man's cotton shirt (full sleeves)	4.00
	(b) Per woman's cotton shirt (short sleeves)	2.50
	(c) Per woollen suit	125.00
	(d) Per cotton suit	40.00
Midwife	(a) Assistance of delivery of boy	—
	(b) Assistance of delivery of girl	—
Barber	(a) Per shave	0.30
	(b) Per haircut	1.25
Scavenger	Per month for a house with one latrine for one cleaning per day	5.00
Motor driver	Per month	300.00
Truck driver	Per month	400.00

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

Employment Trends

Larger number of persons have been employed in the public sector, as compared to the private sector. But the number of private establishments in the district is quite large. There were a total of 384 establishments in the district in 1974 out of which 51.6 per cent were private and 48.4 per cent public sector establishments. However, the private establishments provided employment to only 26.3 per cent of the total number of the persons employed in the district in 1974. On the other hand, the public sector establishments provided employment to 73.7 per cent of the total number of persons employed in the district in 1974. The increase in the total number of establishments and the total number of persons employed in the period from 1970 to 1974, had been only, marginal. The following statement gives the number of persons employed in the private and the public sectors in the district from 1970 to 1974 :

Year	No. of establishments			No. of employees		
	Private sector	Public sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector	Total
1970	211	147	358	10,045	22,958	33,003
1971	204	162	366	10,310	27,134	37,444
1972	205	168	373	10,024	27,507	37,531
1973	204	182	386	9,159	26,845	36,004
1974	198	186	384	9,063	25,374	34,437

The number of persons employed in various trades and services in the district in the years 1973 and 1974, shows that the largest number of them is employed in various services and the smallest number in transport, storage, and communications.

The following statement gives the number of persons employed in various trades in the district in 1973 and 1974 :

Industry, nature of activity (Division)	Number of establish- ment		Number of employees						
	1973		1974		1973		1974		
	1	2	3	4	Private sector	Public sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector
Agriculture, live-stock, forestry	7	8	—	—	1,190	1,129	1,129	—	1,129
Mining and quarrying	1	1	—	—	225	225	225	—	225
Manufacturing	137	129	6,201	3,021	4,005	10,206	6,116	4,114	10,230
Construction	28	28	302	3,193	3,193	3,495	186	2,809	2,995
Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	28	26	868	4,663	4,663	5,531	882	4,278	5,160
Trade and commerce	21	22	80	373	373	453	81	380	461
Transport storage and communication	4	2	41	—	—	41	40	—	40
Services	160	168	1,667	13,196	13,196	14,863	1,758	12,439	14,197
Total	386	384	9,159	26,845	36,004	9,063	25,374	34,437	

Employment of Women

The following statement shows the number of women workers employed in the private and public sector of the district during the quarter ending December 31, 1974 :

No. of reporting establishments	384
No. of women employees in public sector	1,556
No. of women employees in private sector	850
Total number of women employees	1,906
Percentage of women employees to total number of employees in the private sector	3.86
Percentage of women employees to total number of employees in the public sector	6.09

The largest number of women were employed in the educational and other services while a very small number were employed in agriculture and forestry and in trade and commerce. The following statement gives the number of women employees engaged in various trades in the district in December 31, 1974 :

Agriculture and forestry	1
Mining and quarrying	35
Manufacturing	95
Construction	61
Electricity	53
Trade and commerce	6
Education and other services	1,055

Unemployment Trends

Educational qualifications of candidates that were registered with the employment exchange of the district in the year ending December, 1974, were as under :

Educational qualification	Number registered with employment exchange		
	Men	Women	Total
1	2	3	4
Matriculate	2,478	63	2,541
Intermediate	2,595	40	2,644
Graduate	1,027	30	1,057
Post-graduate	118	2	120
Total	6,218	144	6,362

MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

In addition, a large number of persons who were educated but were neither matriculates nor illiterates, were also registered with the employment exchange in the year ending in December, 1974 :

Category	Number registered with employment exchange		
	Men	Women	Total
Below middle school including illiterates	2,743	241	2,984
Middle school	1,667	30	1,697
Total	4,410	271	4,681

The job requirements for various establishments were far short of the supply of candidates in December, 1974. As many as 136 posts were notified as indicated in the following statement :

Employer	Number of vacancies notified
Central Government	4
State Government	54
Quasi-government (Central)	2
Quasi-government (State)	24
Local bodies	18
Private sector	34
Total	136

However, there was a shortage of trained personnel. In particular, laboratory assistants (psychology), pump operators, compressor operators, trained pharmacists, machine operators, stenographers (for Hindi and English), surveyors, electricians, fitters, foremen, tracers, master mechanics, male nurses, and shift foremen were in short supply in the district. Teachers, diploma holders and junior engineers in mechanical and electrical engineering were in surplus supply.

Employment Exchange

The employment exchange was established at Mirzapur in 1957 to render assistance to the unemployed persons as well as to the employers of the district, in finding suitable jobs and suitable candidates for jobs respectively.

The following statement gives an idea of the assistance rendered by the employment exchange at Mirzapur between 1970 and 1974 :

Year	Vacancies notified by employers	Number of persons for employment	Number on 'live register'	Number of persons provided with employment	
				Government service	Other fields
1970	2,257	11,902	5,847	1,431	59
1971	1,607	10,944	5,812	1,018	36
1972	1,647	12,071	8,468	903	53
1973	1,892	13,722	11,723	1,015	61
1974	1,828	14,064	11,045	839	62

From 1960 the exchange introduced employment market information scheme. Under this scheme an intensive study is carried on to ascertain the number of persons employed, of posts fallen vacant, and the types of jobs for which qualified candidates are inadequate. The exchange undertakes the analysis of data and publishes them for the benefit of employers and employees.

A vocational guidance programme is also being carried out by the exchange since the year 1964. Under this project, material assistance is provided to desirous candidates to enable them to formulate their plan in conformity with their qualifications, aptitudes, and the realities of the employment market. In 1974, as many as 181 candidates sought individual guidance and 2,241 persons participated in group discussions.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The subject of national planning and rural development received little attention in the past. Whatever efforts were made in this direction were merely the outcome of political expediency and were confined to such activities as sanitation, expansion of agriculture and provision of irrigational facilities. With the Independence of the country, a rural development programme was introduced simultaneously at the State and district level.

The rural development department in the district started functioning in 1937 after the first popular government came into power in the State. The department was then headed by the collector assisted by a subdivisional officer who used to supervise the work of rural development at the tahsil level. There was no multipurpose functionary working in the village for the assistance and guidance of the rural folk with respect to the multifarious needs of the village community.

Planning for rural development was started in the State as well as in the district in 1952. Subsequently more blocks were opened and each block was placed under the charge of a block development officer, who was the head of the office in the block and was responsible for the all-round development of the block area, viz., agriculture, co-operatives, animal husbandry, public health, and rural sanitation etc. He was assisted by the assistant development officers of different departments at block level and village level. Since the mainstay of the rural population is agriculture, it was felt later that greater emphasis should be laid on agricultural production, on which, therefore, the blocks mainly concentrate along with keeping an eye on the general development of the rural areas.

According to the U.P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishad Adhiniyam, 1961, the district magistrate has administrative control over the officers of village development. All the programmes of community development are launched under the guidance and control of the district magistrate. Next to him comes the additional district magistrate (development) who is the highest officer for the development of the district. He looks after the work of all the development departments and secures co-ordination among them. There are various officers under his control. He is assisted by the additional district development officer, a assistant registrar co-operative societies in charge of all work relating to the co-operative movement, a district agriculture officer looking after all development work relating to agriculture, a district live-stock officer in charge of the work regarding live-stocks, dairy and poultry development, a district panchayat Raj officer in charge of panchayat work, a district Harijan and social welfare officer in charge of the social and Harijan welfare work, an assistant engineer (minor irrigation) in charge of all the work regarding minor irrigation, an assistant engineer (village welfare) in charge of construction in rural area, a district horticulture officer in charge of horticulture work, a district organizer (Prantiya Vikas Dal) in charge of the social and youth welfare work and organization of Vikas Dals, and an assistant director (fisheries) in charge of fisheries.

Similarly, the organizational set-up at the block level consists of a block development officer, who is also the secretary of the Kshettra Samiti and is mainly responsible for rural development work, and of six assistant development officers. These latter have their own separate fields, namely, panchayat, agriculture, co-operative, minor irrigation and statistics, to look after the panchayat and social education, agricultural development work, co-operative development, minor irrigation, maintenance of block statistics, and the construction of rural buildings respectively. In addition to these officers there is a veterinary surgeon to look after the live-stock development and poultry farming, and block organiser (Prantiya Vikas Dal) to look after the work of youth welfare etc. Apart from these officers the Gram Sewak and the assistant agriculture inspector, etc., are also under the control of the block development officer.

The following statement gives some details of each development block in the district all of which were in post-stage II in 1974 :

Tahsil	Name of block	Date of inauguration	Number of gaon sabhas	Number of nyaya panchayata	Population
Mirzapur	City	1-4-57	99	10	84,913
Mirzapur	Pahari	2-10-59	57	6	48,124
Mirzapur	Chhionwey	1-4-60	110	15	1,01,935
Mirzapur	Kon	1-4-60	47	6	46,209
Mirzapur	Majhwa	1-4-58	45	5	62,599
Mirzapur	Halia	26-1-55	93	10	71,459
Mirzapur	Lalganj	1-4-59	60	6	34,750
Mirzapur	Marihan	2-10-57	52	6	39,297
Chunar	Narayanpur	1-4-56	121	13	1,05,383
Chunar	Jamalpur	1-4-60	123	13	1,06,728
Chunar	Sikhar	1-4-59	44	6	47,123
Chunar	Rajgarh	1-4-58	102	10	93,852
Robarts Ganj	Robarts Ganj	26-1-56	115	10	83,704
Robarts Ganj	Chopan	1-4-57	60	9	93,341
Robarts Ganj	Chatra	2-10-59	62	5	41,455
Robarts Ganj	Nagwa	2-10-58	62	7	34,542
Robarts Ganj	Ghorawal	1-4-60	134	14	89,845
Dudhi	Dudhi	2-10-53	47	8	55,503
Dudhi	Muirpur	2-10-58	47	8	74,928
Dudhi	Babhni	1-4-60	35	5	35,584

On account of systematic planning, these blocks have developed considerably. Although the priorities changed from plan to plan, yet the main emphasis always remained on the balanced growth of these blocks.

During the First Five-year Plan (1951-56) emphasis was laid on the development of agriculture, irrigation, and transport; consequently, efforts were made for improving agricultural practises and developing the village community through national extension scheme and people's participation in different activities. Construction of buildings and village roads, digging of soakage pits, etc., were done by voluntary labour (*shramdan*). Improved methods of agriculture and use of compost were also introduced. During the First Five-year Plan there were only three blocks, namely, Halia, Robarts Ganj, and Dudhi.

The scope of Second Five-year Plan (1956-61) was enlarged to include industrialisation with stress on the development of heavy industries and on the enlargement of the scope of the public sector. The aim was to raise the national income and to reduce unemployment. In the field of agriculture, schemes relating to Japanese method of paddy cultivation, U.P. method of wheat cultivation, an expansion of training in the use of agricultural implements, fertilizers, and green manures were taken up.

The Third Five-year Plan (1961-66) was conceived as the first stage of a decade or more of intensive development leading to a self-reliant and self-generating economy. It sought to ensure a minimum level of living to every family while narrowing economic and social disparities. Some special programmes such as those related to improved variety of seeds, particularly of the dwarf variety, intensive methods of wheat and paddy cultivation, and crop protection measures were taken in hand.

The next three years, from April 1966 to March, 1969, did not form part of the next Five-year Plans. Yearly plans for these three years were, therefore, formulated with following broad objectives :

- (i) A growth rate of 5 per cent in the agricultural sector and 8 to 10 per cent in industry
- (ii) An annual growth rate of 6.9 per cent in production of food-grains to achieve self-sufficiency
- (iii) To maximise employment opportunities
- (iv) To redress imbalances arising from a high rate of population growth and inadequate expansion in agricultural production by reducing the fertility rate to 25 per thousand in the shortest possible time

The Fourth Five-year Plan (1969-1974) defined more precisely the wider and deeper social values with a view to planning the structure of socio-economic relations in such a way that it may result not only in appreciable increases in national income and employment but also in greater equality in incomes and wealth. It sought to distribute land to the landless labourers and to cut down the enormous holdings of rich farmers. It also sought to enlarge the income of the rural population and to achieve self-reliance in agriculture and industry. The desired progress, however, could not be made during this Plan period.

Removal of poverty and attainment of economic self-reliance have been defined as the two basic objectives of the Fifth Five-year Plan, while expansion of employment opportunities has also to receive the highest priority.

The Plan programmes of the district are an integral part of the State Plans and they broadly reflect the same priorities. Without going into details, it may be observed that the implementation of various development Plan schemes, has helped in appreciable growth in agricultural production, power generation and consumption, industrial development and irrigation and transport.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

The district of Mirzapur, with exception of a few villages received from Allahabad in 1861, was included entirely within the tract once known as the province of Benares. The sovereignty of this was formally ceded to the East India Company in 1775 by the nawab vizier of Avadh, but the tract itself was included in the zamindari of the raja of Benares and remained in his actual possession until 1794, when raja Mahip Narain Singh surrendered the control to the Governor General by the agreement of the 27th of October of that year. Till 1830 Mirzapur was included in the revenue jurisdiction of Benares, but in that it became a separate revenue jurisdiction of its own. Mirzapur was then placed under a local "collector of customs." There has been little change in territorial limits of Mirzapur since 1861, when a few villages from Allahabad were added to it.

The district now forms the southern part of the Varanasi Division which comprises five districts—Mirzapur, Varanasi, Jaunpur, Ghazipur and Ballia. A commissioner holds the charge of the Division with his headquarters at Varanasi.

Commissioner

The post of Commissioner was created in 1829 and was then known as Commissioner of revenue and circuit. Earlier the Commissioner enjoyed entire administrative authority within his jurisdiction, but gradually it came to be shared by the district and regional level officers. However, the Commissioner still continues to function as a vital link between the district under him and the Government. He generally supervises the administration as well as planning and development work in his Division. Though the Commissioner does not have to do much judicial work yet on appellate side he hears appeals and revisions under the U. P. Land Revenue Act, the U.P. Zamindari Abolition Act, Arms Act and the Anti Goonda Act. He is regional transport authority and exercises extensive powers over the local bodies. He is assisted by an additional commissioner in disposal of revenue case work.

District Magistrate/Collector/Officer

The district is the most important single unit of administration in which the government comes into intimate contract with the people. Under the code of Criminal Procedure the district officer is designated district magistrate and as head of the revenue administration he is called the collector and for the multifarious duties he is generally known as the district officer.

As collector he is responsible for the fair and prompt collection of land revenue. He keeps constant watch over the condition of crops and peasantry and handles situation arising out of emergencies such as floods, famines, droughts and fires, etc. He organises relief operations and recommends to the government regarding suspension or remission of land revenue, grant of gratuitous relief, agricultural loans known as *tagavi* for seeds and agricultural implements, etc., in order to assist the peasantry to tide over difficult situations. Up to date maintenance of land records, realisation of *tagavi* loans and dispensation of justice both under certain sections of Criminal Procedure Code as well as revenue laws, continue to be his responsibility. If there is an assignment which does not relate to any particular department or that department has no field staff of its own, in the district, it is quite often entrusted to him. As district officer he is also responsible for equitable distribution of essential commodities with the help of the district supply officer. Being the ex-officio district election officer, he is responsible for all arrangement regarding elections to the Lok Sabha, the Vidhan Sabha and the local bodies.

The district officer is also the ex-officio president of the soldiers' sailors' and airmen's board which looks after the welfare of ex-service-men as well as families of serving soldiers of the district. He is also the licensing authority for arms and ammunition. A comparatively new and important duty of direction in the planning and development activities in the district has been assigned to him since the middle of this century. The district development officer, designated as additional district magistrate (development), who looks after these activities, works under his control. As ex-officio district deputy director of consolidation he supervises the work of consolidation of holdings and hears revisions under the U.P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1953 (Act V of 1954).

As district magistrate he maintains law and order in the district, keeps watch on the general crime situation and ensures that no outbreak of disturbances occur. During any such situation the entire magisterial and police strength is integrated under his authority. Appraisal of public opinion and prevention of explosive situations are some of the other important duties assigned to him. He is assisted by ten deputy collectors belonging to the U.P. Civil Service. Of these one is the city magistrate, four subdivisional officers, one for each subdivision, one settlement officer (consolidation), one extra officer and three forest settlement officers.

Subdivisional Officers/Magistrates

For the purpose of effective administration, collection of land revenue and maintenance of law and order, the district has been divided into four subdivisions, namely Mirzapur, Chunar, Roberts Ganj and Dudhi, each forming a tahsil of the same name, and under the charge of a subdivisional officer/magistrate. Their duties are similar to those of the district officer but confined to their respective subdivisions.

Tahsildar

The local officer, in immediate charge of a tahsil, is the tahsildar who is an officer with gazetted status and is subordinate to the subdivisional officer concerned. Formerly he was vested with the powers of a magistrate of second class, but since the enforcement of amended Criminal Procedure Code in April, 1974, he functions as executive magistrate only though he has been vested with the powers of magistrate of first class in connection with certain specified duties. He acts as an assistant collector and presides over the tahsil office and court. His main duties are collection of land revenue and other government dues and up-to-date maintenance of land records. He is also responsible for organising help and relief during natural calamities.

He is assisted in his work by a number of *naib* tahsildars, the number of such *naib* tahsildars being five (each) in Chunar and Mirzapur, three in Roberts Ganj and two in Dudhi.

There is also a subtreasury in each tahsil. There is a separate subtreasury officer at Roberts Ganj, while in the remaining three tahsils the tahsildars work as the subtreasury officers.

The tahsils are further subdivided into *kanungo* circles. There are nine supervisor *kanungoes* in Mirzapur, seven in Roberts Ganj, five in Dudhi and four in Chunar tahsils. A supervisor *kanungo* is in the charge of one or more parganas and his duties are confined primarily to supervision of the land records and other work of *lekhpals* in his circle. Besides, he also collects statistics relating to agriculture, natural calamities etc., and renders such help in the execution of development schemes and projects as is required of him.

Superintendent of Police

The superintendent of police is the executive head of the district police force. He is responsible for efficiency and discipline of the police force and maintenance of law and order in the district. He is assisted by four deputy superintendents of police. Besides, there are under him a number of circle inspectors, reserve inspectors, sub-inspectors, head constables and constables, the details whereof have been given in chapter XII (Law And Order And Justice) of this volume.

District Judge

The judiciary of the district is headed by the district and sessions judge under the jurisdiction of the High Court of Judicature at Allahabad. He is the highest authority for the administration of justice in civil and criminal matters. There are three additional district judges, one civil and assistant sessions judge, one chief judicial magistrate, seven *munsifs* magistrates, one judicial magistrate and one special judicial magistrate in the district.

Other Officers

The following are the district level or other officers, their designations disclosing the nature of work they perform :

- District employment officer
- District inspector of schools
- District Basic Shiksha Adhikari
- District plant protection officer
- Superintendent, district jail, Mirzapur
- Superintendent, Sampurnanand Shivar, Markundi, Roberts Ganj.
- Assistant registrar, co-operative societies
- Assistant director, fisheries
- Chief medical officer
- Executive engineer (Irrigation)
- Executive engineer (P.W.D.)
- District agriculture officer
- District Harijan and social welfare officer
- District horticulture officer
- District information officer
- District live-stock officer
- District statistics officer
- District panchayat Raj officer
- District probation officer

Central Government Offices

Indian Posts and Telegraph—There is one subdivisional office (telegraph) under the divisional engineer (telegraph) at Allahabad. The post offices in the district are looked after and administered by a superintendent of post-offices.

Income-Tax—The Mirzapur circle of income-tax is under the charge of an income-tax officer. There are three wards in the district. The highest authority is the commissioner of income-tax, Allahabad. The administrative control is vested in the inspecting assistant commissioner of income-tax, Varanasi. Appeals against the assessment lie with the appellate assistant commissioner, income-tax, Allahabad.

Central Excise—The work relating to central excise and custom in the district is looked after by the assistant collector, custom and central excise under the administrative control of the collector, central excise, Allahabad. There are four ranges in the district, each under the charge of a superintendent.

National Savings Organisation

The main objects of this organisation are combating inflation and encouraging small savings. The district is included in Allahabad division under an assistant regional director with headquarters at Allahabad. In the district the work is looked after by a district savings officer. Broadly, the duties of the district savings officer are to inculcate among the people a habit of thrift, encourage savings and secure investment in different small savings schemes such as post-offices savings bank accounts, cumulative time deposit, national savings certificates and prize bonds, etc.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Fiscal History

In ancient times land revenue was the main source of state income. The Mauryan rulers realised one sixth of the gross produce, but the proportion varied according to place and other circumstances. Heads of income also included dues from mines, forests, customs at the frontiers, tolls and ferry duties, fees from professional experts, taxes and tithes, fines and benevolences exacted in crises. The Guptas appear to have realised taxes numbering about eighteen. Among them, the land revenue tax was the most important and its incidence seems to have varied from 16 to 25 per cent according to the quality of the land. It was usually collected in kind. If the yield was less, the government share, which was a certain fraction of it, automatically became less. The rulers of Kannauj are said to have realised one-sixth of the produce from the cultivator. Some parts of the district appear to have remained under the authority of the rulers of Kannauj till the end of the 12th century, when in 1195-96 one of the rajas made a grant of a village in Mirzapur. The early Muslim sultans of Delhi seem more or less to have continued the system which existed before and a Muslim governor was appointed in the Varanasi region for the express purpose of revenue collection, etc. For the greater part of the fifteenth century this region was included in the Sharqi kingdom of Jaunpur and was in the charge of a governor of the Sharqi sultans. After the defeat of Humayun at Kannauj in 1540 the whole region came in the hands of Sher Shah Suri and, consequently, his famous measures of revenue reforms were also extended to this district.

In the territorial distribution of Akbar the district of Mirzapur fell within the subahs of Allahabad and Bihar and the sirkars of Allahabad, Benares, Chunar, and Rohtas. The Benares and Chunar sirkars each comprised a single *dastur* of the same name while of sirkar Allahabad there were in the district portions of two *dasturs*, those of Allahabad and Bhadohi. The pargana of Bhadohi (now in Varanasi district), with a brick fort on the bank of the Ganga, included also *tappa* Kon of this district. It had a cultivated area of 73,252 bighas and paid a revenue of 36,60,918 dams, and 37,534 dams as *suyurgal*, while its military contingent comprised 200 horse and 5,000 foot. South of the Ganga lay the pargana of Kuntit, comprising Upraudh (now called Jagdishpur Upradh), Chaurasi, Chhiyanve, and Saktesgarh, and assessed at a demand of 8,56,555 dams as well as 2,000 foot and horse as contribution to the army.¹

1. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Eng. trans., by H.S. Jarret (Calcutta, 1949), Vol. I, p. 172

The sirkar of Chunar contained five *mahals*. Chunar, together with the suburban district, had a cultivated area of 12,940 bighas, paying a revenue of 8,33,908 dams and furnished a military force of 18,000 foot 500 horse. Larger than this was Bhuili with an area of 18,976 bighas paying a revenue of 11,12,656 dams and 33,605 dams *suyurgal*; while Ahirwarah, or as it is now called Ahraura, paid 1,09,073 dams on an area of 1,858 bighas¹. North of the river lay the small *mahal* called by the strange title of Qariat-in-rui-ab or "villages on this side of the river," known at the present time as Karyat Sikhar. It had 18,098 bighas of cultivated area and paid 8,45,371 dams as revenue. But none of these parganas except Chunar appear to have contributed any military force to the imperial armies.² The *Ain-i-Akbari* does not make mention of Narwan and Hanwa. These, however, belonged to the sirkar of Chunar³. The pargana of Kera Mangraur, under the name Mangror, was included in the sirkar of Rohtas. It had a cultivated area of 29,168 bighas of land and paid 9,24,000 dams as revenue⁴. The southern parganas of Robarts Ganj are not traceable in the *Ain-i-Akbari*. But if the tracts bearing their names were known to Akbar's revenue system, they may have been included either in the sirkar of Rohtas or in that of Bhatghora. The latter theory appears to be most probable⁵. The sirkar of Bhatghora lay in the subah of Allahabad and contained 39 *mahals* paying a revenue of 72,62,780 dams and contributing 57,000 infantry, 4,304 cavalry, and 200 elephants to the army. On the north it was bounded by the *mahals* of Khairagarh and Kantit of sirkar Allahabad and the Yamuna river and to the south it stretched as far as the subah of Garh Katanka. Besides being practically unknown, all indications combine to show that the tract was under the suzerainty of the Baghel rajas of Rewa who paid tribute and supplied troops as dependants of the Mughal emperors⁶.

During the reign of Jahangir (1605-1627), a new practice was introduced known as *altamgha*. Under this institution grants were made to such deserving officers as applied for the grant of villages or parganas in which they were born⁷.

Aurangzeb is said to have issued two firmans: that of 1665-66, pointing towards the increase of cultivation and the welfare of the peasants; and that of 1668-69, with the object of assessing and collecting the revenue in accordance with the principles of Islamic law. The revenue demand was fixed between one-third and one-half of the average produce⁸. During the eighteenth century, there was a tendency towards the growth of semi-feudal interests. At that day, the fate of the peasantry came directly in the hands either of the farmer of revenue or of the

king's assignee, who usually exacted the maximum that he could. Thus the taluk, or dependency, became the most prominent agrarian institution¹.

Early in the reign of Muhammad Shah the sirkars of Benares, Jaunpur, Ghazipur, and Chunar, which included a large portion of this district during Akbar's reign, were given in jagir to a courtier named Nawab Murtaza Khan. This nobleman appears to have done little except collecting the revenue, which amounted to some five lakhs annually. In 1722, Saadat Khan became the Nawab of Avadh, and in 1727, had the sirkars transferred to his jurisdiction under the condition that he paid rupees seven lakhs to Murtaza Khan. Saadat Khan seems to have paid but little attention to his new acquisition. He was content to make a little money on his investment and leased the province for rupees eight lakhs to his friend and dependant, Mir Rustam Ali. The latter was indolent and incapable to a degree; but he managed to retain charge of the sirkars for a long period, and it was not till 1738, that he incurred the displeasure of Saadat Khan. On the death of Balwant Singh, the Raja of Benares, in 1770, the British forced the Nawab to recognise Chet Singh, subject to the payment of a quit rent. In 1794, Raja Mahip Narayan Singh of Benares surrendered the control of the district to the Governor-General by the agreement of 27th October of the same year. After British occupation several changes in the subdivisional boundaries were made. Tahsildari divisions were recognised under the rule of Raja Balwant Singh, and the system of farming the revenues to what were called *dahyak* tahsildars, or officials who were remunerated by a commission on their collections, was retained until the expiry of their engagements in 1809. An old record submitted to the Board in 1801, showed that every pargana and *tappa* had, with a few exceptions, a separate tahsildar. In 1804, it was resolved to abolish the office of tahsildar in the Benares province at the expiration of the current *Fasli* year; but later the appointment of tahsildars on salaries was contemplated. No tahsildars were appointed in the district as it then stood, but a list was made out of the parganas, tappas, and estates constituting *huzur* tahsil, that is, a tahsil in which payment was required to be made at the tahsil head-quarter.

There were thus no intricate changes of subdivisional limits, and the task was rendered all the more simple by the fact that nearly the whole of the district had since 1795 been permanently settled. It was not until 1787, when Jonathan Duncan the British Resident, actively intervened in the revenue management of the province of Benares, that there is anything of importance to record. The fundamental principles of administration adopted by Balwant Singh were, first to destroy the authority and influence of the large landholders of the parganas and villages, and secondly, to extend cultivation by protecting the proprietary and non-proprietary cultivators. The pargana zamindars were deprived by him of their administrative functions and dispossessed of their private estates. In their place *amils* were appointed, many of them kinsmen of the Raja, and to them the parganas were given in farm year by year. The revenue system was practically a ryotwari one; the *amils* or revenue collectors had extensive tracts of country under their jurisdiction and it was not practicable for them to trouble individual cultivators with controversies regarding rent rates. If they wished to en-

¹*Ibid.* p. 176

²*Ibid.*

³Drake-Brockman, D.L.: *A Gazetteer: Mirzapur*, (Allahabad, 1911) p. 219

⁴Abul Fazl: *op. cit.*, Vol. II, 168

⁵Drake-Brockman, D.L.: *op. cit.*, p. 220

⁶*Ibid.*

⁷Moreland, W.H.: *The Agrarian System of Moslem India*, p. 127

⁸Moreland, W.H.: *op. cit.*, p. 132

¹*Ibid.*, p. 150

hance rents, the method adopted by them was to impose *abwabs* (cesses) in addition to the fixed rentals; but even their power of imposing cesses was vigilantly restricted by the fixation of a uniform cess of Rs 1.56 per cent over and above the general pargana rent rate. However, under this system of management the country prospered. But after Chet Singh's rebellion and expulsion in 1781, the fixed revenue or tribute payable to the British by the Raja of Benares was raised from twenty-two to forty lakhs of rupees a year. The new Raja was a minor, and so the administration was entrusted to the Resident, assisted by a deputy of the Raja. During the next seven years the *amils* were allowed to disregard the rule prohibiting them from making collections during the first three months of the rainy season and they were thus permitted unchecked to impose cesses which in some cases rose as high as 16 per cent. A very short time convinced Duncan, who was appointed Resident in 1787, that it would be useless to expect the Raja to exert himself in the direction of reforms. Even so simple a measure as the issue of an improved and uniform lease and counterpart for engagement with the landholders, by which Duncan hoped to abolish some of the irregularities that had crept into the system of collections, met with strenuous opposition and was in the end, unwillingly and perfunctorily carried out. Every effort was made by him to employ the Raja as the instrument of the reformation of the country to avoid any detraction from the latter's dignity; but the task proving hopeless, he at length sought and obtained the sanction of the Governor-General in council to take upon himself the entire conduct and formation of the new Settlement of 1196 *Fasli*, availing himself of the Raja's interposition no further than he might think proper.

Settlement of 1788-89

The reforms which Duncan had attempted to get Raja Mahip Narayan Singh to introduce into the revenue administration of the country were embodied in a set of regulations which were confirmed by a resolution of the Governor-General in council on October 3, 1788, and it was the principle laid down in these regulations that Duncan followed in the famous Settlement of 1196 *Fasli* or 1788-89. Besides the issue of a uniform lease and counter-part to the cultivators, these regulations provided for the determination of grain-rents by the method of appraisement and the specifications of the Raja's share of the produce, thus reducing all rent to money-rent; and the restoration of the land formerly enjoyed by them to the pargana *kanungos*, who under Mahip Narayan's administration, had become mere puppets in the hands of *amils*. But the most important provisions were the abolition of all cesses or enhancements of rent imposed between the years 1187 and 1196 *Fasli*, and the adoption of the consolidated rent rate and cesses in force in 1187, as the single rate payable by the cultivators. The year 1187 *Fasli* (1779-80) was selected because it was the last complete year of Chet Singh's management and because it was on the general revenue obtained in it that the Settlement for forty lakhs was made between Warren Hastings and Raja Mahip Narayan Singh. The services of *amils* were retained for the collection of the revenue from the cultivators, but competition was abolished between them. The sum to be collected by them was assessed by Duncan on the basis of rates of 1187 *Fasli*, and they became mere collectors who were remunerated with an allowance of 10 per cent on their collections.

Duncan came to the conclusion that the Settlement ought not to be based on measurement. For it were substituted the *dauls* or estimates of the pargana *kanungos*. From December 13th up to the end of the month, all these persons attended the Resident at Benares and furnished their estimates of the available revenue assets of each village in their respective parganas. These estimates were examined and considered separately by the Resident. In most cases they were accepted and made the basis of Settlement of the revenue payable by the *amils*. In some few cases, where they appeared too low, the principle of competition was admitted to a very limited extent and the revenue of the *amil* was, with his consent, fixed at a somewhat higher amount. A new form of the engagement was at the same time prescribed for the *amils*. This provided that they should collect the village rents according to the estimates of the *kanungos*; that they should abide by the leases granted to the cultivators in accordance with the orders of June 25, 1788; that they should refrain from demanding custom duties and cesses of every description. The *amils* in fact became mere collectors of revenue, and in the last clause of their engagement can be traced the origin of the *dahyak* tahsildari system. The Settlement was intended to be for one year only, but it was found that large tracts of country were in so backward a state as a result of the Raja's mismanagement that the revenue enforced in 1179 or 1187 *Fasli* was, in 1788, a demand impossible of realisation. In view of this the Resident accepted a proposal on the part of the Raja to grant progressive leases for five years in backward tracts with the hope of encouraging cultivation. Thus it came about that in a large portion of the province, the Settlement became a quinquennial one.

Permanent Settlement

The permanent Settlement of 1795 in Mirzapur extended to the whole of the district, except pargana Singrauli, including Dudhi and the family domains. In the latter the sum to be paid by the Raja to the government was fixed in perpetuity, while the former escaped Settlement altogether. The total demand for the district was Rs 8,13,051, including the demand on the Raja of Benares for the pargana of Bhadoli (now in Varanasi), but excluding that for the revenue-free pargana of Kora-Mungor and the pargana of Singrauli, including Dudhi, which was then considered an apanage of Agori-Barhar. The demand had been increased since; but the additions were in no way due to an enhancement of the original demand. This had their origin in the assessment of estates that escaped Settlement in 1790, the resumption of revenue-free grants, the alterations of the demand on alluvial areas, and to the transfer of villages from other districts. Special arrangements were made with the Rajas of Kantit, Agori Barhar, and Singrauli. It was not easy to gauge with any accuracy the incidence of the demand at the time when it was assessed; but it was generally considered that it must have been severe. The conception of rent was not then clearly defined, and the basis of assessment was rates representing the share of the state in the gross produce of each field, and its distribution over the cultivated area.

Survey and Record-of-Rights, 1840

The chief objection to the permanent Settlement lay in the fact that it was incomplete. The Settlement was made on the basis of estimates and approximate information; there was no regular survey of fields, no scientific adjustment of the revenue to the rental value of the land, and no record-of-rights. The first difficulty arose over the absence of boundaries, and numberless disputes sprang up between the owners of the various *pattis* on the question of possession. An attempt was made to remedy these defects in Regulation VIII of 1800. Under Regulation XII of 1817 the duties of *patwaris* were defined. They were directed to submit returns twice yearly, showing the returns of each harvest, the tenants of little value. It was not until what may be called the Settlement Regulations, VII, of 1822, and IX of 1833, were passed that a complete record-of-rights in the province was prepared. The necessity for these arose in ceded and conquered provinces, where the promise of permanent Settlement had been made, but subsequently deferred until a detailed enquiry had been made into the capabilities of the land and the rights of various classes having interests therein. A survey of the whole province was ordered by the government in 1829. The survey of Mirzapur was undertaken by Wroughton in 1839 and completed in 1841. Village maps were prepared; but in the preparation of the village maps care was not taken to give accurately the position and size of the boundaries of the existing fields, nor were the village boundaries in all cases properly demarcated. In the upland portion of the district the maps were for less accurate than those in the Ganga valley, as also where the cultivated area was small and fluctuating. Between 1841 and 1847 the formation of record-of-rights was completed and the revision of the Settlement of unassessed land was carried out by Raikes, Barnes, and Wynyard.

Revision of 1878-1885

Under the permanent Settlement some tenures had assumed a fixity and value unknown elsewhere; and a large area was held by tenants at fixed rates, or occupancy rates, who had freely transferred their holdings under every form of conveyance. The more valuable the sub-tenures became by lapse of time, the greater the friction which arose between landlord and tenant. Litigation increased and the difficulty in deciding cases became at last so great, not only in Mirzapur but also in the other permanently settled districts, that at length an order was issued directing a revision of the records-of-rights. On September 20, 1878, a notification was issued declaring that a record-of-rights was to be prepared under section 36(2), Act XIX of 1873 for Kon, Majhwa, Karyat Sikhar, Haveli, Chumar, and Bhulli, to these Chhiyanve and Chaurasi were soon after added. Later on, it was proposed to demarcate and prepare a record-of-rights for the upland portion of the district lying between the Vindhya hills and the Kaimur range, comprising parganas Updraudh, Saktesgarh, Barhar, Vijaigarh, and portions of Bhagwat and Ahraura. When, however, the cost of the undertaking was estimated, it was found that the expenditure that would be involved would be too large to be justified by the interests at stake; therefore, it was finally decided that a cadastral survey should be completed for the whole district as far as

the Kaimur range, but that the revision of the record-of-rights should be confined to the Ganga valley. The survey was carried out by F.C. Anderson; operations commenced at the end of 1879, and were completed in 1882. They embraced the whole district except parganas Agori, Singrauli, Dudhi, and 64 villages in Vijaigarh. These and the upland portion of Kera Mangror were surveyed topographically between the years 1882-83 and 1886-87. All rights both of proprietors, sub-proprietors, and cultivators were accurately determined and recorded in them. Three other matters were undertaken: the revision of the acreage cess, the revision of the *patwaris'* circles, and the distribution of revenue demand. The second was a work of some labour; and it was found that the old arrangements were faulty and inconvenient. Villages situated opposite extremes of parganas were grouped together under one *patwari* simply because they belonged to the same proprietary body; and while some circles were unmanageably large, others were too small. The circles were reduced or enlarged and rendered compact according to circumstances. The distribution of the revenue demand was effected in different ways. In some cases it was only found necessary to record existing payments which had remained unrecorded. In large estates held by single individuals, the distribution of the *Mahalwar Jama* was made by apportioning the demand either according to the area of each village or according to its assets. In large estates; held by a body of proprietors in which the shares in each component part of the *mahal* were the same, the *Mauzawar Jamas* were ascertained by summation of the *Jamas* on each holding in the *Mauza*. In a *mahal* held by a body of proprietors in which the shares in each component villages were not uniform the *Mauzawar Jama* was obtained by ascertaining the amount hitherto paid by each shareholder or group of shareholders and then distributing this amount over the holdings of each shareholder or group with reference to the assets of those holdings. Some slight trouble was met with at first in obtaining the consent of the large proprietors, but with a few exceptions the distribution was carried out without difficulty and with the consent of the landholders.

Settlement in Dudhi

It has already been shown in dealing with the tenures of the district how the Dudhi *tappas* were declared to be at the disposal of the government in 1853 and how they were settled by Roberts between 1849 and 1856 with the zamindars. Roberts' arrangements continued in force for some years. Early in 1865, however, Mr. Chlery reported that cultivation had in most villages trebled or quadrupled since the time of Roberts; and measurements were sanctioned with a view to increasing the demand in 94 villages where alone resettlement was deemed possible. The work was badly done, owing chiefly to the want of proper and efficient supervision, and the principal result was an increase of only Rs. 755 in the demand of 78 villages. Neither the measurement nor the demand was considered final, and final and the question of resettlement was opened by Pollock in 1868. No definite orders, however, were passed in the matters until 1870-71, when Dudhi was visited by William Muir, the Lieutenant-Governor, a reminiscence of whose visit has been left in the name of the village Muirpur. The orders of the government finally passed may be briefly summarised. There was to be no zamindari

settlement in favour of any one, but only in favour of *sapurdars*. The latter were to be divided into two classes; *sapurdars* who had proved their fitness by successful management, to be called hereditary or *maurus* *sapurdars*, and simple *sapurdars* who had not yet proved their fitness to be hereditary and whose office would be secured to them only for the term of the Settlement. Where existing *sapurdars* had managed badly, the leading and most influential cultivator was to be selected *sapurdar*. *Sapurdars* were to be given the power of taking up within the boundaries of the *mauza* fresh cultivation from the waste on their own account, of arranging for the breaking up of fresh fields by cultivators of their own or adjoining villages. The cultivators' right in permanent fields managed or reclaimed by them on their own account was made hereditary, the assessment was to be imposed only on permanently cultivated lands, fields only temporarily cleared and sown being unassessed; and the term of Settlement was fixed for ten years. The preliminary work of Settlement was at once taken in hand by Pollock in 1871-72, the village boundaries being surveyed with the theodolite and the fields measured off with the plain table; *sapurdars* were selected and the rights of tenants with leases determined. In order to protect the Settlement from breaking down, Pollock raised the rate of commission of *sapurdars* from 10 to 20 per cent. The result of the proposed demand was, therefore, an increase in the demand from Rs 2,688 to Rs 4,534 excluding the *sapurdar* commission. The engagements provided that the old permanent cultivation should be maintained at its existing extent and that any culpable failure to maintain it should render the *sapurdar* liable to loss of office; and further that if the cultivators deserted permanent cultivation in order to break up waste, any diminution of rental so caused should be made up by the *sapurdar* from the rents he received from cultivators. Besides the 36 estates settled with *sapurdars* there were 28 others which Pollock set aside to be held for the present under the direct management of the collector. These were chiefly tracts lately reclaimed, which, though possessing a good soil, were occupied by men without sufficient capital and influence to improve them. Thus the operations were finally concluded in 1875-76. Gonda-Bajia and Barha were surveyed, new villages were marked off in all the *tappas*, and the areas of reserved forest amounting to 21,275 acres in Gonda-Bajia, and 26,893 acres in Barha, were defined. Finally the demands of the villages were readjusted in accordance with the concessions of 1875, with the result that the new revenue assessed amounted to Rs 5,748 in the *sapurdari* villages, and Rs 1,188 in the zamindari *tappa* of Gonda-Bajia and the village of Hirachak. If to this sum be added the net rental of the villages under direct management, Rs 1,647, the total land assessment amounted to Rs 8,582. The Settlement was sanctioned for a term of ten years beginning from 1876-77.

Revision of 1886-87

The task of this revision devolved on Dale the then collector of Mirzapur. He proposed that the *patwari* papers should be thoroughly tested and, if found to be correct, should be made the basis of the new Settlement. Plough rates were to be retained, but plough areas were limited to a standard of eight bighas for permanent cultivation, 18 bighas for intermittent cultivation, and 12 bighas for mixed holding, 5 bighas being

permanent and 7 intermittent *sapurdars* were to be allowed rent-free, the same number of ploughs that had been left to them rent-free at the last Settlement; *sapurdars'* *khudkasht* lands were to be assessed at full tenants' plough rates, and the commission to *sapurdars* was to be considerably curtailed, old rates being allowed on all old tenants' plough, but on all new ploughs 15 per cent only being given instead of 30 per cent to hereditary *sapurdars*, and 10 per cent in lieu of 20 per cent to non-hereditary *sapurdars*. These proposals were sanctioned by the government and the Settlement was carried out according to them. The total demand assessed according to the new principles of Settlement laid down was Rs 11,800 as against Rs 5,960 at the previous Settlement, or nearly double the old demand. In the zamindari *tappa* of Gonda-Bajia and the village of Hirachak the cultivated area had risen by 12,090 bighas, the number of ploughs by 956 and the rental by Rs 2,970. On this Dale fixed a demand of Rs 2,500, but owing to the enormous increase, the full demand was only reached by progressive instalments in the fifth year. There remained the estates under direct management. Three of these during the currency of the Settlement had become what is known as *kham sapurdari* estates, and 12 more were created such by Dale. In the three existing ones the *sapurdars'* commission amounted to a remission of three-fourths of the rent of their *sir* land and a commission by 20 per cent on the collections from tenants; but in the 12 newly created ones only half the rent of *sir* land was remitted and a commission of only 10 per cent was allowed on collections. The gross assets of the *kham* and *sapurdari* estates was Rs 3,260 and on this a demand of Rs 2,949 was fixed.

Revision of 1897-98

The last revision of the Settlement was carried out by Maulvi Muhammad Ahmad, assistant settlement officer, in subordination of J.A. Brown, settlement officer and collector of Mirzapur in 1897-98. In the *sapurdari tappas* cultivation had increased by only 546 acres. A large area of intermittent cultivation had fallen out, but this was compensated for in part by a large increase in permanent cultivation, and the gross rental was larger by Rs 4,334. The number of ploughs and of tenants had also increased and the demand on these villages was enhanced to Rs 19,698. Similarly, in the zamindari villages of Gonda-Bajia there had been an increase in cultivation amounting to 831 acres, and in the rental by Rs 2,711. The demand assessed was Rs 3,756, or a rise of Rs 1,208. The duration of Settlement was fixed for a period of ten years commencing from 1899-1900.

In the Settlement conducted by Duncan in 1895, there was no regular survey of lands, no scientific adjustment of the land revenue demand, and the *jamias* was fixed in perpetuity only on the basis of estimates and approximate information. Thus the Settlement was purely makeshift while the judicial part of the Settlement was entirely omitted. No comparison was, therefore, possible with the economic condition of the parganas, under roster operations with those existing at the last revision of records. No classification of soil was effected except a demarcation of fields and village boundaries. The revisional operations in 1927-28 were, therefore, confined to the portion of the district known as the Ganga valley.

The operations first started in *tappa* Chhiyanve of tahsil Mirzapur in (1927-28). The total revenue demand of this *tappa* was fixed at Rs 2,35,638. In 1928, Taluka Majhwa of the same tahsil was assessed. The Raja of Benares who owned 88 per cent of the total occupancy area of this taluk, used to entrust the work of collection of revenue to the contractors before 1928. The new revenue demand fixed during the course of the revision was Rs 76,946 and the total collections were Rs 59,538. In pargana Karyat Sikhar of tahsil Chunar, the same principle of working out the rates was adopted in 1928 as was done in the other parganas of the Ganga valley. This was called the unit value system, as most of the holdings contained different soils of varying values and areas and were lump rented. The total revenue demand of this pargana in 1335 *Fasli* was Rs 1,72,235 and the total collection Rs 1,12,632. The total demand of pargana Bhuili of tahsil Chunar in 1334 *Fasli* was Rs 2,48,542 and the total collection Rs 2,12,715. The revenue demand of pargana Bhagwat in 1335 *Fasli* was Rs 89,749 and the total collections Rs 68,592. For Ahraura the total demand was fixed at Rs 53,739 in 1335 *Fasli* and the total collection was Rs 46,108.

Collection of Land Revenue

After the abolition of zamindari, the system of direct collection by Government from *bhumidhars* and *sirdars* was introduced, for which collection *amins* were appointed under the direct supervision of *nail-tahsildars*; tahsildars remaining responsible for collection in the tahsils. In 1952, the Government appointed district collection officers to supervise collection work in the district, but this scheme was discontinued in 1958, and subdivisional officers were entrusted with this work. The following statement shows the revenue demand from different sources in 1975-76 :

Main dues	Total demand (in Rs)
Land revenue	28,87,914
Vikas kar	38,71,519
Irrigation dues	29,87,835
Vrihat jot-kar	1,07,098

The following statement gives the revenue demand in different *Fasli* years :

<i>Fasli</i> year	Amount (in Rs)
1359	8,92,154
1360	21,35,051
1363	20,33,941
1368	20,73,272
1376	28,73,112
1378	28,65,719
1379	11,54,275
1382	28,75,440
1383	28,87,914

On the eve of the abolition of zamindari system in the year 1951-52 (1359F), the land revenue amounted to Rs 8,92,154, and the following year (1360F) it was Rs 21,35,051, as a result of the abolition of zamindari system and the conferment of rights on tenants. On October 30, 1954 (1362F), the *adivasis* were made *sirdars* resulting in further increase in the land revenue. In 1363F, it amounted to Rs 24,09,172. However, in the year 1971-72, (1379F) the land revenue demand came down to Rs 11,54,275, when landholders up to 2.5 ha were exempted from payment of land revenue, which concession was withdrawn from 1382F. In July, 1973 (1381F) Land Development Tax was imposed the, incidence being modified in 1383F and 1384F. In 1383F, the Land Development Tax amounted to Rs 38,71,519.

LAND REFORMS

Relation between Landlord and Tenant

In ancient days there was no intermediary between the king and the cultivator, the revenue being collected directly by the king's officials. Under the sultans of Delhi and Jaunpur, the Hindu chiefs and those Muslims who were given jagirs or assignments of land seem to have acquired the status of intermediaries. Under the Mughals the demand for land revenue was made in cash, the grain rents being commuted on the basis of current prices. During the eighteenth century, however, a tendency towards the growth of semi-feudal interests became apparent. Viewing the relationship between the tenants and the landlords during the medieval period as a whole, it will appear that the fate of the peasant was either in the hands of the farmer of revenue or of the king's assignee, who usually exacted the maximum that he could without paying any heed to the cultivator's lot. These conditions led to the emergence of middlemen who later became known as zamindars.

The province of Varanasi, including the district of Mirzapur, was ceded in 1775 to the East India Company by the Nawab-Vizir, of Avadh, when it was held by Raja Chet Singh on condition that he paid a fixed annual sum. On his expulsion an agreement was made with his successor, Mahip Narayan Singh, the revenue fixed being almost doubled. To meet his excessive liability the Raja imposed such severe cesses that the locality was threatened with ruin, the *amils* being allowed to exact from the cultivators as much as they could.

Throughout the nineteenth century the peasants were not relieved from the anomalies of the existing revenue system. Even the reforms made by the British Government could not benefit the cultivators materially unless the whole structure of the tenure system were changed and the body of persons interposed between the State and the cultivators eliminated, a measure taken with the passing of the U.P. Agricultural Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges Act, 1949, which was followed by the U.P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950 (U.P. Act No. 1 of 1951). The last named Act and its successive amendments have abolished all the intermediaries, taking the cumbersome yoke of landlordism off the tenants' shoulders and have simplified the complexity and multiplicity of land tenures.

Abolition of Zamindari

Acting upon the recommendation of the U.P. Zamindari Abolition Committee, 1946 a bill was introduced in the Assembly and the U.P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950 (U.P. Act, I of 1951), was enforced with effect from July 1, 1952, doing away with the system of intermediaries in (with exception of urban areas and government estates) the district, affecting 66,407 persons and replacing multiplicity of tenures existing in this district by only four types : the *bhumidhars*, *sirdars*, *asamis* and, *adhivasis*. Up to March 31, 1976, the total compensation assessed in cash and bonds was Rs 18,29,879 and Rs 91,53,700 respectively, of which Rs 18,25,984 in cash and Rs 88,52,100 in bonds has been paid to intermediaries. The rehabilitation grant assessed in cash and bonds up to March 31, 1976, stood at Rs 2,81,575 and Rs 65,79,300 respectively, of which Rs 2,81,564 in cash and Rs 65,37,800 in bonds has been paid to the intermediaries.

Urban—Abolition of zamindari in respect of agricultural lands in urban areas of the district was done after the enactment of the U.P. Urban Areas Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1956 (U.P. Act, IX of 1957). This Act was enforced in Mirzapur and Chunar municipal board areas on July 1, 1963. Up to March, 1976, a sum of Rs 5,04,591 was assessed as compensation, of which Rs 49,541 was paid in cash, Rs 4,53,250 in bonds and Rs 1,800 in stock certificate.

Under the U.P. zamindari and Land Reforms Act, 1950, the intermediaries became *bhumidhars* of their *sir* and *khudkasht* lands and groves. Certain other tenure-holders also acquired the same status in land under their cultivation provided they fulfilled certain specified conditions. A *bhumidhar* possesses heritable and transferable rights in his holding from which he cannot be ejected. Certain other categories of tenants who did not acquire *bhumidhari* rights became *sirdars* of the land under their cultivation. A *sirdar* has permanent and heritable interest in his holding but he cannot transfer it. He may use his land only for purposes of agriculture, horticulture, and animal husbandry. He can, however, acquire *bhumidhari* rights in his holding by paying to the government a sum representing a special multiple (now 20 times) of his annual land revenue. Certain *bhumidhars* and *sirdars* are entitled to sublet their land, for example, those employed in the defence services or those invalidated by age or injury, etc. An *asami* is a tenant of a *bhumidhar*, a *sirdar* or *gaon sabha*. He has neither heritable nor transferable rights and is liable to ejection for void transfers, or on the extinction of the rights of the *bhumidhars* or *sirdars* concerned, or for contravention of any other provision of the Act.

In this district, the landholder *adhivasis* also received compensation according to the provision of the Act. The total compensation assessed was Rs 37,19,394 in cash and Rs 91,550 in bonds, which has been paid.

The numbers of tenure-holders and the holdings with their total areas in the district in December, 1976, were as follows :

Kind of tenure	No. of tenure holders	No. of holdings	Total area (in ha.)	Average size of holdings (in ha.)
<i>Bhumidhars</i>	4,04,159	2,00,685	2,26,715	1.13
<i>Sirdars</i>	4,71,155	2,75,778	2,64,727	0.96
<i>Asamis</i>	7,513	6,530	2,649	0.406

Bhumidhars and *sirdars* have been made jointly responsible for the payment of land revenue for which a holding is assessed. The Act also established Land Management Committees for the management of lands not comprised in any holding or grove, of forests within the village boundaries, of tanks, ponds and fisheries, of *kats*, bazars and *melas*, and of other sources of income vested in the *gaon sabha*.

Consolidation of Holdings

The U.P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1953 (Act V of 1954), provided for the consolidation of scattered and small holdings. It was first enforced in the Chunar tahsil of the district in 1961. The following statement shows the tahsilwise area consolidated in the district :

Name of tahsil	Year of enforcement	Total number of villages	Area consolidated (in ha.)
Mirzapur	1965	368	32,753
Chunar	1961	587	64,265
Robarts Ganj	1967	592	56,499
Dudhi	—	—	—

The U.P. Agricultural Income-tax Act, 1948, was passed to tax agricultural income in excess of Rs 4,200 per annum. The tax was not payable by a landholder if he did not cultivate more than 30 acres of land. This Act was replaced by the U.P. Large Land Holdings Tax Act, 1957, which imposed a tax on land holdings whose annual income exceeded Rs 3,600. A landholder who did not cultivate more than 12 ha. of land was exempted from payment of the tax under this Act. The tax was levied on a graduated scale so that the larger the holding the greater the incidence of the tax.

Imposition of Ceiling on Land Holdings

As a step towards social and economic justice, by way of providing land to the landless and the agricultural labourers, and to bring about an equitable distribution of land, the Uttar Pradesh Imposition of Ceiling on Land Holdings Tax Act, 1960, was passed. It was enforced in the district on January 3, 1961. The number of tenure-holders affected by this Act was 441 and the total area declared surplus was 8,658 ha. (21,333.23 acres). About 7,664 ha. (10,022.96 acres) of surplus land has been settled with 3,648 tenure-holders and 3,248 ha. (8,127.03) of land vested in the *gaon sabha*. An amount totalling Rs 9,65,862 has been assessed as compensation, of which Rs 9,57,674 has been paid to the tenure-holders up to September 30, 1976. Moreover, 1,288 ha. of land remains to be settled with tenure-holders in the district, of which the settlement of about 23 ha. of land has been postponed by court orders while the dispute over 1,173 ha. of land is pending in the courts.

By a later amendment brought into force in the district on June 8, 1973, the maximum size of a holding of a tenant is fixed at 7.30 ha. of irrigated land and 10.95 ha. of unirrigated land. The number of persons affected by the Act was 819 and the total area declared surplus upto September, 1976, was about 8,230 ha. About 5,670.09 ha. (20,337.0 acres) of land has been settled with 3,215 tenure-holders under section 16 (1) of the Act. This includes 1,868 ha. of land vested in the *gaon sabha*. The total amount of compensation assessed was Rs 1,08,286 of which Rs 22,422 have been paid upto September 30, 1976.

Bhoodan

In 1951, Acharya Vinoba Bhave initiated Bhoodan movement in Uttar Pradesh with the object of obtaining land for the landless. The State Government, therefore, passed the U.P. Bhoodan Yajna Act, 1952. An area of about 4,849 ha. was received in donation in the district, of which about 3,958 ha. was distributed among the landless.

ADMINISTRATION OF OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

Central Taxes

The Central Government taxes consist of central excise, income-tax and estate duties.

Central Excise—For purposes of central excise a superintendent of central excise has been posted in the district.

The excise revenue collected in the district in 1975-76 and 1976-77 was as under :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
	Rs.
1975-76	35,69,74,933
1976-77	47,02,30,503

The important excisable commodities in the district are cement, copper and copper alloy, aluminium, caustic soda, woollen fabrics, and tobacco, etc.

Income tax—This is one of the important sources of revenue of the Central Government. For the collection of this tax, an income tax officer is appointed at Mirzapur.

The following statement shows the number of assessees and the amount collected as income tax between the year 1972-73 to 1976-77 in the district :

Year	No. of assessees	Amount of tax (in thousand Rs)
1972-73	5,401	5,491
1973-74	5,970	6,093
1974-75	6,123	7,320
1975-76	8,101	10,248
1976-77	8,611	12,661

The extraordinary increase in the income-tax between the years 1975 and 1977 was due to the flourishing state of carpet industry.

Wealth-tax and Gift-tax—The taxes imposed under the provisions of the Wealth Tax Act, 1957, and Gift Tax Act, 1958, are also collected by the income-tax department. The following statement gives the number of assessees and the amounts of the wealth-tax and gift-tax collected from 1972-73 to 1976-77 :

Year	Wealth-tax		Gift-tax	
	No. of assessees	Amount of tax (in thousand Rs)	No. of assessees	Amount of tax (in thousand Rs)
1972-73	91	105	30	28
1973-74	101	140	36	40
1974-75	119	77	31	33
1975-76	136	139	24	27
1976-77	150	203	28	33

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MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

The variation in wealth-tax and gift-tax was due to the fact that some cases were transferred to Varanasi.

Estate Duty—Estate duty is levied under the provisions of the Estate Duty Act, 1953, on the property left by a deceased person. District Mirzapur falls under the estate duty circle, Allahabad.

The following statement gives the amount of estate duty collected in the district in 1974-75 and 1975-76 :

Year	Over Rs 50,000		Below Rs 50,000		Total	
	No. of asses-sees	Amount of tax (in Rs)	No. of asses-sees	Amount of tax (in Rs)	No. of asses-sees	Amount of tax (in Rs)
1974-75	4	6,015	65	—	69	6,015
1975-76	5	18,817	65	—	70	18,817

State Taxes

Excise, sales tax, stamps, registration fees, taxes on motor vehicles, entertainment and betting tax, are the other principal sources of revenue of the State Government.

Excise—The subjects under this head are governed by the United Provinces Excise Act, 1910. In Uttar Pradesh the administration of excise covers liquor, hemp drugs, opium, molasses, alcoholic medicines, power alcohol, and motor spirit, and also their then production, distribution, and sale. The rules and laws relating to excise are entrusted for their enforcement to the excise commissioner, the district magistrate, and the officers of the excise, police and health departments.

The fundamental policy of excise administration, as enunciated in Article 47 of the Constitution of India, is to discourage the consumption of liquor, together with paying attention to revenue receipts to State Governments from excise. For purposes of excise administration the district of Mirzapur falls under the jurisdiction of the assistant excise commissioner stationed at Allahabad. In this district the powers of the district magistrate, as regards matters concerning State excise, are delegated to the district excise officer. The district has been divided into three excise circles, each in-charge of one excise inspector. Tahsils Mirzapur and Chunar constitute one circle, each, while the third circle comprises both Dudhi and Robarts Ganj tahsils. The latter circle has also one excise subinspector.

Liquor—In this district liquor is supplied to the licensees from the Government ware-houses which are located in Mirzapur and Robarts Ganj. The first supplies liquor to the licensees of Mirzapur and Chunar tahsils, while the other supplies to those of Robarts Ganj and Dudhi tahsils under the supervision of their respective excise inspectors. The Mirzapur warehouse is under the charge of the excise inspector, Mirzapur, and the Robarts Ganj warehouse under its own excise inspector. Liquor is sold by the licensees in their shops in sealed bottles. In 1976-77, the number of country-liquor shops in tahsils Mirzapur, Chunar, Robarts Ganj, and Dudhi was 31, 15, 16 and 21 respectively. They are settled by auction system.

The following statement shows the sale of country spirit from 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Year	Sale (in lits.)
1971-72	4,98,690
1972-73	4,17,279
1973-74	4,81,593
1974-75	6,86,592
1975-76	6,74,488

The main reason for the decline in the sale of liquor was due to the economic distress caused by scanty rainfall, resulting in a bad harvest. The main cause of the increase in the consumption of liquor is the increase in population. In this district Pandra Hanuman and Indrapur in Mirzapur tahsil, Lalganj Kanjarkhana in tahsil Chunar, and Robarts Ganj Kanjarkhana, Rajgarh Kanjarkhana, Pipri, Patna, Siltham, and Shahganj in tahsil Robarts Ganj are notorious for illicit distillation.

Foreign Liquor—There is no foreign liquor manufacturers' depot in this district, and the licensees purchase foreign liquor from other districts for sale in their shops. The number of foreign liquor shops in the district is thirteen : 3 in Mirzapur, 3 in Chunar, 4 in Robarts Ganj, and 3 in Dudhi tahsils.

Opium—Sale of opium is restricted to one opium addict in the district who is granted an annual permit and gets his quota from the government treasury, Mirzapur.

The following statement shows the consumption of opium in the district from 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Year	Consumption (in g.)
1971-72	88,566
1972-73	30,228
1973-74	22,173
1974-75	69,984
1975-76	67,574

Hemp Drug—Hemp, known, as a bhang, is also an important source of excise revenue. There is no cultivation of bhang in this district. It is distributed to the licensees from the warehouses of the region. The system of licensing is by auction. The licence for bhang is sanctioned in the name of the highest bidder. There are 51 shops in the district, of which 21 are in tahsil Mirzapur, 11 in tahsil Chunar, 13 in tahsil Roberts Ganj, and 6 in tahsil Dudhi.

The following statement shows the consumption of bhang in this district from 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Year	Consumption (in kg)
1971-72	5,611
1972-73	6,302
1973-74	5,039
1974-75	4,841
1975-76	8,718

Sale of Charas and Ganja is Prohibited

Tari—Tari is extracted from the palm and date palm trees found in the district. The annual licensees extract tari from such trees and sell it to customers in their shops. There were seventeen licensees in 1976-77, 5 in Mirzapur, 11 in Chunar, and 1 in Roberts Ganj.

The excise revenue has shown a steady increase, mainly because of expansion of population and consequently of demand. The excise revenue under each item, as well as in total, from 1971-72 to 1975-76 was as follows :

Year	Revenue (in Rs)				
	Country liquor	Foreign liquor	Bhang	Tari	Kachhi Bhatti
1971-72	15,50,000	18,005	3,09,650	37,900	5,04,000
1972-73	16,13,850	17,421	3,11,550	38,100	5,19,000
1973-74	21,87,400	24,570	3,34,000	38,400	7,18,000
1974-75	27,23,600	51,961	3,57,300	38,900	8,60,000
1975-76	3,22,700	59,931	3,57,100	80,758	10,88,600

Sales Tax—The U.P. sales tax is levied under the U.P. Sales Tax Act, 1948, and the Central sales tax under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1957. For purposes of assessment and administration, a sales tax officer has been appointed in the district with headquarter at Mirzapur.

The number of assessees and the amount collected as sales tax in respect of important commodities in 1975-76 are given in the following statement :

Commodity	No. of traders	Amount of sales tax (in Rs)
Bricks	55	1,16,752
Food-grains, cereals and pulses	52	48,927
Brasswares	172	8,42,179
Cotton yarn	7	58,659
Chemical fertilizers	1	7,527
Firewood	3	78,081
Gold and silver ornaments	13	5,910
Gold and silver bullions	17	12,129
Iron and steel furniture, including steel almirah and safes	5	36,883
Jute and jute goods	4	35,547
Kerosene-oil	1	22,670
Matches	2	61,104
Medicines and pharmaceutical preparations, including insecticides and pesticides	9	21,782
Motor-vehicle and motor-cycles combinations, motor-scooters, motorettes and tyres and tubes, parts and accessories thereof	1	10,124
Oil-seeds	13	15,386
Papers of all kinds	1	6,125
Radios, radiograms, spare parts, and accessories	4	5,315
Readymade garments	18	22,220
Tractors and parts, accessories and attachment thereof, other than tyres and tubes	2	6,303
Woods and timber of all kind, including bamboos and <i>ballis</i> excluding their products and fire wood	15	35,245
Woollen goods, including knitting wool	8	33,724
Washing soap and other materials used for washing purposes	3	23,971
Motor vehicles, including chassis of motor vehicles, motor bodies, and motor tyres and tubes	12	19,591

The following statement shows the total amount of tax collected in the district from 1964-65 to 1975-76 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1964-65	56,26,399
1965-66	67,97,688
1966-67	81,21,699
1967-68	99,34,206
1968-69	94,55,004
1969-70	1,37,61,689
1970-71	1,84,87,597
1971-72	2,20,82,078
1972-73	2,39,12,686
1973-74	2,64,62,320
1974-75	2,84,40,099
1975-76	3,98,50,678

Stamps and Registration

Under the Indian Stamps Act, 1899, stamps are classified as judicial and non-judicial. The former are affixed where a court fee is to be paid, and the latter on bills of exchange, on receipts involving more than a sum of Rs 20, and on documents in respect of which a stamp duty is payable. Income from this source also includes fines and penalties realised under the Act.

The receipts under this head during the last five years ending with 1975-76, were as follows :

Year	Judicial (in Rs)	Non-judicial (in Rs)	Total (in Rs)
1971-72	19,967	20,30,650	20,50,617
1972-73	18,436	16,98,755	17,17,191
1973-74	21,263	21,10,911	21,32,174
1974-75	24,315	84,61,658	84,85,973
1975-76	17,054	44,47,687	44,64,691

The reason for increase in revenue in 1974-75, was the rise in the stamps duty, while the decrease in 1975-76, was due to stay of registration. The stamps in the district are sold by ex-officio vendors and stamps vendors. There are 39 stamps licensees in the district.

Documents such as instruments of gifts, sale and lease of immovable property, and transfer of shares in joint-stock company have to be registered under the Indian Registration Act, 1908. There are four sub-registrars in the district posted at the headquarters of each tahsil.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure on the establishment between 1970-71 and 1975-76 :

Year	Income (in Rs)	Expenditure (in Rs)	No. of documents registered
1970-71	3,08,190	51,674	9,294
1971-72	4,04,853	59,645	10,249
1972-73	3,02,443	55,568	6,997
1973-74	4,06,755	66,080	10,050
1974-75	18,01,663	93,666	11,076
1975-76	5,65,186	89,836	8,924

Tax on Motor Vehicles

Motor vehicles are taxed under the U.P. Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1933 (Act, V of 1935), the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, the U.P. Motorgadi (Yatrikar) Adhiniyam, 1962, and the U.P. Motorgadi (Malkar) Adhiniyam, 1964. The district falls under the jurisdiction of the regional transport officer, Varanasi.

Entertainment Tax

In the district entertainment tax is realised according to the provisions of the U.P. Entertainment and Betting Tax Act, 1937. The cinemas and *nautankis* are the major sources of entertainment tax in the district. The city magistrate, Mirzapur, is responsible for its realisation. There are two entertainment tax inspectors posted in the district, with headquarters at Mirzapur and Roberts Ganj.

The following statement shows the amount collected between the years 1970-71 and 1974-75 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1970-71	7,19,909
1971-72	8,02,471
1972-73	9,63,217
1973-74	11,92,042
1974-75	16,98,666

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

LAW AND ORDER

Early History

In ancient times, the inhabitants of the region covered by the present district were collectively responsible for the maintenance of peace and prevention of crime in their localities. *Rakshaks* (guards) were appointed in each village to guard the public property and in case of failure, they were held personally liable to make good the loss.

With the growth of feudal institution the responsibility for maintaining peace devolved on the landlords who retained the institution of *rakshak*. During the Muslim rule, *kotwals* (chiefs of police) were appointed in the towns and were paid monthly allowance to meet the expenses on their staff of *chowkidars* and peons. In the 16th century, it was the duty of the *faujdar* to maintain peace. With the advent of British rule a more evolved system of organisation was introduced to maintain peace in the district, as elsewhere in other part of the country. Zamindars were made responsible to provide for rural police. The municipal police was maintained for the more efficient watch and ward of the towns as provided for under the Bengal Chowkidari Act, 1856 (Act XX of 1856). The government established regular police in July 1871. Under existing arrangements in the beginning of 20th century the district was divided for the purpose of police administration into twenty-two circles. The police force of the district was then in the charge of the superintendent, who had under him one reserve, one prosecuting and two circle inspectors. In 1908 the civil police force comprised of 43 sub-inspectors, 65 headconstables, and 552 men distributed over the various stations, including a reserve and an armed force.

The duties of the old municipal police had been taken over by the regular police. Only in the Act XX towns of Gopi Ganj, Kachhwa and Girawal, eight constables were maintained from local funds. The rural police or village *chaukidars* numbered 1,411, and the road police, who controlled the grand trunk road and other important routes, in all numbered 88 men.

Incidence of Crime

The detailed statistics and information about the various types of crimes, their nature, and incidence concerning the district of Mirzapur are available only from the year 1898, although the bulk of the district came under British control in the year 1775. The district was very quiet during the first few years of British occupation. Even during the years 1898 and 1908 the incidence of crime was not particularly high, except during the years of scarcity; as for example in 1908, when the district

faced scarcity of food-grains which resulted in an increase in only minor offences such as thefts, cattle liftings breaches of public tranquillity, and criminal trespass. Cases of murder, rape, and other serious crimes did not record any marked rise. The inhabitants of the district were by and large law-abiding and the crime situation was generally under control.

In 1911, the district recorded only a minor increase in crimes like rape, breach of public peace and criminal trespass. The next decade, ending in 1921, also did not show any marked rise in crimes and the district remained generally quiet. The only crimes to record any rise were disturbance of public tranquillity, grievous hurt, and minor thefts, but the number of all these was still lower than what it was in 1908. The subsequent two decades, ending in 1941, also did not show any increase in the number of crimes and the district was very peaceful except for some increase in the volume of offences against public tranquillity. This was mainly due to the increase in political activity in the district. Many people were arrested or detained for violating prohibitory orders. The records for the year 1941 are not available.

The years prior to Independence were also year of comparative calm. The maximum offences recorded by the police in 1951 were of house-breaking and ordinary thefts and no serious law and order problems arose before the district authorities. The occurrence of such petty crimes was mainly due to the large-scale migration of people from villages to the city. Certain socio-economic factors were also responsible for the increase in these type of crimes. There were no organised gangs in the district committing any serious crimes. On the whole, during all these decades criminal activities showed a downward trend.

An idea of the crime, its incidence, and nature in the district can be had from the decadal crime figures from 1898 to 1951 given in the following table :

Nature of crime	1898	1908	1911	1921	1931	1951
Against public tranquillity	77	14	28	95	74	42
Against public life	34	11	12	4	7	39
Grievous hurt	43	43	24	28	108	34
Rape	3	1	5	—	—	—
Cattle-lifting	46	129	23	52	—	47
Criminal force and assault	68	10	15	20	17	—
Theft	335	929	112	167	63	231
Robbery and dacoity	84	47	9	5	4	15
Receiving stolen property	101	68	45	31	26	—
Criminal trespass	171	22	103	94	70	—

The two decades following the year 1951 witnessed a considerable increase in the number of crimes, but their nature remained confined mainly to simple thefts and incidents of house-breaking. Even so these numbers did not touch the highest incidence of 1908. In 1971 also the number of crimes recorded an all-round increase, chiefly in the incidents of cattle-lifting, grievous hurt, breach of public tranquillity, and robbery and dacoity. The reason for this all-round rise in crimes according to the police was the large-scale influx of population from villages and neighbouring districts to urban areas because of the rapid industrialisation of the district in these decades. The peace of the district was broken because of the frequent lockouts and strikes in the various industrial establishments. There was some disturbance of peace on account of students unions indulging in strikes and demonstrations.

The following table gives an idea of the nature and incidence of crime in the district for 1961 and from 1971 to 1976 :

Nature of Crime	1961	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
Breach of public tranquillity	60	176	161	216	326	268	215
Affecting life	38	31	50	41	61	54	63
Grievous hurt	64	102	—	—	—	—	—
Robbery and dacoity	20	81	80	130	141	171	136
Thefts	587	805	928	1,130	1,249	1,334	974
Kidnapping	12	24	23	34	35	36	30
House-breaking	512	715	699	806	913	776	526
Rape	—	—	—	—	15	5	9
Cases under section 377 I. P. C. (unnatural offences)	—	—	—	—	1	0	1

Organisation of Police Force—For purposes of police administration, Mirzapur district is included in the Varanasi range, which is under the charge of a deputy inspector-general of police with headquarters at Varanasi. He controls and co-ordinates the functions of the superintendent of police working in his range.

The district police force is under the charge of a superintendent of police with headquarters at Mirzapur. He is responsible for the enforcement of discipline and efficiency among the police staff stationed in the district, and for ensuring maintenance of law and order in the district. He is assisted by 2 deputy superintendents and one assistant superintendent of police designated as circle officers, who hold charge of the three police circles of the district.

The police force of the district is divided into two broad classes; the civil, and the armed police.

Civil Police—An inspector each is posted at the police-stations of Kotwali Katra, and Roberats Ganj. Besides these there are 74 sub-inspectors, 83 head constables, and 715 constables posted in the 20 police-stations and 31 police out-posts. The duties of the civil police are to detect, prevent and investigate crimes, regulate traffic in the city, and to maintain law and order in the district. The following table gives a description of the civil police and its territorial distribution in the district :

Name of the police circle	Name of the police stations	Name of the police out-post
Sadar Kotwali	Kotwali city	Wasliganj, Watch and Ward police out-post Kotwali city Fataha
	Kotwali Dehat	Karanpur
	Katra	Laldiggi, Watch and Ward police out-post Katra
	Chilh	—
	Vindhyachal	Ganjpur, Watch and Ward police out-post Vindhyachal
	Marihan	—
	Ahaura	Sukrit Bodha Dih
	Adalhat	Narayanpur, Jamalpur
	Chunar	Chunar out-post Adalpura
	Kachhwa	Jamua, Kachhwa out-post
Chunar	Lalganj	—
	Halia	Bhainsaur
	Panderi	—
	Robarts Ganj	Watch and Ward out-post, Robarts Ganj, Churk, Shahganj
	Punnuganj	Raipur
	Karman	—
	Kon	—
	Chopan	Chopan out-post, Watch and Ward out-post, Chopan, Obra, Dala
	Pipri	Renukoot, Renusagar, Turrah
	Dudhi	Muirpur, Wyndhamganj, Babhan

Prosecution Unit—The prosecution staff in 1975-76 consisted of one prosecuting officer and eight assistant prosecuting officers. The services of this staff have now been placed under the control of the district magistrate. The prosecuting officer and his staff conduct criminal cases on behalf of the State in the courts of the magistrates.

Village Police—The institution of village chowkidars, which forms the lowest rank of the police organisation, came into being after the introduction of North Western Provinces Road Police Act, (Act XVI of 1873), and since then the role of these village chowkidars continued to gain importance with the passage of time. These chowkidars while living in the rural areas are attached to various police-stations. They are paid nominal amount by the government. The main duty of the village chowkidars is to report to the local police the commission of crime and the occurrence of other incidents in their areas. They also act as process-servers of the *nyaya* panchayats for which they are paid a small remuneration. In 1976, the strength of the chowkidars in the district was 1,505.

Village Defence Societies—These societies are functioning in the villages of the district, and their members perform watch and ward duties during the nights in their localities and assist the regular police in patrolling and apprehending lawless and anti-social elements. In 1976-77, their number in the district was 1,082.

Government Railways Police—The government railway police is a separate branch of the State police, entrusted with police duties at places on the railway tracks and on the railway stations. There is only one government railway police-station at Mirzapur and there are three out-posts in the district at Chunar, Vindhyachal, and Renukoot respectively. The Mirzapur government railway police-station is manned by two subinspectors, two head constables, and 17 constables. At Renukoot police out-posts there is one head constable and 4 constables, whereas at the police out-posts of Chunar and Vindhyachal one head constable and 6 constables are stationed. The district is under section 'D' of the Allahabad division of the government railway police.

Jails and Lock-ups

District Jail—The institution of jail, as it is found today, is originally a British institution being an integral part of their judicial system. It has now been adopted in the present day set up. The earliest mention of the existence of a jail in the district dates back to the year 1880-81. It is located at Mirzapur and has the capacity to accommodate 255 male and 5 female prisoners. The district jail is under the charge of a superintendent who is assisted by a deputy jailor, three assistant jailors, and 32 warders. There is a wholetime doctor and a compounder to look after the prisoners who fall sick. The jail hospital has 9 beds. The overall control of the jail administration is held by the inspector-general of prisons, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow.

The average daily population of the prisoners and convicts in this jail from the year 1971 to 1975 is as follows :

Year	Convicts	Under-trials
1971	115	261
1972	92	245
1973	80	255
1974	77	341
1975	46	423

Open-Air Jail, Churk Ghurma—There is also an open-air jail, known as Samjurnanand Shivar, which was started tentatively to reform and rehabilitate prisoners and give them a place in society. It was opened on March 15, 1956, and is spread over an area of 25.6 acres (10.5 hectares). The camp is situated in the beautiful Churk-Ghurma Valley near the Churk Cement Factory, where the inmates of the camp work in the stone quarries which supply the raw material to the factory. For this work they are paid regular wages like other labourers. Thus they not only pass their sentences smoothly and usefully, but with hope that one day they will begin their lives anew in a respectable manner and with a clean slate, leaving behind their seamy past.

In 1962 this camp was given the status of a Central prison with its population rising according to the needs of the cement factory. The inmates are called *shivirvasis*. For his labour each *shivirvasi* gets Rs 5 a day from which he/she pays Rs 1.25 per day for the maintenance of his barracks and other facilities. He/She also gets extra bonus for any extra work put in apart from the fixed target of work in the factory. Besides this, he/she also gets paid holidays on all the national holidays and ex-gratia payment from the factory.

The camp provides all the necessary facilities to the inmates. The whole camp is fully electrified and has its own water-supply arrangements through an overhead water-tank and a well which have been constructed through the joint efforts of the factory management and the inmates. The *shivirvasi* labourers are also covered like other labourers under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923. The State Bank of India has recently advanced loans to four inmates for the purchase of sewing machines and with this help they have opened a tailoring shop within the camp. The camp also possesses a laundry, a poultry farm, a flour mill, a canteen, and a huge agricultural farm in which vegetables, grain, etc., are grown with the help of the inmates. The camp also has two temples, a library possessing 2,259 books, and a stage on which recreation programmes are held regularly. The inmates are also trained in scouting, physical education, and are also educated through a scheme known as 'Naya Savera' which aims at making all the inmates at least literate. Under this scheme monthly tests are held for evaluation, and after a four-

month course they are awarded certificates of literacy. For this they are rewarded with a 15 days' remission. To run this scheme the camp has one headmaster and two assistant masters who are trained teachers. The camp contributes to 6 Hindi newspapers.

The camp maintains a hospital to look after the health of the inmates. The hospital has 36 beds and is looked after by a medical officer, 2 compounders, and a sanitary inspector.

The overall camp administration is under the charge of a superintendent who is assisted by a deputy superintendent, 4 jailors, 9 deputy jailors, and 6 assistant jailors. The camp for the purpose of convenience is divided into two circles, with 14 barracks in each circle. In 1976 a barrack was awarded Rs 500 by the review committee for its excellent maintenance by the inmates.

The average population of this camp from the year 1971 to 1976 is given in the following table

Year	Entered	Released	Released under Revision Boards
1971	434	489	35
1972	445	836	—
1973	111	179	—
1974	337	165	12
1975	275	183	27
1976	625	—	—

Lock-ups—A lock-up is located in the collectorate compound in Mirzapur city for the custody of prisoners brought from the jail to courts to attend the hearings of their cases, and for persons rounded up by the police for various offences before they are sent to the prison or are bailed out.

Welfare of Prisoners—Prisoners and under-trials have been divided into two classes : casual and habitual. The basic treatment of prisoners and under-trials along human lines has improved considerably after Independence. They get regular wages for the work they do in the jail. Newspapers are provided to the prisoners and there is also arrangement for indoor games in the jail for their recreation. Those prisoners who save money purchase goods for their use in the jail.

Probation

The probation scheme was introduced in the district in 1969 under the U.P. First Offender Probation Act, 1938, and U.P. Children Act, 1952, when a probation officer was posted in the district. The probation officer works under the administrative control of the director, Harijan and Social Welfare Department U.P., and the district magistrate. He supervises the activities and watches the conduct of those released on

probation, and ensures that they observe the conditions of the bonds executed by them. He also submits periodical reports to the courts concerned about them, and in general assists and befriends them and tries, where necessary, to find suitable jobs for them. The Act provides for the release of first offenders under the age of 24 years on probation. In 1975-76, 48 juvenile delinquents were kept under the supervision of the district probation officer, 20 were sent to approved reformatory schools or were bailed out. The probation officer also interviewed 182 juvenile offenders.

A juvenile court has been functioning in the district since 1969, and in 1976-77 as many as 51 cases were instituted against the juvenile delinquents.

Government Observation Home

The Government Observation Home was established in 1969 in the district. It is maintained by the Harijan and social welfare department of the State Government. The main object of the Home is to reform the delinquents who are kept here pending judgement of their cases. A grant of Rs 17,640 was given to this institution in 1976.

JUSTICE

The Banaras Division (including part of Mirzapur) was the first territorial acquisition of the British in modern Uttar Pradesh. From 1775 the British started reorganising the administrative and judicial machinery. This system contemplated the appointment of a judge-cum-magistrate in each district who sat as a judge in the civil court and decided criminal cases as a magistrate. In most of the districts he was also given an assistant called 'register' to whom cases, the value of whose amount in dispute was below rupees two hundred, could be referred by the judge for decision. The criminal courts administered the Muhammadan Criminal Law with slight modifications. Over these courts was the provincial Court of Appeal in circuit at Banaras where the highest courts of appeal for both criminal and civil cases were Sadr Diwani and Sadr Nizamat Adalats at Calcutta. But in 1831, separate Sadr Diwani and Sadr Nizamat Adalats for this region were established at Allahabad. Besides the judge-magistrate in each zila, there were some subordinate Indian judicial officers of three categories, viz., Sadr *amins*, *amins*, and *munsifs*. The Sadr *amins* had their courts at the district headquarters and were authorised to dispose of cases the value of whose amount in dispute did not exceed Rs 100 and which were referred to them by the judge. The *amins*, nominated by the judge and confirmed by Sadr Diwani Adalat, had their courts in the interior of the district, commanding a jurisdiction of about ten square miles and could decide cases whose value did not exceed rupees fifty. The *munsifs* were the lowest judicial authorities in the district who could take up original cases, if their value did not exceed rupees fifty. The judge could refer appeals up to the value of twenty-five rupees to the 'register'. The rest of the portion of Mirzapur district was in the hands of the raja of Banaras who managed its civil revenue administration under the supervision of the company's officials. In 1795 with the death of Raja Mahip Narayan, nearly the whole of Mirzapur came under direct control of the British with the exception of the three

parganas included in the family domains of the ruler of Banaras. The administration of these domains was placed on equal footing with that of the territories under their direct control by Regulation VII of 1828. The criminal justice under these family domains (including part of Mirzapur) was made into a subdivisional charge, the duties of which were always undertaken by a deputy superintendent, who was a covenanted joint magistrate under the superintendency of Banaras division, and who in the context of a criminal court was known as the divisional magistrate. In revenue matters entirely, and partially in civil jurisdiction, the domains were separate from the rest of the district. The powers of the deputy superintendent extended, in addition to the general supervision, to hearing of appeals from the revenue and civil courts. There was a second appeal to the board of revenue, which for many purposes exercised the powers of a high court within the domains.

The territory of Mirzapur lying south of Kaimurs formed a separate non-regulation administrative area for civil and revenue matters, to which many of the ordinary laws passed till the year 1874 were not made applicable. The collector of Mirzapur and his covenanted assistants were its ex-officio assistant commissioners, and the tahsildar of Roberts Ganj exercised the powers of an extra-commissioner for the trial of civil and revenue cases.

A revised set of rules, both civil and revenue, was promulgated at the same time and legalised by the Non-Regulation Districts, North Western Provinces Act, (Act XXIV of 1864). This also extended to the district of Mirzapur the Code of Civil Procedure. The Code of Criminal Procedure was enforced in 1862.

In 1866, the Sadr Diwani and Sadr Nizamat Adalats at Allahabad were abolished and a separate high court of judicature was constituted for the North-Western Provinces in accordance with the Indian High Courts Act of 1861. The court sat at Agra from 1866 to 1868 and was shifted to Allahabad in 1869. This high court became the ultimate court of appeal for the Mirzapur district also.

Henceforward, the whole of Mirzapur district, for purposes of civil and criminal administration, was under the Banaras Division, with the high court at Allahabad, being the final court of appeal in all civil and criminal matters. All the enactments made from this date onwards, including the Code of Civil Procedure (Act XIV of 1882) and the Code of Civil Procedure 1908 (Act V of 1908), etc., were made applicable to this district also.

In the non-regulated portions or the scheduled tracts, under the new Code of Civil Procedure, there were five grades of courts on the civil side of judiciary, namely, those of the tahsildars, assistant collectors of the second class, assistant collectors of the first class, the deputy commissioner and the commissioner. The tahsildar was empowered to decide suits of all description in which the value of the suit did not exceed rupees 800. In the case of assistant collectors of the second class the limit was 500 rupees, while that of the first-class assistant collectors was 1,000. The deputy commissioner had the power to try and determine suits of every type, of any amount, and to hear appeals from the original decisions in suits and from the orders of the courts from first, second, and third

grades. The court of the commissioner was the highest court of appeal for purposes of all acts, excepting those concerning succession and divorce, which were decided by the high court at Allahabad. These courts, in the region of scheduled tracts of the district, excluded the civil jurisdiction of the district judge as well as that of the subordinate judge and the *munsif*.

The judicial, revenue, and magisterial staff, thus in the year 1911 consisted of two joint magistrates, one of whom was the deputy superintendent of the family domains of Banaras, one full-fledged deputy collector, and two deputy or assistant magistrates with less than full powers. There were three tahsildars, a bench of honorary magistrates with second-class powers at Mirzapur, and similar benches at Chunar and Korh with third-class powers. In addition to these, the raja of Singrauli had second-class criminal jurisdiction within the police circle of Khairwa and in pargana Singrauli. Criminal appeals and sessions work was entrusted to the sessions judge of Mirzapur. For the purpose of civil cases the whole district, except for the tract of Kaimur range, was included in the judgeship of Mirzapur which also had a subordinate judge and a *munsif* at Mirzapur.

In 1935, the strength of magisterial and revenue staff for the district rose to four deputy collectors with first-class powers and four honorary assistant collectors with second-class powers. The number of tahsildars rose to four. There was also a bench of honorary magistrates at Mirzapur exercising jurisdiction within the municipal limits with third-class powers.

The family domains of Banaras were abolished in 1921. For the purpose of civil justice the whole district was included in the judgeship of Allahabad, with one civil and sessions judge and one *munsif* functioning at Mirzapur. The independent judgeship at Mirzapur was created on December 15, 1967. On 2nd October, 1967, there was a separation of executive from judiciary and the judicial magistrates were placed under the control of high court. Ever since the additional district magistrate (judicial) and the judicial magistrates were also placed under the administrative control of the district judge. Besides the district and sessions judge there are four additional district and sessions judges, one *munsif* magistrate, five additional *munsif* magistrates, and the chief judicial magistrate.

Civil Justice

At present the civil judiciary of the district consists of a district judge, two additional district and sessions judges, one civil and assistant sessions judge, one *munsif* to look after the civil work of Roberts Ganj, and one *munsif* and 15 additional *munsifs* for the rest of the district.

The position of the civil cases in the year 1975 is shown in the following table :

Cases	Number of suits
Pending at the beginning of the year 1975	1,871
Instituted during that year	724
Number of suits disposed of in that year	809
Number of suits pending at the close of the year 1975	1,786

In the same year the institution of the number of suits involving immovable property was 398, of those involving movable property was 265, of mortgage suits was 6, of matrimonial suits was 14, and of suits of other classes was 41. The number of suits instituted in 1975 according to their valuation was as follows :

Valuation	Number of suits
Not exceeding Rs 100	84
Exceeding Rs 100 but not exceeding Rs 1,000	401
Exceeding Rs 1,000 but not exceeding Rs 5,000	178
Exceeding Rs 5,000 but not exceeding Rs 10,000	61
Exceeding Rs 10,000 but not exceeding Rs 20,000	18
Exceeding Rs 20,000 but not exceeding Rs 5 lakhs	32
Exceeding Rs 5 lakhs	Nil

The details of the modes of disposal of suits in the year 1975 were as follows :

Manner of disposal	Number of suits
Disposed of after trial	206
Dismissed for default	150
Otherwise decided without trial	147
Decreed <i>ex-parte</i>	183
On admission of claims	6
On compromise	117
On reference to arbitration	Nil

The position of appeals instituted and disposed of during the year 1975 was as follows :

Nature of appeals	Instituted	Disposed of
Regular civil appeals	98	193
Regular rent appeals	11	7
Miscellaneous civil appeals	311	581
Miscellaneous rent appeals	6	1

Criminal Justice

The district and sessions judge who heads the civil judiciary also constitutes the highest criminal court of the district. He is assisted in sessions trials by three additional district and sessions judges, the first two of whom try civil cases also. As a district and sessions judge he deals with criminal cases triable by the courts of sessions and has appellate jurisdiction against the judgments and orders of the magistrates working in the district. The number of these *munsif* magistrates in the district is 11 besides the chief judicial magistrate. The chief judicial magistrate controls the criminal case work of all the judicial and *munsif* magistrates of the district.

The following statement shows the position of cases in the courts of executive magistrates under the district magistrate, which were tried under Criminal Procedure Code and under Special and Local Acts during the years 1973-75 :

Nature of offences	Case instituted			Persons involved		
	1973	1974	1975	1973	1974	1975
Cases under Criminal Procedure Code	842	896	1,087	4,208	4,272	4,244
Under Special and Local Acts	4,554	2,759	3,793	5,425	3,650	5,064

The table given below gives the details of cases of various offences committed to the sessions in the years 1973- to 1975 :

Nature of offences	Years		
	1973	1974	1975
Affecting life	54	150	93
Kidnapping and forcible abduction	5	10	5
Hurt	11	22	3
Unnatural offences	7	—	6
Extortion	—	—	—
Robbery and dacoity	23	25	60
Other cases	26	111	25

The following statement shows the number of persons tried and sentenced by the court of sessions during the years 1973 and 1975 :

Persons tried/sentenced	Years		
	1973	1974	1975
Persons tried	374	336	470
Sentenced to death	1	1	—
Life imprisonment	3	25	32
Rigorous imprisonment	83	62	26
Simple imprisonment	—	1	1
Fined only	14	20	4
Other punishments	—	—	3

Separation of Judiciary from Executive

Partial separation of the judiciary from the executive was tried soon after Independence through the appointment of judicial officers to dispose of cases involving offences punishable under the Indian Penal Code. They had to work under the direct control of the district magistrate and later under that of the additional district magistrate (judicial). The latter were under the direct supervision of the commissioner of the division.

The experiment regarding severing the judiciary from the executive, however, reached a decisive stage when all the judicial district magistrate (judicial), were placed under the direct control of the sessions judge of the district within the administrative jurisdiction of the high court, on 2nd October, 1967. The new Code of Criminal Procedure enforced from April 1, 1967 brought about the absolute separation of the judiciary from the executive.

Nyaya Panchayat

The panchayats were constituted in the district under Act VI of 1920, but it was not till the passing of the U.P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, that the people of the district were associated with the administration of justice at the village level. This new Act established panchayat *adalats* from August 15, 1949. They were subsequently renamed as *nyaya* panchayats. According to this Act, 6 to 12 *gaon sabhas* formed the jurisdiction of a *nyaya* panchayat. Now generally 9 to 12 villages form the jurisdiction of one *nyaya* panchayat which sometimes includes 10 to 20 villages in its jurisdiction.

The following statement shows the tahsilwise distribution of these *nyaya* panchayats at the time of their formation, and their present position in 1976-77 :

Tahsil	No. of <i>nyaya</i> panchayats in 1949	No. of <i>nyaya</i> panchayats in 1976-77
Sadar tahsil, Mirzapur	64	64
Chunar	42	42
Robarts Ganj	45	45
Dudhi	22	21
Total	173	172

The *panchas* of the *nyaya* panchayat are nominated from amongst the elected members of the *gaon* panchayats by the district magistrate in consultation with an advisory body. These *panchas* elect the *sarpanch* from amongst themselves who is the presiding officer, as well as a *sahayak* (assistant) *sarpanch*. The *panchas* are honorary workers and hold office for a period of 5 years. Their term of office can be extended by a year by the State Government. The cases are heard by the benches consisting of 5 *panchas* each and constituted by the *sarpanch* annually. The presence of at least three *panchas* including the bench chairman at each hearing is essential.

The *nyaya* panchayats are empowered to try criminal cases under the following Acts :

(a) U.P. Panchayat Raj Act 1947

(b) Sections

140	269	289	352	379*	431	506
162	277	290	357	403*	447	509
174	283	294	358	*411	448	510
179	285	323	374	426	504	—

of Indian Penal Code

*Involving property not exceeding an amount of Rs 50 in value.

(c) Two sections of the cattle trespass Act, 1871.

(d) Section 10 of U.P. Zila Parishad Primary Education Act, 1926.

The *nyaya* panchayats are not empowered to award sentences of imprisonment and can only impose fines upto Rs 100. In civil cases the jurisdiction extends for valuation upto Rs 500 involving movable property or damages caused by cattle trespass or otherwise, or documents not relating to immovable property.

The number of cases instituted in the *nyaya* panchayats and disposed of during the years 1971-72 and 1975-76 is given in the following table :

Year	Cases pending from last year		No. of cases instituted		No. of cases disposed of	
	Civil	Criminal	Civil	Criminal	Civil	Criminal
1971-72	16	8	165	157	174	154
1972-73	7	11	38	20	6	8
1973-74	39	23	130	135	140	132
1974-75	29	26	597	641	586	630
1975-76	40	37	253	361	271	363

Bar Association

The first ever beginning towards forming an association of legal practitioners was made in the year 1866 when the legal practitioners' association of the civil courts was formed at Mirzapur. This association constructed its own building in the year 1904 and was registered as a recognised body in 1939. The bar association has been divided since 1967 into two separate associations one of which belongs to the collectorate and the other to the judges' courts. They have been named as district Abhibhashak Sangh and Zila Adhivakta Sangh respectively. With a strength of 105 (and ten associate) and 126 (and 50 associate) members respectively each of them subscribes to 12 legal journals.

The primary aim of these associations in the beginning was only to safeguard the interest of the member-lawyers, but with the passage of time they have grown from strength to strength, having the litigants' interests also in view. Their aims have become more diversified and they now help and safeguard the interests of the litigants, particularly the poor ones. Some of the member-lawyers provide free legal assistance to them. Besides these noble traditions, both these associations also lend a helping hand to noviciates in the legal profession. The associations give a special concession in membership fee to these beginners when they are enrolled as permanent members on payment of only fifty per cent of the membership fee. Besides this concession the up-and-coming lawyers are also attached as juniors to the senior and flourishing lawyers in order to get some training and experience in the profession. They are also given benefits of the use of association libraries.

Besides these two associations, two more bar associations function at Chunar and Robarts Ganj, each having a strength of 35 member. The total number of legal practitioners in the district was 450 in 1976-77.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The forest department and the organizational set-up of the certain other departments not dealt with in the other chapters are discussed below.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The main functions of this department are to raise agricultural production by persuading cultivators to adopt improved practices and modern technology suited to local conditions, and to arrange an uninterrupted supply of inputs like quality seeds, fertilizers, pesticides, and insecticides.

A district agriculture officer holds charge of the agricultural work in the district. He is assisted by a team of trained workers and other general staff in his duties, which are to pushing forward various agriculture programmes, including extension of area under high yielding crops, oilseeds, and cotton, etc., and the formulation and implementation of Five-year Plan schemes. There is also one additional district agriculture officer, one *Dalhan* inspector, one *Tilhan* inspector, and one agriculture inspector (supply) at the headquarters. The activities of this department at the block level are supervised by block development officers and assistant development officers (agriculture), who are squarely responsible for the development of agriculture on scientific lines commensurate with the State policy. They arrange demonstrations of modern methods of agriculture, as also of the use of fertilisers, improved implements, hybrid seeds, and pesticide. The assistant inspector of agriculture is assisted by *Kamdars* who look after the seed stores in the district. These officers, besides meeting the input requirements of the blocks, are associated with the agricultural development activities of the villages adjoining the seed stores. There are three seed multiplication farms at Mirzapur, each of which is managed by a farm superintendent.

The district has four soil conservation units, each headed by a soil conservation officer who surveys, plans, and prepares schemes to combat erosion of farmland by wind and water. They are under the supervisory charge of the deputy director, soil conservation, Mirzapur. Each unit has one technical assistant, two overseers, five inspectors and four assistant inspectors. Every year new areas are selected for soil conservation. The soil conservation officer prepares estimates of the income and the expenditure involved in the projects, works out details of the schemes to be under-taken, and secures people's participation for the successful implementation of the programmes. The soil conservation inspectors assist in the execution, evaluation, and measurement of work in their respective sub-units. The assistant soil conservation inspectors

provide technical guidance, help in getting financial assistance, besides survey and preparation of plans. The overseers prepare plan estimates of pucca works, supervise their execution, and provide technical guidance. There is a district advisory board with the district officer as president.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

This district falls under the circle of the deputy director animal husbandry Varanasi. The district live-stock officer is in charge of the department at the district level. He is responsible for improvements in animal breeds and poultry, prevention and treatment of diseases, control of possible outbreaks of epidemics among animals, implementation of plan schemes of the department, prompt execution of supplied nutrition programmes, and for arranging financial assistance to prospective breeders. He is assisted by one artificial insemination officer, veterinary surgeons, one at each veterinary hospital, and four assistant development officers (animal husbandry) stockmen. There are twenty-six veterinary hospitals, each under a veterinary assistant surgeon, and twelve artificial insemination centres. There is one sheep and wool development officer in the district who is assisted by two sheep supervisors. There is one establishment of wool grading centre at Mirzapur for wool marketing. Two check-posts for animals crossing inter-State border at Windhamganj and Sagobandh have been established, where in-coming and out-going animals are checked for infectious diseases and are vaccinated against rider pest.

Co-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT

The department deals with the organization, registration, and promotion of co-operative societies formed in the district, under an assistant registrar, co-operative societies. Its regional officer is the deputy registrar at Varanasi. There are four group I inspectors, each being in-charge of a tahsil, responsible for the proper supervision and working of all types of co-operative development in the tahsils. There are four group II inspectors to look after work relating to collections, farming consumer audit, and the establishment. Under the farming scheme there are two farming supervisors.

There are four marketing societies, with three of them having co-operative inspectors group II as secretary-cum-managers. At the block level, there is one assistant development officer (co-operative) in each of the sixteen development blocks, and assistant co-operative inspectors in the remaining three.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The regional head of education is the deputy director of education, Varanasi. At the district level the higher secondary schools and the intermediate colleges are under the supervisions of the district inspector of schools while the primary/junior high schools are under the supervision of the district Basic education officer.

For exclusive girls' schools, there is a regional inspectress at Varanasi for the whole region.

The district inspector of schools, is assisted by a district Basic education officer, an additional Basic education officer (woman), a deputy inspector of schools, a deputy inspectress of schools (girls), an additional deputy inspector of schools and 22 sub-deputy inspector of schools (for development blocks) and seven assistant inspectress of girls' schools.

There is also a Pariyojna Adhikari who looks after the work of functional literacy (adult education).

The Sanskrit *Pathshalas* (schools) are under the overall charge of the assistant inspector, Sanskrit *Pathshalas*, Varanasi region, having headquarters at Varanasi.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

The forests of the district comprise one stationed division under a divisional forest office at Mirzapur. There are four ranges—Mirzapur north, plantation division, Pipri division, and Dudhi. Each forest range is under a range officer who is assisted by foresters and forest guards who look after the sections and beats respectively. Apart from this Drought Prone Area Programme scheme has lately been introduced in the forest areas of this division. The schemes of roadside avenue and fast-growing sapling are also enforced.

HORTICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The district horticulture officer is responsible for laying out new orchards, rejuvenating existing groves, supplying seeds, plants, and saplings, and for providing necessary technical knowledge to horticulturists. He is assisted by one senior horticulture inspector, one horticulture inspector, one assistant horticulture inspector whose duties are to encourage plantation of improved varieties of vegetables, supply of potato seeds, rejuvenation of the old and planting of new orchards. There are government nurseries at Vimunderpur and Mirzapur under the supervision of an assistant horticulture inspector.

INDUSTRIES DEPARTMENT

Mirzapur is in the eastern zone of the department with headquarters of the joint director at Varanasi. The district industries officer looks after the industrial development of the district by providing technical guidance and arranging financial assistance for the small-scale industries. The latter includes loans, interests, subsidies, purchase of machinery on hire-purchase through U.P. Small Scale Industries Corporation, raw material, quality marking, and the formation of societies of artisans. There is a superintendent under the quality marking scheme. There is one industries inspector co-operative and three industries inspectors for assisting in the overall industrial development.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT

There is one provincial division of the public works department at the district headquarters, Mirzapur, and one departmental construction unit (roads) at Robarts Ganj, under the charges of an executive engineer and a works superintendent respectively.

The above division and unit both are under the charge of a superintending engineer, XXth circle, public works department, Varanasi.

Assistant engineers and a resident engineer look after the work of their sections under the charge of an executive engineer and a works superintendent.

The general function of the public works department is the construction and maintenance of roads, buildings, and bridges.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

A beginning in the direction of establishing some sort of local self-government in the district was made when the Bengal Chowkidari Act (Act XX of 1856) extended to this district also. The first place in the district to be brought under its provisions was Chunar in the year 1864. Ahraura was added to this category in 1865. Under the Act XX towns had committees to look after the policing of these places which were basically villages at that time. These committees maintained some chowkidars from their own funds which was usually raised from the taxes on houses and sometimes from octroi.

Meanwhile, the town of Mirzapur which already had some sort of local self-government was elevated to the status of a municipal town on June 25, 1867, and with it the town of Chunar was also made a municipality. As a municipality its income came from octroi tax on imports, supplemented by miscellaneous receipts from rents and cattle pounds, etc.

Similarly, the old settlement of Chunar, was also brought under the provisions of Act XX of 1856 in the year 1864. The towns of Ghorawal, Gopi Ganj, and Kachhwa were also made Act XX towns in 1872 and maintained a regular police force for the protection of the lives of its inhabitants and their properties, under the Police Act (V of 1861). These towns also, like other Act XX towns derived their income from the house-tax, chowkidari tax, weighing dues, and slaughter and cattle pound fee. The town of Kon in Agori pargana was also administered as an Act XX town, but in which year these provisions were applied to it is not exactly traceable. Thus till the year 1883, there were two municipalities of Mirzapur and Chunar and six Act XX towns of Chunar old settlement, Ahraura, Kon, Gopi Ganj, Ghorawal, and Kachhwa in the district.

In the year 1891, for the first time a tax on weighmen was imposed in the municipal limits of the towns thus governed, enhancing the finances of these local bodies. In 1901 the provisions of the Act XX of 1856 were withdrawn from the town of Kon and it was reduced to the status of an ordinary village and the number of such towns was reduced to five. With the passage of the United Provinces Act I of 1900, the municipality of Chunar was made a notified area on April 1, 1904, and its sources of income also changed. The octroi was abolished and a direct tax on trades and profession according to the circumstances and property was imposed. One year later, on April 1, 1905, the old settlement of Chunar which was till then an Act XX town, was also upgraded as a notified area, thus, bringing the number of notified areas in the district to two. A committee of 5 members was constituted of which the district magistrate was the president. The other members were subdivisional officer, Chunar, the tahsildar, Chunar, and 2 residents of these localities who were nominated by the government.

In 1911, there was only one municipality of Mirzapur, which had a municipal committee of 16, of whom 12 were elected and the remaining 4 were nominated by the government. The number of notified areas in the district at this time was three and that of towns governed under Bengal Chowkidari Act (Act XX of 1856) was three.

The functions of these local bodies by this time had undergone a considerable change. The Act I of 1900, not only provided for a broad-based system of election of the members but also empowered these local bodies to impose fresh taxes on houses, lands, and buildings within the municipal area. The expenditure of these local bodies also was more diversified and included expenditure on conservancy services, dispensaries, and maintenance of schools.

The year 1914 saw the passage of the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914, and all the Act XX towns of Gopi Ganj, Ghorawal, and Kachhwa were brought under the provisions of this Act, but these towns were not formally declared as town areas at that time.

Similarly, the United Provinces Act I of 1900 was replaced by the U.P. Municipalities Act, (Act II of 1916) and the towns of Mirzapur and Chunar were under this Act formally declared as municipal boards. Under these two Acts the system of election of the members of the local boards was further liberalised. There were then more elected members on the committee than the nominated or ex-officio members. There were some women members also elected but still the system was not so broad-based. The reservation of seats for the depressed classes and Muslims was introduced in the municipal committees.

The administration of the municipality of Mirzapur passed into the hands of the non-official body in 1919. The water-works of the town was completed in the year 1914.

In 1928, Roberts Ganj was for the first time brought under any local self-government regulation when it was made a town area under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914. The town of Ghorawal was declared as a town area in 1950 and Gopi Ganj was dropped.

In the year 1975-76, there were two municipalities, Mirzapur and Chunar; three town areas, Roberts Ganj, Ghorawal, and Kachhwa and six notified areas, Ahraura, Chopen, Churk-Ghurma, Obra, Pipri and Renukoot.

A district level body was formed in the year 1883, when a local board was established under the Local Boards Act (Act XIV) of 1883. Earlier there was a district committee to manage the affairs of local self-government in rural areas of the district. A further modification was effected in 1906, when the board was invested with more extended powers and the old local or tahsil boards were abolished, the members being elected directly from each tahsil. The board at that time had 15 members of whom 12 were elected from the various tahsils, the break-up being five from Mirzapur, four from Chunar, and three from Roberts Ganj. The remaining three members were appointed by the government. The duties of the board were the usual ones and almost akin to the old tahsil or local board and

district committee. They looked after and managed local institutions such as roads, schools, dispensaries, ferries, and cattle-pounds. The expenditure was mainly on civil works, education, medical facilities, and arrangements of the policing of villages.

The family domains of the maharaja of Banaras in this district were not included in the jurisdiction of the district board. The portions of this tract included in the domains were managed by the maharaja of Banaras under the Banaras Family Domains Act (Act III of 1904). Under these arrangements the rates and revenues realised by the maharaja for the management of such affairs were credited by him to a separate fund called the Family Domains Local Fund. To this were added the government grants and contributions from the maharaja. The administration of this fund was entrusted to the maharaja, subject to the control of the superintendent of the family domains. The functions of this were the same and the management of the schools was vested with a separate special committee. Under the Cattle Trespass Act (Act I of 1871) the district board had authority over the family domains, to allocate and make rules for the administration of cattle-pounds in the domains.

Under an amendment of by-law of 1913, the tahsil sub-committees were accredited with certain powers and their sphere of work was also extended.

In 1919, the district board became a completely non-official body. In 1922, was passed the U.P. District Boards Act, 1922, which extended the territorial jurisdiction of the district board to the whole of the rural area and like the municipal boards the district board started having an elected (non-official) chairman. Activities of the district board in the field of education and civil works like maintenance of roads, etc., increased. The Antarim Zila Parishads Act of 1958 converted the district board into the Antrim Zila Parishad, with the district magistrate as its president and the district planning officer as the chief executive officer. In the year 1961, the Zila Parishad was established and a non-official president was elected under the U.P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961 (U.P. Act XXXIII of 1961). The present Parishad has been functioning since 1974 after the election of the Adhyaksha (president). It has a total strength of 67 members. The Adhyaksha (president) is elected by the members for a term of five years, which is also the term for the members. The vice-president is elected for one year.

MUNICIPAL BOARDS

Mirzapur

The town of Mirzapur is at present governed by the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, which has been amended from time to time. The township of Vindhyachal is included in the township of this municipality. The board consisted of 27 members elected from 12 wards of the town through direct adult franchise. The members elect a president through a majority vote from amongst themselves for a period of 5 years. At present the board stands superseded. The area of the town at the census of 1971 was 88.85 sq. km. with a population of 1,05,989.

Water-supply—Piped supply of water in the town was started as early as the year 1914. The sources of the water-supply to the town are the Tanda reservoir and a number of tube-wells installed for that purpose. The board has employed a staff of 63 to manage this item of public necessity. The water is supplied for nearly eight hours a day and there were about 308 public and 8,860 private water connections in the town. The total length of the pipe-lines in the city is 110 km. in 1975-76.

The board has also taken up a re-organisation scheme in the Chetganj locality of the town and work on it is almost complete.

Street Lighting—Electricity came to the town in 1931-32 and since then the board was managing the maintenance of this facility, but now the management of this has been taken over by the State Electricity Board. The town had a total number of 1,801 electric street lamps in 1975-76. The expenditure incurred by the board on this public utility item in the same year is given in the table below.

Public Health and Sanitation—The board looks after the sanitation of the town and to improve its drainage it had made arrangements for the clearing of 12 km. of kutchha and 8 km. of pakka drains in 1975-76. This facility in the town was maintained by a team of employees including sweepers.

Special Achievements—The board has laid out two beautiful parks. One is by the riverside on the bank of the Ganga and is known as the Ganga Darshan park. The other is at Laldiggi known as the Laldiggi park.

The statements of receipts and expenditure of the board from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in Statement I (a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Chunar

The municipality of Chunar is as old as that of Mirzapur. At the time of 1971 census the municipal town had a population of 10,240 distributed over an area of 2.85 sq. km. On November 1, 1976, boundaries were extended by including 11 villages and now its population is about 20,000, with an area of about 12.5 sq. km. For the purpose of municipal elections the town has been divided into 6 wards which returned 15 members, including the president, during the last municipal elections in 1971. In 1974 a motion of non-confidence was passed against the president, and the subdivisional magistrate, Chunar, is holding that charge.

Water-supply—The water-supply scheme in the town was started in the year 1961, and since then 21,162 feet (6,450.26 m.) of pipe-lines have been laid till 1975-76. The number of public and private hydrants in the town in the same year was 54 and 835 respectively. The board has constructed two tube-wells to facilitate this essential service. This service in the municipal area is maintained by a staff of eight including an engineer employed by the board.

Street Lighting—The town was electrified in the year 1964 and since then this facility has been extended to the whole of it. There were 127 electric street lamps in 1975-76.

Public Health and Sanitation—The board looks after the sanitation of the town which includes sweeping and cleaning of the roads and drains and the removal of garbage within municipal limits. The length of the kutchha and pucca drains in 1975-76 in the town which are flushed daily was 3,000 feet (914.40 m.).

The details of receipts and expenditure of the board from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in Statement II (a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

NOTIFIED AREAS

Ahaura

This is one of the oldest town areas of the district (1865) which was upgraded later as a notified area under the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. During the last elections 12 members were elected to the local committee, who elected the chairman. The notified area had a population of 11,453 (1971 census) and it covered an area of 2.59 sq. km.

The water-supply scheme in the town was started in the year 1963 and since then 3,432 metres of pipe-line were laid till 1975-76. The notified town had 494 public and private water connections in the same year.

Electricity came to the town in the year 1964. The number of electric street lamps in the town in 1975-76 was 75 and that of kerosene oil-lamps was 40 in the same year.

To look after the public health and conservancy services, the notified area committee has employed sanitary staff which looks after the cleaning of roads, lanes, and drains. There is also one vaccinator who inoculates the residents against epidemics, and in 1975-76, 1,836 people were vaccinated.

Special Achievements—The local committee maintains two educational institutions, one primary and one higher secondary for boys and girls. Besides this, it has recently laid out a park for children which is maintained from the local funds.

The finances of the notified area with the main sources of receipts and expenditure from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in Statement III at the end of the chapter.

Pipri

This town for the first time came under municipal legislation in the year 1957 when the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, was applied to it and it was declared a notified area. The town's municipal limits extend over an area of 5.05 sq. km. and had a population of 5,700 at the time of the census of 1971. The committee has not been constituted so far.

Obra

Obra became a notified area in 1966 following the establishment of the hydro-electric power station there. The place is governed as a Notified area under the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916 as amended from

time to time. The town extends over an area of 9.09 sq. km. and had a population of 11,505 at the census of 1971. The committee has not been constituted so far.

Churk-Ghurma

The notified area is governed by the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. At the time of the 1971 census, the town had a population of 7,429 in an area of 4.22 sq. km. The notified area committee has not been constituted so far.

Chopai

The notified area is governed by the provisions of the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. The town according to the census of 1971 was inhabited by 1,954 within a municipal area of 1.22 sq. km. The committee has not been constituted as yet.

Renukoot

The notified area extends over an area of 3.19 sq. km. and had a population of 10,566 according to the census of 1971. The committee has not been constituted so far.

TOWN AREAS

Ghorawal

The place originally was an Act XX town since 1872 under the Bengal Chaukidari Act of 1856, and later under the provisions of the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914. The town had a population of 2,150 distributed over an area of 909 acres (367.85 hectares), according to the census of 1971.

The affairs of the town area are managed by a committee of nine members including the chairman. They are elected directly by the residents of the town area through a system of adult franchise for 5 years.

The town was electrified in the year 1963, and since then the local committee has installed 23 electric street lamps. There is no piped supply of water in the town and people obtain their supply from hand-pumps and tube-wells. The committee looks after the sanitary and conservancy services in the town.

Special Achievements—The committee has laid out a children's park which has been named 'Shastri Park' to cherish the memory of the late Lal Bahadur Shastri.

The various sources of receipts and main heads of expenditure during years from 1969-70 to 1975-76 are given in Statement IV at the end of the chapter.

Kachhwa

Kachhwa was also an Act XX town since 1872 and became a town area in 1914 under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914. The town has a population of 7,110 and an area of 5.18 sq. km. according to the census of 1971. The committee was superseded on December 7, 1972, and the subdivisional magistrate, Mirzapur, is the officer in charge, performing the duties of the committee and the chairman.

The town has provisions for piped supply of water but the scheme is still under way by the Jal Nigam, 5,519 metres of pipe-lines having been already laid till the year 1975-76. The number of public and private water connections in the same year was 255 and 15 respectively.

The town was electrified in 1956, and till 1975-76 as many as 32 electric street lamps were installed.

The receipts and expenditure of the town area from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in Statement V at the end of the chapter.

Robarts Ganj

The town was for the first time brought in as a local self-government unit under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914, in 1928. The area of the town is 0.85 sq. km. and it had a population of 7,093 according to the 1971 census.

The affairs of the town area are managed by a committee of 9 members and one chairman chosen for a period of 5 years. These members are elected directly through adult franchise and they in turn elect the chairman from amongst themselves.

The town received its piped water-supply in the year 1951 and 8,530 metres of pipe-line has been laid till 1975-76. The number of public and private water taps in the town in the same year was 38 and 573 respectively.

Electricity was made available to the town in 1957 and in 1975-76 there were 165 electric street lamps throughout the town.

A library is also maintained by the town area committee. The receipts and expenditure of the town area from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in Statement VI at the end of the chapter.

PANCHAYATI RAJ

In ancient days, the panchayats, which were bodies of village elders, exercised administrative and judicial powers over the community. With the advent of Muslims these panchayats lost their importance considerably, but they were allowed to exist as long as they did not come into conflict with the super-imposed Muslim system of law and order in the villages.

During the British rule these panchayats lost their residual importance though they continued to survive and control the social life of the villages. But the alien rulers soon realised the importance of this institution and they revived these panchayats, though with a blend of western features in them, in which the traditional feature was lost. The panchayats were created in the district under the U.P. Gram Panchayat Act, 1920, but they were not broad-based and were meant only to suit the British.

The beginning in this direction was made with the enforcement of the U.P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, in the district on August 15, 1947. At that time the number of *gaon* (village) panchayats in the district was 636.

The national extension blocks which were envisaged for community development started coming into being in the district from 1954. They had block development committees which were advisory bodies, set-up to help and advise the staff posted in the blocks for speedy implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes. The government transformed their structure by enacting the U.P. Kshettra Samiti and the Zila Parishad Adhiniyam, 1961, and these *samitis* (committees) became statutory bodies with wide executive and financial powers. With the passing of this Act, the three-tier organisation, viz., *gaon* panchayats at the base, the Kshettra Samitis in the middle and the Zila Parishad at the apex, was introduced.

The organisation and the working of these bodies are discussed in the following pages.

Zila Parishad

The Zila Parishad which has now been reconstituted, is an indirectly elected body with membership consisting of Pramukhs of Kshettra Samitis, representatives of these *samitis*, presidents of municipal boards, members of Central and State legislatures, and certain representatives of co-operative institutions. The Adhyaksha is elected for a period of 5 years and an Upadhyaksha (vice-president) for one year.

The functions of the Zila Parishad are almost akin to those of the old district board. They include co-ordination of the activities of *vikas-khands* (development blocks), implementation of the inter-block schemes, and utilisation of funds allotted by the government for the purpose of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, co-operatives, village industries, public health, education, construction as well as repairs of roads, bridges and ferries, cultural activities, and welfare of children, women and youth.

The principal sources of income of the Zila Parishad are government grants and taxes. The income is mostly spent on general administration, medical and public health and public works, etc.

Education—Institutions up to the senior Basic stage (junior high school) were under the control of the Zila Parishad till June 25, 1972, when they were taken over by the State Government. The number of such schools transferred to the Basic Shiksha Parishad was 1,402 at the time of this change. These schools taken together have a strength of 4,494 teachers.

Medical and Public Health—The services of the entire health department of the Zila Parishad have now been transferred, and now it works under the supervision of the chief medical officer. The Zila Parishad looks after the vaccination facilities in the rural areas and for this purpose it has employed a staff of 12 persons. The board has 10 dispensaries and about 53,606 patients were treated in 1975-76.

Public Works—The Parishad had maintained 55 km. of metalled and 62 km. of unmetalled roads in the district in 1975-76.

Special Achievements—The Parishad has constructed 74 shops at Roberts Ganj, 80 at Renukoot, and 10 at Dala to increase the revenue.

The receipts and expenditure of the Parishad from 1966-67 to 1975-76 are given in the Statement VII (a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Khettra Samitis

The community development blocks established in the fifties of the present century for the intensive social and economic development of the rural areas, had block advisory committees to help and advise the extension agency. With the enforcement of the U.P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishad Adhiniyam, 1961, the functions that were previously carried out by these committees were taken over by the Kshettra *samitis* in 1963. The number of these *samitis* was 20 in 1975-76, one being for each development block. The term of these *samitis* is normally 5 years but it can be curtailed or extended by the government. The members of the Kshettra Samitis consist of all the *pradhans* of the *gaon sabhas*, the chairman of the town area committees within the block, and all elected members of the Central and State legislatures representing or residing in any part of the development block or Kshettra. The *samiti* also co-opts persons interested in planning and development work, representatives of women and persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes, the total number of members in 1974-75 being 1850 (1682 elected and 168 co-opted). The Kshettra Samiti is headed by a *pramukh* and two *up-pramukhs* elected by the members. The block development officer acts as the executive officer of the Kshettra Samiti, which is responsible for the formulation and execution of the development plans of the *gaon sabhas* relating to agriculture, horticulture, live-stock, fisheries, minor irrigation works, opening of maternity and child welfare centres, prevention and control of epidemics, promotion of village industries, and for co-operative institutions.

Every Kshettra Samiti constitutes a *karya karini* (executive) and *utpadan* (production) and a *kalyan* (welfare) *samitis*, headed by the

pramukh and the two *up-pramukhs* respectively. Since 1964, the services of the officers and of others employed in the development blocks have been placed at the disposal of the *Kshettra samitis*. The *samiti* acts as the co-ordinating agency for the *gaon sabhas* functioning within its jurisdiction in the implementation of schemes and programmes.

Gaon Panchayats

With the enforcement of the U.P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, in the year 1947, a total number of 636 *gaon sabhas* were constituted in the district. By 1976 their number rose to 1515. The panchayat is the executive body of the *gaon sabha* which consists of the adult population of the area. A fixed number of members of the *gaon sabha* are usually elected for a period of 5 years. The *pradhan* and *up-pradhan* also function as the chairman of the larger body, the *gaon sabha*. The panchayat *sevak* is the secretary-cum-executive officer of the *gaon sabha* and the *gaon* panchayat. The functions of the *gaon* panchayats are manifold. They include construction, repairs, cleaning and lighting of streets, improvement of sanitation and prevention of epidemics, maintenance of buildings, lands and other property belonging to the *gaon sabha*, registration of births and deaths, regulation of markets and fairs, provisioning of drinking water, and the welfare of backward classes, particularly Harijan women and children.

For the fulfilment of these objectives the *gaon* panchayats largely depend upon voluntary contributions, and government aid. To augment their resources they have been empowered to levy taxes, rates, and fee, etc. These panchayats have also been made eligible to borrow money from the State Government, corporations, Scheduled banks, co-operatives, and other financing institutions.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure of the *gaon sabhas* in 1975-76 :

Income	Amount (in Rs)	Expenditure	Amount (in Rs)
Taxes	2,19,500	Public works	3,18,530
Land management committee	1,94,272	General administration	56,166
Grant	3,543	Others	61,254
Others	34,150	—	—
Total	4,51,465		4,35,950

* A statement showing construction and development works done by the village panchayats in the district during Plan periods is given in Statement VIII at the end of the chapter.

STATEMENT I (a) Receipts (in Rs) Municipal Board, Mirzapur

Year	Reference Page No. 218								
	Municipal rates and taxes	Realisation under special Acts	Revenue derived			Grants and contributions	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total receipts
			1	2	3				
1960-67	7,84,088	46,385		1,02,150	4,11,419	2,09,205	4,74,755	20,88,002	
1967-68	8,90,539	59,315		2,68,332	3,63,891	1,88,988	6,09,298	23,80,413	
1968-69	10,57,093	76,737		2,86,701	3,87,009	1,86,913	2,18,241	22,12,714	
1969-70	11,62,441	85,866		3,03,045	4,83,409	1,86,958	10,101	22,31,820	
1970-71	21,21,059	82,481		3,56,947	7,33,802	1,84,074	3,62,518	29,40,881	
1971-72	13,17,290	87,638		3,85,859	10,67,687	2,30,266	54,444	31,43,184	
1972-73	12,87,388	67,772		3,73,389	6,00,000	1,98,652	4,40,000	29,67,201	
1973-74	13,98,922	79,185		4,39,204	3,00,000	88,055	2,65,424	25,70,790	
1974-75	12,84,419	90,984		3,34,514	6,32,227	3,752	1,07,852	24,53,748	
1975-76	17,02,253	1,52,790		5,58,247	5,39,901	59,771	74,969	30,87,936	

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MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

CH. XIV—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

890
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STATEMENT II (b)
Expenditure (in Rs) Municipal Board, Chunar

Reference Page No. 219

Year	General adminis- tration and collec- tion charges	Public safety	Public health and sanitation	Education	Contribu- tions	Miscellaneous	Other heads	Total expendi- ture
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1966-67	36,817	5,569	84,260	8,878	—	1,088	14,148	1,50,210
1967-68	39,992	5,316	65,962	10,685	—	741	3,094	1,25,790
1968-69	38,873	5,804	60,676	10,487	—	1,098	3,658	1,20,596
1969-70	49,472	5,250	86,138	18,208	2,038	2,205	7,113	1,61,414
1970-71	42,131	2,077	79,969	36,248	143	2,426	6,445	1,69,439
1971-72	46,954	4,140	85,337	47,920	750	2,528	4,778	1,92,407
1972-73	52,524	2,243	1,06,534	87,013	—	37,726	7,950	2,93,990
1973-74	47,290	1,288	1,09,542	6,053	100	2,647	5,656	1,72,526
1974-75	57,107	365	1,33,590	—	143	425	3,972	1,95,602
1975-76	74,515	573	2,01,009	161	167	4,328	8,467	2,89,220

STATEMENT III
Receipts and Expenditure, Notified Area Committee, Ahraura

Reference Page No. 219

Year	Receipts (in Rs)				Expenditure (in Rs)				
	Government grants	Taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General ad- ministration and collec- tion charges	Public health	Public works	Other expenditure	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1966-67	10,000	6,629	53,821	70,450	11,911	21,024	18,274	16,860	68,069
1967-68	20,000	7,497	67,070	94,567	14,173	22,648	15,637	44,738	97,196
1968-69	10,000	8,317	59,312	77,629	14,295	24,939	17,031	16,130	72,395
1969-70	21,041	9,442	1,08,917	1,39,400	14,890	49,740	38,361	25,809	1,28,800
1970-71	33,670	9,435	1,14,334	1,57,439	15,041	30,508	53,318	48,067	1,46,934
1971-72	11,000	7,808	1,48,531	1,67,339	15,308	33,737	39,693	57,385	1,46,123
1972-73	17,400	7,399	2,74,867	2,99,666	21,713	47,112	1,25,818	1,00,150	2,94,793
1973-74	15,000	6,018	2,80,748	3,01,766	31,329	63,819	89,320	1,36,662	3,21,130
1974-75	27,000	7,166	2,86,318	3,20,484	62,542	1,35,394	36,848	1,22,486	3,57,270
1975-76	20,000	2,27,215	1,07,774	3,54,989	43,080	1,20,790	20,100	1,45,861	3,29,831

188,62,8	188,64,1
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Recetas and Experiments, Vol. 10, Arc Composites, Arcs

III. TREATY

STATEMENT V

Receipts and Expenditure (in Rs) Town Area Committee, Kachhwa

IV. TREATY

STATEMENT VI
Receipts and Expenditure (in Rs) Town Area Committee, Roberts Ganj

Reference Page No. 221

Year	Receipts (in Rs)			Expenditure (in Rs)						
	Government grants	Taxes	Other sources	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other heads	Total expenditure		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1966-67	20,000	4,316	55,502	79,818	4,947	29,813	26,361	17,307	78,428	
1967-68	25,000	12,742	64,665	1,02,407	5,219	31,588	46,425	22,095	1,05,327	
1968-69	25,000	4,772	58,779	88,551	5,142	29,224	31,277	25,227	90,870	
1969-70	26,000	5,018	52,318	83,336	5,135	30,258	36,241	17,049	88,683	
1970-71	7,500	2,252	47,580	57,332	5,454	35,121	8,425	11,903	60,903	
1971-72	7,200	2,673	51,454	61,327	6,069	43,530	13,277	16,642	79,518	
1972-73	—	17,099	1,38,417	1,55,516	9,971	49,389	19,056	11,442	89,858	
1973-74	10,000	4,078	1,99,323	2,13,401	43,383	62,098	33,008	70,106	2,08,595	
1974-75	—	1,62,239	1,08,646	2,70,885	95,739	1,21,936	71,817	38,984	3,28,476	
1975-76	25,000	4,28,265	1,48,265	6,01,530	93,749	1,46,784	62,192	2,00,067	5,02,792	

STATEMENT VII (a)
Receipts (in Rs) Zila Parishad, Mirzapur

Reference Page No. 223

Year	Government grants	Education	Medical and public health	Cattle pounds	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1966-67	2,77,297	39,64,225	3,495	37,989	55,03,732	97,86,738
1967-68	2,24,730	41,38,963	2,644	37,210	15,31,778	59,30,325
1968-69	5,40,882	46,35,500	3,483	54,442	28,57,075	80,91,382
1969-70	3,05,967	58,46,298	6,546	59,767	5,50,317	67,68,895
1970-71	3,12,663	62,17,820	2,053	60,593	5,49,938	71,43,067
1971-72	23,82,043	86,31,651	2,125	66,097	8,48,175	1,19,20,091
1972-73	5,68,015	27,63,576	2,601	47,571	36,82,227	70,63,990
1973-74	4,52,679	—	666	49,172	12,93,158	17,95,675
1974-75	3,95,076	—	626	46,809	10,57,144	14,99,655
1975-76	7,58,118	—	1,431	60,782	4,93,606	13,13,937

STATEMENT VII (b)
Expenditure (in Rs) Zila Parishad, Mirzapur

Reference Page No. 223

Year	General administration and collection charges	Education	Medical and public health	Public works	Other heads	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1966-67	1,16,599	40,51,798	1,09,876	10,94,396	42,22,484	95,95,148
1967-68	1,13,256	35,21,820	1,13,015	99,908	20,97,752	59,45,751
1968-69	1,23,167	44,10,124	1,17,460	9,26,055	18,42,951	74,19,757
1969-70	1,54,584	51,54,714	1,25,368	3,97,079	1,03,119	59,34,864
1970-71	1,04,796	54,50,669	1,12,494	2,58,346	7,21,612	60,47,917
1971-72	1,63,380	71,50,345	1,11,214	10,25,066	51,67,602	1,36,17,607
1972-73	1,76,475	58,93,811	1,17,347	30,03,794	17,79,061	1,09,70,488
1973-74	2,54,726	—	1,26,622	7,32,132	5,88,140	17,01,620
1974-75	2,82,671	—	2,29,230	7,83,569	1,84,028	14,79,493
1975-76	3,14,358	—	1,42,742	5,22,232	94,463	10,73,795

Construction and Development Work by the Village Panchayats

Reference Page No. 223

Name of the work	1940-41	1941-42	Achievements of the First Five-year Plan		Achievements of the Second Five-year Plan		Achievements of the Third Five-year Plan	
			1	2	3	4	5	6
Canals deepened	187.80.55	220.78	701.2247	252.18.08	702.77.2	50	70-8001	
Construction of bundhs	012.76	118.2	51	250.22.14	— 027.12.2	23	20-7001	
Repair of bundhs	72.22	211.12	221.2	14	002.22.04	— 228.01.2	14	00-2001
Construction of gul. s	707.02	0130	km.	202.01.22	— 700.20.0	6 km.	07-0001	
Plantation of orchards	202.00	220.25	ha.	022.71.20	— 200.21.2	—	17-0701	
Kayam Shala	1.21.2	700.00	221.947	122.12.22	— 210.22.22	—	27-1701	
Construction of pucca drain	72.74	108.23	km.	272.22.74 km.	10.20.2	3 km.	27-2701	
Construction of kachha drain	1.01	202.27	km.	—	— 020.22.1	21 km.	27-2701	
Construction of Kharanja	002.04	222.4	km.	—	22 km.	70.22.2	5 km.	27-1701
Construction of masonry wells	10	121.270	—	—	556211.22.2	—	1707-2701	
Construction of kachha wells			87	—	—	—	—	
Repair of masonry wells	(d) 117	202.22.22	—	—	572	—	33	
Repair of kachha wells			121	—	—	—	—	
Dispensaries established			3	—	—	—	—	
Medicine boxes distributed			202.22	—	331	—	—	
Lamps fitted			202.22	—	—	—	—	
Libraries established			70	—	90	—	—	
Radios installed			24	—	—	—	—	
Construction of school building			25	—	—	—	11	
Construction of pucca roads	211.22.22	121.22.22	202.12.01	272.20.1	207.12.02	002.21.1	70-2001	
				5 km.	3 km.	—	2 km.	
Construction of kachha roads	127.22.02	227.22.02	200.00	210.21.1	022.12.22	022.21.1	20-7001	
				021 km.	1,522 km.	—	60 km.	
Repair of pucca roads	727.21.17	120.21.01	220.22.0	001.71.1	221.01.12	701.22.1	00-2001	
				1 km.	—	—	—	
Repair of kachha roads	202.12.02	011.20.1	070.20.2	202.22.1	217.12.12	122.12.1	07-0001	
				1,127 km.	—	—	—	
Construction of culverts	710.22.00	210.12.7	012.22.2	101.21.1	200.02.22	007.10.1	17-0701	
				40	—	—	13	
Repair of culverts	221.07.00.1	100.07.71	107.20.02	712.71.1	112.22.22	271.07.1	17-2701	
				7	—	—	8	
Construction of pucca panchayat bhawan	022.10.71	011.22.2	220.22.7	220.22.1	—	027.12.2	21	
Construction of kachha houses	221.07.11	220.12.0	002.22.7	022.22.2	—	170.22.2	27-1701	
Pucca Gandhi chabutras	227.27.01	201.10	202.12.2	227.22.1	—	—	—	

[Continued]

~~CHAPTER V~~

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Chaburas

[illegible]

One of the important features of the system was to create an intimate relationship between the teacher and the taught which was expected to inculcate in the latter the attitudes of obedience, service, and austerity and purity of conduct.

In course of time the system of imparting education in general, under the direct guidance and personal contact of the teacher became traditional. During the medieval period these institutions degenerated into private *pathshalas* (schools) and in those that were attached to temples subjects taught were Sanskrit, grammar, astrology, mathematics, etc. When the Muslims settled in this region they established their own schools (*madrasas* or *madrasahs*) which were mostly for Islamic studies and were attached to the mosques. In those days, *pathshalas* and *madrasahs* were privately owned and run, receiving no regular financial aid from the government, except occasional gifts of land.

On the eve of the British occupation of this region, the nature of education imparted to the children was still religious and there were indigenous educational institutions both of Hindus and Muslims. Besides these, there were some secular elementary schools in which reading, writing, and a little of arithmetic were taught. The nature of some other institutions was mainly professional, in which professional skills like carpentry, smithy, and tailoring, etc. were taught. Schooling of girls was not considered very necessary and they generally remained ignorant and illiterate. Sometimes they were taught to the extent of only reading and writing Hindi or Urdu so that they could read and write letters and study some religious books. This indigenous system of education gradually gave way to government and western missionary education.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

The educational and cultural history of the region comprising the present district of Mirzapur can be traced to the hoary antiquity dating back to the age of the *Vedas*. According to the earliest known local traditions and accounts, this region had the privilege of being *tapobhumi* (a place of worship and devotion). A number of *ashrams* (hermitages) were established in the district where the great sages lived and carried out their rites, religious observances, and austerities.

As regards the system of teaching in ancient times in the district, a pupil had to go either to the house of a teacher or to the hermitage of a *rishi* to receive his education. Education, in those days, was for the sake of learning and spiritual advancement, was imparted with the best of care, and was free both of cost and of state control. The individual was the chief concern and centre of this system, and the development of character and the acquisition of learning of the sacred lore and its application in practical life, its chief aim. *Brahmacharya* or celibacy which formed the basis of the entire educational system, entailed discipline of the mind and the body, and was considered as an essential prerequisite for all during the initial phase of their lives.¹

One of the important features of the system was to create an intimate relationship between the teacher and the taught which was expected to inculcate in the latter the attitudes of obedience, service, and austerity and purity of conduct.

In course of time the system of imparting education in *gurukulas* under the direct guidance and personal contact of the teacher became traditional. During the medieval period these institutions degenerated into private *pathshalas* (schools) and in those that were attached to temples subjects taught were Sanskrit, grammar, astrology, mathematics, etc. When the Muslims settled in this region they established their own schools (*maktabs* or *madarsas*) which were mostly for Islamic studies and were attached to the mosques. In those days, *pathshalas* and *maktabs* were privately owned and run, receiving no regular financial aid from the government, except occasional gifts of land.

On the eve of the British occupation of this region, the nature of education imparted to the children was still religious and there were indigenous educational institutions both of Hindus and Muslims. Besides these, there were some secular elementary schools in which reading, writing, and a little of arithmetic were taught. The nature of some other institutions was mainly professional, in which professional skills like carpentry, smithy, and tailoring, etc. were taught. Schooling of girls was not considered very necessary and they generally remained ignorant and illiterate. Sometimes they were taught to the extent of only reading and writing Hindi or Urdu so that they could read and write letters and study some religious books. This indigenous system of education gradually gave way to governmental and western missionary education.

1. Altekar, A.S. *Education in Ancient India*, pp. 208-261

The first effort made in the direction of providing higher education was the opening of a secondary school at Chunar by the Church Missionary Society in 1820.¹

This was followed by the foundation, in 1823, of a number of indigenous primary schools in the same locality, but it was not until some years later that a similar movement was initiated in Mirzapur itself. Here primary indigenous schools were first started in 1829², and were the only institutions of the kind until the foundation of private schools by the London Missionary Society in 1939.³ Secondary education appears to have been neglected here until 1842⁴, when the same Society opened a Free School under the name of the London Mission High School which has become a more popular and important institution of the kind in the district under the new name of B.L.J. Inter. College, Mirzapur.

The history of State education begins with the attempt made in 1843-44 to utilise the indigenous primary schools as auxiliaries to the colleges then established at certain centres in the province. The following year a circular issued by the government directed the preparation of a return showing the number of these institutions in certain places and the steps taken to improve and extend them. A report received from Mirzapur in 1845 shows that there were a number of schools in the district, 59 of which were located in the towns of Mirzapur and Chunar, 7 being under the management of the London Missionary Society and 17 being located in the family domains now excluded from the district. The total number of students on rolls was 1,470, and there were 34 schools in which Persian was taught, 32 in which the language was Hindi and the remaining were Sanskrit schools. But no further action was taken on this until the year 1856 when the State undertook the responsibilities of education by the establishment of two Anglo-Vernacular Schools at Ahraura and Gopi Ganj and a few *halqabandi* schools at different places of the district. Several schools, established earlier under private management, were given grant-in-aid.

There were 51 *halqabandi* schools. An other Anglo-Vernacular secondary school was opened at Korh. Three years later a private secondary school, called the Gosain Tola City School, which received government aid was started at Mirzapur. The Missionaries opened a subscription school in the city and three primary schools in the Sonpar tract, and 13 more village schools were added to the list. The first public attempt was made at female education by the establishment of seven girls' schools, supported directly by the government, in the district and there were nine girls' schools under the management of missionaries. The same year six Anglo-Vernacular Schools, under private management, were opened at Adalpur, Sikandarpur, Sikhar, Baretha, Bijapur, and Kachhwa. In 1869 the subscription school was converted into superior *zila* (district) school. By 1871, there were three Anglo-Vernacular secondary schools and 98 primary village schools, besides the London Mission and Church Mission schools at Mirzapur and Chunar.

1. Drake-Brockman, D.L.: *Mirzapur A Gazetteer*, Vol. XXVII, (Allahabad, 1911) p. 190.
2. *Ibid.*, 191
3. *Ibid.*
4. *Ibid.*

Thereafter there has been a slow but steady rise in the number of
literate persons, both males and females. Achievement in this field
between 1901 and 1911 is depicted below.

Year	Male	Female
1901	1,000	500
1911	1,500	750

Percentage of Literacy

Year	Male	Female
1901	10%	5%
1911	15%	7.5%

1. In 1901, there were 100 primary schools in the district and there were nine
girls' schools under the management of missionaries. The same year
7. At Anglo-Vernacular Schools, under private management, were opened
at Alapur, Sikanharpur, Sikhar, Barhar, Bishpur, and Kachhwa.
2. In 1901, the description school was converted into superior school (district)
school. By 1911, there were three Anglo-Vernacular secondary schools
and 38 primary village schools, besides the London Mission and Church
Mission schools at Mirzapur and Chunar.

Educational level	Scheduled Castes		Other Backward Classes	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Junior Basic	23,481	18,818	10,000	8,000
Senior Basic	2,521	381	900	400
Higher secondary (upto class X)	1,700	60	1,000	100
Higher secondary (upto class XII)	275	25	93	3

For the education uplift of these groups the State Government has provided many incentives like exemption from tuition fees, stipends, scholarships, and financial assistance for the purchase of books and stationery. Other facilities made available to them are free board and lodging and relaxation of time and upper age limit for admission to certain educational institutions.

In 1975-76, the following amount was spent under various schemes of financial assistance to these groups by the State Government through Harijan and social welfare department :

Student	Class	Amount spent
Scheduled Castes	Above class X	6,01,767 .00
	Below class X	2,44,000 .00
Other Backward Classes	Above class X	62,698 .00
	Below class X	1,13,500 .00

Four hostels are being run for the members of the Scheduled Castes at Mirzapur, Chunar, Salkhen (in tahsil Roharts Ganj) and in Muirpur (in tahsil Dudhi). Each of these hostel is catering for the needs of 40 students.

The following statement gives an account of the educational standards of the literate Scheduled Castes population according to the census of 1961 :

Educational Standard	Males	Females
URBAN		
Literate (without educational level)	2,425	142
Primary or junior Basic	470	16
Matriculation or higher secondary	109	—
University degree other than technical degree	16	—
RURAL		
Literate (without educational level)	13,995	508
Primary or junior Basic	2,797	68
High school and above	394	5

Scheduled Tribes

The tribes in Mirzapur district, according to the census of 1971, cover 0.1 per cent of the total population of the district. In the majority of cases the tribals live a life of privation and poverty and are characterised by ignorance and lack of a education. Particular attention towards their educational uplift was paid during the Third Five-year Plan period, when an Ashram-type school was opened by the Harijan and social welfare department at Dudhi in the district to impart education to the tribal children up to the junior high school standard. Both board and lodging facilities in the institution were free. The number of students rose from 44 in 1964-65 to 100 in 1967-68, and the figure further rose to 175 in 1976-77. Another Ashram-type school is functioning at Ghorawal with 60 students on rolls. Besides, the department is also running 8 primary schools and 2 junior high schools in tribal areas to provide educational facilities to the members of these communities.

GENERAL EDUCATION

General education now includes education from the pre-junior Basic or nursery stage to the university stage. The pattern and system of education is uniform all over the State. In 1976 the district had 1,330 junior and 210 senior Basic schools, 56 higher secondary institutions and 4 institutions imparting higher education. Besides there were 8 pre-primary schools running under private managements with an enrolment of 470.

The following statement gives the number of students in the various categories of schools in the district in 1975 :

Type of institutions	No. of institutions		No. of students	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Pre-junior Basic	4 (mixed schools)		1,380	—
Junior Basic	1,084	246	1,38,605	96,866
Senior Basic	140	50	15,339	2,140
Higher secondary	50	6	23,125	3,283
Degree colleges	3	1	1,609	313

Junior and Senior Basic Stage

Education at the junior and senior Basic stages is based on the Wardha scheme of education initiated by Mahatma Gandhi in 1937. It was adopted by the State Government with certain modifications. The term Basic now includes education at the junior Basic stage from class I to V and the senior Basic stage from class VI to VIII. Mahatma Gandhi held that education ought to draw out the best in the pupil in body, mind, and spirits. This implied that free and compulsory education for a term of eight years be provided by the State, that the mother-tongue be the medium of instruction, that the process of education centre on some useful handicraft enabling the child to channelize his creative ability the moment his training starts, and that every school be self-supporting.

In order to ensure academic and administrative efficiency, Basic education has been taken over by the government since July 25, 1972. The management of the Basic schools has accordingly been transferred from the local bodies to the Board of Basic Education. Control at the district level is vested in the Zila Siksha Samiti and at the village level in the Gaon Shiksha Samiti. A district Basic education officer and an additional Basic education officer (women) are posted in the district to look after Basic education.

To encourage education among the boys and girls of this stage, education has been made compulsory. The Statement I at the end of the chapter gives an idea of the trend of enrolment in the district from the year 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Reorientation Scheme

The reorientation scheme aims at introducing agriculture as a main craft in the schools, besides other local crafts. Every re-oriented school was provided with an instructor called the extension teacher whose duties were to teach agriculture or other local craft, as the case may be, from class VI to VIII.

This scheme is in force in 3 senior Basic schools and 21 higher secondary schools, in which agriculture is taught. These schools maintain a small model farm. Total land attached to these schools is 81 acres. In one of the senior Basic schools work experience programme is running, while in another other crafts are taught. This scheme has successfully overcome the apathy of students and youngmen towards manual labour.

Higher Secondary Education

This stage of education covers schooling after the senior Basic stage upto class XII. The stage is again divided into two sub-stages. The first is known as high school and the second as intermediate. With the establishment of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, U.P., in 1921, the high school examination is held after completing the course of study up to class X, and likewise the intermediate examination is held after class XII. The duties of the board is to conduct these examinations and to prescribe courses of study for these standards. All affairs concerning secondary education at the district level are administered by a district inspector of schools.

The district had, in 1975-76, 56 higher secondary schools out of which 50 schools were for boys and 6 for girls. Of these 88 colleges impart education upto class XII and the remaining up to class X. In 1975-76, these 56 schools had an enrolment of 28,125 boys and 3,283 girls, and 862 male teachers and 104 female teachers were employed in these institutions. To encourage female education, the State Government has made girls' education free up to high schools.

A list of all the higher secondary schools in the district is given (Statement II) at the end of the chapter.

Higher Education

There are four degree colleges in the district imparting education up to the graduate level. They are affiliated to the Gorakhpur University. These institutions impart education to both boys and girls, excepting one which is exclusively a girls' degree college at Dudhi and is run and managed by the government. The remaining three are run by private managements receiving recurring and non-recurring grants and aids from the government. The following statement gives certain details about these degree colleges for the year 1976 :

Name of institution	Year of establishment	Faculties	No. of teachers		No. of students	
			Male	Female	Boys	Girls
Gobardhan Das Binnani Degree College, Mirzapur	1969	Arts, Commerce	14	—	514	—
Government Degree College, Dudhi	1973	Arts	8	—	65	5
Kamla Maheshwari Arya Kanya Mahavidyalaya, Mirzapur	1968	Arts	4	5	—	166
K.B. Degree College, Mirzapur	1957	Arts, Science, B. Ed.	54	1	1,030	142

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Before the mechanisation of industries there was hardly any scope for opening regular institutions for technical and professional education. In that age of handicrafts, skill in the production of goods was acquired through apprenticeship and dexterity passed on from generation to generation. But with the advent of machine technology and its application to the sphere of production, propagation of professional and technical education became imperative.

In the field of technical education the district has one government secondary technical institute at Mirzapur, which imparts training in turning, fitting, welding, and electrician trades. Candidates having passed class VIII are admitted to this school and undergo a three years' certificate course to complete the training. Now some more trades like machinist, draftsman mechanical and civil, and moulding have also been introduced in the institute. This institution is governed by the Board of Technical Education, U.P. The certificate awarded by this institution is equivalent to the High School (science group) certificate of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, U.P.

Besides this there is also a Government Polytechnic at Mirzapur which imparts training for three years' diploma courses in civil, electrical and mechanical engineering, in addition to the introduction of an industrial engineering post-diploma course in the year 1973-74 under the Fourth Five-year Plan scheme. This polytechnic has been attached to the institute of technology, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi. In 1975-76, the admission capacity of this polytechnic was 180 for diploma courses, the break up of which was 30 for civil engineering and 75 each for electrical and mechanical engineering, as against which 67, 74 and 79 candidates were admitted respectively for each branch of engineering.

An industrial training institute in the district is being run by the State directorate of training and employment at Mirzapur.

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MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

Teachers' Training

To meet the growing demand for trained teachers for Basic schools, three training institutions are being run in the district by the education department. Their position in 1975 was as indicated below :

Name and location	Certificate awarded	No. of pupil teachers	No. of teachers
Government Girls Normal School, Mirzapur	B.T.C.	160	10
Government Normal School, Chunar	B.T.C.	98	9
Government Normal School, Roberts Ganj	B.T.C.	100	18

Besides these Basic training schools, there is also facility for B. Ed. training in K.B. Degree College, Mirzapur.

ORIENTAL EDUCATION

Sanskrit—There were twelve Sanskrit *pathshalas* in the district in 1975-76, all of which are affiliated to the Sampurnanand Sanskrit Vishva-vidyalaya, Varanasi. They impart education in Sanskrit literature, *Vyakaran* (grammar), *jyotish* (astrology), and *ganita* (arithmetics) etc., and prepare students for under-graduate, graduate and post-graduate Sanskrit courses. Some particulars about these *pathshalas* are given in Statement III at the end of the chapter.

Arabic and Persian—The Madarsa Arabia, which was started in 1934 is functioning at Eliotghat, Mirzapur. A registered body under the name of Jamiat-e-Islamia, Mirzapur is running this institution. It imparts education up to class V with Urdu as the medium of instruction. *Dinyat* (theology) is compulsorily taught here to *tahlania* (lower classes). It also prepares students for Fazil, Kamil, Alim, Maulvi, Munshi and Hifza examinations under Darul Uloom Deoband which is called *alia* (higher classes). The education of primary classes is under the administrative control of Basic Shiksha Adhikari, and for *alia* classes administrative authority is the registrar of Arabic and Persian Examinations under State Government's education department, with headquarters at Allahabad. In this oriental school there are six teachers and 199 students.

LIBRARIES

There is a public library located at Mirzapur near the clock-tower which contributes towards the literary and educational advancement of the people. This library was established in 1872 and now it has a stock of books numbering about 2,000. During 1975-76, it was subscribing for about 50 magazines and periodicals and the average number of monthly visitors was 125. Besides this there is another library at Jamua Bazar in tahsil Mirzapur which is run by the Harijan and social welfare department. At Roberts Ganj, a library is being maintained by the town area committee.

Informal Education

Under the scheme of informal education the schools run by the education department of the State aim at providing literacy to such children and youth as, because of their social and financial handicaps, were not able to secured education at the proper stage of their lives or were forced

by circumstances to discontinue their education after the primary stage. The detailed objectives of the scheme are to impart elementary knowledge of language, figures, and little professional learning of local crafts to the age-group of 11 to 14 years. The other phase of the scheme takes up the age-group of 15 to 25 years to spread literacy among the youth.

In Mirzapur, in the year 1975-76, there were 60 such schools functioning at various places of the district. 35 among them were for the age-group of 11 to 14 years and the remaining 25 were for the age-group of 15 to 25 years. The total enrolment in these schools was 2,082, out of which the number of males was 1,963 and of females 119. The number of teaching and supervisory staff employed in these schools was 60 and 12 respectively.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS

The district has the distinction of publishing literary periodicals occasionally. Note-worthy among these have been *Nagri Neerad* and *Anand Kadambini* of Premdhan, *Matwala* by Mahadeo Prasad Seth, *Chingari* by Kushwaha Kant, *Abhiyan* by Pratap Vidyalkar and *Jai Mal* by Yogendra Srivastava.

MEN OF LETTERS

The district has also from time to time enjoyed the patronage of eminent men of letters. A few well-known among them were Kashi Prasad Jaiswal, Badri Narain Chowdhry 'Premdhan', Ram Chandra Shukla, and Pandey Bechan Sharma 'Ugra'.

Kashi Prasad Jaiswal—He was born on November 27, 1881 at Mirzapur. He passed his entrance examination from the local London Mission High School and then joined the Queen's College, Varanasi. He began writing articles in Hindi journals. Later, in 1906, at the age of 25, he proceeded to England for higher studies where he graduated from Jesus College, Oxford, and was awarded the Davis Chinese Scholarship for 1909. He took his M.A. in History. He received the honorary Doctorate of Philosophy from the Patna University in 1936.

His contributions embrace Indian epigraphy and numismatics, Hindu history and polity, Sanskrit texts and Hindi literature. His valuable publications are *The Hindu Polity*, *Imperial History of India*, and *History of India from 150 to 350 A.D.*, which helped much to enlarge the sphere and to improve the perspective of Indian history.

Ram Chandra Shukla settled with his father at Mirzapur when the latter joined there as *sadar ganungo* in 1949. His knowledge of Hindi and versatile genius in literature led him to the headship of the department of Hindi in Kashi Hindu Vishwavidyalaya Varanasi, in 1914.

His wide and varied talent in Hindi literature enabled him to enrich it with his works on the history of literature, criticism, and critical essays, poetry, translation, and editorials, etc. Some of his popular publications are *Hindi Sahitya ka Itihas*, *Chintamani*, *Ras-memansa*, and *Budh-charit*, etc. The other well-known translations are *Shashank* (Bengali novel), *Adarsha Jiwan*, and *Rajya Prabandh Shiksha*, etc. Amongst some noted works he edited are *Hindi-Shabda-Sagar*, *Tulsi Granthawali*, *Jaisi Granthawali*, and *Bhramargeet-Sar*, etc.

Other literary figures of the district are Badri Narain Chowdhry 'Premdhan' Bhagwan Das, Bang Muhila, and Pandey Bechan Sharma 'Ugra'.

STATEMENT I
General Education

Reference Page No. 242

Year	Junior Basic education				Senior Basic education				Higher secondary education			
	Schools		Students		Schools		Students		Schools		Students	
	For boys	For girls	Boys	Girls	For boys	For girls	Boys	Girls	For boys	For girls	Boys	Girls
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1971-72	1,037	293	1,12,602	45,532	116	32	11,118	1,835	48	3	28,344	1,310
1972-73	1,037	293	1,12,707	49,533	116	32	—	1,823	48	3	28,125	1,359
1973-74	1,037	293	1,12,732	44,532	116	32	11,130	1,800	48	3	28,220	1,340
1974-75	1,037	293	1,37,027	95,740	178	32	15,998	3,198	49	5	29,311	3,501
1975-76	1,037	293	1,39,027	96,739	178	32	16,087	3,217	51	5	30,103	3,597

MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

STATEMENT II

List of Higher Secondary Schools

Reference Page No. 242

Government Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 Government Intermediate College, Pipri
 Government Intermediate College, Dudhi
 Government Intermediate College, Ghorawal
 Government Cement Factory Intermediate College, Churk
 Rajasthan Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 B.L.J. Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 Sri Shiva Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 Mata Prasad Mata Bhikh Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 A.S. Jubilee Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 Sunder Munder Intermediate College, Mirzapur
 Obra Intermediate College, Obra
 P.D.N.D. Intermediate College, Chunar
 Shivaji National Intermediate College, Hansipur
 Sri Gandhi Vidhyalaya Intermediate College, Kachhwa
 Sri Mauni Swami Intermediate College, Srinivasdham, Mirzapur
 Upraudh Intermediate College, Lalganj
 Raja Sharda Mahesh Intermediate College, Roberts Ganj
 Sardar Patel Intermediate College, Kolna
 Janta Janardan Intermediate College, Bhurkura
 Srimati Devkali Intermediate College, Jamalpur
 Jai Hind Vidya Mandir Intermediate College, Ahraura
 Vindya Vidyapeeth Intermediate College, Vindhyachal
 Sri Govindashram Intermediate College, Perapur
 Sri Shiva Pratap Singh Intermediate College, Panari Kalan
 Sri Shankrashram Intermediate College, Sikhar
 Kisan Intermediate College, Rajgarh
 Madhava Vidyamandir Intermediate College, Purushottampur
 Sri Kshatrapati Shivaji Intermediate College, Khajraul

[Continued]

Shanti Niketan Intermediate College, Pachokhra

Janta Intermediate College, Barewan

Rashtriya Intermediate College, Sherpur Narayanpur

Basant Vidyalaya, Mirzapur

Adarsh Vidyalaya, Bisundrapur

Mishra Lal Intermediate College, Mawaiya

Annada Charan Higher Secondary School, Chandaipur

Arya Kanya Intermediate College, Mirzapur

Government High School, Kon

Mahesh Bhattacharya Higher Secondary School, Akorhi

Mahashakti Higher Secondary School, Behasra

Adarsh Higher Secondary School, Adalhat

Rail [Karmchari] Higher Secondary School, Chopan

Hindalco Higher Secondary School, Renukoot

The U.P. Cement Corporation Higher Secondary School, Dala

Bhartiya Higher Secondary School, Vindhamganj

Sarvodaya Higher Secondary School, Aghwar

Maharana Pratap Higher Secondary School, Sattidham, Chunar

Higher Secondary School, Maddapur

Sri Brijraj Higher Secondary School, Chaukhanda

Janta Higher Secondary School, Parasi Pandey, Robarts Ganj

Government Girls Higher Secondary School, Domanpur

Government Girls Higher Secondary School, Vindhyachal

Government Girls Higher Secondary School, Chunar

Notified Area Higher Secondary School, Ahraura

Ram Prasad Balika Intermediate College, Sherpur

Sardar Vallabh Bhaji Patel Higher Secondary School, Jafarpur

STATEMENT III

List of Sanskrit Pathshalas

Reference Page No. 244

Name and location	Year of establishment	No. of students	No. of teachers
1	2	3	4
Sanatan Dharm Shanker Brahma Vidyalaya, Baria Ghat, Mirzapur	1951	101	8
Pandey Sanskrit Pathshala, Ahraura	1895	11	2
Sri Sheo Prasad Sanskrit Vidyalaya, Daramalganj	1923	102	7
Sanskrit Pathshala, Robarts Ganj	1924	55	3
Srimati Bhagirathi Trust Sanskrit Vidyalaya, Chunar	1932	98	8
Sri Vishva Nath Swami Hanumat Sanskrit Pathshala, Baraini	1927	47	4
Rashtriya Sanskrit Pathshala, Taraniwa, Robarts Ganj	1915	41	4
Sri Jokhan Ram Sanskrit Pathshala, Khairabgaha	1914	31	2
Sri Sankatha Prasad Vaidya Sanskrit Pathshala, Pakhwahiya, Khamaria	1960	54	4
Sri Hari Shankar Sanskrit Pathshala, Patiata, Chunar	1958	16	4
Sri Jawaharlal Nehru Sanskrit Vidyalaya, Bhawani-gram, Ramgarh	1963	47	8
Sri Bhagwati Prasad Sanskrit Vidyalaya, Halia	1968	36	4

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

MEDICAL FACILITIES IN EARLY TIMES

Judging from modern standards, medical facilities available in the long-ago past, were far more inadequate than they are today. Medical care was not treated as a responsibility of the ruler, but was left to be assumed as a duty by individuals proficient in the arts of healing. Ayurveda and Tib Unani were the two commonly applied systems, and their practitioners were known as *vaid*s and *hakims*, respectively. Though their number was not large, yet they were easily accessible to patients. Their incapacity to alleviate suffering on a mass-scale or to induce quick recovery in many cases, was exploited by soothsayers who, sometimes, brought miraculous relief to their clients. Minor surgical operations were performed by *Jarrahs*.

For several ailments, particularly those relating to women and children, there was hardly any remedy, and infirmities like insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness, and leprosy were almost beyond cure. Customary services were rendered by semi-skilled midwives during maternity. Environmental sanitation seldom received proper attention from the residents.

Vital Statistics

The district, no doubt, came under the rule of the English East India Company in 1801, but systematic maintenance of vital statistics and enumeration of people was introduced only from 1871 onwards. From 1881 to 1890, the average recorded number of deaths was 34,418 annually, giving a rate of 30.27 per thousand. During the ensuing decade, the annual mortality was 38,936, ranging from 60,939 and 55,207 in 1897 and 1894 respectively to 30,019 in 1898, the resultant rate, calculated on the census returns of 1891, being 33.52 per thousand and being inflated by the excessive mortality of the years just mentioned. From 1901 to 1907, the recorded annual mortality was 35,403 or 32.71 per thousand. The number of deaths was again exceptionally high in 1905, and was above normal in 1906. During 1910-1920 and 1921-30 the maximum death rate rose 52.40 per thousand in 1911 and then fell to 37.703 in 1921. During the fifties the maximum death rate was 20.18 in 1951 and the minimum was 10.14 in 1960.

From 1881 to 1890 the birth rate averaged 36.18 per thousand and between 1901 and 1907 it rose as high as 40.82 per thousand. This indicates that the vitality of the people had not been in any way impaired by the calamities of the previous ten years, and in 1904 the birth rate rose as high as 45.65 per thousand. During 1910-20 and 1921-30 the maximum birth rate rose 46.74 per thousand in 1914 and then fell to 42.07 in 1928. During the fifties the maximum birth rate was 20.13 in 1951 and the minimum was 14.00 in 1960.

The following statement gives the total number of births and deaths and the rates per thousand between 1966-1970 :

Years	Number of births	Birth-rates per thousand	Number of deaths	Death-rates per thousand
1966	9,446	6.6	2,857	2.0
1967	13,321	9.3	5,617	3.9
1968	12,061	8.2	3,103	2.1
1969	7,763	8.7	2,092	2.3
1970	14,115	10.8	3,142	2.4

In the years 1971, 1972 and 1973 the total number of births were 5,458, 7,457 and 1,098 respectively. Likewise the total number of deaths were 1,386, 2,255, and 421 respectively.

Infant Mortality

Infant mortality refers to deaths of children of less than one year, and infant death-rate is the number of infants' deaths per thousand live-births in one calendar year.

The largest number of infants die in their very first year. Among infants the risk of death decreases as time passes. An infant faces the greatest risk in the first few weeks of his life, which are, to a great extent due to such causes as birth injuries and congenital parasitic diseases. The rate of mortality among children below one year in age was quite alarming till 1957. From 1957 to 1960 the maximum infant mortality was 1,082 in 1957, while the minimum was 774 in 1960. The position has vastly improved in recent years, the figures being as follows :

Year	Infant death rate per thousand
1966	35
1967	46
1968	16
1969	47
1970	84
1971	4
1972	5
1973	8
1974	4
1975	9

Diseases Common to District

The common diseases accounting for the mortality of the people of the district, are the fevers of various types, respiratory diseases, diarrhoea, dysentery, cholera, plague and smallpox which appear periodically and have been endemic in the past, but which are now showing a declining trend because of the preventive measures adopted by the government.

Fever

As usual fever heads the list, for not only is malarial fever undoubtedly prevalent, but the term is as a rule, made to include all cases in which fever is the predominant symptom rather than the cause of death. Consequently, in the absence of better diagnosis, under this head comes pneumonia and many other forms of sickness. Intermittent and remittent fever, accompanied with ague, is endemic in parts of the district, especially in the Dudhi Valley. It assails all classes, but the poor and aboriginal tribes suffer most owing to insufficient clothing and malnutrition. From 1877 to 1907, fevers were responsible for 71.60 per cent of the recorded mortality. Between 1910-20 the minimum number of deaths from fever were 10,853 in 1913 and the maximum was 40,020 in 1918. In the next decade the highest number of deaths were 21,165 in 1921. In the fifties the maximum number of deaths from fevers came down to 6,368 in 1951 and the minimum to 4,611 in 1960. Deaths from fevers have declined as the following statement will indicate :

Year	Number of deaths from fever
1966	1,175
1967	3,480
1968	2,186
1970	1,178
1971	616
1972	919

Dysentery and Diarrhoea

These diseases occur in the form of bowel and stomach complaints. The incidence is attributed mostly to insanitary conditions and unsatisfactory arrangements for drinking water. With the strict enforcement of sanitary measures such as the disinfecting and cleaning of wells and drinking water sources, the incidence of these diseases has lowered. In the last decade of the last century the highest number of deaths from bowel complaints was 2,099 in 1897 and the lowest was 152 in 1899. During 1901-1910, the highest mortality was 553 in 1901, and in the second decade of this century it was 274 in 1918. Between 1921 and 1930

the highest number of deaths from bowel complaints was 238 in 1929. During 1951-1960 the maximum deaths were 1,146 in 1957 and the minimum were 215 in 1960. The number of deaths caused by bowel disorders from 1966 to 1972 is given below :

Year	Number of deaths from bowel complaints
1966	454
1967	174
1968	84
1970	147
1971	38
1972	73

Respiratory Diseases

These diseases generally lead to temporary or permanent infirmities, and in a few cases they hasten death. During 1951-60, the maximum deaths were 544 in 1951 and the minimum were 278 in 1960. The mortality from 1966 to 1972 was as below :

Year	Number of deaths from respiratory diseases
1966	449
1967	170
1968	123
1970	260
1971	77
1972	212

Epidemics

Plague—The plague which first made its appearance in the district in 1900 used to be a mass killer in the past, but now it has been eradicated. Anti-rat campaign by trapping, baiting and cyano-gassing, anti-flu measures with D.D.T., and anti-plague inoculation effectively reduced the incidence of this disease. From 1901 onwards the highest mortality figures was 5,936 in 1905. In the second decade of the century the maximum number of deaths from plague were 6,899 in 1911, which showed a decreasing trend. It disappeared after 1951 when it claimed 95 lives,

Smallpox

Smallpox had been prevalent in the district through many years. The maximum number of cases occur during summers. For the prevention of the disease vaccinations have been carried out both in rural and urban areas. The yearwise figures of smallpox cases and deaths since 1967 are given below :

Year	No. of		Year	No. of	
	Cases	Deaths		Cases	Deaths
1967	622	189	1972	0	0
1968	71	29	1973	628	85
1969	10	2	1974	659	143
1970	63	16	1975	04	0

The smallpox vaccination figures both primary and revaccinations, from the year 1971 to 1976 are given below :

Year	Primary vaccination		Year	Primary vaccination	
	Revaccination			Revaccination	
1971	59,750	1,23,559	1974	73,248	2,46,957
1972	48,179	1,00,270	1975	51,598	1,22,953
1973	66,313	2,24,429	1976	44,801	1,22,093

National Smallpox Eradication Programme

For the eradication of smallpox from the country, a nationwide Smallpox Eradication Programme was launched on October 2, 1962, after a pilot project carried out in district Sultanpur during 1961. The technique was to mass vaccinate the entire population during the year. Statewide average coverage of 84.4 per cent was achieved. This considerably reduced the incidence of the disease, but it gradually increased in subsequent years because of inadequate vaccination coverage.

Intensive Active Search and Containment Campaign—With the assistance of the Government of India and the World Health Organisation, an Intensive Active Search and Containment Campaign has been launched in the State since October, 1973. Monthly active searches were conducted from house to house and village to village in every town and market, to determine active foci of smallpox which were subsequently contained by total vaccination of the affected as well as the surrounding areas. The movement of the patients was also restricted and concentrated, follow-up of the area was done for the next six weeks. This methodology was successful in eradicating the disease. During the campaign 114 outbreaks (infected village/mohallas) were detected. The

last outbreak case occurred in village Pipra in primary health centre Cherawal on January 10, 1975. From October, 1973 to January, 1975 as many as 114 cases have been detected. Since then even active searches as well as secondary surveillance and the publicity of a reward of Rs 1,000 for reporting cases of smallpox, could not result in the detection of any further cases.

The International Commission of Smallpox Eradication visited the State and the district in April, 1977, and declared the disease as eradicated. However, vigilance is still being kept and primary vaccinations of new-borns and leftovers are being carried out.

Cholera

Feasting, fatigue and excessive heat predispose to Cholera infection. Of all other diseases, cholera is the most deadly, as cases of it had been reported every year since the institution of the above campaign, and only on one occasion had fewer than 100 deaths been recorded. On the other hand, there had been some violent epidemics and in 1886 no fewer than 7,885 deaths were attributed to this cause. On two other occasions, 1906 and 1894, as many as 4,411 and 3,372 deaths respectively were reported, and the years in which mortality from this cause exceeded 1,500 were numerous. Outbreaks of cholera with a resultant large mortality are a feature common to several of the eastern districts of the State, but it appeared from the returns that the period which began in 1901, had, with the exception of the year 1906, been so far in Mirzapur remarkably free from bad epidemics of the disease. Much of the cholera in the more remote tracts is due to the difficulty of procuring good drinking water, so that a year in which the monsoon has been deficient is invariably marked by an increase in the mortality from it. Disinfection of drinking water, prohibition of the sale of exposed food and anti-cholera inoculation are resorted to whenever the disease raises its head. Between 1901 and 1920 it took the form of an epidemic in 1906, 1908, 1915, and 1918 when the number of deaths reported were 4,411, 5,740, 1,991 and 3,411 respectively. It reappeared in 1921, 1924, 1927 and 1930, and took 2,341, 2,138, 2,435 and 1,060 lives respectively. Between 1951 and 1960 it broke out only in 1956 and 1957 claiming 122 and 183 lives respectively. After 1960 very nominal cases were reported. The mortality has been decreasing considerably owing to improved sanitary arrangements.

Infirmities

Statistics of infirmities were first compiled at the census of 1872. It was then observed that there were 109 lunatics, 200 lepers, 115 deaf-mutes, and 1,119 blind persons in the district. Ten years later the number of the insane had risen to 112, of lepers to 396, of deaf-mutes to 491, and of blind persons to 2,128. The reason for this general increase was not apparent, for in 1819 there was a general decline all round. The district then contained 81 lunatics, 274 lepers, 482 deaf-mutes, and 1,324 blind persons. At the enumeration in 1901 there were 76 lunatics, 182 lepers, 361 deaf-mutes and 1,132 blind persons, which shows a further marked decrease under all heads. No survey report is available to reflect the present state of affairs, but the likelihood is that these days very few people are incapacitated by these infirmities.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP

Prior to 1948 there were separate departments for medical and public health activities but they were amalgamated in that year under a directorate for better cohesion and control over the allopathic, Ayurvedic and the Unani institutions and services. In July 1961, a separate directorate was established at Lucknow for the development and effective supervision of the Ayurvedic and Unani institutions and services. Local administration of these institutions, however, remained in the charge of the district medical officer of health, now designated deputy chief medical officer.

Formerly the civil surgeon and the district medical officer of health respectively headed the medical and public health organisation in the district. In July 1973, the departments of medical and public health were again reorganised in the State, abolishing the posts of civil surgeon and the district medical officer of health. From the same year, under the new set-up, a chief medical officer has been appointed who heads the entire medical, public health, and family planning set-ups in the district. He is assisted by three deputy chief medical officers in the urban circle at the district headquarters. Superintendents of the district hospital (male) and the women's hospital are the controlling body of the medical, health, and family planning activities in their respective institutions.

The municipal medical officer of health is responsible for public health activities within the municipal area. The rural area has been divided among the three chief medical officers for all medical, health and family planning work.

The public health centres in the rural areas are equally distributed among the deputy chief medical officers. The rural State dispensaries fall under the primary health centres and are also under the deputy chief medical officer concerned.

At the level of primary health centre a medical officer is in overall charge of the medical, health and family planning activities. The medical officer is assisted by another medical officer in family planning, maternity, and child welfare centres.

Hospitals

The Statement I at the end of the chapter gives certain information about the existing hospitals, the number of staff, and the patients treated in those hospitals.

There is one more hospital at Dalla, the Cement Factory Hospital, Dalla. There are two private non-aided hospitals—Jiwan Jyoti Christian Hospital, Roberts Ganj, and Hindustan Aluminium Corporation, (Hindalco) Renukut.

Dispensaries

Allopathic—The Statement II at the end of chapter gives the relevant details about the allopathic dispensaries in the district in 1975.

Besides these there are two more dispensaries: the Quarry dispensary (Gurma), and the Sampurnanand jail dispensary. In all there are twenty-two dispensaries.

There are a number of Ayurvedic and unani dispensaries in the district. Each Ayurvedic dispensary has a *vaid* incharge while each unani dispensary is manned by a hakim.

The following statement gives the names of these dispensaries :

Name of dispensary	Block
Unani Dispensary Adalpur	Marayanpur
Unani Dispensary, Kusha	Chhanbey
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Baradanda	Hallia
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Buili	Jamampur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Drummond Ganj	Hallia
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Garaha	Muirpur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Jangai	Marahan
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Mahuli	Dudhi
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Nadhra	Muirpur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Shahganj	Ghorawal
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Ramgarh	Chatra
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Shri Niwas Dham	Chhanbey
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Tendua	Rajgarh
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Matwar	Hallia
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Serwa	Jamampur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Dahi Kalan	Jalampur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Pachewara	Narayanpur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Jamalpur Mill	Jamampur
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Domanpur	Sikhar
Ayurvedic Dispensary, Sirsi	Ghorawal

Primary Health Centres

To extend medical facilities to the rural population so as to improve their health standards, the government has established primary health centres in every development block. The number of such centres in the district is twenty. The medical officer incharge of a primary health centre is responsible for matters relating to epidemics, floods, droughts, and sanitation. He is assisted by a sanitary inspector, one health visitor, 4 vaccinators, and 4 midwives, besides another medical officer exclusively for family planning, maternity, and child welfare work.

The following statement gives the details of primary health centres :

(Genl. (R)—18.

Primary health centre	Year of estab-lishment	Strength of staff		Number of beds			Number of patients treated	
		Doctor	Phar-macist	Other staff	For men	For women	Outdoor	Indoor
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Primary health centre, Cursandi	1969	2	1	2	2	2	7,948	1,476
Primary health centre, Vijaypur	1969	2	1	2	2	2	5,094	14
Primary health centre, Patelra	1964	2	1	2	2	2	8,541	52
Primary health centre, Halila	1945	2	1	2	2	2	8,175	185
Primary health centre, Lalgañj	1971	2	1	2	2	2	7,037	16
Primary health centre, Pandari	1969	2	1	2	2	2	7,866	12
Primary health centre, Kachhwa	1967	2	1	2	2	2	19,770	191
Primary health centre, Chilh	1973	2	1	2	2	2	7,040	49
Primary health centre, Chunar	1971	2	1	2	2	2	11,673	10
Primary health centre, Jamalpur	1971	2	1	2	2	2	10,484	87
Primary health centre, Rajgarh	very old	2	1	2	2	2	8,428	721
Primary health centre, Dudhi	1958	2	1	2	2	2	9,537	87
Primary health centre, Sikhar	1948	2	1	2	2	2	6,574	721
Primary health centre, Roberts Ganj	1949	2	1	2	2	2	14,089	87
Primary health centre, Ghorawal	1942	2	1	2	2	2	9,345	721
Primary health centre, Chitra	1970	2	1	2	2	2	8,300	721
Primary health centre, Nagwa	1973	2	1	2	2	2	4,724	721
Primary health centre, Chopan	very old	2	1	2	2	2	6,280	721
Primary health centre, Murpur	very old	2	1	2	2	2	2,314	721
Primary health centre, Baburani	1971	2	1	2	2	2	755	721

Maternity, Child Welfare and Family Planning

Maternity and child welfare activities in the district, as elsewhere in the State, have come a long way since the untrained *dais* and lack of medical care and facilities for ante-natal and post-natal care contributed largely towards higher incidence of mortality among women and childrens till the late fifties of this century. Since 1958, the government embarked upon a policy to establish maternity and child welfare centres in the district. In 1975 these numbered 80 and were attended by midwives and trained *dais*. These centres are equipped with aids and devices to educate married women in planned parenthood. Family Planning literature and contraceptives are also made available free of cost to married couples.

The following statement gives the location of maternity centres under each primary health centre :

Name of controlling maternity centre (primary health centre)	Name of maternity sub-centres	Facilities available
1	2	3
Gursandi	Gursandi, Rajpur, Pohandi, Mahauri	Contraceptive distribution and advice on contraceptive method
Chilh	Chilh, Ballipurwa, Chetganj, Mujhera	Ditto
Jamalpur	Jamalpur, Ahraura, Dohri, Dhebra	Ditto
Chunar	Chunar, Adalhat, Narayanpur, Rampur	Ditto
Pandari	Pandari, Chhataha, Dharhram, Kathanhi	Ditto
Robarts Ganj	Robarts Ganj, Guruparasi, Rajdhan, Kakrahi	Ditto
Chatara	Chatara, Narokhar, Sheopur, Babhangaona	Ditto
Nagwa	Nagwa, Khaliyari, Manchi, Cherus	Ditto
Lalgañj	Lahanpur, Lalgañj, Katai, Dubar	Ditto
Sikhar	Sikhar, Adalpora, Khaira, Dhaneta	Ditto
Kachhawa	Kachhawa, Jamunwa, Mahamalpur, Rampur	Ditto
Vijaypur	Vijaypur, Naroia, Shri Niwasdham, Babura	Ditto
Ghorawal	Ghorawal, Sheody or Sirsai, Jamgaon	Ditto
Dudhi	Dudhi, Jharo, Bagaro, Mahuli	Ditto

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1	2	3
Rajgarh	Rajgarh, Sakstesgarh, Jamuhar, Madhopur	Contraceptive distribution and advice on contraceptive method
Hallia	Hallia, Drummondganj, Baraundha, Matwar	Ditto
Patehera	Patehera, Kotawa, Gamuai, Patharaul	Ditto
Chopan	Chopan, Kota, Kon, Dalla	Ditto
Muirpur	Muirpur, Dibulganj, Garha, Sanga Bandh	Ditto
Babhani	Babhani, Pokhara, Chapaki, Chauna	Ditto

Training of auxiliary nurse midwives is conducted at the Auxiliary Nurse Midwife Training Centre, Mirzapur, which was opened on January 16, 1964. The educational qualification of the trainees is eighth class (passed). They are given a stipend of Rs 75 per month for a training period of two years. The following statement shows the number of trainees admitted in the last three years :

Total admitted	No. of successful trainees	Total admitted	No. of successful trainees	Total admitted	No. of successful trainees
1973	1973	1974	1974	1975	1975
41	Passed-21	34	Passed-16	39	Passed-22
	Transferred-8		Transferred-5		Transferred-6
	Left Training-4		Left Training-4		Left Training-2
	Failed-8		Back-4		Back-9

Family Planning

The family planning work was first undertaken in an organised way in 1961 and got a fillip with the establishment of a family planning centre under each primary health centre. In 1965-66 a post of district planning officer was created. In 1973, with the reorganisation of the medical and health set-up in the district, this officer's designation was changed to deputy chief medical officer (family planning) and he served under the chief medical officer. However, the district magistrate is fully entrusted with the achievement of family planning targets. Each primary health centres and family planning subcentres. These subcentres function with a woman worker trained as auxiliary nurse, midwife and in family planning work. The subcentres distribute *nirodh* (a contraceptive) and pills and educate the masses through films, charts, diagrams, etc. The mobile unit (family planning) under the control of a medical officer also performs vasectomy and tubectomy operations.

The achievements made in family planning work from 1970-71 to 1975-76 are shown below :

Year	Vasectomy	Tubectomy	Loop	Contraceptive users
1970-71	1,935	422	1,050	32,000
1971-72	1,851	947	1,063	9,292
1972-73	6,353	528	685	8,598
1973-74	713	931	403	7,895
1974-75	345	1,224	356	10,078
1975-76	879	2,404	2,337	3,236

Vaccination

In early days ravages of smallpox were very extensive and vaccination was the sole preventive measure. Vaccination was performed at the government dispensaries on those who desired it, but it was not till 1805 that any active measures were taken in this direction and a regular vaccination staff was organised. The Vaccination Act, 1880, which made primary vaccination compulsory for children in municipal areas, notified areas, and in a number of town areas, was enforced in the district. At present the chief medical officer is incharge of the work of vaccination in the district and is assisted by three deputies and other staff posted at the primary health centres. The following statement gives the number of persons vaccinated during 1973 and 1974 :

Year	Total number of persons vaccinated	No. of primary vaccination	No. of re-vaccination
1973	1,70,621	43,532	1,27,089
1974	3,18,296	73,351	2,44,945
1975	2,02,850	81,454	1,21,396

Eye-relief

Cataract, glaucoma, trachoma and conjunctivitis are the eye diseases common in the district. There is one eye hospital in Lahandi. The hospital has 10 general beds and treated 4,448 and 263 persons in outdoor and indoor sections respectively in 1974-75.

Prevention of Food and Drug Adulteration

The public analyst to government analyses the samples taken by the food inspectors. Prosecution is launched against offenders under the prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954. The deputy chief medical officer (health) is the licensing authority for all food establishments and drug stores in the district excepting the municipal

board, Mirzapur. The Nagar Swastha Adhikari is the licensing authority for food and drug for the municipal board, Mirzapur. The deputy chief health officer is assisted by one chief food inspector and 20 food inspectors. The Nagar Swastha Adhikari is assisted by one chief sanitary inspector and two sanitary inspectors. The following statement gives an idea of food and drug adulteration in the district from 1973 to 1975 :

Year	Samples collected		No. of samples found adulterated		Cases prosecuted food	Cases convicted food
	Food	Drug	Food	Drug		
1973	328	34	71	—	71	—
1974	332	—	83	—	83	1
1975	868	—	184	—	184	1

Malaria Control and Eradication Programmes

Under the National Malaria Eradication Programme established during 1958-59, one unit was established in Mirzapur district. The unit was divided into 4 sub-units each comprising population of 2.50—3 lakhs approximately.

From 1958-59 to 1961-62 the entire district was under an attack phase under which only spray operations was carried out.

At the end of 1960-61, surveillance operations were also launched in the district. Under these operations, House Visitors @ 1 for a population of 10-12 thousand were sanctioned. Their duties were to enquire about fever incidence by carrying out house of house visits twice a month, to collect the blood films of fever cases, and to administer to these presumptive treatment with chloroquine tablets. The slides were then examined at the unit laboratory, and in the event of any slide being found positive for malarial parasites, radical treatment with Primaquin tablets was given to the cases for 5 days along with other remedial measures like focal spray, repeated mass surveys, and follow-up etc.

According to the plan of operations, Mirzapur district was appraised by Independent Appraisal teams, and on their recommendations, it entered partly into the consolidation phase, during 1962-63, 1964-65, 1971-72, and 1972-73. By 1972-73 the entire district was in the consolidation phase.

During 1977-78, a modified plan of operations for the control of malaria has been launched in the district. Under the plan the working in the district now comprises of the following :

- (1) Insecticidal spray is carried out in the surveillance workers' areas having API 2 and above (2 cases per 1,000 population)

(2) The unit areas have been reorganised on district and primary health centre wise basis

(3) The laboratories have been decentralised from unit to primary health centre level

(4) The anti-malarial drugs are now being distributed through the hospitals, primary health centres, panchayats, school teachers, fever treatment depots and village level workers in addition to the malaria workers of the district. Besides this students, youth and women's organisations, and registered medical practitioners under Indian medical association have also been involved in the programme

The post of anti-malaria officer is designated as district malaria officer and is under the administrative control of the chief medical officer, Mirzapur.

The Epidemiological data for the years 1970-76 are given as under :

Year	No. of blood slides collected	No. found positives
1970	1,43,484	209
1971	1,43,190	341
1972	1,75,350	489
1973	1,74,863	560
1974	1,91,539	3,910
1975	2,12,606	7,008
1976	1,78,892	3,384

STATEMENT I
Hospitals

Reference page No. 256

Name of hospital	Year of establishment	Strength of staff					No. of beds				No. of Patients treated				Facilities available	
		Doctor	Pharmacist	X-ray	Lab Tech	Nurse	Other staff	Mid-wives	For men	For women	Children	Outdoor	Indoor	X-ray and Pathological		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
District Hospital, Mirzapur	1892	6	2	3	33	51	—	97	32	4	49,138	3,692	3,601	—		
Govt. Women Hospital, Mirzapur	1946	3	2	—	—	10	—	—	50	—	12,082	3,601	—	—		
Infectious Diseases Hospital, Mirzapur	1949	1	1	1	—	14	—	12	4	—	—	—	406	Pathological		
Tuberculosis Isolation Centre, Mirzapur	—	1	1	1	—	11	—	82	18	—	—	—	331	—		
Govt. Women Hospital, Chunar	1952	—	1	—	—	3	—	—	3	—	6,586	142	—	—		
Govt. Women Hospital, Ahraura	1972	1	1	—	—	3	—	—	6	—	5,663	—	—	—		
Govt. Women Hospital, Dudhi	1974	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—		
Police Hospital, Mirzapur	—	1	1	—	—	7	—	30	—	—	5,312	170	—	—		
District Jail Hospital, Mirzapur	1901	1	1	—	—	—	—	15	—	—	13,380	800	—	—		
Recruitment Training Centre P.A.C., Chunar	1967	1	2	—	—	6	—	20	—	—	5,478	404	—	—		
Rihand Hospital, Turra	1952	2	2	—	3	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Cement Factory Hospital, Churk	1954	2	2	2	2	12	1	8	4	24	26,932	348	X-ray and Pathological	—		
Obra Project Hospital	1964	2	1	2	1	6	1	17	6	—	37,527	491	—	—		
Private aided-B.C.M.C. Hospital, Kachhawa	—	3	3	2	17	20	—	56	53	—	34,649	21,991	—	—		
Gandhi Satabdi Mahabir Netra Hospital, Lahen Dih	1969	1	1	—	—	3	—	—	General 10 beds	4,448	263	—	—	—		

STATEMENT II
Dispensaries

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Name of dispensary with location		Year of establishment	Strength of staff					Number of beds					No. of patients treated		Facilities available
			Doctor	Phar- macist	Lab and X-ray tech.	Mid- wives	Other staff	For men	For women	Out- door	In- door				
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
T.B. Clinic, Mirzapur	1962	2	1	2	2	14				3,494			X-ray and Pathological		
Leprosy Control Unit, Mirzapur	1966	1	1			40				3,675					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Wyndhamganj	1949	1	1			2	2	4	2	2,450	11				
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Kon	1957	1	1			2	2	4	2	3,239					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Salkhan	1935	1	1			2	2	4	2	5,789					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Shahganj	1972	1	1			2	2	4	2	2,777	11				
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Saktesgarh	1973	1	1			2	2	4	2	2,929					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Madhopur	1973		1			2	2	4	2	1,894					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Ahraura	1973	1	1			2	2	4	2	11,182	132				
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Baghera	1973	1	1			2	2	4	2	2,356					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Marihan	1972	1	1			2	2	4	2	4,887					
Govt. Allo. Dispensary, Rampur	1974		1			2	2			1,246					
Dhabai N.R. Health Unit, Mirzapur		1	1			3				40,182					
E.R. Health Unit, Chopan	1958	1	1			3				10,729			Pathological		
E.S.I. Dispensary, Mirzapur		2	2	1		5									
E.S.I. Dispensary, Churk	1964	2	2	1	1	4				15,881					
E.S.I. Dispensary, Renukut	1965	2	2	1	1	4				45,708					
Zila Parishad Tilthi, Dispensary	1948	1	1			3				4,087					
Narainpur Dispensary		1	1			3				6,454					

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR WELFARE

For the purpose of labour administration and enforcement of labour laws and labour welfare schemes, the district of Mirzapur falls in Allahabad region of the labour department. At the district level at present two labour inspectors are posted in Mirzapur and one in the sub-regional office at Pipri, which is under the charge of the additional regional conciliation officer, who is also entrusted with the duties of the settlement of industrial disputes and maintenance of industrial peace.

There are 48 registered factories and numerous other establishments. Both, the Central and the State Governments, have enacted a number of laws for the benefit of the working class and their dependants. Of these the important ones are; the Factories Act, 1948, the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, the Employment of Children Act, 1938, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Industrial Employment (standing orders) Act, 1946, the U.P. Dookan Aur Vanijya Adhithan Adhiniyam, 1962, the Trade Union Act, 1926, the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Payment of Bonus Act, 1965, the Indian Boilers Act, 1923, and the Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976.

The following statement shows the number of inspection made and prosecution launched in 1975 :

Names of Act	No. of inspection	No. of prosecution	Fine imposed (in Rs)
Factories Act, 1948	38	9	300
Payment of Wages Act, 1936	6	2	—
Maternity Benefit Act, 1947	1	—	—
Minimum Wages Act, 1948	831	128	2,430
U.P. Dookan Aur Vanijya Adhithan Adhiniyam, 1962	1,417	290	5,000
Payment of Bonus Act, 1965	41	1	—
Biri and Cigar Workers (conditions of employment) Act, 1966	50	—	—

The following statement shows the number of fatal cases and the amount of compensation paid in the years 1971 to 1975 under Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, to workers or their dependants on

being involved in accidents in course of employment resulting in disablement or death :

Year	Fatal cases		Disablement cases	
	No. of cases	Amount of compensation paid (in Rs)	No. of cases	Amount of compensation paid (in Rs)
1971	2	13,000	1	490
1972	—	—	—	—
1973	2	15,000	—	—
1974	5	29,600	6	11,732
1975	10	69,000	1	2,800

EMPLOYMENT STATE INSURANCE

Employees' State Insurance Scheme is designed to provide security to industrial workers against sickness, maternity and disablement, etc.

The act applies to all perennial factories working with power and employing 20 or more persons. There are three dispensaries functioning in the district under this scheme.

The following statement gives the name of Employment State Insurance dispensaries and the numbers of patients treated in them in 1975-76.

Names of dispensaries	Number of patients treated
Labour Colony, Mirzapur	36,171
Churk	49,209
Renukoot	58,796

Welfare Centres

There were three welfare centres in the district to look after the welfare of the workers and their families. The Welfare Centre Ganeshganj, Mirzapur, was started in 1943-44. There is a 11 member staff to look after the working of the centre. The Renukoot welfare centre is functioning since 1964-65, and has 11 members on its staff. Another welfare centre looking after the welfare of Churk cementfactory workers since 1957-58 is manned by a staff of six members, excluding medical staff.

These centres provide free medical aid to workers and their families. They are also running sewing and embroidery and have reading-rooms and libraries. All these centres have provision for conducting scouting, baby-shows, indoor and outdoor games, free cinema shows and other recreational and cultural activities.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS

The old-age pension scheme was introduced in the district in 1957 to provide some measure of social security through monetary help to old and destitute persons, aged 65 years in the case of men and 60 years and above in that of women, who have no source of income or relatives (of the categories specified in the rules of the scheme) to support them. Since April 1, 1964 the amount of pension payable to each pensioner has been raised from Rs 15 to Rs 20 per month.

The scheme was revised again in January, 1972 and the rate of monthly pension was fixed at Rs 30. This amount has further been raised to Rs 40 since April, 1976. The scheme was under the administrative control of the labour commissioner, Kanpur, but from September 1, 1975 it has been decentralised and now the district magistrate sanctions pensions to old and infirm persons. The benefits of the scheme are not available to beggars, mendicants, and inmates of poor-houses. On December 31, 1975, the number of persons receiving such pensions in the district was 375, of which 220 were women.

TRADE UNION ORGANISATION

The Indian Trade Union Act, 1926, provides for the registration of the associations or trade unions of the workers. It empowers the registrar of trade unions (whose headquarters are at Kanpur) to grant registration to such bodies and scrutinise their working. The trade unions concern themselves with matters relating to the general interests of the workers, their service conditions, dismissals, discharges, and other cases of a primitive nature.

The trade unions are corporate bodies which function in the interest of their members and aim at furthering good relations between the employers and the employees. They strive to improve the economic, moral, and social conditions of labourers and to ensure payment of fair wages, provision of healthy living and working conditions, and proper medical and educational facilities to their children and others in their families.

The following statement gives the names of the trade unions, date of registration and strength of workers functioning in the district in 1974:

Names of trade unions	Date of registration	Numbers of members
1	2	3
Churk Employees Union, Mirzapur	April 14, 1955	500
Hill Shramik Sangh, Khamaria	November 24, 1955	448
Textile Mazdoor Shabha	November 11, 1959	109
Sramik Bartan Nirmata Sangh	August 28, 1960	889
Aluminium Karamchhari Union, Renukoot	November 28, 1961	3,100
Churk Mazdoor Shabha, Churk	August 14, 1961	1,056
Hindalco Shramik Sangh, Renukoot	September 16, 1961	405

[Continued]

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1	2	3
Rashtriya Shtamik Sangh, Renukoot	March 6, 1963	613
Kannodia Chemical Karamchhari Sangh, Renukoot	March 11, 1966	241
Bartan Nirmata Mazdoor Sabha	November 2, 1966	143
Bhartiya Bartan Udhog Mazdoor Sangh	November 20, 1967	325
Thermal Power Shramik Sangh, Renuagar	February 7, 1968	407
Rihand Jal Vidhyut Karamchhari Sangh, Pipri	April 4, 1968	70
Renu Power Shramik Sangh	April 4, 1968	197
Churk Cement Mazdoor Sangh	August 7, 1968	918
Kannodia Shramik Sangh, Renukoot	October 29, 1969	147
Arajpatrit Karamchhari Parishad, Churk	December 18, 1970	140
Engineering Mazdoor Panchayat	January 7, 1971	82
U.P. Rajya Audhyogik Nigam Karamchhari Sangh, Chopan	April 12, 1971	96
Bhartiya Cement Udhog Mazdoor Sangh, Dala	May 13, 1971	1,006
Vidhyut Shtamik Sangh, Obra	July 17, 1971	312
Mazdoor Sabha	November 7, 1971	16
Dala Mazdoor Panchayat, Dala	March 17, 1972	1,097
Kalin Tatha Kambal Mazdoor Union	December 21, 1971	220
Hastha Kala Udhog Mazdoor Sangh, Ahraura	March 23, 1972	100
Rajkiya Cement Mazdoor Sabha	April 6, 1972	1,498
Hindalco Pragati Steel Mazdoor Sabha	April 6, 1972	2,669
Renu Power Karamchhari Sangh, Renuagar	May 12, 1972	81 (in 1973)
Rubber Mazdoor Panchayat	August 23, 1972	40
Vidhyut Mazdoor Sangh, Renuagar	February 16, 1973	225
U.P. Sarvajanic Nirman Vibhag Mazdoor Sangh	February 16, 1973	231
Metal Mazdoor Panchayat	September 15, 1973	55
Cement Karamchhari Sangh, Dala	November 28, 1973	106
Churk Cement Staff Association, Churk	June 7, 1974	62
Thermal Power Workers Union	October 26, 1974	209

Industrial Housing

Having realised the urgent need for providing suitable accommodation for industrial workers in various places of industrial importance, the Government of India formulated the Subsidized Industrial Housing Scheme in the year 1952. The scheme provides for construction of quarters for industrial workers at different industrial places through various agencies such as co-operative housing societies, etc. Ever since the inception of this scheme 96 quarters have been constructed in Mirzapur district. These quarters were allotted to eligible industrial workers of the district at subsidized rent by the deputy labour commissioner, Allahabad region, Allahabad. An assistant housing inspector is posted in the colony to look after the work relating to realisation of rent from the occupants.

PROHIBITION

Though the district is not a 'dry' area, efforts by officials as well as non-officials continue to inculcate among the people the habit of abstinence. The government has also adopted certain measures, such as restriction on the hours of sale of spirituous liquor and intoxicants, increase in the number of 'dry' days, fixation of maximum quantity of liquor which can be sold to an individual at a time, restriction on advertisements of wines etc., to discourage the use of liquor and other intoxicants. Persuasive methods are used to educate the people against the use of intoxicants through mass contacts and social and moral pressures. A district temperance committee consisting of an organiser and a propagator (both are paid employees), is also functioning in the district for minimising the use of liquor.

The committee tries to educate people against the evil effects of drinking by organising meetings, film-shows, exhibiting posters and distributing pamphlets etc. A grant of Rs 1,000 was given to the district temperance committee by the government for publicity of the hazards of drinking.

There is no sale of intoxicants on Tuesdays, other 'dry days' being Holi, Dipawali, Independence Day (August, 15), Gandhi Jayanti (October, 2), January 30 (martyr's day) and the first day of every month.

ADVANCEMENT OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

The State Harijan Sahayak Vibhag was set up in 1950, to formulate and implement schemes for the welfare of the members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and other Backward Classes. In 1957 a district Harijan welfare officer was posted in the district whose designation was changed to district Harijan and social welfare officer on August 1, 1961 when the Harijan Sahayak and social welfare departments were integrated. He is assisted by four Harijan welfare supervisors.

Members of the Scheduled Castes who were considered as depressed classes during the British rule have been mostly outcastes of the local society. A half-hearted beginning was made in 1930, with a scheme to award stipends to students belonging to these classes. However it was

only with the advent of Independence that concrete steps were taken for their amelioration. In 1947, the U.P. Removal of Social Disabilities Act was passed ensuring for members of such castes the unrestricted enjoyment of social and religious liberties. The Untouchability Act, 1955, imposed a complete ban on the age-old practice of untouchability, redeeming the dignity of mankind.

The government threw open all avenues of employment and public services to members of the Scheduled Castes and major steps were taken for their adequate representation in the services. In 1953, the reservation of posts for the members of such castes in the government services was raised from 10 to 18 per cent. In the same year, the age limit for Scheduled Caste candidates was relaxed up to five years for gazetted posts as had already been done for non-gazetted posts in 1952. The government keeps a watch over the progress in recruitment of the Scheduled Caste candidates to various posts and has also emphasised that the prescribed percentage for filling them by such candidates should be achieved.

The government freely grants advances and loans to the members of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes for various purposes such as agriculture, irrigation, industries, construction of houses, etc. They receive priority in distribution of land, house site, business premises and licence for essential goods. A whole-time district Harijan and social welfare officer appointed in the district promotes the welfare of these people in the district.

The following statement gives an idea of the financial help given by the government to raise the standard of living of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes :

Nature of help	First Five-year Plan		Second Five-year Plan		Third Five-year Plan	
	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
House construction	202	20,725	314	23,005	288	1,70,450
Cottage industries	41	8,250	113	28,599	1,579	4,77,950
Well construction	87	33,250	66	31,317	314	1,56,612
Agricultural development	71	4,995	14	4,440	1,262	32,170
Site allotment for house and workshops	—	—	—	—	66	20,090

Nature of help	Fourth Five-year Plan		1974-75		1975-76	
	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of persons benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)
1	8	9	10	11	12	13
House construction	159	1,59,000	16	70,000	80	80,000
Cottage industries	308	1,22,000	—	—	—	—
Well construction	98	98,000	—	—	—	—
Agricultural development	172	86,000	50	50,000	25	25,000
Site allotment for house and workshops	10	5,000	—	—	—	—

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

There are four trusts in the district which are endowed for charitable and educational purposes, and are registered under the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890. A brief account of these is given below :

Name of trust	Date of registration	Founder's name	Annual income (in Rs)	Objects
District School Endowment Trust	14-1-1893	—	1,176	Maintenance of school
Widows and Charitable fund, Chunar	31-8-1892	H. King	629	For the help of war widows
Girondo Kayasthya Pathshala Endowment Trust	2-4-1918	Bindeshwari Prashad	47	Maintenance of the pathshala
Sethani Mankobai Endowment Trust	18-1-1911	—	—	For the help of widows

Sunni Waqf—There are 56 Charitable Sunni *waqfs* in the district registered with the Sunni central board of *waqfs*, Lucknow some of the important ones are mentioned below :

Name of <i>waqf</i>	Object for which <i>waqf</i> was established
Dargah Hazrat Shah Kasim Sulemani	Maintenance of Dargah
Masjid Ganga Bibi	Maintenance of mosque
Jama Masjid, Patharwali	Ditto
Jama Masjid, Chunar	Ditto
Mazar Kutub	Ditto
Murtaza Shaheed	Maintenance of tomb

Shia Waqf—There are four *waqfs* in the Mirzapur district registered with the Shia central board of *waqfs*, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow.

A brief account of Shia *waqfs* is given below :

Name of <i>waqf</i>	Object for which the <i>waqf</i> was established
Khan Bahadur Hajee Saiyed Mohammad Khaleel	For <i>tazidari</i> and other religious purposes
Moafi Khairati	For religious purposes
Farzand Ali	For <i>tazidari</i>
Saiyed Mohammad Mehdi	For <i>azadari</i> of Imam Hussain

Welfare of Ex-servicemen

For the welfare of the ex-servicemen a district soldiers' sailors' and airmen's board is functioning in the district since 1944. There were about 3,200 ex-servicemen in the district when the board was started. The staff in the initial stages was honorary and the first paid secretary was appointed in 1945. The work of the board at the district level is supervised by a secretary who is a paid employee and an ex-serviceman. At the State level it is under the control and supervision of the director, soldiers' sailors' and airmen's board. The board, as elsewhere, provides various facilities to ex-servicemen and their families and assists in their rehabilitation. These facilities include financial assistance, educational assistance to their children, grant of pension, re-employment, medical treatment, settlement of accounts and disputed cases, permit for controlled commodities, allotment of land for agricultural purposes, and free legal advice, etc.

The following statement shows the assistance given to ex-servicemen and their dependents during 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Nature of help	Number of persons benefited					Total expenditure in Rs from 1971-72 to 1975-76
	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	
Financial assistance	26	24	10	24	59	28,167
Educational assistance	46	73	73	55	60	22,119
Family pension (war widow)	1	—	—	—	—	140
Financial assistance for house construction	—	—	—	—	1	5,000
Re-employment	18	17	11	10	7	—
Land allotment	44	43	6	17	—	—
Land disputes settled	27	71	68	85	129	—
Discharged on compassionate grounds	6	4	6	5	9	—
Discharge certificates provided	7	8	8	7	6	—
Sewing machines provided	—	1	1	1	—	—
Admission of their wards : to						
Industrial Training Institute	2	7	5	5	2	—
Polytechnic	2	2	1	2	2	—
Basic Training course	6	4	20	12	10	—

POLITICAL PENSIONS

In the year 1974-75, political pensions were granted to 439 freedom fighters of the district, of which 154 were granted by the Central Government and 285 by the State Government. The amount of the pensions varied from Rs 100 to 200 and Rs 65 to 100 per month respectively. There were also 145 persons in the district who received both the pensions, Central and State. *Tamra-patras* were given to 177 persons of the district.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

REPRESENTATION OF THE DISTRICT IN STATE AND UNION LEGISLATURE

Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly)

For the general elections of 1952 to the Vidhan Sabha the district was divided into five constituencies namely, Dudhi-cum-Robarts Ganj, Mirzapur (south), Mirzapur (north), Chunar (north), and Chunar (south). The first-named constituency had to return two members one of whom was to be a member of the Scheduled Castes. There were 5,03,800 electors in the district. The total figures for valid and invalid votes polled were 2,81,120 and 21,806 respectively.

The following statement gives the number of contestants of seats won, and of votes secured by each party in the elections held in 1952 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	3	—	16,027
Communist Party of India	1	—	510
Indian National Congress	7	7	1,32,210
Ram Rajya Parishad	2	—	7,320
Socialist Party of India	6	—	23,801
Uttar Pradesh Revolutionary Socialist Party	1	—	776
Independents	23	—	1,00,476
Total	43	7	2,81,120

For the general elections of 1957, the constituencies were delimited in 1956, though their number remained the same but their names and compositions underwent certain changes. These were Mirzapur, Kantit, Robarts Ganj, Ahraura, and Chunar. The constituencies of Kantit and Robarts Ganj were double-member constituencies each having one seat reserved for a member of the Scheduled Castes. There were 5,45,274 electors in the district. The valid and invalid votes polled totalled 3,62,049 and 14,220 respectively.

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The following statement gives the number of the contestants, of seats won, and of votes secured by each party in 1957 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	5	2	1,00,458
Indian National Congress	7	5	1,69,357
Praja Socialist Party	2	—	57,466
Independents	3	—	24,743
Total	17	7	3,62,049

For the general elections of 1962 there was a delimitation of constituencies and certain changes were made. The district was divided into seven constituencies namely Dudhi, and Kantit (both reserved for the members of the Scheduled Castes), Robarts Ganj, Ahraura, Chunar, Mirzapur, and Kantit north. There were 5,71,133 electors in the district. The total valid and invalid votes polled were 2,63,188 and 13,033 respectively.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, of seats won, and of votes secured by each party in the elections of 1962 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	7	1	88,798
Communist Party of India	2	—	2,426
Indian National Congress	7	6	1,19,651
Praja Socialist Party	2	—	4,251
Ram Rajya Parishad	1	—	466
Socialist Party of India	5	—	24,627
Swatantra Party	1	—	1,246
Independents	9	—	26,723
Total	34	7	2,63,188

The constituencies were again delimited in 1966 for the Vidhan Sabha elections of 1967. The district was divided into seven single-member constituencies Mirzapur, Chunar, Rajgarh, Chhanvey, Dudhi, Robarts Ganj, and Mijhwa. The last three were reserved for the members of the Scheduled Castes.

MIRZAPUR DISTRICT

276 There were 683,392 electors in the district. The valid and invalid votes polled totalled 3,37,066 and 28,213 respectively.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party in the elections of 1967 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	7	2	1,33,622
Communist Party of India	1	—	221
Indian National Congress	7	4	1,22,268
Praja Socialist Party	2	—	1,544
Republican Party of India	1	—	1,125
Samyukta Socialist Party	7	1	62,323
Swatantra Party of India	1	—	2,915
Independents	8	—	18,048
Total	34	7	3,37,066

President's rule was imposed in the State on February 25, 1968, and the mid-term elections were held in 1969. The position of the constituencies remained the same as it was in 1967 elections. The total number of electors was 7,25,932. The total valid votes polled were 3,93,304 while invalid votes were 16,564.

The following statement gives the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party in the mid-term elections of 1969 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	7	3	1,14,632
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	7	1	68,624
Indian National Congress	7	2	1,26,665
Praja Socialist Party	5	—	8,777
Republican Party of India	4	—	11,012
Samajwadi Congress	1	—	311
Samyukta Socialist Party	6	1	52,023
Independents	6	—	11,260
Total	43	7	3,93,304

In October 1970, President's rule was again imposed in the State, but it was replaced by a coalition government on October 18, 1970. This government did not last long and a Congress Government came in power which continued till June, 1973 when the Chief Minister's resignation and the President's rule was once again imposed. It was revoked in November, 1973, when the Congress Government came into power.

For the general elections of 1974, the district was divided into seven single-member constituencies, namely, Dudhi, Robarts Ganj, Chhanvey, (all reserved for the members of the Scheduled Castes), Rajgarh, Chunar, Mijhawa, and Mirzapur. There were 8,28,999 electors in the district. The total valid and invalid votes polled were 4,27,284 and 15,583 respectively.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party in the general election of 1974 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
1	2	3	4
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	7	4	1,21,403
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	7	—	81,588
Communist Party of India	1	—	9,039
Indian National Congress	7	3	1,36,169
Indian National Congress (O)	7	—	28,975
Republican Party of India	4	—	4,855
Republican Party of India (Khobargade)	3	—	2,131
Socialist Party of India	7	—	13,572
Shoshit Samaj Dal	2	—	3,152
Swatantra Party of India	2	—	1,087
Independents	19	—	25,507
Total	66	7	4,27,284

The district of Mirzapur was included in the following three constituencies vide Delimitation of Council Constituencies (Uttar Pradesh) Order, 1951 : the U.P. East (Graduates) constituency, the U.P. East (Teachers) constituency and, the U.P. East (Local Authorities) constituency.

At the re-delimitation of the council constituencies in 1961, the district was included in the following three constituencies, the Varanasi Graduates' constituency, the Allahabad Teachers constituency, and the Varanasi-cum-Mirzapur Local Authorities constituency.

UNION LEGISLATURE

Lok Sabha (House of People)

In the first general elections to the Lok Sabha which were held in 1952, the district formed a single constituency-Mirzapur District-cum-Banaras District (west). It was a double member constituency. There were 7,20,697 electors in the district. The total valid and invalid votes polled were 5,17,177 and 45,021 respectively.

The following statement gives the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party:

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	2	—	71,285
Indian National Congress	2	2	2,57,825
Ram Rajya Parishad	1	—	22,716
Socialist Party of India	2	—	65,448
Independents	3	—	99,953
Total	10	2	5,17,177

At the general elections of 1957 to the Lok Sabha the district formed a constituency known as the Mirzapur constituency which had to return two candidates. There were 7,91,225 electors in the district. Total valid votes polled were 7,02,816 while invalid votes were 85,504.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party in the general elections of 1957 to the Lok Sabha :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	2	—	2,24,395
Indian National Congress	2	2	8,48,024
Praja Socialist Party	2	—	1,80,897
Total	6	2	7,02,816

For the general elections of 1962 to the Lok Sabha, the district was divided into two single-member constituencies namely, Roberts Ganj (reserved for the Scheduled Castes) and Mirzapur. There were 8,28,914 electors in the district. Total valid and invalid votes polled were 4,05,073 and 17,610 respectively.

The following statement shows the numbers of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	2	—	1,29,992
Communist Party of India	1	—	23,295
Indian National Congress	2	2	1,71,688
Socialist Party of India	2	—	57,474
Swatantra Party of India	1	—	2,120
Independents	2	—	20,504
Total	10	2	4,05,073

At the general elections of 1967 the position of constituencies and their names remained the same as they were in 1962. There were 10,07,447 electors in the district. The valid and invalid votes polled totalled 5,26,016 and 28,346 respectively.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party for the elections of 1967 :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhaartiya Jan Sangh	2	1	2,02,376
Indian National Congress	2	1	2,02,481
Samyukta Socialist Party	2	—	1,18,481
Independents	1	—	7,678
Total	7	2	5,26,016

A mid-term poll was held in 1971 for the Lok Sabha. There were no changes in the position of the constituencies. The district had to return two candidates, one each from Mirzapur and Roberts Ganj. The latter was a reserved constituency for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes. There were 11,09,523 electors in the district. The total valid and invalid votes polled were 4,76,009 and 14,616 respectively.

The following statement shows the number of contestants, seats won, and votes secured by each party in the elections of 1971 to the Lok Sabha :

Party/Independents	No. of contestants	Seats won	Votes secured
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	2	—	1,15,962
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	2	—	49,822
Indian National Congress (O)	2	—	32,554
Indian National Congress (R)	2	2	2,15,013
Praja Socialist Party	1	—	4,347
Samyukta Socialist Party	2	—	35,213
Independents	4	—	23,098
Total	15	2	4,76,009

POLITICAL PARTIES

The district has several political organisations of all India and State levels. It is not possible to assess the numerical strength of their members as it keeps fluctuating. The main political parties which contested the general elections from the district were the Indian National Congress, the Akhil Bhartiya Jan Sangh, the Bhartiya Lok Dal formerly Bhartiya Kranti Dal, the Praja Socialist Party, the Communist Party of India, and the Samyukta Socialist Party of India.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

The following statement gives relevant information regarding the newspapers and periodicals published in the district :

Name of newspaper/periodical	Year of commencement	Periodicity	Language	Copies in circulation
Lok Natre	1971	Daily	Hindi	800
Anupam	1969	Weekly	Hindi	2,000
Andhi-Pani	1976	Weekly	Hindi	—
Gramvasi	1923	Weekly	Hindi	2,000
Hind Kesari	1965	Weekly	Hindi	—
Janta	1948	Weekly	Hindi	2,000
Maha Shankh	1971	Weekly	Hindi	200
Mard	1970	Weekly	Hindi	1,500
Mirzapur Metal Vyapar Samachar	1969	Weekly	Hindi	435
Shola	1970	Weekly	Hindi	—
Shri Sankar Dhatu Yudhog	—	—	—	—
Samachar Patrika	1970	Weekly	Hindi	—
Vishwamat	1971	Weekly	Hindi	1,280
Vindh Vendna	1976	Weekly	Hindi	—
Vug Manthan	1976	Weekly	Hindi	—

Other Periodicals

Some of the popular dailies, weeklies, fortnightlies and monthlies which are published outside the district, but are in wide circulation within it are mentioned below :

Daily	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly
Hindi			
Aj	Dharam Yug	Sarita	Maya
Bharat	Saptahik Hindustan	Mukta	Chandamama
Hindustan	Sher-e-Punjab	Madhu-Muskan	Nutan Kahaniyan
Nav Jeevan	Allahabad Times		Manoranjana
Nav Bharat Times			Manorama Menka
Swatantra Bharat			Chitra
Deshdoot			Radhika
Rash Natraj			Manohar Kahaniyan
Janwarta			Sacchi Kahaniyan
Jai Desh			Nai Talim
English			
Times of India	Blitz	Filmfare	Imprint
The Statesman	Current	Star & Style	Current Events
Hindustan Times	Link	Caravan	Mirror
Indian Express	Screen	Youth Times	Picture post
Northern India Patrika	Sports	Indian Witness	Dream Star
The Pioneer	Employment News		Allahabad Criminal Cases
National Herald	The Illustrated Weekly of India		Supreme Court-Criminal Ruling
Urdu			
Qade	Tej	Yaad	Shama
Milap	Ajkal		Beeswi Sadi
Pratap			Nakhat
Qaumi Awaz			
Azad			

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

There are some voluntary social service organisations in the district rendering economic and social services to the people. In the past such institutions depended mainly on philanthropy and the missionary zeal of the people. The innate urge of the people to organise voluntary social service organisations has found greater scope after Independence. The district had the following important voluntary social service organisations in 1975-76 :

Theosophical Society

A branch of the theosophical society was established in the district in 1904. The society has three main objects : to form a nucleus of universal brotherhood of humanity, without distinction of caste, creed, sex and colour; to encourage the comparative study of different religions; and to investigate unexplained laws of nature and the power latent in man. There were 30 active members in the society in 1975-76.

Bharat Sewak Samaj

A branch of the Bharat Sewak Samaj (which is a voluntary national organisation) was established at Mirzapur in 1968. The Samaj functions on a non-political basis and provides opportunities to a large number of people for altruistic activities, such as the social and moral uplift of the people. It holds camps for the youth to encourage prohibition and tries to remove black-marketing from the district.

Vanvasi Sewa Ashram

The Vanvasi Sewa Ashram, Gobindpur, is working for the social, moral, and economic uplift of the aboriginals. It has a dispensary which provides free medical facilities to *advasis*. It also helps them in farming and agriculture.

Hind Sewak Sangh

The Hind Sewak Sangh is looking after the aboriginals of the district. Its main aim is to raise the standard of living of the aboriginals of the district. It is running some primary and junior high schools, Harijan Adivasi Hostels, a Mahila Shilp Kala Kendra, and sheep-breeding programmes.

Banita Mandal, Obra

This institution is run by some prominent ladies. It also runs a homoeopathic dispensary to provide medical aid free of charge.

Mahila Mandal, Renukoot

This institution is functioning at Renukoot since 1967, for the uplift of destitute women. It provides them monetary help, as well as food, clothing and shelter.

Bal Kalyan (Balbari) Kendra

This is a branch of the Nehru Bal Mandal, situated at Lal Diggi, Mirzapur. This institution was established in 1969, its aim being to make the children physically, mentally and morally strong. The institution organises camps in fairs and exhibitions to help the people. It also endeavours to improve their physical health by means of games, exercises and the practice of salutary habits.

Arya Mahila Avam Bal Sadan

The Arya Mahila Avam Bal Sadan was started in 1929. It is situated in the Vasliganj locality of Mirzapur. The institutions helps lost children. It also helps widows and rescued women.

Ahraura (tahsil Chunar, pargana Ahraura)

This is one of the oldest town areas of the district (1865) which was upgraded later as a notified area under the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. This town is situated in latitude $25^{\circ} 1' N.$ and longitude $83^{\circ} 3' E.$, 51.2 km. east-south-east of Mirzapur and has a population of 11,453 and an area of 2.5 sq. km. Near the town is a fine flat topped hill said to have once been the site of a Kol fort.

About 5 km. to the south are the ruins of the stone fort of Lalitpur. It is of a rectangular shape enclosing a considerable area, two sides being protected by the precipitous banks of a deep stream, and the other two by a solid stone rampart and a ditch. The buildings which are now but a shapeless, though picturesque, mass of jangal-clad ruins, are said to have displayed considerably signs of architectural taste. In some passes leading towards this part there are some small stone *garhis* built for the protection of outposts. The great number of old forts and castles scattered along the outskirts of the Vindhya range are a very striking indication of the shifting of political fortunes in earlier times; but all are now deserted and in ruins. In the village of Rasulpur, close to Ahraura is the tomb of a Muslim martyr named Ashraf Ali, an object of pilgrimage for the surrounding districts. About 2.4 km. to the south of Ahraura is the small village of Balkhera. Lying in a field near it there is a stone pillar, 3.3 m. long and 38 cm. in diameter, with two inscriptions on it. In addition to the above there is a small figure of Ganesa, with a few letters, and between the two inscriptions there is the figure of a bird and that of a still ruder horse. The upper inscription is a record of Raja Lakhan Deva of Kanauj, dated Samvat 1253 of 1196 A.D. This document is interesting from its date, which is just three years after the final defeat and death of Jayachandra, the last Rathor king of Kanauj. It must have been close about this very date of 1196 A.D. that Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khilji received the two districts of Bhagwat and Bhuili in fief, together with Patila and Kintila, all of which places are in the neighbourhood of Chunar. But the inscription takes no notice whatever of the Muslim conquest, and speaks of the Hindu kingdom of Kanauj as if it were still in existence.

About 14 km. to the east of Ahraura, at the village of Hetunpur, are about 21 pieces of at least 15 square stone obelisks collected near a modern temple, the longest being about 33 cm. square and 1.7 meter high. It is divided into seven compartments on each face, each containing a small sculptural representation. There are men and women dancing; a single woman dancing and playing on an instrument; a man killing an animal; a man standing near a house; a man sitting over a prostrate body with a fish's tail; a large fish; and several scenes representing the Varaha and Narasimha Avatars. The top of the obelisk is crowned with a low pinnacle like that of a temple. Amongst the smaller obelisks General Cunningham noticed several other objects; such as a sow with a litter of six; a woman lying on a bed; two women with swords and shields; a woman and child churning butter; a man and a horse; a woman seated and kissing her child. Along with these there is a large figure of Hanuman treading on a kneeling figure; he has a small sword resting on the right hip, his right hand being placed above his head and the forefinger of his left hand upraised.

General Cunningham attributes these monuments to the aboriginal races, especially to the Suirs or Sabaras mentioned by Sanskrit writers. Amongst them the principal objects of worship are Hanuman and Bhainsasuri, the great buffalow-killing goddess. There are similar shaped obelisks at Bhuili, Mangraur, and Chayanpur in the district. The nearest railhead is Ahraura road station (55 km) on the eastern railway southwards to Chopan and Sarguja. It is said that during Balwant Singh's time the jungles of Ahraura were the most extensive in the whole country, and were artificially reared and kept as a surrounding covert to the fortress of Latifpur.

In Ahraura there is a post-office and a police-station. The canal is the main source of irrigation. There are certain private tube-wells and pumping-sets too, for irrigation. A market is held here daily and remains closed on Wednesday only. Article of daily use and essential commodities are available here. It is situated in paddy-growing area and is an important centre for marketing of paddy and rice besides other food-grains. Handmade silk and cotton fabrics are also available. Now this *mandi* is regulated under the U.P. Mandi Samiti Adhiniyam, which requires the wholesalers and brokers to obtain a license and prescribes a fee for different items. The *samiti* also charges a commission on the sale/purchase of different items.

The fair of Janamastmi is celebrated with great pomp and show in Ahraura. There is also a dak-bungalow here. It is important too from the commercial point of view. The Vindhya hills are famous for fish. It is also equally popular for bird shooting and hunting of wild boars as there are forests close by. There is a place known as the mount of Bhandari Devi near the Vindhya hills. At present Ahraura is gaining further importance because a toy industry has come up here at the cottage level.

Ashtbhuja (tahsil Mirzapur)

Ashtbhuja, lies in lat. 25° 10' N. and long. 82° 30' E., about 13 km. south-west of Mirzapur and four and a half km. south-east of Vindhyachal, is a noted place of pilgrimage on the northern most spur of the Vindhya table land. The name of the place is derived from the tutelary deity, Ashtbhuja Devi, one of the numerous titles of Parvati. The pilgrimage to the temples is usually an adjunct to the worship at Vindhyachal. The pilgrims proceed by the Allahabad road to the fort of the hill, where there is a tank, fed by a perennial spring, known as Sita Kund. Thence, two flights of steps lead to the brow of the hill, one old and comparatively deserted, and the other lined with shrines of great antiquity but of no architectural pretensions. Arriving at the summit the pilgrims pass across the plateau to the opposite declivity, about 3 km. distant, where another handsome staircase leads to the Kali-koh, the cave of the goddess Kali. Thence the route leads back directly across the plain to Vindhyachal. The three temples at Vindhyachal, Ashtbhuja and Kali-koh are known locally as 'Taikon' and a pilgrimage is completed only by visiting all of them. Below the first ascent is a large and ancient grove of mangoes, and the slopes being similarly wooded, the temples have a pleasing and picturesque effect from a distance. There is a well-known district board dak-bungalow here. It has a population of 5,427 and an area of 3.22 sq. km.

Bhagwat (tahsil and pargana Chunar)

The name of Bhagwat has been derived from Bharasiva. In the days of Akbar, Bhagwat was known as Hanwa. How and when the name changed is not known, but the old name became extinct before the pargana passed into the hands of the branch of the Gaharwar which at some period, not precisely determinable, embraced the faith of Islam. These Gaharwars were zamindars of Bhagwat and their stronghold was in the fort of Patita. In the time of Balwant Singh, the head of the clan was Diwan Jamiat Khan who managed to thwart all attempts of raja Balwant Singh to capture the fort till 1752 A.D. The place then passed into the hands of raja Balwant Singh, along with the fort. It appears that during the Gupta period it was administered by Harshvardhan, Sher Shah Sur, Humayun and Akbar, etc., respectively.

Canal water is the main source of irrigation. People have set up their own tube-wells and pumping-sets. Rabi is the principal harvest. The chief crops grown are wheat, gram, barley, sugar-cane, rice, *bajara*, and *arhar*, etc.

For the convenience of the people of this village a market is also held here. It is also famous for the fair, known as Bachuvir-ka-mela, which is held here twice a year comprising a crowd of nearly 10,000 people. It has a population of 5,439 and an area of 3,411 hectares.

Bhuili Khas (tahsil Chunar, pargana Bhuili)

Bhuili lying in lat. 25° 6' N. and long. 83° 3' E., 48 km. east of Mirzapur, contains a ruined fort on the hill above the village. The derivation of the name is not known but Cunningham connected it with the great tribe of Bhuilas, and was of the view that it may be only a slightly altered form of Bhuilala. The Bhuilas are by far the most numerous class in Mirzapur. They were given the title of Bhumiyas, by the Brahmanas. They generally call themselves Musahar, which points to some connection with the title of Rikhiyas, and claims to be descended from Rishyasringa. Bhuili is a large agricultural village lying in the south-west of the pargana to which it gives its name. According to Minhār-us-Siraj, the author of the *Tabakat-i-Nasiri*, the place along with Bhagwat was made over to Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khilji. Of the few objects discovered, an inscription of Qutb-ud-din Mubaraq Khilji (716-720 Hijri), of five double lines let into the lower wall of a mosque in Dakhin Tola, was of some interest, but it is considerably damaged.

In the hill to the south there is a cave (*dargah*) of Makhduk Sahib Chirg-i-Hind. It is only a small room of 2.4 by 1.8 m. and 1.8 m. high. There is also a rock shelter called *Chilam masfia* 4.5 m. by 3.6 m. and about 2 m. high, or with its base and pinnacle, about 3 m. It is reckoned a curiosity, as the shaft is considerably curved.

A little further there is another cave, called Kho, containing two early Kutila inscriptions cut on the rock inside; one of them is quite illegible, and the other is a short record of a pilgrim. The cave is simply an enclosure made of three walls an overhanging rock, with the rock for the back wall. The room is about 3 m. long by 2.9 m. broad.

In the neighbourhood there are some square stone obelisks, with curious carvings on all four faces, attributed to the Suirs or Sabaras. The scenes sculptured on them are either ordinary occurrences of life, such as a woman suckling a child, or monstrous ones, such as a man astride a serpent. A figure often repeated seems to represent a man in the act of killing a buffalo.

This place is of historical significance. There is one stupa of Mughal period. Shiva Mandir and Takur's Mandir are the places of great importance. The only river in the village is the Garai, which flows across it from south to north. The canal is the principal source of irrigation. It is a growing market. On the occasion of Sivaratri, a fair is held at the place known as Shiva Mandir. The land revenue is assessed on 122.05 ha. The main crops are wheat, rice, sugar-cane, gram, arhar, and barley, etc. There is one senior Basic school along with the office of the sub-deputy inspector of schools. There is also one Ayurvedic dispensary. It has a population of 2,000 and an area of 122.05 hectares.

Chopan (tahsil Roberts Ganj, pargana Agori)

The town lies in lat. 24° 31' N. and long. 83° 2' E., at a distance of about 21 km. south of the tahsil headquarters and 102 km. south of Mirzapur. It can be reached by rail and road from Roberts Ganj and Mirzapur. It has a railway station too.

In 1901, Chopan had a population of 327 and consisted merely of a collection of mud huts. There were then a sarai, a police station, a post office, and an aided school. It was a favourite camping-ground on the route between Roberts Ganj and the Sonpar country.

The Chopan notified area is governed by the provisions of the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. The committee has not been constituted.

The town is electrified and has 370 electrical connections. It is served by a primary health centre with four beds, 2 each for males and females, and is attended by two doctors. There is one dispensary with four beds and a family planning centre. There is also one maternity centre which has control over the maternity sub-centres of Chopan, Kon, Kota, and Dala. There is one higher secondary school and four junior Basic schools, one cinema hall, one auditorium and one dak-bungalow, the latter belonging to the irrigation department.

The town is the headquarters of Chopan development block opened in April 1957. It extends its control over 60 *gaon sabhas* and 9 *nyaya panchayats*. The total population of the block is 93,341 with an area of 1,57,928 hectares.

Chopan is famous for marble goods which are the chief commodity of export. It is equally famous for the production of milk which is also supplied to other cities of the State. It is an important retail marketing centre. It supplies barley and jowar outside. On Tuesdays and Wednesdays a market is held in the town.

At Kinari near Chopan, a fair is held on Ram Navami in which wooden products, handloom cloth, pottery, and brass utensils etc., are sold.

In 1965, the government cement factory was established at Dala, near Chopan with the production capacity of 4 lakh tonnes a year. The factory has given employment to 2,000 persons. There is one inspection-house belonging to the same factory. There is one maternity sub-centre here. It has a population of 1954 and an area of 1.22 sq. km.

Chunar (tahsil Chunar, pargana Haveli)

This historic place lies in lat. 25° 7' N. and long. 80° 55' E., 32 km. east of Mirzapur and is connected by rail and road. It is also connected by rail with Varanasi via Mughalsarai in the east.

Tradition asserts that Bawan Bhagwan disguising himself as a Brahmana begged three steps of land from king Bali. His first footstep rested upon the hill of Chunar impressing it with his foot-mark. Consequently, the hill came to be known as Charan Adri or footstep hill. With the passage of time, the name became Chunar. In the course of time the religious significance of this place increased considerably. It is said that Bharti Nath, brother of the half mythical Vikramaditya of Ujjain, having embraced the habit and profession of a hermit, selected the rock of Chunar as his place of retirement. Vikramaditya is said to have discovered the hiding place of his brother by the aid of a certain holy hermit named Gorakmath, and to have visited Chunar and built for his brother a residence, he in his religious absorption having neglected to provide any shelter for himself. And a variant of the legend, already given, states that it is the saint, not God himself, who is invisibly seated on the black stone in the shrine on the summit of the hill. The next name connected with the fort is that of Prithiviraj, who is reported to have effected a settlement in this part of the country and to have brought under his rule a number of the surrounding villages. After his death the country is said to have been taken from his successors by one Khair-ud-din Subuktigin. It appears, however, from a mutilated Sanskrit inscription over the gateway of the fort that the place was again recovered by one Swami Raja, who put up the stone to commemorate the event. The fort was finally acquired by Shahab-ud-din, who appointed a certain Sanidi, an African, and a Bahelia, with the title of *hazari*, as the governors of the fort, at the same time conferring on them a jagir of 27 villages, known as *taluka* Khair-ud-din. The command of the fort is said to have remained with the Bahelia family through all its succeeding vicissitudes until its final cession to the British in 1772.

Chunar did not become a fortress of first rate importance till the sixteenth century, when the struggles between the Pathans and Mughals for the mastery of the east took place to which it was regarded as the key. Babar visited the place in 1529 A.D. and, owing to the number of wild beasts that infested the neighbourhood, lost many of his soldiers. These men were subsequently venerated as martyrs and their tombs are still to be seen scattered about the neighbourhood. Sher Khan Sur, afterwards the emperor Sher Shah, obtained possession of the fort by marrying the wife of a deceased governor and for some time resided in it. He built the Turkish bath (*hamam*) and armoury (*silah-khana*). He refused to give it up to Humayun in 1536, whereupon Humayun besieged it for six months, ultimately succeeding in capturing it by means of a floating battery built high enough to command the fortifications. But no sooner had he continued his advance into Bengal, than it fell into the hands of

Shēr Khan again and it was not until 1575 A.D. that it was recovered by Akbar. The latter visited Chunar for shikar (hunting). He also built the watergate in 1586 A.D. which is the date engraved on the stone archway. Until 1750 A.D. it remained with the Mughals. The emperor Jahangir appointed one Iftikhar Khan as its *nazim*, and in the reign of Aurangzeb one of its governors was Mirza Bairam Khan, who built a mosque there in 1663 A.D. near the Bharion Burj. But after the disruption of the Mughal empire, the fort fell into the hands of the nawab-vizir of Avadh, and through all the subsequent aggressions and intrigues it was the only place which Balwant Singh was not able, or did not dare, to reduce into his possession. In 1764 an unsuccessful attack was made on it by the British troops under major Munro. Two assaults failed and the siege was turned into a blockade which, however, was abandoned owing to the menacing attitude of Shuja-ud-daula. After an unsuccessful night attack, a breach was effected in the south-western rampart from batteries erected on Gadda hill, and the garrison surrendered. The same year the fort was exchanged for that of Allahabad; but in 1772 it was formally ceded to the East Indian Company, who established in it a depot for artillery and ammunition. After Chet Singh's outbreak in 1781, Warren Hastings retired for safety to Chunar, where a force was collected under major Popham, which expelled Chet Singh from his strongholds in the neighbourhood.

In 1791, Chunar fort became the headquarters of invalid battalion of European and Indian troops serving in India, all officers and men who were unfit for field service, being sent here for light duty. From 1815 onwards the fort was used as a place of confinement for State prisoners. During the freedom struggle of 1857-58, it was garrisoned by the artillery and infantry company of the European Invalid Battalion and all the district officers and European residents. The enclosure of Bhartri Nath's shrine was once being used as a civil treasury. It was garrisoned until the year 1890, when the troops were finally withdrawn, the buildings in the fort being handed over to the charge of the civil authorities, who first used it as a convalescent jail. Later on it was turned into a religious place.

The fort contains some buildings of historical and archaeological significance. The building known as Sonwa Mandap has 28 pillars reflecting purely the Hindu style of architecture. There is engraving on the *mehrab* which, it is said, was filled with gold. In the back portion there is the *samadhi* of Bhartri Nath. At present religious ceremonies are also held there. It has four gates. There is a tunnel in front of this building. It is said that in 1333 A.D. princess Sonwa, daughter of Sandeva, a Nepali King, used to go to take bath in the river Ganga through this tunnel, which leads down from the fort. There is about 17 m. diameter and about 200 m. deep *bawali* in the fort still having water. It is said that princess Sonwa used to take bath here. It is also said that it is connected with the Ganga which supplies water to it.

Less than one km. south-west of the fort is situated the tomb or *dargah* of Shah Qasim Sulamiani. It is a building of considerable architectural pretensions. The saint whose remains are interred here is said to have been an Afghan by birth and to have lived during the reigns of Akbar and Jahangir, the date of his birth being given 956 Hijri or 1549 A.D., and the place Peshawar. Losing parents, wife and a child at the

age of 27, he took himself to a holy life, and set out to visit the sacred places at Mecca and Medina. The prestige gained by his pilgrimage procured him on his return a considerable following of disciples, but unfortunately he incurred the displeasure of Akbar by declining to subscribe to that monarch's views on religion. During Akbar's reign he was not molested further than having his place of residence fixed at Lahore; but on the accession of Jahangir his enemies represented to the king the danger of allowing Shah Qasim to attract so large a number of followers. At first Jahangir appears to have contemplated punishing the saint with death. But better counsel prevailed and Shah Sulamiani was sent as a prisoner to Chunar in 1606 A.D., where he died the following year. His disciples erected the mausoleum in his memory and his two sons were installed as its chief attendants. The process of canonization was now complete, and Jahangir himself recognized the sanctity of the shrine by a grant to the saint's son of 30 bighas of land in the adjacent village of Tikaur. One of the sons, Shah Kabir Baba, became a saint, and his disciples set up a mausoleum to his memory at Kanauj. Another son, Muhammad Wasih, and two grandsons, Muhammad Afzal and Muhammad Hakim, were honoured with tombs near that of Shah Qasim. Further additions to the landed estate of the shrine were made in the reigns of Shah Jahan and Farrukhsiyar. To the latter it owes the gift of the village of Begpur. Poor Muslim travellers were provided with food for three days out of the income derived from the estates. The annual offerings to the saint take place between the 17th and 21st days of the month *jamadi-ul-awwal*; and during March and April five *dargah* fairs are held on Thursdays, which are attended by all classes, prayers and praise being conjoined with a brisk market in worldly goods. The buildings are seven in number. First there is the mausoleum of Shah Qasim himself. It is enclosed by lattice stone walls, outside which standing on stone basements, are the graves of his disciples in groups, being separated from each other by beautifully carved stone screens. His cap and turban are shown at the tomb and it is believed that these, when gently rubbed by one of his disciples, pour out a divine effluence through the votaries who happen to be assembled there. On the entrance gate there is a brief inscription in five lines, all of which, except the last, are in Arabic, and consist of praises of the saint; the date given is 1607 A.D. There are two other mausoleums, one belonging to the saint's son, Muhammad Wasih, and the other to his grandsons, Muhammad Afzal and Muhammad Hakim; and the other buildings include the Nakkashi Darwaza or principal gateway; the Fawara Sawin Bhadon or fountain of the rainy season; the Rang Mahal on the corner walls of which are engraved 16 Persian couplets; and the mosque. The last six were all built, it is said, by Muhammad Wasih in 1618 A.D. There are beautiful carvings on the principal gateway and the stone lattice with which the garden is enclosed.

Less than one km. up a narrow ravine to the south-south-west to the railway station is a perennial spring, called Durga Kund. To the north side of the ravine stands the temple of Kamakshi Devi, and just below it a small old temple. The ravine or Jhirna Nala, is spanned by a bridge, which leads to a row of three *dalans* or cloisters, formed by building against the face of the rock. Against the back wall there is a low platform, or seat, about 38 cm. high and 40 cm. broad, which was probably intended for the reception of statues. Sculptured on the rock there are several figures of lions, horses, and elephants in outline. The face of

the rock is about 1½ metres high, above which the constructions exist. The whole back wall is covered with short inscriptions of many ages beginning from the Gupta period. Similar inscriptions are also cut in the rock of the Durga Khooor Durga, cave, a little further up the ravine, near which an annual fair is held on the ninth day of the Durgapuja festival. The cave is simply an old quarry which has been converted into a dwelling by building up two pillars under the edge of the overhanging rock; but the inscriptions are of considerable antiquity, several of them being of the Gupta period, though they are chiefly the personal records of pilgrims who have visited the cave of Durga, where she is said to have sprung out of the rock.

There are several other interesting buildings scattered about the outskirts of Chunar. The mausoleum of Iftikhar Khan, *nazim* in the reign of Jahangir, known as the old tahsildari, lies beyond the Jirgo. Near the only gate by which admittance is gained there is a *baoli* (well) called the "robber's cave" with steps leading down to the water's edge. Formerly a subterranean passage led from the latter to the mausoleum, but this has long since been closed. An inscription over the well shows the date of its construction to have been A.D. 1605. The tomb of Saiyid Bahadur Ali is on a high stone platform at Tikaur. He was a large land holder in the neighbourhood, who was assigned a grant of land rent-free by Shah Jahan. He adopted the usages and habits of a *faqir* and is much venerated by the people of the neighbourhood who built a tomb. It is affirmed that the tomb was originally of stone but that it was mysteriously transformed into white marble. Close to the railway station is situated, on the borders of a swamp, Phulwaria. In the days of raja Sahadeo, a mythical raja of the fort, who had a daughter named Sunnia who was married to Alha, the Benaphar hero of Mahoba, there was a garden here, the flowers from which used to be offered daily to the idol at Durga Kho. Udal is said to have taken up his residence here for a brief spell; and the garden is said to have been the model of one made by Saiyid Jamal-ud-din, a *nazim* of Chunar in the reign of Qutb-ud-din Aibak, at Benares which was famed for the excellence of its melons. Near it is a monastery called Achraj, composed of blocks of stone buildings in which accommodation was provided for monks, pilgrims, and others who came to worship. Along a terrace near the entrance is an array of Hindu deities with grotesque countenances. It is said to be the birth place of the great Hindu hieresiarch Swami Ballabhacharya or, according to another version, of his son Bithal Nathi, in whose honour the edifices were built. At the declivity of a hill, believed to be the Sonwar Pahar, south-east of Phulwaria, there are the remains of a small mosque.

There are several cemeteries of interest in Chunar, which are situated behind the *dargah* on the Mirzapur road; near the old tahsildari, beyond the Jirgo; near Samaspur on the Mirzapur road Chunar fort cemetery lies just below and south-west of the fort.

The town of Chunar is developing fast. There is a municipal board, and it is electrified and has tube-well water supply. Besides being a place of religious and historical importance, Chunar is also famous for stone quarries from which stone is sent to other places for building construction. Famous Chunar potteries are made here from ancient times. Now that a white ceramic industry is functioning, there is a great ceramic developing centre there. Most of the 6,000 houses of this town

are old. Being situated on the bank of the Ganga, it appears very beautiful. The town presents a neat appearance. A cattle fair is held here. The market remains closed on Tuesdays. Essential commodities and other articles of daily use are available in the market.

It is a Northern Railway junction, and in the east it is linked with Mughalsarai, in the west with Mirzapur and Allahabad and in the south with Dudhi. There are 12 industrial units situated at Chunar for the manufacture of pottery.

There are 9 dak-bungalows/inspection-houses, of which 7 belong to the irrigation department and one each to the Zila Parishad and the public works department. A primary health centre was established here in 1971. It has a population of 10,240 and an area of 2.85 sq. km.

Churk Ghurma (tahsil Roberts Ganj)

This town lies in lat. 83° 8' N. and long. 24° 42' E., at the distance of 8 km. south-east of Roabrts Ganj and 87 km. south-east of Mirzapur. It is known after the name of village Churk and now it is called by the name of Churk Ghurma. It is connected by road and rail with the tahsil as well as with the district headquarters. It has a railway station. The town is a notified area and is governed by the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916. The committee has not been constituted so far.

The town appears to be developing since the setting up of a cement factory in 1954. This unit is managed by the U.P. State Cement Corporation Limited, and has a production capacity of 700 tonnes per day. Limestone is supplied to the factory from the Ghurma mines.

There is one open-air jail known as Sampurnanand Shivar which was started as an experiment to reform and rehabilitate the prisoners. This experiment found its expression on March 15, 1956. The jail is spread over an area of 25.6 acres. Its camp is situated in the beautiful Churk Ghurma Valley, near the Churk Cement Factory, where its inmates work in the stone quarries which supply the raw material to the factory. For this work they are paid regular wages like ordinary labourers.

In 1962, this camp was given the status of a central prison with its population increasing according to the needs of the cement factory. The inmates insist on being called *shivirvasi*. For their labour each *shivirvasi* get R. 5 a day. They also get extra bonus for the extra work done by them apart from fixed target of work in the factory.

The camp provides all necessary facilities to the inmates. The whole camp is fully electrified and has its own water-supply arrangements. The camp also has temples, a library possessing 2,259 books, and a stage on which recreation programmes are held regularly. The inmates are also trained in a scouting and physical education, apart from being educated through a scheme known as 'Naya Savera,' which aims at making all the inmates at least literate.

The camp maintains a hospital to look after the health of the inmates. The hospital has 36 beds and is looked after by a medical officer assisted by his staff.

The overall camp administration is under the charge of a superintendent who is assisted by a deputy superintendent. In 1976, there were 625 *shivirvasis*.

In the town of Churk Ghurma piped water is available. Three junior Basic schools and one intermediate college cater for the educational requirements of the town which has a total enrolment of 1,700. One hospital and a primary health centre with 22 beds provide medical facilities. There is one post-office as well as an inspection house belonging to Churk Cement Factory. The State Bank of India has been operating here since May 1971. The Allahabad Bank established its branch in April, 1974.

The Churk railway colony has one senior Basic school, a hospital and a post-office. This colony is electrified and in 1971 was inhabited by 113 persons. It has a population of 7,429 and an area of 4.22 sq. km.

Dudhi (tahsil and pargana, Dudhi)

The headquarters town of the tahsil of the same name lies in lat. $24^{\circ} 13' N.$ and long. $83^{\circ} 15' E.$, and about 3.2 km. west of the Kanhar river. It is 154 km. south-east from Mirzapur and 72 km. south-east from Roberts Ganj. It is connected to the north by the roads running to Chopan via Hathinala, or to Pannuganj via Kon and Argarh. It is a flourishing place and contains a post-office, a police station, a dispensary, a cattle-pound, an inspection house, and a sub-registrar's office. To the south there is a government garden and a nursery. Inside the town, there is also a sarai, and a fine market known as Chauk. A weekly market is held here on Thursday.

Dudhi has also an establishment of the London Missionary Society, known as the Dudhi Mission, the buildings of which are situated near the camping-ground and consist of a substantial personage and a small church. This mission was started in 1862-63 by a Mather and it was originally intended that two missionaries should occupy the new station, one of whom was to be medical man. Jones took up his residence in 1863 at Dudhi. He died in 1870 and was buried in the little cemetery adjoining the church. The tombstone bears the following epitaph: "Sacred to the memory of the Reverend William Jones, aged 38 years. He joined the London Missionary Society in 1858, was appointed to the Singrauli Mission in 1863, and remained in connection with it till his death, April 25th, 1870. He was a missionary of great earnestness and self-denial and sacrificed his life to his high sense of Christian duty in his labours among the tribes of Singrauli. This monument is erected in loving remembrance of him by his European and native friends". The present Mission Church was built in 1887 at a cost of Rs 1,200; and since 1870 the work of evangelization has been carried on by missionaries.

The Kharif is the principal harvest of this place and the chief crops grown are rice, Kodon, Sawan, Urd, *majhri*, *til*, and maize; while in the Rabi, wheat, barley, gram peas are sown, these like maize, being generally confined to the well-manured land near the villages.

Dudhi is situated on a level plane in a cleared area in the hilly and forest tract, which situation has helped it develop into a good food-grain market. The articles marketed are Khandsari, *gur*, and oil-seeds.

The place is the headquarters of the development block of the same name. A small library is established here where local newspapers and magazines are easily available. There are two intermediate colleges and one degree college known as the Government Intermediate College, D.K. College and the Gøberdhan Das Binnani Degree College.

On the occasion of Dasahra and Makar-Sankranti a fair is also held here. There are 13 dak-bungalows/inspection-houses and bungalows for V.I.P.s in tahsil Dudhi, of which 7 belong to the forest department and 3 of the irrigation and hydel department. There is also a primary health centre here. It has a population of 5,084 and an area of 5.1 sq. km.

Karyat Sikhar (tahsil Chunar, pargana Karyat Sikhar)

The village lies in lat. $25^{\circ} 4' N.$ and long. $82^{\circ} 49' E.$, at a distance of 25.6 km. from Mirzapur and 4.8 km. from Chunar and lies about 3.2 km. from the north-bank of the Ganga, opposite the town of Chunar in a bend of the river. There are in the vicinity of the river some ravines and the earth is mixed with *kanhar*. *Qariat* is merely the plural of *qaria*, the Arabic word for a village or town, and the name *qariat sikhar* signifies the villages of, or those subordinate to, Sikhor. In the *Ain-i-Akbari* the pargana is called *Qariat-i-inru-i-ab*, that is, the villages on this side of the water, apparently in reference to the headquarters of the sarkar at Caumar. Atbal Sah (a Kurmi) is said to have been ejected by Mir Rustam Ali, who gave the pargana in jagir to Sher Sarfaraz Khan, with whom it remained till the time of raja Balwant Singh.

On the bank of the Ganga there is a famous religious place known as Bivari-ji-ka-Mandir. The cultivators of this place have established their own tube-wells and pumping-sets. A market is held here daily and all essential commodities of the daily use are available in it. There is a branch of the Kamala Nehru library with 400 books here. This place is also famous for fairs which are held here on Vijaya Dasami and Bavan-Dwadashi. It has a population of 1,475 and an area of 298 hectares.

Mirzapur (tahsil Mirzapur)

The headquarters of the district is situated on the right bank of the Ganga in lat. $25^{\circ} 91' N.$ and long. $82^{\circ} 35' E.$ There are twelve wards in its municipal board. It is by far the largest and the most important town within the boundaries of the district to which it gives its name, and is 88 km. by rail from Allahabad and about 73 km. from Varanasi. At the beginning of the 19th century it was an important emporium of trade, but its commercial growth and decline are both confined to the last hundred and fifty years. Earlier Kantit and Vindhyaachal were both important places; and if the tradition that the latter was destroyed by Aurangzeb be credited, the foundation of Mirzapur is not likely to have taken place till late in the seventeenth century. The earliest mention of the city is to be found in the writings of Tieffenthaler, who drew up his description of India between 1760 and 1770. He mentions it under the name of Mirzapur the greater, as a mart which had two ghats giving access to the Ganga. In the records of Jonathan Duncan, who was resident at Varanasi between 1787 and 1795, frequent mention is

made of the place. According to him before 1781 the principal traders with the Deccan were of the Sannyasi sect. These resided at Varanasi, and transported their goods to Mirzapur to sell them to other members of their own sect who came annually from the Deccan to buy them. The establishment of the custom-house at Varanasi, which levied a transit duty of 5 per cent, nearly drove the Sannyasis out of the trade; but the rate of duty was shortly afterwards reduced to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. On raw silk, a principal article of the trade, and for a time they struggled against difficulties. Matters were improved by the appointment in 1788 of a judge-magistrate, who had his headquarters at Mirzapur, the first person invested with the functions of this office being Lala Dakshi Singh. New rules were at the same time published regarding the duties on foreign and inland trade many cesses and exactions being abolished, a measure which wrote the resident, "could not but in some measure awaken the sensibility of minds the most abdicant." In 1789, the Governor-General sanctioned the introduction of "fees and a commission to government on the hearing of cases, to check the licentiousness of complainants," but the jurisdiction of the judge-magistrate was confined to the town and suburbs. In these early days the trade of Mirzapur centred chiefly on cotton, which poured into it from Central India along the great highroad to the Deccan. The subsequent history of Mirzapur was one of continued commercial prosperity until 1894, the year in which the East Indian Railway was opened to the Yamuna bank at Allahabad. As steamers could not compete in rapidity or security with the railway, the latter soon absorbed the trade of the city, and that year marked the first step in its decline. Gradually the railway tapped the upcountry trade and Mirzapur ceased to be the great emporium of trade for upper India. From this blow it never recovered.

The city is situated on one of the large bends which characterise the course of the Ganga in the district. The site has the advantage of sloping slightly in an inland direction, the highest ground in the whole town being found in the bluffs which overhang the river. The river banks are solid and lasting, there being an almost continuous reef of *Kankar* at or below the water line. The river frontage, though picturesque and handsome is not imposing. No buildings of great size or boldness of outline rise from the water; and the ghats or landing-places, though numbering more than a score, both great and small, are, with three or four exceptions, small in size and of unpretentious design; while many from the insecurity of their foundations are in different stages of ruin and decay.

The interior of the city is not striking. Although there is a general air of solidity and massiveness about the buildings, which attests the wealth and prosperity of its builders, there is at the same time generally an appearance of decline which shows equally that its great wealth is a thing of the past. There are few buildings of note, the only ones whose towers break the sky-line being a couple of mosques of no great pretensions, the larger of which the town owes to a Muslim lady, who was an inhabitant of Mirzapur and bequeathed to posterity not only this building but also the funds wherewith to erect a fine and commodious sarai.

The growth of the town, from a cluster of houses round Narghat and the fort which commanded the ferry, can easily be traced. The original town appears to have spread east and west along the line of thoroughfares roughly parallel with the river known now as *Purani*

Bazari, Tirmohani, Sati Bazar, and Chetganj. Starting west from Narghat, one at once enters the latter *muhalla*, which is a crowded collection of houses. Southward from Narghat, the city stretches now as far as the railway line. The townhall, handsomely constructed of stone, chiefly from voluntary contributions, in an impressive building and its tower is a conspicuous object on the sky-line. The mosque and the sarai of the Ganga Bibi have already been alluded to. The latter is a commodious building, erected in the Gothic style from designs by major Kittoe and contains a particularly graceful canopied well. Of the numerous elaborately carved stone temples, which every where abound, those at the *pukka ghat* and the Tirmohani ghat may be cited as the best examples. Many temples, however, enshrine ancient statues and decorative pieces of sculpture of an apparently ancient date. The temple of Vindhya Vasini at Bari ghat claims a hoary antiquity but the present building is comparatively modern, having been erected in succession to the one which the Ganga swept away, its ruins being still visible when the river is at a low ebb. Devotees from the whole country visit it in large numbers, particularly during Navaratri in the months of Chaitra and Asvina. In addition to the houses of the official and private residents, there are the church, schools, and the orphanage of the London Mission, the public offices, which comprise separate court-houses for the district officers, the judge, and his subordinates. There is one place worth seeing which is called *Shahid Ulyan*. It has many statues of freedom-fighters such as Chandrashekhar Azad, Bhagat Singh, and Ram Prasad 'Bismil,' etc. There is one more park which is called *Laldigi*. It contains three degree colleges and ten intermediates colleges, including 2 for girls. There are 2 hospitals, one each for males and females. One T.B. hospital is also there. Mirzapur is famous for its carpet-making industry too. It has a population of 1,05,939 and an area of 3,900 hectares.

Pipri (tahsil and pargana, Dudhi)

Lying in lat. $24^{\circ} 14' N.$ and long. $83^{\circ} E.$ Pipri is situated about 113 km. south of the district headquarters and 25 km. west of the tahsil headquarters. This town came for the first time under municipal legislation in the year 1957, when the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, was applied to it and it was declared a notified area. The town is electrified and there are also proper arrangements for water-supply. There is a post-office, a primary health centre, a police station, a government dispensary, and a government high school. There are two inspection-houses for V.I.P.'s. situated at Pipri, belonging to the irrigation as well as the hydel departments.

This place is important as regards trade and commerce, and has become an important retail marketing centre. It possesses a cinema hall also. It has a population of 5,700 and an area of 5.6 sq. km.

Rajgarh (tahsil Chunar)

Lying in lat. $24^{\circ} 51' N.$ and long. $82^{\circ} 53'-55' E.$, it is small village situated on the Mirzapur-Roberts Ganj road and is 46 km. from the district headquarters. This village is connected by a pucca road and is block headquarters.

In ancient times it was known as Rajagarh and the present reformed name has been derived from it.

A market is held here in which the necessary things of daily use are available. At the end of winter season a fair is also held here in which about 2,000 persons participate. It has a small roadside market, a post-office, and a police station. It has a high school and an Ayurvedic Dispensary. The culturable land of this village is 280 ha. and the land revenue assessed during 1976-77 on it was Rs 3,677. The principal sources of irrigation of this place are a canal and wells. It has a population of 1,000 and an area of 2.80 hectares.

Ramgarh (tahsil Roberts Ganj)

Ramgarh lies in lat. $83^{\circ} 15' N.$ and long. $24^{\circ} 43' E.$, 20 km. east of the tahsil headquarters. It is the headquarters of Nagawa and Chatara development blocks since 1958 and 1959 respectively. It has one junior Basic school, one senior Basic school, one hospital, one higher secondary school, and a post-office. Sri Jawaharlal Nehru Sanskrit Vidyalaya is functioning here since 1963 and has 47 students on its roll.

Ramgarh is famous for the production of milk and ghee which are supplied mainly to the cities of Varanasi and Allahabad. Wool is available here in sufficient quantity and therefore, the blanket and the carpet industries are in a flourishing state here. The fair of Dhanusyajna is famous which is held during Agrahayana *sukla* 15. It has a population of 1,598 and an area of 339 hectares.

Renukoot (tahsil Dudhi)

Renukoot lying in lat. $24^{\circ} 14' N.$ and long. $83^{\circ} 1' E.$, is a notified town area situated at a distance of 154 km. from Mirzapur and 38 km. from Dudhi. It is said to have been a part of Singrauli estate prior to the British rule. During the British régime it was a protected forest of Dudhi government estate. After Independence it was vested with forest department. The temple of Renukeshwar Mahadev is a historical place having engravings on the Khajuraho pattern. Beena Coal Project is the connecting as well as the nearest places to Renukoot. This place is also accessible by railway. The Rihand river passes through this place. Renukoot is an industrial town an aluminium factory being situated here. This place is famous for a fair which is held here on the occasion of Sivratri, near Renukeshwar Mahadev temple. It has two guest-houses. The place is electrified and its water-supply comes from the Hindalco Water Treatment Plant which is situated on the Rihand river.

A post-office, a dispensary, and a primary health centre, etc. are here.

This place is more significant for the Kanodia Chemicals and Industries Limited which was established on September 9, 1964. It manufactures caustic soda (lye solid and flakes), liquid chlorine, hydrochloric acid, stable bleaching powder and benzene hexachloride (technical). It provides employment to about 1,000 persons. It has a population of 10,655 and an area of 3.2 sq. km.

Robarts Ganj (tahsil Roberts Ganj, pargana Barhar)

The town of Robarts Ganj, which is the tahsil headquarters lies in lat. $24^{\circ} 42' N.$ and long. $83^{\circ} 81' E.$ It is situated 75 km. south of Mirzapur and is about 371 km. from Lucknow. It is connected with the district headquarters both by road and rail.

It takes its name from W. Roberts, deputy collector, and afterwards collector of the district, who was entrusted in 1846 with the completion of the work of settlement in the southern portion of the district. It was at Roberts's suggestion that the tahsil headquarters was removed from the unhealthy rice neighbourhood of Shahganj to the barren upland of Tendikaur, and under the auspices of the same officer, aided by Gyan Din, foreman, the Kiwai Ghat was constructed on easy gradients down the precipitous southern face of the Kaimurs.

Health services are provided in a hospital and a primary health centre, with 28 beds. The primary health centre, founded in 1949, has 8 beds and is attended by two doctors and other staff. The town has a maternity centre which has control over the maternity sub-centres situated at Robarts Ganj, Guruparasi, Rajdhan, and Kakrahi.

The State Bank of India, the United Commercial Bank, and the Punjab National Bank have their branches here. The State Bank of India had deposits of Rs 5.6 million and advances of Rs 1.6 million, as at the close of 1974. Of the advances, Rs 1 million went for term loans for tractor purchase. The Punjab National Bank had deposits of Rs 8 million and advances of Rs 8,23,000 at the same period. The deposits of the United Commercial Bank amounted to Rs 3.5 million in December, 1974, while its advances were Rs 6,75,000. More than half of this went to agriculture. The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd., had deposits of Rs 9,91,000 and advances of Rs 4.5 million in December 1974.

There is a branch office of the Life Insurance Corporation at Robarts Ganj.

Over 130 buses ply through the town and around 800 persons alight every day. Freight traffic outward includes bamboo (50 wagons per year), fish (around 500 baskets per year) and coarse grains. Articles imported to the town include medicines, clothes, tyres and tubes, and electrical goods. Blanket-weaving is among the small-scale industries of the town. Animal skin and bones are also stored for supplying outside the town. The town caters for the entire trade of the southern area. Products dealt with are paddy, wheat, mixed grains, mustard, ghee, and *khowa*.

There is scope for setting up lime-kilns using improved shaft-kilns. Semal wood is available here for the manufacture of match splints.

The town's population recorded a rise of 0.8 per cent per annum during the sixties to reach 7,093 by 1971, of which the males were 3,907. The town has the density of 8,345 persons per sq. km. About 28 per cent of the population are workers. Of the workers more than one-third are engaged in trade and commerce; industry accounts for about a fifth. There are 1,858 buildings of which 1,000 are residential.

The town was for the first time brought in as a local self-government unit under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914, in 1928.

Robarts Ganj is the headquarters of the development block of the same name.

A library is also maintained here by the town area committee.

In February-March, a fair is held at Satdwari, near Robarts Ganj which is known as the fair of Mahadeva. It has a population of 7,093 and an area of 0.85 sq. km.

Semari Urf Saktesarh (tahsil Chunar)

The village is situated 35.2 km. south of Mirzapur and 16 km. south of Chunar and lies in lat. 24° 59' N. and long. 82° 50' E. It has a fort erected by Sakat Singh to control the Kols in the reign of Akbar. This stronghold is situated at the mouth of the gorge by which the Jirga river debouches from the hills. It consists of a small, plain rectangular building of stone with flanking towers at the corners, and encloses a two-storeyed building, the decorations of which, in glass mosaic, have obtained for it the name of Shish Mahal. Around the fort there was a considerable enceinte, enclosed on two sides by projecting hills, and towards the plain by a rampart and ditch, which must have formed a place of refuge in the neighbourhood at the time of invasions. Unfortunately, however, now there is nothing left in the whole area but small huts and the foundations of a small sanctuary. This sanctuary has a legend connected with it. It is related that the spot first chosen for the fort was in inconvenient proximity to a cave, wherein dwelt a hermit of great sanctity, named Siddh Nath. The holy man, perceiving the commencement of preparations, threatened to bring a curse upon both builder and building unless he were left in peace and the present site, which he pointed out, was thus chosen. Sakat Singh, acquiescing, begged the saint to take the fort under his protection, and to reside within its precincts. The hermit while blessing the undertaking, declined to move, but permitted his brother Bhupat Nath to go down and live there, and it was for him that the sanctuary was built. There is another curious superstition associated with the place. The members of the Kantil raja's family invariably slaughter a buffalo at the outer gate on the occasion of their first entry into the fort. This custom arose in consequence of an unsuccessful attempt to take the fort by an aboriginal chieftain named Mohan Bedi. Mohan Bedi was killed in the attempt and the tradition is that his spirit, a very malevolent ghost, continued to haunt the place, till the hermit Siddh Nath exorcized it by the sacrifice of a buffalo.

The system of cultivation in this village is generally as poor as it is scattered. The river and wells are the chief sources of irrigation. The Kharif is the principal harvest and a little maize is also grown in places. Some small shops have been opened here where the necessities of every day life are easily available. This place is significant commercially as well as for hunting purposes. There is also a junior Basic school for the education of its children along with a police station here. It has a population of 1,000 and an area of 757 hectares.

Sukrit (tahsil Chunar)

This village lies in lat. 24° 54' N. and long. 83° 4' E., at a distance of 21 km. from Ahraura. It is only interesting because it gives its name to the pass by which Ahraura-Chopan road descends from the Vindhyan tableland to the lowland of the Gangetic valley. The road was aligned up this pass by Bligh, the district engineer, in 1885. At the foot of the pass stood the fortress of Latifpur, now totally in ruins. The fort was of a rectangular shape and encloses a considerable area, two sides being protected by the precipitous banks of a deep stream and the other two by a solid stone rampart and ditch. The present buildings, which are now but a shapeless though picturesque mass of overgrown ruins, are said by major Stewart to have displayed in his time signs of considerable architectural taste. The fort of Latifpur was constructed by one Malik Farrukh, zamindar of Ahraura, as his principal stronghold and treasury. In 1752 it was held by his son, Malik Ahsan; but on Balwant Singh advancing to attack it, Malik Ahsan evacuated the fort and fled. In 1781 the fort fell into the hands of a British force commanded by major Crabb, who was operating against Chet Singh. In some passes leading towards the fort, there are small stone *garhis* built for the protection of outposts, 3.2 km. east of Latifpur.

Being situated on the hills it is surrounded by forests. The local people of this area are generally more interested in folk-songs. A market is held here in which the essential things of daily use are available. A fair also takes place here on the occasion of Sivaratri. This small village is more significant from the religious, cultural and tourist points of view. It is also said to be famous for sweets, specially for *rasgulla* etc. It has a population of 380 and an area of 750 hectares.

Bijaigarh or Bithgaon Nisf (tahsil Robarts Ganj, pargana Bijaigarh)

The place is situated in lat. 24° 35' N. and long. 83° 11' E., and lies north-west of Robarts Ganj. A metalled road about 5 km. long links it with Robarts Ganj.

Bijaigarh was a princely state since antiquity. It is famous for its fort and like most of the strongholds which crown the natural fastness of the Kaimirs, is of an uncertain foundation. Its foundation is attributed to *asurs* or demons. It was probably a stronghold of the Kols or other aborigines who held these parts. Two hostile demons, so the story runs, vowed to each other that whichever first built a fort should be the conqueror and that the losing party should forfeit his life. They commenced their labours in the evening, one on Bijaigarh hill and the other on the top of Kandakot, a hill of similar shape. The demon who was building on Bijaigarh, having lost his tools in the dark, struck a light to find them. His adversary imagining that the fort was completed and that instant death awaited him, fled precipitately while Bijaigarh fort was completed, during the night. The fort is next found as the stronghold of the Baland rajas and it passed with their kingdom into the hands of the Chandela of Agori Barhar. But local tradition assigns the designs and completion of the present works, exclusive of the later and less massive addition of Sher Shah, to Balwant Singh. There is a legend that the

fort is connected by a subterranean passage with that of Rohtasgarh. On the dissolution of Sher Shah's empire the Chandels appear to have regained possession of the fort and to have held it till it was seized by Balwant Singh, the raja of Benares.

Near the gateway of the fort is a tomb said to be that of Saiyid Zain-ul-Abdin, the Miran Sahib of local fame. There is a tradition that this miracle-working saint came here with Sher Shah and effected the capture of the fort by supernatural agency and without the loss of a man. Near the tomb of Miran Sahib there was a tank known as the Miran Sagar and beyond that another called Rama Sagar. The buildings here are in a state of utter disrepair. It has a population of 351 and an area of 113 hectares.

Vindhyachal (tahsil Mirzapur)

This is a large agricultural town lying in lat. $25^{\circ} 10' N.$ and long. $82^{\circ} 31' E.$, (a part of Mirzapur-cum-Vindhyachal municipal board) 11 km. west of Mirzapur with which it is connected by a metalled road.

The ancient town of Vindhyachal, famous in the *Puranas*, is said to have been included within the circuit of the ancient city of Pampapura. Pampapura is supposed to have been an old Bhar city covering several km. of area. Tradition says that this city once possessed 150 temples, all of which were destroyed by Aurangzeb. The place is celebrated as containing the shrine of the goddess Vindhyeshwari Devi, which is visited by thousands of pilgrims annually from all parts of India, especially central and southern India. The temple, which is built of stone, is of a rectangular form, surrounded by a verandah, the whole encompassed by a flight of five steps. The roof is flat and the pillars that support it of plain and coarse workmanship. The image of the goddess is in an interior chamber of small size, the walls being constructed of large coarse stones. The head of the figure is of black stone with large eyes, the whites of which are formed of plates of burnished silver, and the feet rest on a black rat. The building must be one of great antiquity. On the river front is the Devighat, a fort-like structure adorned with six bastions, which just cut into the river and has a flight of about 80 steps. From this a long narrow paved street leads to the temple which is about 3 km. distant.

The place contains a post-office, a police station, a pound, a dispensary and a school.

CONVERSION FACTORS

Money

- 1 pie = 0.52 paise
- 1 pice = 1.56 paise

Linear Measure

- 1 inch = 2.54 centimetres
- 1 foot = 30.48 centimetres
- 1 yard = 91.44 centimetres
- 1 mile = 1.61 kilometres

Square Measure

- 1 square foot = 0.093 square metre
- 1 square yard = 0.836 square metre
- 1 square mile = 2.59 square kilometres = 2.59 hectares
- 1 acre = 0.405 hectare

Cubic Measure

- 1 cubic foot = 0.028 cubic metre

Measure of Capacity

- 1 gallon (Imperial) = 4.55 litres
- 1 seer* = 0.937 litre

Measure of Weight

- 1 tola = 11.66 grams
- 1 chhatak = 58.32 grams
- 1 seer* (80 tolas) = 933.10 grams
- 1 maund* = 37.32 kilograms
- 1 ounce (Avoirdupois) = 28.35 grams
- 1 pound (Avoirdupois) = 453.59 grams
- 1 hundred weight = 50.80 kilograms
- 1 ton = 1,016.05 kilograms = 1.016 metric tonnes

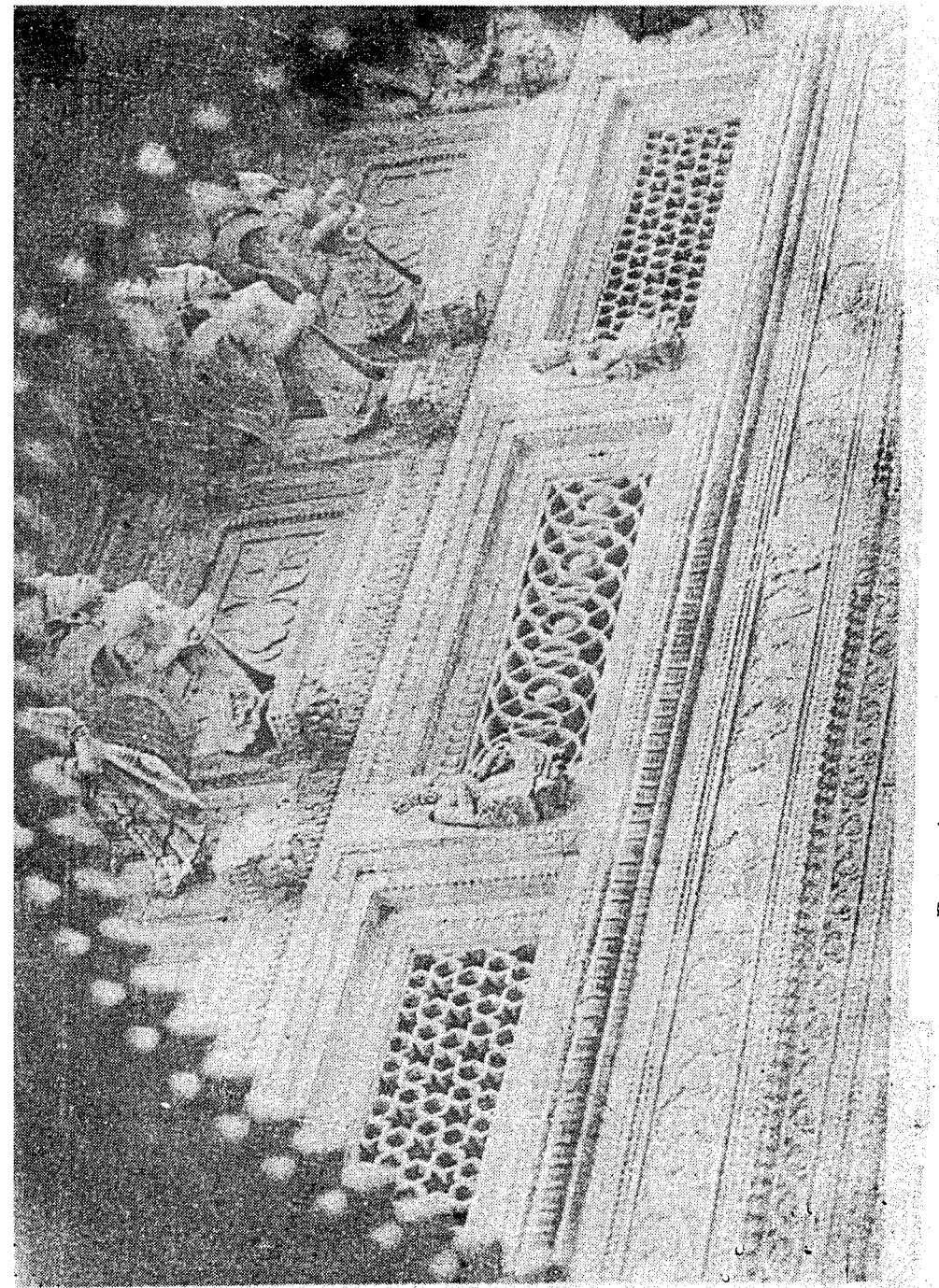
Thermometer Scales

- 1° Fahrenheit = $9/5^{\circ}$ Centigrade + 32
- * As defined in Indian Standards of Weight Act, 1939

GLOSSARY

<i>Abwabs</i>	: Cesses in addition to the fixed rentals
<i>Achkan</i>	: A type of long coat
<i>Adalat</i>	: Court of justice
<i>Adivasis</i>	: Aborigines
<i>Alha</i>	: Ballad relating to heroic exploits of Alha and Udal
<i>Attamgha</i>	: Grant under seal, a special tenure introduced by Jehangir
<i>Anil</i>	: A collector of revenue under the nawabs of Avadh
<i>Anin</i>	: Petty official, attached to court of justice and entrusted with work of realising government dues
<i>Angarkha</i>	: A long shirt tight on waist
<i>Arhar</i>	: Pigeon pea, a dal
<i>Bajra</i>	: Coarse sand
<i>Ballis</i>	: Wooden beams
<i>Bichua</i>	: A finger ring of feet, worn by married women
<i>Bidi</i>	: Indigenous cigarette made of <i>tendu</i> leaves and tobacco
<i>Chutki</i>	: Small wooden couch without arms
<i>Chini-pul</i>	: An alloy
<i>Chutney</i>	: Sauce
<i>Dahyak</i>	: An amount which was paid to tahsildar as expenses for revenue collection and maintenance of police force in their jurisdiction
<i>Dai</i>	: Midwife, other than diploma holder
<i>Dargah</i>	: Shrine of Muslim saint
<i>Dastur</i>	: Schedule of assessment rate stated in money
<i>Dholak</i>	: A long cylindrical drum covered with parchment
<i>Dupatta</i>	: Scarf worn by women
<i>Faujdar</i>	: Subordinate military officer under the Mughals
<i>Garara</i>	: Loose trouser worn by women
<i>Gotra</i>	: Clan
<i>Gur</i>	: Jaggery
<i>Gurudwara</i>	: The place of worship for Sikhs
<i>Gurukul</i>	: Residential-educational institution of the past, often at guru's own place
<i>Halqabandi</i>	: Circle comprising a number of villages or tract of land

Jizail	: A military weapon
Kabaddi	: Indian outdoor game
Kachha Arhat	: A kind of wholesale trade
Kajri	: A type of folk song
Kankar	: A coarse kind of limestone found in soil
Kansa	: Bronze
Kanungo	: The pargana accountant and registrar a subordinate revenue official, higher to <i>lekhpal</i>
Khandsari	: Unrefined sugar
Khawa	: A milk product milk thickened by boiling
Kurta	: Loose collarless shirt worn usually by men
Ledha phul	: An alloy
Lekhpal	: Revenue official (formerly designated <i>patwari</i>) who keeps revenue records and collects agricultural statistics
Madarsa	: School
Mahakavya	: Epic
Mahal	: Unit of land, (comprising several villages) under separate engagement for payment of revenue
Mahalwar Jama	: Revenue demand relating to a mahal
Mahua	: <i>Madhuca longifolia</i>
Maktals	: School for muslim children
Mal-kar	: Goods-tax
Man	: A measure of weight
Mandi	: Wholesale market
Manjira	: Cymbal
Masoor	: A pulse
Maulvi	: Muslim teacher
Mauza	: A revenue village unit
Moong	: Green gram
Naib	: Assistant, deputy
Nautankis	: Open air musical theatrical like traditional performance
Nirodha	: Salvation
Nyaya	: Justice
Ofha	: Exorcist
Paipusa	: A marriage rite
Palki	: Palanquin
Panch	: A committee of five persons
Pandal	: A large tent



Engraving on Stone Pakka Ghat, Mirzapur

<i>Paratha</i>	: Chapati cooked with ghee
<i>Phul</i>	: An alloy
<i>Pradhan</i>	: President
<i>Pramukh</i>	: Chairman
<i>Prasad</i>	: Offering made before deity or God
<i>Qiladar</i>	: Keeper of fort
<i>Rasia</i>	: A folk song
<i>Sardar Qanungo</i>	: A revenue official
<i>Salwar</i>	: Pyjama, a narrow at the ankle
<i>Sarpanch</i>	: Head of <i>nyaya</i> panchayat
<i>Sapurdar</i>	: Caretaker
<i>Ser</i>	: Seer
<i>Sharara</i>	: Loose trouser worn by women
<i>Sherwani</i>	: A type of long coat
<i>Shramdan</i>	: Voluntary labour
<i>Surma</i>	: Medicinal powder, usually grey or black applied to eyes
<i>Suyurghaie</i>	: Allowances, both in cash or kind, granted during Mughal period
<i>Takhat</i>	: Armless wooden couch
<i>Tamra patra</i>	: Copper plate
<i>Tappa</i>	: Subdivision of a district during pre-British period
<i>Tilak</i>	: Sacred mark applied on the forehead
<i>Tirthankara</i>	: In Jainism, expounder of religion, deified hero or saint
<i>Upnayana</i>	: Sacred thread ceremony among Hindus
<i>Up-pramukh</i>	: Vice-chairman
<i>Urd</i>	: A pulse, black gram
<i>Urs</i>	: Commemoration of death anniversary of a Muslim saint at his tomb
<i>Vakil</i>	: Pleader
<i>Vikas-kar</i>	: Development tax
<i>Vrihat Jot-kar</i>	: Large holding tax
<i>Yajna</i>	: Religious sacrifice
<i>Yatri-kar</i>	: Tax on travellers of motor vehicles

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