

REPORTS

1431

ON THE

SETTLEMENT OPERATIONS

IN THE

DISTRICT OF AZAMGARH:

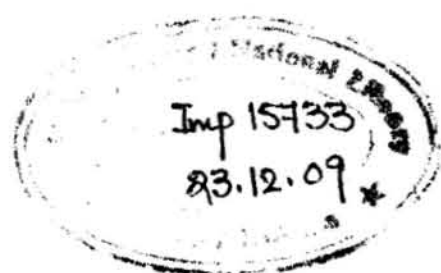
AS ALSO IN PARGANAS SIKANDARPUR AND BHADAON.



ALLAHABAD:

NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH GOVERNMENT PRESS.

1881.



FROM

J. S. MACKINTOSH, Esq.,
SECY. TO THE BOARD OF REVENUE, N.-W. P.,

TO

C. ROBERTSON, Esq.,
SECY. TO GOVT., N.-W. P. AND OUDH.

Dated Allahabad, the 21st May, 1879.

SIR, *

DEPARTMENT I.

DEPARTMENT OF LAND
REVENUE.

Present :
J. REID, Esq.,
Senior Member.

I am desired by the Senior Member to submit, for the orders of the Hon'ble the Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. J. R. Reid's Settlement Report for the temporarily-settled parganas of the Azamgarh district, with the following review of the same.

2. The district, which lies in the Benares Division, contains sixteen parganas, included in six tahsils. Two parganas, Sikandarpur and Bha-daon, lying in the extreme east of the district, and forming with pargana Nathupur the Sikandarpur tahsil, are permanently-settled. They also have come under settlement with a view to the revision of the record-of-rights, but they are excluded from the report under review, which deals with the remaining fourteen parganas, which are, either wholly or for the most part, temporarily-settled.

3. These parganas, lying between 25° 39' and 26° 23' north latitude and 82° 42' and 83° 49' east longitude, and at an average height of 255 feet above the sea level, have an area of 2,147 square miles, of which 55·82 per cent. is under cultivation, 17·14 per cent. is culturable waste and 27·04 per cent. is either unfit for cultivation or is permanently occupied by roads and village sites. The tract is part of the Gangetic plain. It has a very gentle slope towards the south-east except in the neighbourhood of the river Gogra, which forms its northern boundary. The main drainage channels run east and south-east. Its surface is generally even and broken only by the rivers, streams and ravines, which carry off the natural drainage. The southern portion of this tract, which has an area of about 92·5 square miles of which 54 per cent. is cultivated, belongs to the bāngar or uplying part of the Gangetic plain, which is formed mainly of marine estuary deposits. It consists of a series of narrow parallel sections of country lying west and east, and divided from each other by lines of swamps which are dry or nearly so in the hot weather, but which form in the rainy season a large shallow lake. As the outlets from these swamps work eastward and deepen, the country bordering on them is well drained, but new catchment basins and drainage systems ending in well-defined water-courses are found in the table-land lying between the deepened channels. The hamlets are generally planted on high spots, round which the ordinary spring and autumn crops are grown. Below them lie the rice lands, or else usar tracts impregnated with reh. The northern portion of the district consists of two distinct parts (1) the bāngar or old alluvium and (2) the kachhār or newer alluvial tract. The former has an area of 960 square miles, of which 61½ per cent. is cultivated. There are large swamps, though not as extensive as those in the southern portion, and also usar plains. The kachhār tract is again subdivided into (1) the Choti Sarju kachhār with an area of 196 square miles, of which 44 per cent. is cultivated, and (2) the Gogra kachhār of 66 square miles, of which only 29½ per cent. were under cultivation in 1872-73. The deposits of the Gogra are mainly sand. This river, which separates Azamgarh from Gorakhpur oscillates in the first named district within an area ranging from two to six miles. It has recently shown a tendency to revert to its old channel close to the bāngar country. The kachhār tracts are less fertile and prosperous than the uplying lands, especially those parts of it which are liable to inundation. They contain but

little usar land. Amongst the most remarkable features of the Choti Sarju alluvial tract are the three large lakes abounding in fish and water-fowl and in floating masses of vegetation. The prevailing soils in the southern part of the district are argillaceous (1) the clean grey clay (*matyār*), (2) the black soil called *karail*, and (3) the whitish or yellowish grey *kabsa* found on the confines of the raised waste tracts. Clay is also found in the uplying portion of the northern tract, but there the prevailing soil is *balsundara* a mixture of clay and sand, the latter preponderating. When it is very light it is known as *balui*.

4. Mr. Reid states that though the risk of famine from total failure of the rainfall is small, the district is liable to suffer severely and not infrequently from partial droughts. The meteorological returns from 1844-45 to 1875-76 (those for 1853-54 to 1858-59 are not given) show a total annual fall ranging from 20·8 inches in 1859-60 to 57·1 inches in 1871-72. In 1877-78 the fall was only 19·3 inches. Transplanted rice requires a very large quantity of water (this crop covers in the south of the district between forty and fifty per cent. of the cultivated area). It is ordinarily irrigated from *jhils* which are dependent on the rainfall, and the principal means of irrigation consequently are themselves very precarious. There is, of course, far more irrigation in the uplying than in the alluvial lands where water is so near the surface, and the subsoil so porous that even sugarcane is grown without watering. The minor streams and *nālas* are important sources of irrigation, though but little use is made of the Gogra and its branches. There are about 18,000 masonry irrigation wells in this district, irrigating about 14½ acres on the average. Well irrigation is supposed to be more beneficial than tank water to the spring crops and sugarcane, but the latter is preferred for all ordinary field crops, the irrigation being both cheaper and easier.

Kachcha wells are dug at a trifling cost after the rainy season and last usually only till the commencement of the following rains. In the uplying parts of the northern division water is generally found during the dry months at fifteen or sixteen feet from the surface, in the *kachhār* at eight or ten feet, and in the *bāngar* tract in the southern division at eighteen or twenty feet. On the subject of the need for irrigation canals, the Settlement Officer writes as follows:—"With water so near the surface, wells so easily constructed, and a rainfall which has never within memory been an utter failure, Azamgarh is not in need of canals for the autumn sugarcane and spring crops. The rice tracts only in some seasons require artificial supplies of water. If canals were constructed to the westward in Oudh, a system of channels in continuation of them, and to be kept open and worked only during the rainy season, might be devised for this district, which, ramifying along the watersheds, would communicate with the chief rice tracts, swamps, and natural drainage lines. Were such a system constructed, the swamps and drainage lines would become part of it, and the management of the waterflow in them would pass to Government officers. The outturn of the rice crops would then be comparatively uniform from year to year, and the distress which the people suffer from their periodical failure, as well as the difficulty that arises therefrom in collecting the land revenue, would be prevented. In fact, the revenue of many rice tracts, which the uncertainty of their assets keeps low, might be considerably raised, and much land now waste would doubtless come under cultivation. For, vicissitudes of season being obviated, rice is one of the most easily raised and repaying of cereals. But in the circumstances before described, would these advantages warrant the cost of making and keeping up such a system of canals?" The Senior Member would invite His Honor's attention to Mr. Reid's remarks regarding relief in seasons of drought (para. 83 of his report.)

5. Metalled roads connect Azamgarh with Benares, Jaunpur, Gházipur and Dohrighát on the Gogra (the last runs on to Gorakhpur), and Dohrighát with Gházipur. The Azamgarh portion of the road between Fyzabad and Azamgarh (via Tanda) was formerly metalled, but

the metalling is no longer renewed. The means of communication between the north and south portions of the east of the district are very deficient. Carts are seldom seen on some of the unmetalled roads. The traffic up and down the Gogra was formerly considerable, but has declined of late. The food-grains, tobacco, &c., produced in the northern parts of the district are carried in boats both eastward and westward. The import trade is still considerable. Grain is imported from Gorakhpur, Basti, and the trans-Gogra districts of Oudh (Gonda and Bahraich) in exchange for sugar, of which the export however is limited. None of the minor streams of the district are navigable throughout the year. There is a little local traffic in grain, sugar, and firewood.

6. The population of the temporarily-settled parganas is 1,317,544, the average per square mile being 613. The four towns of Azamgarh, Mau, Mubarakpur, and Kopa contain 47,042 inhabitants. The remainder 1,270,512 reside in 18,000 to 19,000 villages ranging from hamlets of a few huts to little towns. The villages are small and close together, the average to the square mile being eight or more, and their average population about fifty. The Settlement Officer considers the diffusion of the people over so many villages highly advantageous, as it ensures more renovating matter finding its way directly into the soil than if they collected together in a small number of larger villages. By the census returns of 1872, there were 242,348 enclosures (or separate buildings) in the district, of which 465 only were constructed by skilled labour, i. e., were built of kiln-burnt bricks by professional brick-layers. In the towns the houses of all classes, and in the villages those of landholders, traders, writers, artisans and tenant cultivators of the higher castes, are built of mud and are mostly tiled, but a very large proportion of the lower caste cultivators live in thatched huts. The population is chiefly Hindu, there being 1,139,211 (86·47 per cent.) Hindus to 178,343 (13·53 per cent.) Musalmans. Of the several Hindu castes the more numerous are the Chamars (204,021), Ahirs (202,824), Kshatrias (113,089), Brahmans (92,752), Bhars (57,099), Koeris (51,753) Bhuinhars (41,748), Loniya (42,799) and Banias (36,243). Of the *Bhuinhars*, who claim to be of Brahman stock, there are several *gots* (families); of the Muhammadan population, *Milkis* form the aristocracy. They are subdivided into Sayyads and Sheikhs, and are reported to be descendants of Arabian Muhammadans. The other Musalman subdivisions are—Valayati Pathans and Valayati Mughals, the descendants of immigrants from the north-west of India; Indian Muhammadans, subdivided into (a) Sheikhs and Pathans descended from Brahman, Bhuinhar and Kshatri converts, (b) a variety of castes who retain the name and trade of the Hindu caste to which their ancestors belonged before conversion, as Turk Koeris, Turk Telis, Turk Dhobis, (c) Zamindaras, descendants of Hindu converts, described by Mr. Reid as most industrious and skilful cultivators (d) Arakis, who claim to be descended from immigrants from Irak, and (e), handicraftsmen, artisans and traders.

7. Three-fourths (75·01 per cent. or 1,030,904 acres) of the district are owned by Hindu proprietors, of whom the Kshatrias hold more than one-third of the district, viz., 35·67 per cent. or 490,250 acres. Next come Bhuinhars (16·26 per cent. or 223,468 acres), then Brahmans (10·96 per cent. or 150,722 acres). 25,392 acres are owned by low caste Hindus, 45,587 by bankers and traders and 84,900 by miscellaneous castes. Of the Muhammadan landholders the Milkis own 187,549, Zamindaras 69,572, Indian Pathans 30,284, and Valayati Pathans 16,315 acres. 33,654 acres are held by Christians (27,385 by Europeans and 6,268 by Eurasians). Mr. Reid has given in section 8 of his report a very full and detailed account of the several proprietary and cultivating classes, and also of the largest landowning families in the district.

8. Tenant cultivators are divided into two classes (a) those who employ farm laborers; among the Hindus, Brahmans, Bhuinhars and Kshatrias, and sometimes Bhats, Kayaths and Sonars; and among the Muhammadans, Milkis, Mughals and Valayati and Indian Pathans, (b)

those who are not employers of farm labor; among the Hindus Zamindaras, Chamárs, Ahírs, Bhárs, Koeris, Luníyás, Kunbís and Pasis; among the Muhammadans the mixed classes. The former (a) are frequently the descendants of ex-proprietors and (including the Zamindaras) generally acknowledge the landlord's right only to a fixed rent in cash or grain. The low caste resident cultivators are known as *parjas* (*parja* is the Sanskrit equivalent of our term "subject") and are accustomed to render to the landlord petty dues and service, and look on him as their feudal superior. They are frequently allotted to the several co-sharers in villages, the lands of which are held in severalty.

9. Rendering the term *mauza* by "village," there are 5,532 villages in the fourteen temporarily-settled parganas of Azamgarh with areas ranging from $1\frac{1}{2}$ acre to 5,513 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres, and an average area of 248 acres; 966 villages are uninhabited. The land is divided into small fields, the average being $4\frac{1}{2}$ fields per acre. It sometimes happens that the fields lying in one village are owned by the proprietors of another village, of which last they are held to form a part. The average number of recorded proprietors per village is 32, and their average share $7\frac{3}{4}$ acres, and the average cultivated holding $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The total number of proprietors recorded in the village share lists is 175,761. The number of *maháls* (estates) is much below that of the mauzas being 3,446. They are held by 107,952 proprietors. *Maháls* consist of a whole, or part of a mauza, or of two or more whole mauzas or parts of mauzas. The more complex *maháls* contain several mauzas and parts of mauzas; there are some whose lands are scattered in a number of villages over an area of 20 or 25 square miles. The simplest proprietary tenure is the *zamindari*, under which the lands are undivided, as far as the proprietorship is concerned, though there may be many sharers, and individual sharers may be entitled to hold certain lands as cultivators. A more complicated tenure is where the greater portion of the land is divided among the several co-proprietors, and part is held to be the common property of the whole community. In many cases, what was formerly the common land has been divided, and the whole area is held in severalty of possession. Such cases are rare. In complex *maháls* containing several villages and parts of villages, a mauzawar division of the estate is seldom met with. "One main patti alone may hold in one or two mauzas, another patti in another mauza or two, a third patti in a third mauza, while all the pattis hold in the remaining mauzas, but generally all the pattis have shares in all the mauzas. Minute subdivision is often confined to the chief mauzas of the *maháls*. In these all the proprietary households have land while the smaller and less important mauzas or bits of mauzas are held jointly by the whole body of proprietors, or are divided only among the main pattis whose proprietors hold their share in common." The most common basis of proprietary interest is ancestral right. Ancestral shares are usually expressed in fractions of a rupee, the fractional parts varying considerably in different estates and parganas (see the curious standard tables of rights and interests in use in Azamgarh in the fifth appendix of the report). Even where the ancestral share has disappeared in the cultivated land, it is maintained for the manorial products and waste and sometimes even in the common cultivated land. The distribution by ancestral right came to be disturbed when estates were sold for arrears of revenue, and the old proprietors recovered their estates through private arrangements with the auction-purchaser; some of them paid up the purchase-money to the full extent of their ancestral rights, others in part only, while others, again, contributed nothing towards the re-purchase of the estate. "The purchaser retained the shares which were not paid for, and a new scale of interests in fractions of an unit that represented the purchase-money was introduced." The term *khantaiti* is applied to *maháls* or mauzas in which shares are expressed in fractions of a given unit. In very many estates the extent of a sharer's holding is the measure of his right. This class of tenure is styled *bighadam*. The land which each member of the proprietary community holds is considered his separate and several property. Mr. Reid has described in paras. 326, 327 and 328 of his report (pages 92-3) how this

tenure grew up. A reference to paras. 330, 331 and 332 will show the difficulties which beset the preparation of the record of rights, a subject which will be treated in a later part of this review. Besides what Mr. Reid terms "the plenary proprietary tenures" there is the *arazidari*, under which plots of land (*arazis*) are held on a distinct tenure from, and convey no title to, any right or interest in the mauza or mahal. The holders of these plots (*arazidars*) are frequently the descendants or representatives of revenue-free holders whose holdings were resumed on the ground of invalid title; their names have now been included in the share lists, and they are counted as proprietors. The common lands of the estate are cultivated generally by tenants. Even the sharer who cultivates in them holds as a tenant. The rents are collected by the managers of each patti according to its share. In some cases the rents payable by certain tenants are assigned to some particular patti. The rents of these common lands are not usually collected by the lambardars, who have, as a rule, no more influence or power than their co-sharers. Indeed, with so large a number of petty sharers, all of whom are much on the same level as regards means and character, the lambardari system breaks down. Moreover, Mr. Reid's *bachbandis* (which will be noticed further on) make the collection of rent and revenue by the lambardars even less necessary than it has hitherto been. In about thirty villages, inferior proprietors (*mushakhsidars*) are found. They are the descendants either of former zemindars or of men who reclaimed the land, and brought it under cultivation, or who received from the zemindars grants bestowed either from religious or worldly motives and subject to a quit rent. The revenue is paid by the *malguzars* or superior proprietors under whom the *arazidars* hold permanent hereditary leases.

10. The cultivating tenures found in the temporarily-settled parganas are of three kinds—(1) *str*; (2) occupancy holdings; (3) holdings at will. The *str* lands are those which are held by proprietors and sub-proprietors as cultivators (the *str* may be sub-let). 32·62 per cent. of the cultivated area, (i.e., 250,245 acres) is held as *str*, 73,964 acres are also cultivated by proprietors in villages other than their own. Thus 42·26 per cent. (324,209 acres) of the cultivated area is held by proprietors, their average holding being 4·97 acres. Tenants cultivate 442,853 acres, of which 264,345 are in the hands of occupancy tenants, and 178,508 acres are held by tenants-at-will. Mr. Reid divides occupancy tenancies into two classes; (a) privileged tenures created by proprietors as incumbrances on their estates, such as *sankalaps*, *birts*, and land held in compensation for, or as the residue of, proprietary rights, or for maintenance; (b), the ordinary occupancy tenancies which accrue under the Rent Law. Tenants pay rent both in cash and in kind. Of land cultivated by tenants 89·98 per cent. (398,479 acres) is held on the former, and 10·02 per cent. (44,383 acres) on the latter, which obtain chiefly in lands on which precarious crops (e.g., rice) are grown. The landlord's share of the produce varies largely. "Some landlords take delivery of grain, others take its value in money; and in almost all villages the landlord has no interest in the straw or chaff, all of it belongs to the tenant." It is curious to find in the Azamgarh district, under a somewhat analogous name (*dekhsun*), a system similar to that which exists in the Jalau district by the name of *dekhaparkhi*, under which rents are reduced in unfavourable years (see para. 344, page 98 of the report). In para. 345 Mr. Reid describes and illustrates the influence of occupancy tenures and of caste on rents.

11. The tenth section of the first chapter of Mr. Reid's report contains very full and interesting information regarding the following subjects
 System of agriculture. (1) cattle; (2) manure; (3) methods of irrigation; and (4) the different kinds of produce and methods of raising them. The number of cattle is estimated at 6,16,000, of which 2,70,300 are plough-bullocks mostly bred in the district, their price ranging between 25 and 50 rupees a pair. The manure chiefly used is human, cattle manure being employed largely in the manufacture of fuel owing to the scarcity of firewood. Cattle and sheep are sometimes penned on the land. The manure available is applied mostly to fields growing sugarcane, and the

residue to lands cropped with wheat, barley, and peas. The methods of irrigation in use have been briefly noticed in a preceding paragraph. Rice is grown on 227,281 acres, and rabi crops on 422,254 acres. Transplanted rice occupies nearly 80 per cent. of the rice lands. The areas under the principal spring crops are as follow :—

					Acres.
Wheat	9,846
Barley	207,170
Peas	88,181
Wheat and barley	7,339
Barley and peas	14,970
Gram	6,686
Linseed	4,383
Arhar	3,294
Latri	2,466
Masur	1,169

No less than 91,297 acres grow sugarcane, while 46,267 acres come under "fallow for sugarcane and sugarcane sowings." Indigo is raised on 8,972, poppy on 8,327, and garden crops on 2,338 acres.

12. The chief towns and markets are—Azamgarh (population 15,770), Mau Nath-Towns, markets and trade. bhanjan (11,700); Mubarakpur (12,337) Kopaganj (6,600) and Muhamadabad Gohna (6,250). The grain market of Dohri on the Gogra, one of the largest and most important in the district, is chiefly supplied from the trans-Gogra districts of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The principal imports are grain, English made cloth, yarn, cotton, silk, dried tobacco, salt, metals hardware, drugs and leather goods, the exports being sugar, molasses, indigo, opium, and cloth. Refined sugar (*chini*) forms one of the principal exports. The number of sugar refineries is 1,567, and the outturn in favourable years about 1,300,982 standard maunds, of which five per cent. may be deducted for local consumption, leaving 1,235,933 maunds (45,402 tons) for export. At the average price of the last seventeen years the value of the estimated exports of refined sugar is put down by Mr. Reid at Rs. 1,12,97,201, and of molasses at Rs. 6,76,917, the value of the total estimated exports of sugar stuff amounting thus to Rs. 1,19,74,118. The manufacture of indigo for export dates, Mr. Reid states, from the early years of British rule in the district. Seven factories were erected in 1807. At the time the mutiny broke out there were at least nine concerns of which the head-quarters were in the Azamgarh district. The comparatively high prices of 1864 and the following years created a rage for factory building. Of 415 factories now standing in the district, 332 have been built within the last fourteen years, of which 386 are the property of, or held by, natives. The indigo made in the district is sold in Calcutta. The outturn of the native factories realizes from one-half to one-third less than that of the European factories. Mr. Reid estimates that it would not be safe to reckon the average value of indigo exports at present at more than Rs. 1,70,000, from which sum about Rs. 20,000 must be deducted for brokerage and other charges out of the district. Opium, or rather poppy, is grown in 8,327 acres; the produce is sold to Government. Forty years ago, Mr. Thomason estimated the outturn at 1,700 maunds of crude opium, the approximate price of which was Rs. 5,00,000. The average outturn for 16 years (1858-59 to 1873-74) was 1,619 maunds, and the average price at which it was purchased by Government from the growers, Rs. 3,16,967, the yearly average of producers being 12,000, and their average receipts Rs. 24. The cloth trade of the district has declined but is yet of some importance. 13,058 looms are employed in the manufacture of coarse cloths from yarn spun by women of all castes in all parts of the district. The cloth forms the dress of most of the low caste out-door laboring classes, a fair share of the lower ranks of other classes, and a large proportion of the females of the lower and middle ranks of all classes. The only other articles of export trade are saltpetre and hides, of which statistics are given in paras. 563 and 564, pp. 177-1 of the report.

13. The detached permanently-assessed villages which fall now within the fourteen

The early fiscal history of the district. temporarily-settled parganas (all of which with the exception of Mahul and Atraulia are named as they were in the time of the Emperor Akbar) were included in those parganas only at last settlement when pargana boundaries within the Azamgarh district and between Azamgarh and the districts of Jaunpur and Gházipur were rectified. In a tabular statement at page 175 of his report, Mr. Reid gives the cultivated areas and revenue of twelve parganas in the time of Akbar (taken from the Ain-i-Akbari) and at the present settlement. The cultivated area has risen from 1,06,003 to 5,87,797 acres, and the revenue from 252,643 to 14,66,900 (the last sum including the 10 per cent. local cess). The most remarkable contrast between the two periods is shown in the case of pargana Nizamabad, of which the present cultivated area and revenue are 158,703 acres and Rs. 4,47,531 against 3,797 acres, and Rs. 15,065 in Akbar's time. Mr. Reid thinks that the Ain-i-Akbari figures are incorrect and the area understated. Chakla Azamgarh, taluka Mahul and pargana Mau Nathbhanjan with a specified jama of Rs. 8,04,002 were ceded by the Nawab Wazir of Oudh in 1801. In December of that year the Collector of Benares was directed to take charge of the parganas (including the three tracts above named), which were to form the new district of Gorakhpur, from the Oudh Amils. The revenue at the cession estimated from the Amils' accounts amounted to Rs. 6,93,767, and of the second year after the cession, as fixed by Mr. Routledge (the Collector) was Rs. 6,19,781. The highest jamas of the settlements which followed Mr. Routledge's were :—

2nd settlement (1213-1215 Fasli)	8,57,346
3rd „ (1216-1219 „)	9,28,085
4th „ (1220-1229 „)	9,33,035
5th „ „ „ „	12,42,274

Mr. Reid has given in the first section of the second chapter of his report a full and interesting account of the fiscal history of the district during the period comprised within the term of the settlements preceding the fifth made under Regulation IX. of 1833 by Mr. Thomason and by Mr. Montgomery. In the fifth settlement the village boundaries were demarcated and each village was surveyed, the revenue was fixed for a term of 20 years afterwards extended to 50 years, and a record of rights was framed for every village. In both the fourth and fifth settlements the jama was fixed at a percentage (varying from 50 to 66) on the actual or supposed assets. At the former, the assessments were mostly made on regularly prepared rent-rolls, or estimates of the actual assets. In the latter, average rent rates were assumed for the rice land and the land growing all other crops, and the resulting rental checked by comparing the average rate thus falling on the total cultivation with an assumed average rate for the pargana. The jama of the fifth settlement was Rs. 3,09,239, or 33½ per cent. above that of the fourth, but upwards of one-fourth of the enhancement was due to the assessment to revenue of villages and lands previously held rent-free, and of *taufir*, the enhancement on the old revenue-paying estates being only Rs. 2,20,275 or 23½ per cent. more than the jama of the preceding settlement. The enhanced jama was collected with regularity. The Azamgarh records were destroyed in the mutinies, but Mr. Reid believes that not more than a single estate or part of an estate was put up for sale for arrears of revenue, and that of the very few estates, less than a dozen, which have been farmed or held under direct management, none were alienated from the proprietors for more than three years, and that in all these cases the arrears were due to internal dissensions and not to the pressure of the Government demand. The records prepared at the fifth settlement were destroyed with the Collector's record-room during the disturbances of 1857-58. A partial and unsuccessful attempt, which came to an abrupt end in 1864, was made to recompile the records. Section VII. of chapter II. of the Report deals with the transfers of land during the fifth settlement. For reasons which he has stated Mr. Reid has not attempted to give any returns of mortgages and other temporary transfers. 199,014 acres were alienated by private, and 31,326 by auction sale. The

average price per cultivated acre rose from Rs 24-1-11 at private and Rs. 14-4-3 at auction sale, in the first decade of the term of the fifth settlement, to Rs. 53-10-11, and Rs. 39-7-8 in the 3rd decade. The land sold amounted to 17·7 per cent. of the whole area of the district, 3·56 per cent having been purchased by cosharers, 3·55 by relatives, 6·02 by other landholders and 4·57 by mahajans.

14. The fifth settlement expired in June, 1867, and preparations for its revision commenced with the deputation of Mr. Joseph Vaughan from Gorakhpur in 1866. Pending the arrival of Mr. Lumsden, who was to take up the settlement of Azamgarh after completing that of Gorakhpur, Mr. Vaughan worked under the orders of the Collector of the district. The demarcation of boundaries was effected through thakbast amins whose salaries were defrayed by the zamindars. The boundary maps were made with the prismatic compass, and carefully checked and compared in the office with the maps of adjacent villages before the interior survey was started. The interior survey was first made in blocks which were then filled in by the chain, scale and compasses. An unfortunate attempt to work through imperfectly instructed patwaris threw the survey back by a whole year. The survey of the district was effected between 1866-67 and 1872-73. The preparation and attestation of the *khatiaunis* and assessment papers were taken up for each pargana during the hot weather and rains following the field season during which the survey, &c., had been made, while the khewats and village administration papers were prepared and attested in the cold weather following the survey, and the new rent-rolls in the seasons following the declaration of the revised assessments. The record of rights for the temporarily settled parganas was compiled between 1867 and 1876. The settlement records were passed into the Collector's record-room as they were completed, the last volume being made over on the 27th March, 1877.

15. In no district which has come under revision of settlement has the record of rights been prepared with such care and thoroughness as in Azamgarh. The difficulty of the task was very greatly enhanced by the existence of large numbers of complex mahals consisting frequently of whole or parts of many mauzas in which, again, large numbers of sharers held in varying proportions, varying, that is, in individual villages. (See Mr. Reid's sections on "Tenures" pages 87-99, and "Records" pages 224-227). The share lists (*khewats*) were prepared mauzawar, and from the mauzawar lists, again, lists were drawn up for all mahals which included more than one mauza. Further, every coparcener's share in the different mauzas comprised in the mahal were brought together and the revenue charges on each totalled. Every sharer received a copy of this statement of liabilities (styled a *bachh bandi*) showing in detail his interests in, and revenue liabilities in regard to, every village in the common estate before the collection of the new revenue began, the lists for each pargana being bound up in a volume and made over to the tahsildar at the same time. It is difficult to estimate at its proper value the immense boon thus conferred by Mr. Reid on the revenue-payers of the Azamgarh district. The interests and revenue liabilities of the proprietors of patches of land (*arazidars*) and of sub-proprietors were ascertained and recorded with equal care. Special efforts were made to draw up with accuracy and completeness the more important clauses of the village administration paper, *viz.*, those which relate to the constitution of the estate. The work was done on the spot, so to speak; see page 227). The entries were made in the presence of the leading men of the estate, whose names were recorded at the foot of the paper above the signature of the attesting officer. Any objection made by a sharer was recorded. After the document was completed all the entries relating to rent-free and sub-proprietary holdings, &c., were compared with those in the other records and discrepancies and omissions put right. The *bachh-bandis* were furnished gratis to every landholder. All applicants for other settlement records affecting themselves were supplied with copies at cost price; a large number of copies have been thus issued. The landholders were encouraged to take copies of the maps and khasras of their villages; armed with these

Documents the Azamgarh zamindar is more than a match for the village accountant. The landholders are no longer at the mercy of the patwari. The commonest cause both of litigation and default—uncertainty regarding each sharer's interests and liabilities—has disappeared. It would be a happy thing for the other districts of the Benares division if they possessed a record of rights framed with equal care.

16. The very careful and complete character of Mr. Reid's work in every Department whether of survey, field measurement, ascertainment of rent rates and rentals, assessment to revenue, and lastly the preparation of the record of rights, proprietary and cultivatory, necessarily entailed the expenditure not only of very great personal labour on his own and his Assistants' part, but also of money. The money has been well laid out. The cost of the revision of settlement amounted to Rs. 7,33,519-5-7. Rs. 51,414-12-4 has been credited to Government on account of refund, fines, process fees, court fees, &c. The net cost of the sixth settlement of the Azamgarh district thus comes to Rs. 6,82,104-9-3. The Government land revenue demand has been raised finally 33 per cent., and Mr. Reid was able to state in April, 1877, that the cost of the settlement had already been more than covered by the increase in the revenue. Looking at the work Mr. Reid has turned out, the Senior Member is surprised at the moderation of the charges incurred. It was only by the exercise of strict economy, and the settlement officer's personal scrutiny of the monthly bills, that the charges were kept so low.

17. The fact of the land revenue demand of the last year of the fifth settlement having been raised finally at the sixth settlement from Rs. 12,45,722 to Rs. 16,61,623 (*i. e.* by Rs. 4,15,901 or 33 per cent.) is, *per se*, startling. But an examination of the rent rates from which Mr. Reid evolved the rental which he assumed as the basis of the assessment to revenue, and of the painstaking processes by which those rent rates were arrived at, with a consideration of the reasons which led the settlement officer to assume as the basis of his assessment rentals considerably below those which resulted from an application of his assumed rent rates serve to convince the Senior Member of the propriety of the revised jamas imposed by Mr. Reid. Had Mr. Reid assessed at half the rental arrived at by means of the classification of the area, and the selected rent rates, *viz.*, Rs. 34,81,649, he would have fixed the jama of the district at Rs. 17,40,825, *i. e.*, 4,95,103, or nearly 40 per cent. above the jama of the fifth settlement. But as, by section 20 of the North-Western Provinces Rent Act, Rent Courts are bound to take the caste of the tenant into consideration, wherever it is proved that by local custom caste is taken into account in determining such rate, he worked on reduced rent rates in the case of high caste tenants who, by the custom of the district, are entitled to hold at lower rates than low caste tenants. At page 99 of the report will be found a tabular statement showing for each pargana the average rent rates paid by high and low caste occupancy tenants and tenants-at-will. In the case of occupancy holdings the higher castes pay on an average Rs. 4-3-5 per acre against Rs. 5-5-0, and of tenants-at-will Rs. 4-6-3 against Rs. 4-0-9. Mr. Reid explains how the superior castes pay more as tenants-at-will, and also how custom to some extent rules the rent rate on lands in which right of occupancy does not exist. He further allowed, whenever it was necessary to do so, for the turbulent character of the tenants and the difficulty experienced by zamindars in realizing their rents in such cases; also for the precarious character of the assets of lands the outturn of which is dependant so largely on the rainfall, as in the case of ordinary rice growing lands. Where sharers were numerous, and especially in estates held by petty and poor high caste proprietors, "the fixing of the jama," Mr. Reid points out, "is not a matter of mere multiplication and division. The livelihood of the people must be considered, especially in mahals in which, owing to the lightness of the previous assessments, or the great increase discovered in the cultivation, the revenue must in any case be heavily enhanced." On the other hand, the presence of a *sayar* income (from lakes, marshes or jungle), and of culturable waste susceptible of immediate cultivation, and the prevalence in some estates of rent

rates higher than those assumed by the Settlement Officer have tended to raise the jama in certain cases above the amount, which would be obtained by the application of his selected rent rates.

18. The revised assessments were given out between December, 1869, and May, 1875. Mr. Reid, writing in April, 1877, stated that the jama had been collected, as far as is known, without recourse to any severer processes than were in vogue before. "It would, however, be absurd" he adds, "to say that the enhancement caused no inconvenience to the people. The distress was intensified in some of the earlier years by the accumulated losses from recurring bad seasons. In pargana Nizámábád, in particular, the outcry was great in the first year of the new assessment. Unfortunately the progressive system of introducing assessments had not been revived when that pargana was assessed. But during the last two years the seasons have not been on the whole unpropitious, and the collection of the revenue in Nizámábád, and in all the parganas but Mahul, seems to have been effected smoothly and easily enough. In Mahul some difficulty has been experienced in clearing the balance in recent years through the mismanagement of the Rája of Jaunpur's estate" (the largest in the district) "and from the indebtedness of other individuals with which the assessment of the land revenue is not connected." A reference to the late district Annual Administration reports shows that in 1875-76, which can hardly be regarded as a good year, (the rice crop being 14 annas, cane 15 annas, arhar 12 annas, wheat 10, barley 9, and peas with gram 10 annas) the whole of the actual demand on account of land revenue was realized within the year without resort to any severe coercive processes. In 1876-77 a year of a very poor *kharif* harvest (rice $7\frac{1}{2}$ annas, Indian-corn 3 annas, cotton 4 annas, joár $6\frac{1}{2}$ annas, bájra $4\frac{1}{2}$ annas, urd and mung $9\frac{1}{2}$ annas, kodon $4\frac{1}{2}$ annas, sawán 4 annas, marwan 7 annas), but with good *rabi* crops (cane 15 annas, arhar 14 annas, wheat 10 annas, barley 12 annas, peas with gram 12 annas) the only land revenue balance was Rs. 292, suspended on account of losses from hail. In 1877-78, a year of drought, when the autumn and winter crops failed almost entirely and sugar-cane, the main source from which the land revenue is paid, was also almost a total failure, the landholders paid up within the year Rs. 18,57,492 out of a land revenue demand of Rs. 18,80,465. There can be no doubt that a considerable part of the demand of 1877-78 was paid with borrowed money. It was certainly not paid from the rental assets and the outturn of the land. But the year was an exceptional one and the punctual realization of the land revenue in the two preceding years may be accepted as sufficient proof of the moderation of Mr. J. R. Reid's assessments.

19. Mr. J. R. Reid had charge of the Azamgarh Settlement from August, 1868. Mr. Middleton Rogers served as Assistant Settlement Officer from March, 1871 to March, 1874, excepting for nine months, when he was absent on sick leave, and Mr. H. B. Finlay officiated for him. Mr. Vaughan joined the settlement in 1866, and is still engaged in completing the record of rights for the permanently-settled portion of the district. Maulvi Nazir Ahmad was appointed Settlement Deputy Collector of Azamgarh in October, 1871, and worked in the temporarily-settled parganas till October, 1875, when he was put in charge of the operations which had been started in the permanently-settled parganas. Munshi Ali Hasan was employed as Deputy Collector from the cold weather of 1867-68 to August, 1873.

20. In conclusion, I am desired by the Senior Member to bring to the notice of Government, the good service done by Mr. Reid in connection with the Azamgarh Settlement. With the exception of pargana Mahul, assessed by Mr. Middleton Rogers, the whole of the temporarily-settled parganas have been inspected and assessed by him with the most scrupulous and conscientious care. He has also superintended with equal care and fidelity the prepa-

ration and attestation of the settlement records of all kinds. His final settlement report is a perfect treasury of most valuable and interesting information concerning the district, as well as a full and honest record of the great work he has carried out. The memory of Mr. Middleton Rogers in connection with the settlement will be long kept alive by his very admirable report on the assessment of pargana Mahul. Mr. H. B. Finlay and Maulvi Nazir Ahmad proved themselves to be painstaking and careful officers, and have done excellent work. Of the assistance received by the Settlement Officer from Mr. Vaughan it is hardly possible to say too much. The Senior Member has been assured by Mr. Reid that he holds Mr. Vaughan's services in the highest estimation. The demarcation of the village boundaries, the field survey of the villages, and the fairing of the maps were mostly carried out under Mr. Vaughan's immediate superintendence. He supervised also the compilation and preparation of a great part of the settlement records.

I have the honor to be,

SIR,

Your most obedient servant,

J. S. MACKINTOSH,

Secretary.

CORRIGENDA.

THE Settlement Officer, and not the Press, is responsible for the errata. In the haste occasioned by the former officer's departure on furlough, the proof sheets were, it is regretted, imperfectly corrected.

PASSIM.

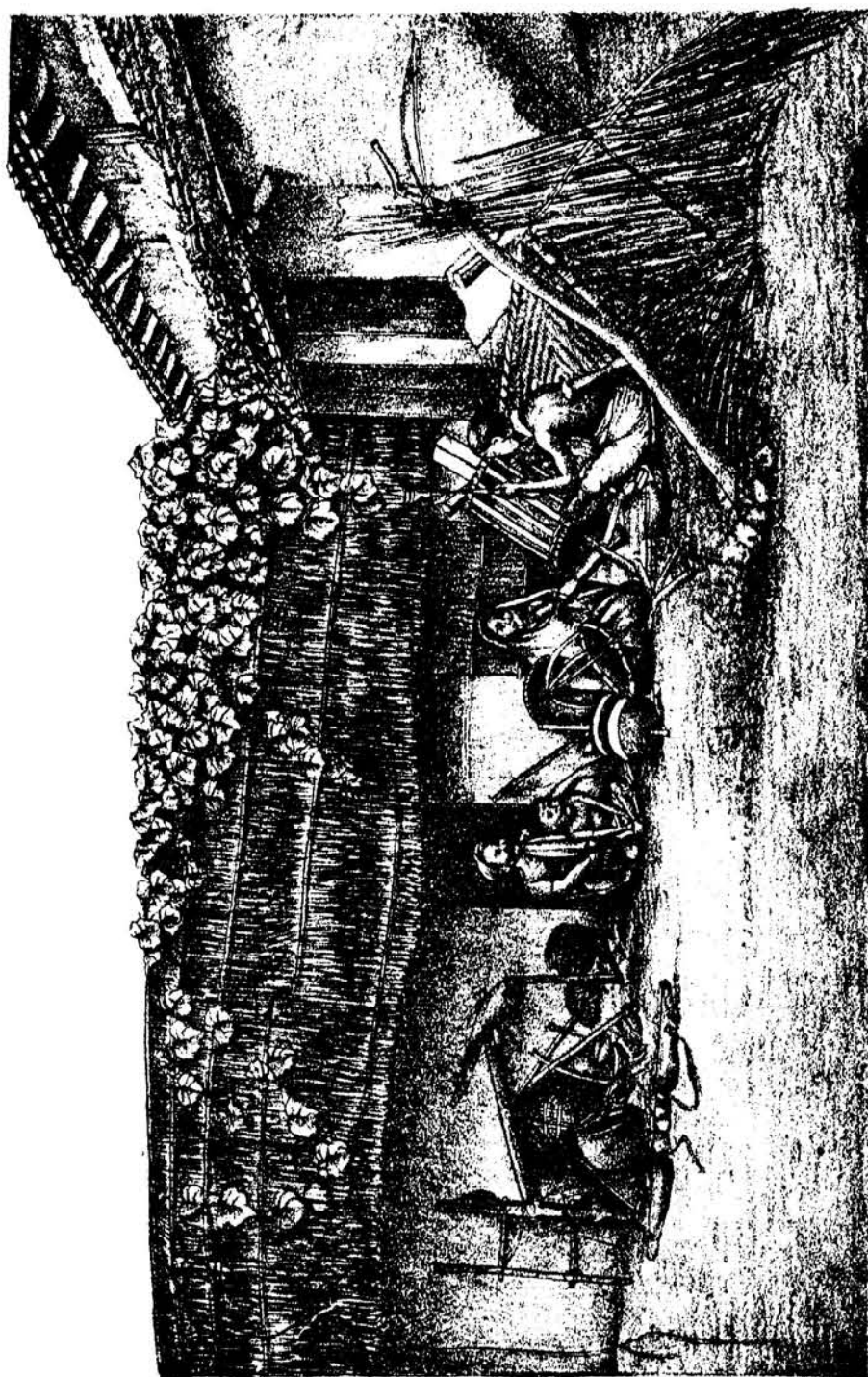
		For		read	
		"	Sagri	"	Sagri
		"	Kiriát Mittú	"	Kiriát Mittú
		"	Muhammadábád	"	Muhammadábád Gohna
		"	Nasrulláhpur	"	Nasrulláhpur
CHAPTER I.					
Para. 228	Line 2	"	pattí	"	Pattí
" 226	" 5	"	sons Marúf and Ali to	"	sons, Marúf and Ali, to
" 230	" 2	"	Mahammadábád [in the marginal reference]	"	Muhammadábád
" "	" 13	"	Bijau	"	Bijaulí
" 235	" 10	"	Ain-i-Akbarí	"	Ain-i-Akbarí
" 243	"	"	Bahú Muhammad Akbar [in number 3 of the statement]	"	Bábú Muhammad Akbar
" "		omit	Mir [in number 5 of the statement]		
" "		for	14½ [in column 11 against Kauriá in number 11 of the statement]	"	147½
" "		"	Mir Jafar [in number 16 of the statement]	"	Mir Jafar
" "		"	2, 96 [in column 12 against Total in number 19 of the statement]	"	2,496
" "		"	Shamánand [in number 34 of the statement]	"	Shámánand
" 263	" 7	"	Kaub	"	Kaul
" 264	" 9	"	Baráganw	"	Barágánw
" 299	"	"	jágir [in the marginal reference]	"	jágir
" 300	" 8	"	Kayaths	"	Kaiaths
" 301	"	"	to it and [in the footnote]	"	to it, and
" 303	" 18	"	is	"	are
" 305	" 1	"	in which	"	on which
" 311	"	"	Sagri [in the pargana column of the statement]	"	Sagri
" 319	" 13	"	Third, is	"	Third is
" "	" 17	"	waste and	"	waste, and
" 322	" 9	"	interest	"	interests
" 325	" 1	"	causes	"	cause
" 328	" 5	"	as well for	"	as well as for
" 331	" 7	"	Either the	"	Either, the
" 332	" 12	"	shares	"	sharers
" 334	" 4	"	has perhaps	"	have perhaps
" 337	"	"	51,508½ [in column 4 against Nizámábád of the statement]	"	51,503½
" "	"	"	42,268½ [in column 7 against Deogán of the statement]	"	42,268½
" "	"	"	12,541½ [in column 7 against Chiriákot of the statement]	"	12,541½
" 338	"	"	1,584½ [in column 5 against Sagri of the statement]	"	1,581½
" 342	Line 2	"	incumbrances	"	encumbrances
" 343	" 7	"	four-fifths	"	one-fifth
" 345	"	"	4-0-9 [in the last line of column 6 of the statement]	"	4-10-9
" 348	" 1	"	raised	"	bred
" 353	"	"	Gaurás [under the illustration]	"	Gaurás
" 357	" 10	"	annas	"	anas
" 360	" 1	"	tracts only	"	tracts, only
" 362	" 6	"	anna	"	aná
" "	" 21	"	at distance	"	at a distance
" 368	" 9	"	pie	"	pies
" "	" 11	"	one and a half acres	"	one acre and a half
" 367	"	"	Tráil under the third illustration	"	Taráil
" 369	" 6	"	well-head, to empty	"	well-head to empty
" 369	" 30	"	end upon	"	end, upon
" 376	" 3	"	pharukh into	"	pharukh, into
" "	" 20	"	levels	"	levels
" 377	"	"	7,722; 26,589; 119, 290; 8,187; 39,078; and 767,062 [in column 12 of the statement]	"	7,722½; 26,589½; 119,290½; 8,187½; 39,078½; and 767,062½
" 380	"	"	12 biswas [in the footnote]	"	twelve biswas
" 385	" 2	"	little	"	little
" 386	" 24	"	grain and	"	grain, and
" 388	" 4	"	Pátách	"	Pátách
" 389	" 5	"	(sathana)	"	(sathana)
" "	" 18	"	(bhat)	"	(bhat)
" 391	" 3	"	(winter)	"	(winter or spring)
" 394	" 14	"	(sixteen, ana)	"	(sixteen-ana)
" 399	" 1	"	bajrá or bajri jhupawad	"	bajri or bajrá jhupawad
" "	" 4	"	spicatum	"	spicatus
" 400	" 12	"	sugar,	"	sugarcane,

Para.	Line	3	for	latter	...	read	later
" 413	"	1	"	gojai	...	"	gojai
" 414	"	21	"	frost and damp cloudy weather, which	...	"	frost, and damp cloudy weather which
" 415	"	"	"	26 9, 16, 24, 27, 22, 18, 23, 36 [in column 2 of the statement]	...	"	36 9, 16 9, 24 13, 27 12, 22 4, 18 14, 23 10 and 36 10
" 417	"	4	"	to be well	...	"	too well
" 420	"	12	"	to water lodging about its roots and to frost	...	"	to harm from water lodging about its roots and from frost
" 422	"	1	"	cereals and	...	"	cereals, and
" "	"	6	"	in case of	...	"	in the case of
" 431	"	22	"	ploughs' breadth is	...	"	ploughs' breadths are
" "	"	31	"	kor.	...	"	kor,
" "	"	43	"	with dholā	...	"	by dholā
" 436	"	25	"	of nānd	...	"	of the nānd
" 441	"	5	"	one and a half anas	...	"	one anā and a half
" 442	"	4	"	(khatā)	...	"	(khatā)
" 446	"	5	"	mud well	...	"	mud wall
" "	"	7	"	jhukud	...	"	jhunkud
" 455	"	8	"	of four	...	"	or four
" 461	"	17	"	ras	...	"	ras
" 462	"	"	"	In pargana māhul. [in the marginal reference]	...	"	Its manufacture at Phulpur in pargana Māhul
" 469	"	3	for	kholāra	...	"	Kholara
" 472	"	5	"	Koiris:—	...	"	Koiris.
" 476	"	"	"	vilāyati	...	"	vilāyati
" 481	"	13	"	person	...	"	plants
" 485	"	1	"	to frost	...	"	of injury from frost ?
" 486	"	1	"	from different	...	"	for different
" 495	"	"	"	mahajan [in the marginal reference]	...	"	mahajan.
" 496	"	14	for	of agricultural	...	"	of the agricultural
" 498	"	1	"	received	...	"	receive
" "	"	11	"	baruā	...	"	baruā
" 501	"	12	"	Ilāhabās	...	"	Ilāhābās
" "	"	15	"	Muhammadābād	...	"	Muhammadābād
" "	"	17	"	Shāhjahān	...	"	Shāhjahān
" "	"	"	"	Badauni [in the first footnote]	...	"	Badaoni
" "	"	"	"	Jahanāra	...	"	Jahānāra
" "	"	"	"	supplementary glossary	...	"	Supplementary Glossary
" 502	"	"	"	Khatuas [in the second footnote, 5th line]	...	"	Kataas
" "	"	"	"	made Mau [ditto, 8th line]	...	"	made in Mau
" 506	"	47	"	extrem	...	"	extreme
" 507	"	1	"	has	...	"	have
" 514	"	"	"	5 4	...	"	5 14
" "	"	3	"	Bujhāwan Singh, of Nariāon	...	"	Bujhāwan Singh of Nariāon
" 516	"	13	"	Moghals	...	"	Mughals
" 520	"	19	"	larger	...	"	large
" "	"	"	"	was according [in the footnote]	...	"	was, according
" 521	"	16	"	(paras. 159 and 160)	...	"	(paras. 85 and 86)
" 523	"	24	"	1763 A.D.	...	"	1761 A.D.
" 535	"	"	"	Thikmā [in the statement]	...	"	Thekmān
" "	"	"	"	Zamin Sipāh	...	"	Zamin Sipāh
" "	"	"	"	Purā Marūf	...	"	Kurthi Jāfarpur (alias Purā Marūt)
" 545	"	35	"	probably nowsoets	...	"	probably now costs
" 546	"	20	"	are required	...	"	is required
" 547	"	"	"	(Appendix VII.) [in the footnote]	...	"	(Appendix VIII.)
" 550	"	8	"	Still at	...	"	Still, at
" "	"	9	"	mutinies the	...	"	mutinies, the
" 551	"	12	"	that still	...	"	who still
" 555	"	10	"	ore and three quarter anas	...	"	one ana and three-quarters
" 560	"	"	"	Maddashampur [in the statement]	...	"	Madda Shampur
" "	"	"	"	Purā Marūf	...	"	Purā Marūf
" "	"	"	"	Sikandarpur	...	"	Sikandarpur
" "	"	13	"	one and a quarter lbs. [in the body of the para.]	...	"	one lb. and a quarter
" 561	"	"	"	of Ghosi and [in the statement]	...	"	of Ghosi, and
" "	"	28	"	(2) banūsā,	...	"	(2) banūsā
" 563	"	19	"	substances which	...	"	substances that
" 564	"	5	"	availab	...	"	available
CHAPTER II.							
Para.	4	Line.	2	for	chapter	...	read
" "	"	"	5	"	with taluka	...	Chapter
" "	"	"	10	"	dues	...	with the bounds of taluka
" 9	"	"	22	"	state	...	duties
" 10	"	"	3	"	chapter	...	State
" 11	"	"	38	"	party."	...	Chapter
" 13	"	"	22	"	Englishmen hearing a cry of wrong and cruelty to	...	party.
" 14	"	"	"	"	chapter [in the footnote]	...	Englishmen, on hearing a cry of wrong and cruelty, to
" "	"	"	"	"	pargana	...	Chapter
" 15	"	"	23	"	pergunnah."	...	parganas
" "	"	"	31	"	you."	...	pargana.
" 20	"	"	16	"	sold."	...	you.
" 23	"	"	17	"	was recorded	...	sold.
" 27	"	"	35	"	nature."	...	had been recorded
" 28	"	"	51	"	proceeding."	...	nature.
" 29	"	"	2	"	para. 8	...	proceeding.
" 30	"	"	4	"	leave, and	...	paras. 4, 6, and 8
" 31	"	"	52	"	report the	...	leave and
" 32	"	"	6	"	records be	...	report on the
" "	"	"	8	"	incentive or	...	records, be
" "	"	"	"	"		...	incentive to or

Para.	Line	9	for	Máhu, which	read	Máhu which
"	"	"	"	due by him." [in the footnote, line 16] ...	"	due by him.
"	"	"	"	realize was [line 31] ...	"	realize, was
"	33	"	"	The direct result of operations [in the footnote] ...	"	The direct results of the operations
"	35	11	"	mostly made ...	"	mostly based
"	44	9	"	zamindārās ...	"	Zamindārās
"	"	12	"	transferred to ...	"	transferred it to
"	45	"	"	revenue for <i>nimakhār</i> [in the foot note] ...	"	revenue, for <i>nimakhār</i>
"	47	11	"	accurate so far ...	"	accurate as far
"	"	"	"	in the operations [in the foot note, line 9] ...	"	in the operations
"	"	"	"	the sentences which [line 11] ...	"	the sentence which
"	"	"	"	that so long [line 15] ...	"	that as long
"	"	"	"	that so long [line 18] ...	"	that as long
"	"	"	"	perfecting [in the second foot note, line 3] ...	"	perfecting
"	48	"	"	99,558 and 199,014 [in column 3 of the statement] ...	"	99,598 and 199,054
"	50	"	"		"	
CHAPTER III.						
Para. 2	Line 32	for		such as in disputes ...	read	such as disputes
"	38	"		disputes, in which ...	"	disputes in which
"	12	"		28,586½ [in column 6 against Bāngar of DISTRICT of Statement. I.—Areas] ...	"	128,586½
"	"	"		Mau Nathhanjan ...	"	Mau Nāthhanjan
"	"	"		Bāngar [in the second statement] ...	"	Bāngar
"	16	add		[opposite Gopālpur in both statements] ...	"	
"	"	"		The great increase in the area of this pargana was due to alluvion between 1851 and 1870: see Mr. Reid's Rent-rate Report for parganas Sagri and Gopālpur, paras. 23 to 26.	"	
"	17	for		Muhāl [in the marginal reference] ...	"	Máhu!
"	"	25	"	mode of as ...	"	mode of survey as
"	"	26	"	consequence of survey the report ...	"	consequence of the report
"	18	1	"	no land ...	"	only ten acres
"	21	"	"	6·30 [in column 5 against Atraulia of the statement. 2.—Percentages.] ...	"	6·57
"	23	2	"	the tenants' holding ...	"	the tenant's holding
"	"	"	"	100% [in the footnote] ...	"	100%
"	26	4	"	tract upon which ...	"	tracts upon which
"	31	"	"	26,010 [in column 4 against Bāngar of Gopālpur of the statement] ...	"	36,010
"	33	20	"	in the map ...	"	on the map
"	"	28	"	classification ...	"	classifications
"	34	"	"	3·8·9 [in column 13 against Total of Decagon of the statement] ...	"	3·9·2
"	"	omit		Sagri [in the pargana column between Atraulia and Gopālpur] ...	"	
"	"	for		1,86,838, 2,21,130 and 2,20,112, 2,62,720 [in columns 8 and 11 against Ghosi of the statement] ...	"	1,86,839, 2,21,131 & 2,20,113, 2,69,721
"	44	"	"	internals [in the footnote, line 36] ...	"	intervals
"	54	5	"	(1283 f.) ...	"	(1283 F.)
"	65	"	"	<i>bāchh-bandis</i> [in marginal reference] ...	"	<i>bāchhbandis</i>
"	66	21	"	so far as ...	"	as far as
APPENDIX No. 1.						
Para. 1	Line 13	for		Nasr-ul-lāhpur ...	read	Nasrullāhpur
"	5	5	"	Asuldeo ...	"	Asuldeo
"	6	2	"	the selves ...	"	themselves
"	8	"	"	<i>Tuzuk-i-Bābārī</i> (Dawson's History of India), Vol. IV., [in the footnote] ...	"	<i>Tuzuk-i-Bābārī, Dawson's History of India, Vol. IV.</i>
"	9	"	"	whether kasba Pahalwān [in the footnote] ...	"	whether Kasba Pahalwān
"	11	1	"	Sagar ...	"	Sāgar
"	"	28	"	Singpur ...	"	Singhpur
"	"	"	"	in Tuzuk [in the footnote, last line but one] ...	"	in the Tuzuk
"	12	5	"	belonged ...	"	belong
"	"	"	"	chap. II. [in the footnote] ...	"	Chap. II.
"	15	"	"	pargana [in the footnote, line 3] ...	"	parganas
"	"	"	"	<i>jagir</i> [in the footnote, line 12] ...	"	<i>jagir</i>
"	"	10	"	nau-Muslim ...	"	Naumuslim
"	16	16	"	Zain-ud-dīnpur ...	"	Zainuddin
"	"	22	"	nau-Muslim ...	"	Naumuslim
"	18	22	"	addresses ...	"	addressed
"	"	24	"	is ...	"	was
"	"	27	"	adds ...	"	added
"	19	3	"	[There should not have been a space as for a new paragraph.] ...	"	
"	"	7	"	Bagh ...	"	Bāgh
"	"	20	"	Shekh Husan ...	"	Shekh Husām
"	20	2	"	to have left ...	"	to have been left
"	21	8	"	power of rājās ...	"	power of the Rājās
"	"	22	"	Pālwāri ...	"	Palwāri
"	22	5	"	of pargana ...	"	of parganas
"	"	8	"	Lālgāt ...	"	Lālgāt
"	28	6	"	troops who ...	"	troops which
"	24	1	"	1781 A.D. ...	"	1780 A.D.
"	"	3	"	Jahān Shāh ...	"	Jahān Khān
"	26	20	"	Didār Jahān ...	"	Dīdār Jahān

Para. 27	Line 10	for	Ain-ud-din	...	read	Ainuddin
" 29	" 6	"	heirs endeavoured	...	"	heir endeavoured
" 30	" 18	"	possession for the state	...	"	possession of for the State
" "	" 27	"	Ain-ud-din	...	"	Ainuddin
" "	" 34	"	Raja	...	"	Raja
" "	"	"	non-muslim [in the footnote]	...	"	Naumuslim
" 31	" 1	"	Nirahi	...	"	Nirahi
P'EDIGREE OF THE RAJAS OF AZAMGARH.						
		For	Gambir Singh [in the pedigree]	...	read	Gambhir (or Gambhir) Singh
		Below	Azam Khan [son of Hosein Khan]	...	insert	(illegitimate)
APPENDIX No. II.						
" 1	" 8	"	chhorab	...	"	chhornā
" 2	" 2	"	tatti, and vice versa; for	...	"	tatti; and vice versa for
" "	" 4	"	khānā	...	"	khānā
" 3	" 8	"	ht (or t)	...	"	ht (or : t)
" 10	" 5	"	le-āwā	...	"	le-āwā
" 13	" 2	"	long simple vowel	...	"	long vowel
" 16	" 3	"	मठिअवा	...	"	मठिअवा
" "	" 4	"	खठिअवा	...	"	खठिअवा
" 31	" 2	"	तुंहन	...	"	तुंहन
" 41	"	"	Apne	...	"	Apne
" 42	" 4	"	jāhe ke	...	"	Jāhe ke
" 55	"	"	termination [in clause (8), line 2]	...	"	terminations
	"	"	(para. 43) [in line 3]	...	"	(para. 52)
	"	"	Dekh-ildān [in line 5]	...	"	Dekh-ildān
	"	"	Dekh-aldān [in clause (9), line 5]	...	"	Dekh-aldān
	"	"	Dekh-ihā [in clause (14), line 3]	...	"	Dekh-ihā
56	"	"	termination [in clause (8), line 1]	...	"	terminations
	"	"	para. 43	...	"	para. 52
	"	"	(fem.) चलैले Chalaile [in line 3]	...	"	(fem.) चलैले Chalaile
	"	"	चलबे [in clause 10, line 5]	...	"	चलबे
	"	"	चलिहै [in line 7]	...	"	चलिहै
" 57	" 2	"	imperfect	...	"	indefinite
" 58	" 7	"	Patharab, etcetera)	...	"	Patharab (Patharab), or Patharab
	"	"		...	"	(Patharab)
" 58	" 7	"	पठेके [in clause (5)]	...	"	पठेके
" "	" "	"	1st per. pl. (Jāldān) [in clause (8)]	...	"	(1st pers. pl. Jāldān)
" "	" "	"	पठेबो [in clause (10)]	...	"	पठेबो
" 59	" 10	"	Ho-ka	...	"	Ho-ika
" 61	" 5	"	Le-baike	...	"	Le-baike
" "	" 6	"	Le-wai	...	"	Le-wai
" "	" 12	"	Dih-al	...	"	Dih-al
" "	" 14	"	Lth-al	...	"	Lth-al
" "	" 18	"	Le-bon	...	"	Le-bon
" "	" 21	"	Dthā	...	"	Dthā
" 63	" 16	"	Dabaw-ailon	...	"	Dabaw-ailon
" 64	" 3	"	(para. 49)	...	"	(para. 58)
" 65	" 10	"	Dekhahi,	...	"	Dekhahi
" 66	" 5	"	verb, unless used for emphasis; they	...	"	verb; unless used for emphasis, they
" 67	" 3	"	jaiat, aiat,	...	"	jaiat, aiat,
" 68	" 6	"	Rām, bharosā	...	"	Rām, bharosā
" 69	" 3	"	main (kahalon)	...	"	(main kahalon)
" "	" 8	"	say, or I say	...	"	say, or, I say,
STATEMENTS.						
APPENDIX No. IV., TABLE I.						
Numbers.						
Col. 11	for		8,814 [against IV.—Cultivating low castes, under Kiriāt Mittā]	read		5,814
" "	"		4,365 [against (1) Abir, under Kiriāt Mittā]	"		1,365
" 12	"		272 [against (14) Hajjām or Nāu, under Chiriākot]	"		278
Percentages.						
" 4	"		15.35 [against 5. Other castes, under Nizā-mābād.]	"		15.33
" 9	"		15.32 [against (5) Chamār, under Sagri]	"		15.52
" 12	"		74.38 [against 1. High castes, under Chiriākot]	"		74.38
" 13	"		4.21 [against (7) Koiri, under Muham-madābād]	"		4.31
" 15	"		17.09 [against (1) Abir, under Nāthūpur]	"		17.09

APPENDIX NO. IV., TABLE II.						
Col. 1	Line 48	for	Vilāyati	...	read	Vilāyati
" "	" 61	"	Christian	...	"	Christian
" 2		"	199,199½ [against <i>Hindus</i> under Deogāon]	"	"	119,199½
" 5		"	428½ [against II.— <i>Trading castes</i> under Belhābāns]	"	"	428½
" "		"	143½ [against III.— <i>Religious Castes</i> or orders under Belhābāns]	"	"	143½
" 29		"	9,044½ [against IV.— <i>Cultivating low castes</i> under Nathūpur]	"	"	9,044½
" "		"	7,408½ [against (7) <i>Kaiaht</i> under Nathūpur]	"	"	7,408½
" 2		"	127,748½ [against Grand Total, under Deogāon]	"	"	127,748
APPENDIX NO. IV., TABLE III.						
Col. 27	}	for	HOLDING OCCUPANCY TENURE [in the main heading]	read	HAVING OCCUPANCY TENURES	
to 32		"	5,564; 7,211 [against Gopālpur (page 50A)]	"	5,564½; 7,211½	
10, 14		"	2,036 [against Nathūpur (page 50A)]	"	1,016	
" 16		"	1,771½ [against Muhannadabad (page 50A)]	"	11,771½	
" 18		"	258,504½; 264,345½; 361,342½ [against the Total (page 50A)]	"	258,505; 264,345½; 361,343	
10, 12, 14		"	49-58; 40-42 [against Deogāon (page 51A)]	"	59-57; 40-41	
35, 36		"	59-37; 66-63 [against Nizāmābād (page 51A)]	"	59-32; 66-53	
30, 35		"	30-76; 69-32 [against Deogāon (page 51A)]	"	30-66; 69-34	
37, 38		"	42-54 [against Gopālpur (page 51A)]	"	42-01	
" 33		"				
APPENDIX NO. IV., TABLE IV.						
Col. 24		for	1,764-4-0 [against Indigo of 1871-72]	read	1,765-4-0	
24, 26		"	8,397-9-4; 11,900-2-0 [against Total of 1871-72]	"	8,398-9-0; 11,901-2-4	
" 24		"	1,415-3-0 [against Sugar of 1872-73]	"	1,415-3-0	
APPENDIX NO. V.						
Table. X		for	18 [under as.]	read	16	
XXIV		"	8 [under kauris]	"	4	
XXVI		"	504 [under kants]	"	432	
XXIX		"	2,64,880 [under kants]	"	2,50,889	
XXX		"	120 [under kants]	"	180	
XXXVI		"	22,580 [under kants]	"	25,920	
XXXVII		"	1,260 [under kants]	"	1,440	
xlvi		"	3,775 [under rens]	"	8,375	
lvi		"	10 [under as.]	"	16	
lxiii		"	2,02,50,000 [under ruās]	"	6,07,50,000	
APPENDIX NO. VI.						
Col. 19		for	5,935½ [against Area of Mahul under Peas]	read	6,935½	
" 33		"	1,272½ [against area of Gopālpur under Fallow for sugarcane, &c.]	"	1,272½	
" 30		"	4,383½ [against area of District Total under Linseed]	"	4,388½	
APPENDIX NO. VII.						
Average for the year		for	0-18-6 [in Barley under 1865-66]	read	0-18-2	
Month January		"	9-18-7 [in Barley under 1868-69]	"	0-18-7	
Average for the year		"	0-71-11 [in Unhusked Arakar under 1874-75]	"	0-17-41	
APPENDIX NO. VIII.						
Col. 3			88,187 [against Grain of Peas]	read	88,181	
APPENDIX NO. XI.						
			1,23 [in the last line of the last column but three]	read	1,231	



THE PEASANT OF THE PERIOD: HIS HUT AND HIS IMPLEMENTS.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE rules under which the following report has been compiled are contained in Government Notification No. 1919A, dated the 28th September, 1875, and are as follows :—

“ 18. The ‘rent-rate report’ shall be divided into the following chapters :—

“ I—GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE PARGANA OR TRACT UNDER REPORT. •

“ This should include—

- “ (1.) Boundaries and areas.
- “ (2.) Physical features.
- “ (3.) Communications.
- “ (4.) Sources of irrigation.
- “ (5.) Rainfall.
- “ (6.) Climate.
- “ (7.) Towns and markets.
- “ (8.) Population and caste distribution.
- “ (9.) Proprietary and cultivating classes, with the areas owned or held by each class.
- “ (10.) Tenures.
- “ (11.) General condition of the people.
- “ (12.) Trades and manufactures.
- “ (13.) System of agriculture.
- “ (14.) Principal products.

“ II.—FISCAL HISTORY.

“ Under this head should come—

- “ (1.) A brief account of previous settlements and their effects.
- “ (2.) An account of the working of the settlement about to expire, with the revisions and alterations of demand found necessary, and the causes of such modifications.
- “ (3.) Coercive processes which have been found necessary for the collection of the land revenue.
- “ (4.) The extent to which proprietary rights have been affected by sale or mortgage, or other mode of transfer, during the term of the expiring settlement, should be shown so far as ascertainable, and the amount so transferred, and the price fetched, in periods selected by the settlement officer, should be compared.
- “ (5.) The average price per acre, the number of years’ purchase, and the amount of purchase-money per rupee of revenue, should be shown for each period separately, as well as for the entire term.

“ III.—COMPARISON OF FORMER AND PRESENT CONDITION OF THE TRACT UNDER REPORT.

“ This chapter should contain—

- “ (1.) Past and present statistics of area, showing especially the amount and percentages of increase or otherwise in cultivation and irrigation, with the proportion borne by the area actually cultivated and irrigated to the total area.

- "(2.) Details of the different kinds of soil irrigated and unirrigated, and comparisons with the statistics of last settlement.
- "(3.) Details of the areas occupied by each kind of crop, with similar comparisons.
- "(4.) The main causes which have contributed to progress or otherwise in the condition of the tract, including a statement showing the change in the values of produce during the expiring settlement. This statement should be divided into periods like the statement of transfers of proprietary rights.
- "(5.) An account of improvements in communication, whether lines of rail, metalled or ordinary roads, opening of markets, &c.
- "(6.) A statement, where practicable, showing increase in population.
- "(7.) If the preparation of records is sufficiently advanced, the number and holdings of cultivating proprietors, the number of cultivators with and without right of occupancy, and the total area held and rents paid by each class, should be given and compared with past statistics where available.
- "(8.) A statement of the former and present recorded rentals, with an account of the rise in the rental ascertained to have taken place during the settlement, distinguishing so far as can be done—
- "(a.) The increase of assets due to extended cultivation.
- "b.) The increase due to introduction or extension of irrigation.
- "(c.) The increase due to rise of the rent-rate on any class of soil other than that caused by irrigation.

"Any special local causes which have checked or encouraged the rise in rents should also be pointed out.

" IV.—INSPECTION AND PROPOSED RATES.

"The method and result of inspection should be clearly stated under the following heads:—

- "(1.) System of inspection.
- "(2.) Classification and description of soils.
- "(3.) Rate proposed for each class of soil, with the process by which they were determined.

"The prevailing rates should be taken as the basis of the proposed rates, and any variation therefrom should be clearly explained.

"The rental deduced from the proposed rates should be compared with the recorded rental and with the corrected rental; and the causes of difference between the rental by proposed rates and the corrected rental should be as far as possible explained.

"Where data exist, the new rates should be contrasted with the rates assumed at the previous settlement, and also with the rates of the revised settlement in adjoining parganas.

" V.—FINANCIAL RESULTS.

" The financial results of an assessment based on the proposed rates, as contrasted with the demand of the expiring settlement, should be given in this chapter.

" If it is proposed to make any considerable deviation from the assessment based on the proposed rates, the amount of deviation should be estimated, and reasons for a departure from the proposed rates detailed.

" 61. The final report, besides the information required in the pargana reports, shall contain a history of settlement operations, and shall show the total cost and the financial result of the assessment. It shall also show the working of the revised assessments as far as possible up to date.

" 62. Tabular statements should be appended giving for the entire district the statistics embodied in the pargana reports."

2. The only respects in which the report is believed to vary from the model set forth in the above rules are these : some of the statistical information called for in the rules has not been given, and the arrangement of the chapters and sections is not quite the same as in the rules. The reason for the latter of these deviations was that the arrangement which has been adopted seemed more suitable for a final report than that given in the rules for pargana reports ; and the first was due to the fact that the extant records belonging to last settlement do not contain materials for the information.

3. The report will be found to consist mainly of figures and statements of fact. No pretension is made to absolute correctness in these. But the errors which they contain have, it is hoped, been due rather to accidental oversight than to lack of desire for accuracy and remissness in trying to secure it. In some instances differences will be observed between the figures in the rent-rate reports and those in the accompanying report : the figures in the latter are in these instances to be taken as the revised and correct figures.

4. Since the settlement of pargana Nizāmābād was completed, tappas Belā and Daulatābād have been transferred from it to tahsīl Deogān. These tappas have therefore been separately marked off in the map which accompanies the report. But an alteration of the settlement statistics would have involved unnecessary expense and trouble, and the tappas have been treated in the report as belonging to Nizāmābād.

5. Appendices Nos. I. and II. are somewhat beyond the scope of settlement business, but they will probably not be regarded as altogether useless additions to the report.

6. The number of mauzas and mahāls in the district being very great, it was ~~therefore~~ not thought advisable to print the lists of mauzas and mahāls as an appendix to the report ; they would have occupied about three hundred pages of type. But the manuscript volumes containing the lists will be submitted along with the report.

7 The photographs, with the aid of which the lithographs in the report were prepared, were kindly furnished by Mr. C. E. Mendham of the Opium Department.

8. Looking back over the operations which have lasted so long and cost so much, all of the officers who have served in the settlement can now see occasions in which they would have acted and managed differently had their experience and intelligence been greater. But they can at least claim to have heartily given to the work the best of the judgment and ability that they possessed. The assessment, it is hoped, has secured a fair share of the assets of the land to the State without pressing too heavily upon the dense and generally poor agricultural population. The records, it is hoped,

are tolerably complete, and do not contain more errors than are necessarily incidental to manuscript records that consist mostly of minute and voluminous details, were prepared by subordinate native agency, and concern so many, not unfrequently conflicting, interests. The establishment for keeping up district records has recently been put upon a new footing, and if its work is carried out according to the design, a few years should suffice for the detection and rectification of all the errors of the settlement record.

J. R. REID,
Settlement Officer.

5th April, 1877.

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CHAPTER I.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE TRACT UNDER REPORT.

SECTION I.

Boundaries and areas.

THE district of Azamgarh, as at present constituted, contains sixteen parganas. Two of these are permanently settled, and the rest are, either wholly or for the most part, temporarily settled.

Temporarily settled parganas.

Tahsil.	Pargana.	Tahsil.	Pargana.
Deogán.	Deogán.	Sagré.	Sagré.
Azamgarh.	Belhábána.		Ghosi.
Mábul.	Nizamábád.	Muhamma-	Kiriát Mittá.
	Mábul.	dábád.	Chiriákot.
	Kauriá.		Muhammádábád.
	Atrauliá.		Mau Nábhanjan.
Sagré.	Gopálpur.	Sikandar-	Nathúpur.
		pur.	

Permanently settled parganas.

Tahsil.	Pargana.
Sikandarpur.	Sikandarpur.
	Bhadáon.

2. The permanently settled parganas lie together in the extreme east of the district. Only recently have they come under settlement with a view to the drawing up of a new record of rights, and the assessment of their land revenue is not open to revision. They, therefore, do not form part of the subject of this report.

3. The tract of country which comprises the temporarily settled parganas.

tled parganas lies between $25^{\circ} 39'$ and $26^{\circ} 25'$ north latitude, and $82^{\circ} 42'$ and $83^{\circ} 49'$ east longitude. Its average height above the level of the sea is about 255 feet. Though not regular in form, it is a compact block of country, diagonals drawn through the middle of which vary in length from about 40 to 65 miles. It is bounded on the north by the river Gogra (which separates it from zila Gorakhpur) and by zila Faizabad; on the west by zilas Faizabad, Sultanpur, and Jaunpur; on the south by zilas Jaunpur and Gházipur; on the east by the two permanently settled parganas of zila Azamgarh. Its area is 1,374,269 acres, or 2,147 square miles. Of this area 55.82 per cent. is under cultivation, 17.14 per cent. more is culturable waste, and the rest (27.04 per cent.) is land that is either at present unfit for cultivation, or permanently occupied for roads, village sites, and similar purposes.

Cultivated ...	767,063	acres.
Culturable waste ...	235,643	"
Barren waste ...	371,563	"

SECTION II.

Physical features.

4. The tract is part of the Gangetic plain, and, kankar excepted, no coherent rock obtrudes through or is to be found beneath the soil. The country is a plain. The general evenness of its surface is broken only by the deep-cut streams, náls, and ravines that carry off the natural drainage. Except in the proximity of the Gogra, the country slopes very gently towards the south-east, and the main drainage channels run in an easterly and south-easterly direction.

5. The physical features of such a tract are not likely to present much that is of interest. In describing them it may be divided into two main sections.

The tract divided into two main sections.

The first consists of the south portion of the tract. The features of this portion are pretty uniform. It belongs to the *bángar* or uplying part of the Gangetic plain, which, geologically, is said to be formed mainly of marine estuary deposits.

The second, comprising the north part of the district, contains two well-marked varieties of country, the uplying land or *bángar*, and the newer alluvial land or *kachhár*, in the valley of the Chhotí Sarjú and Gogra. The former differs from the south portion of the district, not in the geological formation of the underlying strata, but in the character of the prevailing soil and other superficial features. The latter is of fluvial formation, and is, geologically, distinct from the rest of the district.

6. Though the difference in feature between the north and south portions of the district will scarcely fail to strike a person travelling across it, still the line of separation between them is not very distinctly marked. It may, however, be said to run from west to east at a distance varying between one and five miles south of the Kunwar nadí, and after the Kunwar nadí joins the Tons, of the latter stream. The area of the south portion is about 925 square miles, of which 54 per cent. is cultivated ; of the north portion about 1,222, of which 57 per cent. is cultivated.

7. The south portion of the district is a series of narrow parallel sections of country that lie longitudinally west and east. They are divided from each other by lines of swamp, and after the outlets from the swamps become well-defined, by *nálás* or deep-cut channels. While the drainage lines are in the initial stage of swamp, the country in their neighbourhood is during the rainy season little better than a large shallow lake. As the outlets work eastward and become deeper, the country within immediate reach of them is much more rapidly and effectively drained. But in the table-land between their deepened beds, new catchment basins and drainage systems are formed, which also end eventually in *nálás* and well-defined watercourses. Hence, although the east side of this portion of the district is on the whole better and more rapidly drained than the west, extensive marshy tracts are not wanting there also.

8. The swamps are dry, or nearly so, during the hot season, but in the rainy season, as has been said above, they spread over considerable areas. Much of the land along their edges and within reach of them is then under rice cultivation, and beyond the depth at which cultivated rice can grow, there is generally a broader or narrower fringe of rushes (*nará*) and wild rice (*tinní*).

The flow of surplus water from the swamps is gentle, and is impeded by the irrigation dams which are thrown across them at short intervals. Any water that there is in the swamps during the hot months is to be found in the deep holes in front of these dams. It is in these holes that the fish lodge, and are killed as the swamps gradually dry up. The *nálás* or deep channels in which the outlets from the swamps end are dry during the hot months, or contain only stagnant water, the supply of which is kept up by the moisture that oozes from the bottom of their banks. It is only in the rainy season that the *nálás* contain a running stream.

9. The chief lines of swamp and *nálá* that traverse this portion of the district are the Gángí, the Odantí, the Doná, the Besú, the Loní, the Mangáí, and the Bhainsahí. The Gángí, Besú, and Mangáí reach back into the Jaunpur, or to the west confines of the Azamgarh district. The

others are formed within the latter district. The Doná unites with the Odantí, and the Loní with the Besú, on the borders of Azamgarh; the Odantí joins the Besú a little further to the eastward in the Gházipur district; and the Bhainsahí is an affluent of the Sarjú. Only the Gángí, Besú, and Mangáí have independent courses of any great length in the Gházipur district. The two first fall into the Ganges, and the last joins the Sarjú not very far to the west of the town of Bal íá.

10. In the sections into which the south portion of the district is divided by the drainage lines above described, there are many depressions of the surface of greater or less depth and extent. These are full of water in the rains and cold weather, and during the former season their overflow often covers a considerable area, much of which is adapted for rice cultivation. The surplus water from them finds its way into one or other of the main drainage channels of the district. While the water in them holds out, they abound with aquatic vegetation—rushes, wild rice, *siwár*, water-lilies, and the like—a good deal of which is utilized by the people. They contain also considerable quantities of fish. But with the exception of a few, such as the Kotáíl, Jamuáwán, and Gumádíh lakes in tahsil Deogáon, the Kumbh lake on the borders of parganas Máhul and Deogáon, the Púkh lake in pargana Máhul, the Asauná lake in pargana Muhammadábád, and, largest of all, the Gamhírban lake in pargana Nizámábád, the water in the marshes or lakes does not last the dry weather; and of those named there is perhaps not one that has not been known to dry up in years of drought.

11. But even in the upper portions of the drainage basins part of the country is fairly well raised. On high spots hamlets are generally planted. Round and between these there almost always lie tracts of cultivated land on which the ordinary spring and autumn crops of the country are raised, and within and about which trees and groves in greater or less numbers are planted. But these cultivated lands never extend very far in an unbroken expanse. They either run into low-lying ground which has probably been made into rice fields, or are interrupted by waste tracts which are on much the same level as themselves, but the soil of which is impregnated with saline matters. These tracts of waste and rice land are nearly bare of trees, and they present to the eye during the dry months a very desolate and unpleasing landscape.

12. In the lower parts of the drainage basins, in the east of pargana Deogáon, in pargana Belhábáns, in the south of parganas Kiriát Mittú and Chiriákot, and in the south-east of pargana Muhammadábád, where the channels have cut deep into the surface of the earth, the land near them is, as was said before, more rapidly drained. The marsh and rice lands are not so extensive; the tracts upon which the various spring and autumn crops are cultivated are more continuous; hamlets are more numerous and nearer to each other; and the country is better wooded. There still are uncultivated waste or barren tracts, part of which is impregnated with saline matters, but part of which also is cut up by ravines, and is waste from the want of soil rather than from the impurity of it. Here and there, however, embankments have been thrown across the ravines and the drainage prevented from flowing off. The erosion of the uplands is thereby kept in check, and water is stored for irrigation. The culturable land behind the embankments is mostly used for rice crops, and unlikely as the situation of the land seems to be, the industry of the people is rewarded with fair crops if the rainy season is at all favourable. But the whole of the country described in this paragraph forms a small proportion only of the south division of the district.

13. The prevailing soils in the south of the district are of an argillaceous nature.

The soil in the south part of the district is argillaceous.
Its varieties.

It is only in the better drained tracts described in the foregoing paragraph that sandy soils are to be found in a noticeable proportion. The chief varieties of clay soil are—(1) the clean grey or bluish-grey clay, which the people call *matiárá*, and which contains little organic matter; (2) the black soil, which the people call *karail*, and which contains more organic matter than *matiárá* does; and (3) the whitish or yellowish-grey soils, which the people call *kabsá*. In the last there seems to be a somewhat injurious excess of certain saline matters. Among the latter are compounds of sodium, but a soluble salt of an oxide or other compound of iron appears to be one. At any rate, about the roots of rice crops grown upon some *kabsá* soils there will often be found tiny ferruginous-looking deposits.

14. The distribution of these varieties of soil is not very regular. But of the

Distribution of the varieties.

last it may be said that it is generally to be found on the confines of the raised waste tracts; and of the second, that it, rather than *matiárá*, is to be found in the deeper or central portions of the depressed rice lands. The soil of the cultivated lands round and near the hamlets has long since, from the application of manure, been worked up into loam; but it still retains to a considerable degree its natural stiff or heavy character. The rice-bearing tracts are unmanured and receive comparatively little tillage. Cultivation, therefore, has not much changed the natural texture of their soil.

15. The clay soils of Azamgarh have the characteristics of clay soils all the

Characteristics of these varieties.

world over. They at first take in moisture slowly, and need a copious supply of water to soften them. When softened they are plastic, and when saturated sticky; they yield up their moisture slowly, and as they become dry, shrink and crack. Of the varieties named above, *karail* is the most sticky and shrinks most, and *matiárá* is the most plastic; while *kabsá* is softened with a smaller supply of water, dries sooner, and cracks much less than the other two. In fertility *kabsá* is much inferior to *matiárá* and *karail*.

16. Upon many spots in the waste tracts, which, as has been said, are generally

Reh effloresces on the waste plains.

on a comparatively high level, *reh* effloresces during the dry months, the ground being in some places white, as if covered with snow; in others, the efflorescence being a puffy crust of brownish dust. In many

Or infects their soil.

parts *reh* does not coat the surface of the ground, but the soil is evidently infected more or less with it, or with some of the salts which it contains. In other parts the soil is evidently unculturable from

Little good clean culturable land left in them.

other causes than *reh*. There is now little land in the waste tracts which has a really good clean soil; and that little consists of small detached pieces. These are easily recognized by the dark-green, comparatively strong grasses with which they are covered. During the rainy season, however, vegetation of some sort springs up over nearly the whole of the waste plains. Even ground on which *reh* exudes, as well as the *reh*-infected land, bears a brownish coloured grass known as *úsarail*, whose acicular leaves may be seen in the dry months protruding through the efflorescence.

17. The waste is called by the general name of *úsar*, and the *reh*-bearing and

The waste is generally called *úsar*.

reh-infected parts of it are regarded as being unculturable in their present state. But they are probably not all irreclaimably barren. Much of the land that is now under cultivation,

And regarded as unculturable.

especially land used for rice crops, was in all likelihood little, if at all, different from the *reh*-infected waste. Within the

But is probably not all so.

area of cultivation are to be seen patches of ground on which *reh* exudes during the dry season. If, on the one hand, the land is used for rice, these patches are probably productive in favourable years of crops nearly as good as the somewhat cleaner soil about them. For the salts of *reh* which are found in

excess on the surface in the dry months are carried below the soil in the rains, and as long as the land is kept flooded the crop is not poisoned by them. When, after the rice crop has been cut, the fields become dry and evaporation from the earth begins, reh again rises to the surface. On the other hand, in land used for crops other than rice, the reh-bearing patches appear as barren leprous-looking blanks in the midst of the cultivation. Besides these reh-bearing patches, whole fields may be seen in which the people say that there is an admixture of úsar, and whose whitish colour confirms the statement. If rice land, these fields, kept properly flooded, yield tolerable crops; when used for general cultivation, they are mostly inferior outlying lands, which not only have a tainted soil, but also, from being at a distance from hamlets, receive a limited amount of manure.

18. The reclamation of úsar waste may now and again be seen slowly and laboriously going on. The localities usually chosen for it are pieces of land on the margin of the old cultivation, upon which water for flooding can be collected and kept in, or patches in the plain where there is little or no reh efflorescence. The selected plot is trenched with parallel ditches which are six to eight feet apart, and about one and a half or two feet deep and broad. The earth from the ditches is thrown up round the plot, and the embankment thus formed serves to keep the rain water on the land, and to prevent the flow on to it of tainted water from the surrounding reh-infected land. Probably no attempt is made to grow anything in the enclosure during the first year. But in the course of two or three years the quality of the soil improves. Probably also the first crop—perhaps the only kind of crop that will ever be got off it—is rice, from the time of planting which till its maturing the land ought to be kept under water.

19. Were water available to keep it flooded, a good deal of úsar now lying waste might be brought, at the least, under rice cultivation. The result of enclosing and tilling the land is to restrict reh in quantities that are fatal to dry crops, pretty nearly to the soil that lies immediately over the underground strata in which reh chiefly lodges. The superficial extent of these strata varies from a circle of a few feet in diameter to irregularly shaped areas of some acres. The present configuration of the surface of the ground which lies over and about them in many places, seems to me not to bear out the recent reh-trap theory of their origin. But in whatever way they came by their present position and form, such experiments as I have been able to make show that they do not extend in depth more than a few feet below the surface of the ground; that they consist of hard, juiceless, palpably barren earth; and that if this earth be altogether dug out and removed, and fresh soil be filled into the excavation, no trace of reh remains (*see below, paragraph 38*).

20. In pargana Máhul, especially in tappa Didárganj, considerable deposits of chloride of sodium exist in some places. Indeed, the prevalence of salt in various localities on the west side of the district has led the Customs Department to prohibit the manufacture of saltpetre in parganas Máhul, Kauriá, and Atrauliá.

21. The subsoil strata in the bángar portion of the district vary a good deal in character, thickness, and vertical arrangement. Besides the deposits in which reh lodges, there are beds of grey and brown sand, of grey, black, and yellow clay, and of earth intermediate between these. Kankar, in greater or less quantity, and in smaller or larger nodules, occurs in most of the stiffer beds. Although varying in quality for economical purposes, and more easily got at in some places than in others, still kankar is to be found almost everywhere throughout the bángar portion of the district. Here and there, in place of being nodular, it takes the form of solid sheets of coherent rock, varying in thickness from a few

inches to a foot and a half. These kankar rocks are not generally far from the surface of the ground, are mostly found where the surface is somewhat depressed and liable to be flooded or saturated with water, and have not a very large continuous area. They are compact, hard, and tough, more so than most varieties of nodular kankar. The people sometimes used to quarry rock kankar for building purposes. Its use has not been observed in buildings of recent date, but in the foundations of old temples, mosques, and bridges, and in some parts of the shafts of old wells, rectangular blocks of it may occasionally be seen.

22. The production or growth of kankar in the beds in which it is found is a chemical phenomenon of the rationale of which no explanation is attempted. That it has been generated there by chemical action after the beds were laid down seems beyond doubt. In some places professional kankar-diggers have been heard to allege that most of the kankar in some deposits having been removed and only a little left, a new formation will after the lapse of years be found to have replaced the old one. But this is a statement which, before acceptance, it would be well to verify by experiment. (See also *Mr. Rogers' Rent-rate Report for pargana Máhul, paragraph 29*).

23. The nature of the subsoil and underlying strata cannot fail to influence the soil and its produce. But, except in very obvious cases, such as, for instance, the soaking and parching in excess in the rains and dry weather of a shallow soil resting on a reef of kankar, the matter seems not to attract the notice of the people. The chief points of interest for them in the underlying strata are the existence of attainable beds that yield copious and unfailing springs of water, the depth of these beds from the surface of the ground, and the character, especially below the ordinary water-level, of the strata which must be dug through in order to reach them.

24. In the bángar part of the district water is met at from twelve to twenty feet from the surface in the dry months of the year, and in the rainy season at a still higher level. But wells that depend upon lateral filtration are very soon exhausted. The beds in which permanent bottom springs are struck are clay, not unfrequently mixed with kankar. They lie below the ordinary water-level, but their distance from it varies much in different localities. In some places they are little below the water-level of the dry season, in others the people seem to be unable to bore deep enough to reach them. In some places the supply of water is so bountiful that, the bed once tapped, it is very difficult to empty the well; in others the supply is less abundant. To reach the spring-level, several different deposits have probably to be dug through. If these are all beds of firm material, the well-maker's work is easy, and a well which is not protected by a masonry shaft will last nearly as long as one that is. There are, however, few such happy localities in this district. Almost invariably one or more beds of sand or light earth must be traversed before the spring level is come to. Even when these sandy beds are some feet above the water-level in the dry months, the rise of the water-level during the rainy season is almost sure to affect the stability of wells; and wells that are not lined with masonry generally fall in at that period of the year.

25. We pass now to the north part of the district. It has already been said that it contains two distinct kinds of country, the bángar or old alluvium, which differs only superficially from the portion of the district that has been described above, and the kachhár or newer alluvium. I shall first briefly describe the former.

26. It occupies the whole of the west side of the north portion of the district and all except the north margin of the centre of it. It contains 960 square miles, of which 61½ per cent. is cultivated. A

stretch of kachhár country from three to five miles in breadth then interrupts and cuts off the north-east corner of the lángar tract from the rest. The detached piece contains most of parganas Ghosi and Nathúpur, and a small bit of pargana Muhammadábád. The main tract, which abuts throughout its entire breadth upon the south division of the district, contains all of parganas Atrauliá and Kauriá and parts of parganas Máhul, Nizámábád, Muhammadábád, Mau Nátbhanjan, Sagri, and Gopálpur.

27. The north part of the district is not, like the south, divided into natural sections of regular form. The chief drainage channels in it are the Kunwar, the Ungri, the Majhui, the Tons, the Silani, the Suksui, the Kayar, the Chhoti Sarju, the Pharaí, the Basnai, and a nameless chain of narrow shallow swamps which drains the centre of pargana Sagri. The Chhoti Sarju rises in the Faizabad district and traverses the north-west corner of Azamgarh. The Pharaí and Basnai form within the Azamgarh district and drain part of the north-east corner of it. All three run into or connect themselves with the Gogra, the Basnai a long way east of the Azamgarh border, the others within it. Of the remaining streams the Tons is the chief. It takes its rise many miles beyond the Azamgarh frontier in the west of the Faizabad district. The others, either as separate streams (namely the Kunwar, the Silani, the Suksui, and the Kayar) or after uniting with each other (the Ungri and Majhui), are affluents of it. The Sagri chain of swamps is, however, a partial exception. It has an outlet into the Chhoti Sarju, as well as two into the Tons. The Kunwar and Majhui form a short way beyond the confines of Azamgarh; the Ungri and other remaining drainage channels take their rise within the district. All of them join the Tons before it leaves the district. The Tons travels under that name across the greater part of the district. But six or eight miles from the east boundary it opens into the kachhár country and joins the Chhoti Sarju, a stream now smaller than itself, which will be spoken of again (*see para. 35*).

28. With the exception of the upper swampy parts of the Ungri, Silani, Suksui, Kayar, and Pharaí, of the Basnai so far as we are concerned with it, and of the Sagri swamps, all the drainage channels of this part of the district have well-defined deep-cut channels. The swamps with which the streams just named are connected are not so extensive as those in the south part of the district; nor in the uplands between the main channels are the marshes and lakes so numerous and large as they are there. The only lakes that need be named are the Koilá and Kasilá-Garsilá lakes in pargana Máhul, the Kailí and Duhíá-Birna lakes in pargana Atrauliá, the Ará lake on the borders of parganas Kauriá and Atrauliá, the Tellmán lake on the borders of parganas Kauriá and Nizámábád, and the Mánchilil lake in pargana Ghosi. The chain of swamps in pargana Sagri also, though it spreads out in a few places into shallow marshes or lakes, is generally narrow, with strips of rice land along its margins and general cultivation behind them. Its outlets, which debouch into the Tons, are deep ravines or nálás; but the branch of it which opens into the Chhoti Sarju is not much above the level of that stream. The drainage of the high lands between the various channels mostly passes off directly into them, and the country in the vicinity of the larger of them—the Kunwar, Majhui, Tons, Silani, and Kayar—is much cut up by ravines.

29. Of the drainage channels named above, the Tons is the only one that can be dignified with the name of river. Its course is a tortuous one, the river frequently doubling back on itself so as to enclose in its loop a tongue of land or *kol* which is connected with the main land only by a narrow neck or isthmus. The town and civil station of Azamgarh are situated in one of these. During the dry months a sluggish current of water flows in the bottom of the river's bed. The other drainage channels are then dry, or contain only stagnant water. But all of them that have deep-cut channels are filled with rapid streams during the autumnal floods. The swamps, like those in the south of the district,

have a gentle flow of water through them, and are dammed at short intervals for irrigation purposes.

30. There are úsar plains in this portion of the district as well as in the south of it, more especially in those parts in which the drainage channels take their rise. But the sloping and raviny land along the Tons and other streams forms a considerable proportion of the waste. Some of this land is still covered with woods of *parás* or *dhák*, *sihor*, *akol*, *babúl*, and other trees, among which *parás* is the chief. In such places erosion by ravines into the uplands has been in a considerable degree restricted. It has also been kept in check in some parts where cultivation extends nearly to the stream's bank, by judicious terracing, and in others by the construction of weirs, as described in paragraph 12. But in many places the country near the streams has been altogether denuded of soil, and kankar or beds of hard, brown, barren clay have been exposed.

Úsar plains.
Ravines.
Woods.
Terraced fields.
Irrigation weirs.

31. Clay soils are not wanting in the part of the district which we are describing ; and rice lands are found here, as in the south, in and near the swamps and lakes. But the prevailing soil is a mixture of clay and sand, in which the latter preponderates. Among the people it is known as *balsundarí*, and where it is very light as *balut*. The expanses of general cultivation are much more extensive than in the south, the blanks in the cultivation are smaller, and the country is studded with hamlets and well-wooded with mango groves.

Soils : mostly sandy.

32. The kachhár country, or new alluvium, consists of two portions : (1) the stretch of country which has been spoken of above (*see paragraph 26*), and which comprises parts of parganas Gopálpur, Sagrí, Ghosí, Muhammadábád, and Man Nátbhanjan ; and (2) a tract on the Gogra on the north face of parganas Ghosí and Nathúpur. The former may be spoken of as the kachhár of the Chhoti Sarjú, the latter as the kachhár of the Gogra. In both cases the passage from the old to the new alluvium is marked by the bank of greater or less height and bluntness, in which the former ends, and at the foot of which the latter begins.

The kachhár : its divisions. The kachhár of the Chhoti Sarjú.
Area 196 square miles, of which 44 per cent. is cultivated.
And the kachhár of the Gogra.
Area 66 square miles, of which only 29½ per cent. was cultivated in 1872-73.

33. The Gogra, with which the kachhár country is more or less connected, is known also as the Great Sarjú, and as the Deohá or Delhá. Its valley, that is, the strip of country of distinctly fluvial origin through which it flows, varies in breadth in front of the Azamgarh district from two-fifths of a mile to ten miles. The former distance is the width of its channel between Dohri in Azamgarh and Barhal in Gorakhpur. The river here flows through a comparatively narrow gorge in the old alluvium, the kankar reefs in which preserve the banks from destruction. The stream is thus confined to a single channel and prevented from moving to one side or the other. This is in fact the only part of its course in front of Azamgarh in which the channel is persistent. Everywhere else the river has to deal, at least on one side, with the soft sandy deposits which it has itself formed. When in flood an enormous volume of water passes down the Gogra, and in most parts of its course there are at that time minor channels current in addition to the main one. It is easy to understand therefore that in a period of years the main stream oscillates a good deal within the valley. The stream sometimes shifts suddenly into one of the minor channels, but generally, if there is diluvion of the banks, changes in the channel are gradually worked out. At the present time the area in this district within which the river oscillates is from two to six miles in breadth ; but it seems scarcely possible to trace with certainty the causes that provoke its changes.

The Gogra river.
Its valley.
The gorge at Dohrighát.
The soft deposits through which the river works elsewhere.
Changes in the channel.

34. The facts stated above seem to show the futility of the attempts that have in recent years been made to turn the river at some points in this district. Obstacles put down in the river's bed where it runs through its own deposits, will either be disregarded by it or avoided by a slight deviation to one side or the other. If, on the other hand, the river is running against solid bángar deposits, these rarely require aid in resisting it; or if unable to resist it, they are not likely to become so by any help we can afford to give them. The way in which in some instances the credit due to the kaukar reefs of the old alluvium in stopping the encroachments of the stream, has been given by the engineering department to their sál stakes and bamboo sagots, is unworthy of the department. And there is no certainty that a change, either natural or enforced, in one part of the river's course will be permanent, and have no injurious effect in another part of its course.

35. The deposits of the Gogra are mostly sand. The clay silt which it throws down occurs chiefly in small patches, has never much depth, and is generally deposited in depressions or hollows. The shallow spill which spreads in flood time over a good deal of the better raised land in the valley of the river is mostly sand-laden, and the sediment left by it is often productive of nothing but harm.

36. What has been called the kachhár of the Chhoti Sarjú (*see para. 32*) begins in the north-west corner of the district in pargana Gopálpur, in front of the little town of Mahárájanj. It comprises, first, the north parts of parganas Gopálpur and Sagrí, and lies between the bángar of those parganas on the south and the main channel of the Gogra on the north. Its average breadth in this part is about five and a half miles. The watercourses by which it is traversed are in direct communication with the Gogra. After the Chhoti Sarjú of the uplands (*see para. 27*) enters the valley of the Gogra and joins the Gadheia Nálá, which is a small branch of the Gogra, the united stream is still called the Chhoti Sarjú; but it is in truth a subordinate channel of the Gogra. For some way it runs close under the bángar country of pargana Gopálpur, and the country between it and the main stream of the Gogra is intersected by several branches of the latter river. These, as well as the Chhoti Sarjú, are nearly dry during seven or eight months of the year, but in the rainy season they are all large navigable streams. Turning northward the Chhoti Sarjú is, at Chapri on the confines of pargana Gopálpur, absorbed into one of the large channels of the Gogra. But at Karkhiá, a little way east of Chapri, it again emerges from the Gogra, and keeps along the margin of the bángar country of pargana Sagrí. When about two-thirds of the way across the pargana it throws off a branch called the Badrauwan, which passes in a north-east direction towards the Gogra. Of late years the Badrauwan has become a larger deeper channel than, after the bifurcation, is the Chhoti Sarjú itself, and it carries back to the Gogra a large share of the water that leaves the latter at Karkhiá. The country near the Gogra is still intersected by subordinate branches of the river; while that lying back from it, about the Chhoti Sarjú and the Badrauwan, contains many remains of old river-beds. Many of these have nearly or altogether silted up; but some are still filled with water in the rainy season. There are also many wider shallow depressions in the surface of country. These lie either close under the bángar or immediately behind the raised bank of the Chhoti Sarjú. They are below the highest flood-level of the stream; and when it rises they are filled with water which finds its way into them through numerous little inlets and watercourses.

37. On the east side of pargana Sagrí the kachhár country turns in a south-south-east direction between the bángar portion of parganas Sagrí, Muhammadábád, and Mau on the one side, and of pargana Ghosi and the detached north-east corner of pargana

Muhammadábád on the other. The average breadth of this part of it is between three and four miles. After the bifurcation of the Badrauán and Chhotí Sarjú, the latter flows southward in a somewhat irregular course through the kachhár country. Here also traces of old river-beds abound, some silted up, others still deep. But this part of the kachhár enjoys comparative immunity from inundation. At Sahroj, a short

Junction of the Chhotí Sarjú and Tons. way above the town of Mau, the Chhotí Sarjú is joined by the Tons, and thereafter, down to its junction with the Ganges near Ballia, it is known as the Sarjú (*see para. 27*). Below Sahroj it contains a stream of running water at all seasons. Above it the bed is dry or contains only stagnant water during the dry months of the year.

38. There can be little doubt that the present Chhotí Sarjú is a survival of the Gogra; that the latter or a large branch of it at one time flowed along the north face of the uplying land of parganas Gopálpur and Sagrí; that then a large branch of it at least, turning to the south-eastward, flowed towards the Ganges; and that the whole kachhár country has been formed from deposits of the river and is of much more recent origin than the bángar. All throughout the kachhár country, as has been already remarked, traces of old river-beds are to be found. In and about these, as well as in depressions of the surface in which water lodges, there are generally deposits of clay which, when exposed to drought, are of a dry, hard, not very fertile, kind. Rice is cultivated in some of these clay tracts as in the bángar. But elsewhere the soil of the kachhár country is sandy, light, and porous. The subsoil is generally the pure grey micaceous sand which still is brought down by the Gogra. But at a considerable depth beds of clay and kankar reefs occur. These doubtless belong to the old alluvium deposits through which the river originally excavated its channel. Reh and kankar are scarcely to be found in the fluvial deposits of the kachhár, a fact which, as regards the former, seems to be evidence in support of what has been put forward in paragraph 19, namely, that in Azamgarh reh exists chiefly in strata that lie near the surface of the old alluvium country. When working its way through the old alluvium, the river removed the upper beds. If there were reh in the lower strata over which the river flowed, and on which it laid its sandy, porous deposits, the reh would probably pass through them and exude upon their surface.

39. Among the most remarkable features of the kachhár are the three great lakes or *Táls* that lie within or adjoin it. These are the *The three great Táls.* Salóná Tál in pargana Sagrí, the Pakrí-Pewá Tál in pargana Ghosí, and the Narjá Tál in pargana Muhammadábád. Whether or not these lakes owe their existence altogether to the action of the Gogra, that is, whether the depressions of the earth's surface in which they are contained were hollowed out in the old alluvium by the river, or existed before the river cut out its channel, it seems likely that they at one time had full communication with the river. At the present time each of them is connected with the Chhotí Sarjú by a small canal, which may, however, be of artificial construction. The largest and deepest of the lakes is the Pakrí-Pewá Tál, but none of them have been known to become altogether dry. A good deal of rice is cultivated round their edges; they abound in fish and wild fowl; wild rice, rushes, sivár, and other aquatic vegetation choke many parts of them; and in the Pakrí-Pewá Tál especially the floating masses of vegetation called *lúds* are so thick and close in texture as to support a person walking upon them.

40. The kachhár of the Gogra in the north of parganas Ghosí and Nathúpur is similar to that which has just been described. It unquestionably was formed of deposits left by the Gogra, as, at some period of its history, its channel either shifted to the northward or diminished in size. The country is generally highest along or near the river; while under the bank that marks the termination of the bángar uplands there is a line of depression towards which the surface of the country behind the river's bank gradually slopes back.

Part of this depression generally contains water, at least in the rainy season. In the middle of pargana Nathūpur it widens out into the large Ratoe Tāl, which resembles the lakes of the kachhār of the Chhotī Sarjū. It is connected with the Gogra by an outlet to the eastward known as the Háhá.

41. Recently the Gogra showed some tendency to return to its old channel close to the bāngar country. During three or four years previous to 1872, it cut away a good deal of the high land on its edge, and topping the bank, its spill water spread across the country to the southward, covering the surface with sand and leaving the seeds of what soon became a dense jungle of high grass and tamarisk. To this is due the small proportion of cultivated land noted on the margin of paragraph 32. Three or four deep nālās also were excavated by it in the same direction. Through these large rapid streams flowed into the Ratoe Tāl, and out again into the Gogra by the Háhá. The deeper parts of the lake have become shallower from the deposits of silt thrown down by the current, while a large area on the west and north sides of the lake has been covered with sand and raised above its ordinary flood-level. But during the last three years the river has not risen above its banks; the embankments which were thrown across the mouths of the nālās that led its water through the Ratoe have stopped its progress in that direction; and the injured tracts seem to be in a fair way to recover from the effects of the inundations. A fresh survey has shown a large increase in cultivation.

42. The kachhār is less fertile than the bāngar, and is said to be generally less prosperous. In the better raised parts the general aspect of the country, the hamlets and groves, do not differ much from those of the bāngar; but in parts liable to inundation, or in which the soil is sandy and poor, the hamlets are small, scattered, and poor-looking. Though there is very little úsar, properly so called, in the kachhār, the tracts of waste are very extensive, both in those parts that adjoin the Gogra and in those at a distance from it. In the latter are downs of light sandy soil which cannot bear constant cropping, and which the people must allow to lie fallow for considerable periods. In the former are wide *dewárá*s, much of which is covered with long grass and tamarisk, and the liability of which to destruction by the river, as well as their inaccessibility in the season of floods, keep from having a settled population. The *dewárá*s are nearly altogether destitute of trees, the land being too water-logged in the rains, and the soil too loose, to support them.

SECTION III.

Climate.

43. Natives of the country consider the climate of the Azamgarh district to be healthy. In some seasons there is a good deal of fever towards the end of the rainy season in the south part of it. But the health of the people is generally good throughout the year; epidemic disease is rare; and constitutional affections produced by the special climate of the district seem to be nearly or altogether wanting. If the lower classes of the population have an ill-conditioned look, it is due to the poverty that over-population has brought about—is in fact a result of a good rather than of a bad climate.

44. The rainy season—the first part of the agricultural year—generally begins in the second or third week of June, and lasts till the beginning of October. The first burst of rain comes sometimes from the west or north-west, sometimes from the east or north-east. It consists generally of heavy intermittent falls of rain rather than of continuous soaking wet. Not unfrequently the weather clears at once, and the rain is succeeded by bright days, with the breeze from the westward. The next fall of rain is usually accompanied by east or

north-east wind, and during the rest of the rainy season the prevailing wind is easterly. At intervals, however, it veers to the west, the change during the latter half of August (in the *māhānakshatr* called *mughā*) being regarded with some apprehension by the agriculturist. He believes that for every day of west wind then, there will be a night of frost in January; and the *pān* gardeners (*barais*), whose plants are particularly susceptible of frost, keep a regular tally of the days of west wind at that particular period. During the night in the rainy season heavy dews form; and the temperature of the air at different times of the season and of the day of twenty-four hours varies from about 95° Fahr. (in the shade) to about 75° Fahr.

45. A permanent change in the temperature is perceptible about the middle of October, and the cool season may be said to begin then, and to last till the middle or latter part of March. But out of this period two months only can be spoken of as cold, namely, December and January; and in the first and last part of it, that is, in October and March, the direct rays of the sun at certain times of the day are, according to native susceptibility, as trying as at any other season of the year. The wind is generally from the west during the cool season, but it not unfrequently changes for a time to the east, bringing with it damp weather. Violent winds are not generally experienced during the first three months, and November in particular is remarkable for its still, soft atmosphere. The night dews during those months are heavy, but they gradually fall off as the season advances. In December and January the temperature of the air ranges from about 80° Fahr. (in the shade) to about 40° Fahr. In the latter part of December and in January ground frosts sometimes occur at night, which do injury to the field crops, chiefly to the peas and arahar. During the progress of settlement no very serious frosts have occurred; and it has been observed that damage from frost is usually very local, tracts or individual fields being affected, while others in the same neighbourhood are untouched. Very general and destructive frosts are, however, not unknown. The people still talk by the name of the *barkā pālā* of a great frost that took place in January, 1819, by which the spring crops, including barley and wheat, were so much injured that a scarcity followed not less severe than a partial failure in the rainfall would have caused. In February and March the wind is generally westerly, and sometimes blows with violence. Storms, too, occasionally occur, and till the people get all their crops off the ground in March, they are generally in more or less dread of hail. This, however, very rarely does damage to any extent, and the only hailstorm that has left an impression on the people took place in February 1818. According to their story, it passed over a considerable part of Azamgarh, destroying the crops utterly; and the losses it caused no doubt made the damage done by the frost of the succeeding year more keenly felt.

46. The hot dry months are April, May, and the first part of June. The range of the thermometer during the hot weather, at different times of the season and of the day of twenty-four hours, is from about 110° (in the shade) to 79° Fahr. Little or no palpable dew is formed. During April and the early part of May west winds blow pretty steadily during the day, and the nights are comparatively cool and pleasant; but thereafter east wind not unfrequently prevails for days together, and this, if not so hot as the west wind, is from its relaxing character a good deal more trying.

SECTION IV.

Rainfall.

47. Complete returns of the rainfall seem to be extant only for the last seventeen years. An abstract of them, divided into periods for reasons which appear below, is given in the subjoined table:—

Year.	JUNE.		JULY.	AUGUST.	SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			Total from June to October.	November to January.	February.	March to May.	Total from November to January.	Grand Total.
	1st to 15th.	16th to 30th.			1st to 14th.	15th to 22nd.	23rd to 30th.	1st to 7th.	8th to 14th.	15th to 31st.						
1859-60	1.9	2.6	3.5	11.	.8	.3	.2	20.3	.55	20.8
1860-619	11.3	5.4	4.5	.7	.7	3.6	1.9	...	29.	.25	.1	29.7
1861-62	6.3	6.9	9.1	2.7	5.9	...	1.1	3.	1.	...	36.	.1	...	2.	29.1	38.1
1862-63	...	1.5	12.9	11.6	2.3	.9	3.2	.5	.3	1.	34.2	.13	.4	34.6
1863-64	2.3	2.5	9.1	14.2	1.1	.3	2.1	5.6	1.2	...	38.4	.2	1.1	...	1.6	39.7
1864-65	...	1.8	4.4	6.2	5.5	.4	.1	15.4	.4	.3	4.1	4.8	23.2
1865-66	.4	1.5	10.5	12.8	3.4	.1	.6	29.3	.8	.9	.9	.2	31.9
1866-67	.5	1.5	11.5	8.3	1.6	.5	.2	28.6	.8	1.6	2.8	5.2	33.8
1867-68	.6	5.5	10.1	12.	5.9	3.6	2.51	3.2	43.5	.5	2.	1.7	4.2	47.7
1868-69	.1	3.8	8.3	4.5	.6	3.3	1.	.3	31.94	.4	22.3
1869-70	.7	1.1	10.1	9.9	3.8	3.5	4.5	6.	3.2	...	42.8	1.3	1.3	44.1
1870-71	.1	.4	18.8	9.1	6.4	1.	1.2	8.8	45.3	.4	.5	2.4	3.3	48.6
1871-72	.8	4.6	14.9	13.6	10.2	3.5	5.9	53.5	3.	.1	.5	3.6	57.1
1872-73	2.5	2.2	13.8	12.4	4.7	2.9	.5	39.2	.8	1.	40.
1873-74	.7	1.8	14.3	8.6	2.	.2	.1	27.7	.4	.3	.4	1.1	28.8
1874-75	2.7	7.8	9.	12.1	5.	...	3.5	3.6	43.7	1.2	.7	.6	2.5	46.2
1875-76	1.6	5.1	9.7	22.2	6.6	2.2	1.5	48.9	.25	.7	49.6

Abstract return for
twenty-six years.

A return of the total rainfall for all the years whose
rainfall is found on record in the Azamgarh Collectorate is
also given:—

Year.	Total rainfall.	Year.	Total rainfall.	Year.	Total rainfall.
1844-45	31.66	1859-60	20.8	1868-69	22.3
1845-46	34.28	1860-61	29.7	1869-70	44.1
1846-47	28.40	1861-62	38.1	1870-71	48.6
1847-48	47.42	1862-63	34.6	1871-72	57.1
1848-49	31.43	1863-64	39.7	1872-73	40.
1849-50	37.23	1864-65	23.2	1873-74	28.8
1850-51	40.29	1865-66	31.9	1874-75	46.2
1851-52	36.10	1866-67	33.8	1875-76	49.6
1852-53	50.43	1867-68	47.7		

48. The seasonable distribution of the rainfall over certain periods of the year is as important, if not more important, to the agriculturist than its gross amount during the year. And the most critical period is of course the rainy season from June to October.

49. Agriculturists reckon during that season by the periods which are known as *māhānakshatras*, and which they call *nakhats*. There are twenty-seven *nakhats* in the solar or *sankrant* year; but very few of the people know or can enumerate any of them except those which fall within or immediately precede and follow the rainy season. These are as follows:—

Name.	Number.	Approximate corresponding period in the English calendar.
Rohini	Fourth	22nd May to 4th June.
Mrigshirā (Mirgdahā)	Fifth	5th June to 18th June.
Adrā	Sixth	19th June to 2nd July.
Punarbas	Seventh	3rd July to 16th July.
Pūkh (Chiraiyā)	Eighth	17th July to 30th July.
Slekha (Asrekha)	Ninth	31st July to 13th August.
Maghā	Tenth	14th August to 27th August.
Purabā	Eleventh	28th August to 9th September.
Uttarā	Twelfth	10th September to 23rd September.
Haat (Hatiā)	Thirteenth	24th September to 7th October.
Chitrā	Fourteenth	8th October to 20th October.
Swātī (Siwātī)	Fifteenth	21st October to 2nd November.

A favourable season begins with a good fall of rain early in Adrá, and ends with a similar fall in Hast. The popular saying is :—
A model rainy season.

Chaphat barise Adrá útrat barse Hast,
Kitno Rájá danā le sukbi rahe girhast.

Delay in the commencement of the rains, by keeping back the sowings, endangers the yield of the autumn or early kharif crops which ripen in September. Their premature close is attended with serious consequences to the transplanted rice, which is harvested in the third week of November. In the two periods that follow Adrá, especially in Púkh, continuous heavy rain is, on the whole, deprecated. It interferes with the growth of the young sugarcane and the weeding of the autumn crop. But, on the other hand, it is good for the transplanted rice, because the rice lands soon become sufficiently submerged to admit of the early planting out of the crop. Rice planted out in Púkh generally yields a very good outturn if the rest of the season is tolerably favourable. During Asrekhá and Maghá heavy rain is looked for, and in Purabá and Uttrá rather more sunshine than rain. Floods in the two latter periods are apt to damage the transplanted rice crop; the early autumn crop has to be harvested; and chiefly in Uttrá is some fair weather desirable, the ploughing in that period of the lands reserved for the spring or rabi crops, previous to the last heavy fall of rain in Hast, being deemed specially efficacious. On the whole, during the season from Adrá to Hast, neither excessive rain nor drought is wished for. Falls of rain interspersed with days of sunshine allow the husbandman to make something of every crop, favour his sugarcane and early autumn crop, enable him to plant out and secure, without much labour in irrigation, his transplanted rice, and let him plough the fields which he has kept fallow for the more valuable kinds of spring crops.

50. The rainfall at other periods of the year is of comparatively little importance. During the second and third weeks of October clear dry weather is required that the sowing of the spring crop may go on uninterruptedly. A fall of rain in the end of October, in the nakshatr called Swáti, is supposed to be beneficial to the sugarcane then approaching maturity. But, on the other hand, it is apt to do harm to the spring sowings. Rain in December and January, if followed at once by clear weather, is popularly supposed to double the yield of the spring crops; but continued damp weather at that time, inducing rust and smut in the grain crops, and making the pea crops run to stalk and leaf, has the opposite effect. In the spring and hot weather, except in the Rohini nakshatr, the husbandman is usually indifferent about rain as far as crops are concerned. Of the principal crops that he then has to tend, namely, sugarcane and indigo, the former is said to do best with well water; and the rain of the nakshatr called Mrigsirá is supposed to be as noxious to the crops as that of Rohini is beneficial.

51. The foregoing tables show that in a term of years the rainfall will probably vary much, not only in its gross yearly amount, but in its distribution within each year.

52. But they do not show a total, or nearly total, failure of the rainfall in any year; and it has not been ascertained that during the last hundred years there has from drought been a famine in the land, by which is meant a calamity in which the general population was decimated by starvation or deserted its homes in search of food. The year 1839 sambat (1782-83 A.D.) has not been forgotten by the people in some places. The scarcity was severe; and at least in the town of Mau, then larger than now, deaths from starvation occurred. Mirzá Atá Beg was chakladár of Azamgarh at the time, and a mosque and wells in the little town of Kopáganj are pointed out, which he had made in order to give employment to the poor of the place. But the general population did not die from starvation, and wheat sold in the Kopáganj market at 14 sers (80 tolas) for the rupee—an unprecedented rate for those days doubtless, but not indicative of absolute

dearth. Regarding the year 1837-38 there seems to be no special memory, and wheat is said to have sold at 20 sers for the rupee. Since then there have been years of scarcity, and wheat has risen (as in October 1869) to 11 sers for the rupee; but there has been no famine properly so called.

53. The apparent immunity of this part of the country from total, or nearly total, failure of the rainfall may be due to its geographical position. As far as the tradition and memory of the present generation go back, there has not been a year in which there was not rain enough to give them part at least of the autumn harvest, to keep some of the sugarcane alive, and to allow of most of the lands that are used for spring crops being got ready for sowing. In 1873, for instance, the winter rice crop was utterly lost from the scantiness of the rainfall in September and October. But the autumn crop was good, the sugarcane survived the partial drought, and though the people had to moisten much of the land with such tank water as was left, or with water raised from wells, before they put in the seed, the spring harvest was one of the heaviest that they had reaped for several years.

54. But if the risk of famine from total failure of the rainfall seems small, the district is liable to suffer severely, and not unfrequently, from partial droughts. It can scarcely be otherwise in a district in which one-fourth of the whole cultivated area is used for transplanted rice—in the south portion of which, indeed, the land under that crop is as much as forty and fifty per cent. of the cultivated area. Transplanted rice must be copiously supplied with water; the sources from which it is irrigated themselves depend on the rainfall, and well irrigation is of no avail. While settlement has been in progress, failure of the rice crop has twice taken place—in 1868-69 and in 1873-74. In the latter year the loss was so complete that only in a few favoured places, and there with trouble and expense in irrigation, was seed grain saved. And the effects of the drought ran on into the next season, when a good deal of land lay fallow, because the cultivators had not been able to afford seed. In 1868-69 the case was much the same. If the loss of the rice crop was not quite so complete as in 1873-74, the early autumn harvest also was deficient; and the people were more pinched than in the latter year. To judge from the rainfall returns, the seasons of 1859-60, 1864-65, and 1865-66 resembled those of 1868-69 and 1873-74; and in the old records of the district references are found for several years to failure of the rice harvest.

55. An excessive rainfall, though perhaps less disastrous to the agriculturist than a defective one, is also very unfavourable. There has been one such while the settlement has been in progress: in 1871-72. In that year the early autumn and the sugarcane crops, where not altogether destroyed by inundation, yielded very little; a good deal of the transplanted rice was damaged by excessive floods; and the lands in which the spring crops are sown could not, from the continuous wet, be properly tilled. The prospects of the latter harvest were therefore indifferent from the first; and in January and February there was a great deal of damp wet weather which made the result very poor.

56. In the same year (1871-72) destructive inundations took place in the low alluvial lands near the Gogra and Chhoti Sarjú, and in the valley of the Ton's. The Gogra inundations indeed were a repetition of inundations of the same sort in the preceding seasons; and they were followed by similar, but less harmful, floods in the succeeding year. In all the years much of the early autumn and sugarcane crops was injured or destroyed in the kachhár country in the north of parganas Gopálpur, Sagrí, and Nethúpur, and a good deal of land was thrown out of cultivation.

57. The Tons rose above its usual level in the rains of 1870; but the flood of that year did little damage compared with the great flood of September 1871. By the latter, which rose far above and beyond the channel of the stream, the autumn and sugarcane crops over a large area and many hamlets and houses were destroyed. Parts of the town of Azamgarh were submerged; and though no loss of life and little or no loss of property, except standing crops and mud houses, anywhere occurred, a good deal of distress followed, and the flood is likely to remain for a time, as a local era, in the memory of the people. It was not the first of its kind in the Tons, however. A similar flood took place in September 1794, when Bú Alí Khán was chakladár of Azamgarh; and another occurred in July 1838. The levels of these floods had been preserved on an old house in the town of Muhammadábád; and from the marks it appears that the flood of 1871, though about two and a half feet higher than that of 1838, fell short of the flood of 1794 by about a foot.

58. On the whole the Azamgarh cultivator seems to have as little reasons as the British farmer to speak with cordiality and certainty about the weather, in recent times at least. The following is a brief description of the seasons that have passed since 1868:—

In 1868-69 the early autumn crop was poor: the winter rice was lost: the sugarcane and spring crops were fair.

1869-70 was a successful season all round, the winter rice crop especially being very good.

In 1870-71 the early autumn harvest was indifferent: the winter rice was fair: the sugarcane was indifferent: the sowings of the spring crops were nearly finished when very heavy rain fell, which destroyed much of the seed and necessitated second sowings, and the harvest ultimately was not very good.

1871-72, the year of the Tons flood, has been described.

1872-73 was a fair year all round, except that the winter rice in some parts suffered from the rather light rainfall of September.

In 1873-74 the early autumn crop was good: the winter rice was lost: the sugarcane was indifferent, and in some places was destroyed by grasshoppers: the spring harvest was very good.

1874-75 was a good year all round as regards grain crops; but in parganas Máhul and Nizámábád and parts of Deogáon the sugarcane was utterly destroyed by grasshoppers, and elsewhere the yield of sugar was indifferent.

In 1875-76 the early autumn harvest was good: the winter rice was fair, but in some places suffered a little from excess of water in August and from the lightness of the September rainfall: the sugarcane was exceptionally good: the spring crops were poor from the high west winds which prevailed in January and February.

The above record for eight years is made from personal observation and inquiry. The rainfall statement indicates that a history of the nine years preceding them would probably not be much different. Whether or not the period from 1859 to 1875 has contained an exceptionally large number of unfavourable years, there are no very precise means of judging. The people say that it has: and they may be right; but their testimony to the relative merits of the present and past is not usually of much value.

SECTION V.

Sources of irrigation.

59. No canals have been constructed in this district, and the sources of irrigation are, first, streams, lakes, swamps, ponds, and artificial tanks, which in all occupy an area of upwards of a lakh of acres; and second, wells, masonry and plain (*pakká* and *kachchá*).

60. Of the cultivated area of the district ninety per cent. has been returned as irrigated—a large proportion. It is not meant, however, that the whole of this area is irrigated every year. In the first place, the whole irrigable area is not sown every year with crops that need to be irrigated. A small proportion of it, for instance, is yearly sown with arahar, which is never watered artificially. But the arahar-bearing fields of one year will probably be sown next year with crops that need irrigation, while the arahar-bearing fields of the latter year were under irrigated crop in the former. Again, much rice land is so favourably situated that though in bad seasons water must be artificially supplied to it, in ordinary and good seasons little or no irrigation is called for. And lastly, much of the irrigation is from natural and artificial reservoirs which depend for their supply of water upon a regular yearly rainfall. In years when the rainfall is deficient and the necessity for irrigation is greatest, these reservoirs are least able to meet the demand upon them, and much of the irrigated land of ordinary years remains unirrigated. It is true that an expansion of the irrigation from wells follows a failure in the rainfall. The permanent wells are utilized to the utmost, and temporary wells are dug where permanent ones are wanting. But irrigation from wells is little or no help to land that is used only for rice, the dribblets of water which they can be made to yield being altogether insufficient to keep it flooded. It must therefore be borne in mind that while the so-called irrigated area of Azamgarh contains nothing but land for which water ought to be, and in favourable years is, available, the irrigation is not persistent, but is liable to considerable fluctuation and mishap.

61. Throughout the bāngar or old alluvium, whether in the northern or in the southern division of the district, irrigation is desiderated for all the cultivated land. The unirrigated land is that for which water is not procurable at all, or which is so poor as not to be worth the cost of irrigation, or which cannot from its position—on the sloping bank of the Tons for instance—be properly irrigated. Only seven per cent. of the cultivated area of the bāngar is absolutely unirrigated. It is different in the kachhār country. More than half (55 per cent.) of its cultivated land is unirrigated; and the reason is that irrigation is very little needed, especially in that part of the country which lies near the Gogra in parganas Gopālpur, Sagri, and Nathūpur. There not even sugarcane fields are irrigated, for water is so near the surface and the subsoil is so porous that even in the hottest months the crops are sufficiently supplied with moisture.

62. The chief streams of the district have been already enumerated. From the Gogra and its branches little irrigation is practised. The other streams also after they fall much below the level of the country are not very much used. This is due in many places to the raviné and barren state of their banks. Where, however, cultivation has been carried down to the edge of the bank, water is generally raised from the river to irrigate the fields nearest to it. Weirs are not commonly made on the deep-cut channels. Any that are to be seen are temporary only, that is, are made every year after the flood season; and they are as often meant to store drinking water for the cattle during the hot months as for irrigation.

63. But in the upper parts of their courses, while still in the swamp stage, or in beds that are little below the surface of the country, the minor streams and nūlās of the district are most important sources of irrigation. Embankments are thrown across them at intervals, and water is stored along their whole course for the use of the lands through which they pass.

64. About the irrigation from the streams or swamps few disputes take place. Whoever may have the management of the embankments, the landholders on both sides, whose land reaches to the stream or swamp, use the water for irrigation and take the produce of that land on their own.

side which is not actually in the trough or *safed nadi* of the stream or swamp. Estates also that do not touch the stream or swamp have in some places acquired a prescriptive right to irrigation from it, deep watercourses being dug to lead water into them. Quarrels about this right sometimes occur; but the presence or absence of a long deep irrigation channel is evidence which can scarcely be rebutted, and should generally be sufficient ground for a decision. As a rule, the holders of such estates are not entitled artificially to raise water from the stream or swamp into the channels; but so long as it flows along them of itself, the landholders of the intervening land may not cut off the supply. And in the case of all estates that benefit by the irrigation on both sides of the stream or swamp, there is generally a rule regulating in a rough way the proportion of water that each is entitled to. Within the bounds of each there is a fixed number of main irrigation inlets (*pains*) or stations (*bodars*) for raising water, which the holders may not permanently increase without permission from their neighbours.

65. But vexatious disputes arise at times either about the possession and maintenance of the irrigation embankments and the right to take the fish and other natural products in the basin in front of them and in the trough of the swamp above, or about the opening and shutting of the escape channel.

66. In respect to disputes of the first class, many of which the officers of this department have had to adjust at the present settlement, the general custom in the district is that embankments are held and maintained by the landholders on one side only of the swamp or stream. If the opposing estates between which the stream or swamp runs are extensive, two dams will probably be found within their bounds, one higher up belonging to the landholders on one side, the other lower down belonging to those on the other. As a rule, the landholders who hold and maintain an embankment, alone take the fish and other products in the basin and trough up to the dam next above their own.

67. Quarrels about the opening and shutting of the sluices of the dams take place not so much between landholders of opposing estates, as between those whose estates lie above and below each other on the swamp or stream. One and the same level of water behind an embankment is not likely always to suit the circumstances of all the estates lying within its influence. It will be easily understood therefore that great heart-burning sometimes takes place over the management of the sluices; and in discussing the quality of a tract of rice land, a not unfrequent argument urged against its excellence is, that a dam further down the stream or swamp with which it is connected is under the control of other landholders, who consult only their own advantage in the management of the sluice. And, in fact, in most localities the holders of an embankment have unrestricted control over the sluice; but in others, long established usage as to the width and depth of the escape channel, the height of the mound that is thrown across it, and the seasons and occasions for constructing and removing the mound, limit the power of the holders of the embankment in favour of the estates about and above theirs.

68. On the whole the ancestors and predecessors of the present generation of landholders made fair use of the natural positions at their disposal for the storing of water. Their industry is most noteworthy in some of the short *nâls* or ravines which run off the uplands into the deeper streams. By throwing weirs across these they have in many cases checked the erosion of the uplands and turned into profitable cultivation land that would probably have remained useless waste (*paras.* 12 and 28). Serious damage, in repairing which extra expenditure must be incurred, may happen to the irrigation embankments in seasons of excessive floods; but generally the cost of their maintenance is small. In many cases it is covered by the value of wood, chiefly *babul* trees, that grow upon them, and of the fish and other natural products in the bed of the swamp or stream.

The people generally keep the dams in serviceable order, and the ruins of an abandoned embankment are rarely seen. The only instances which come to mind are in some of the short ravines that lead into the Tons ; and for these the people were scarcely answerable. The anicuts across the ravines had been high, and their destruction having been brought about partly by pressure from within, and partly by back-water floods from the river, they have never been repaired. It is conceivable that it might become advantageous to the people to have their irrigation works supervised by Government agency, especially when the supineness and want of unanimity in the management of common concerns, which the increase in the numbers of the village communities and the multiplicity of petty interests bring about, are taken into account. But at present the people may safely enough be left to manage their own irrigation affairs.

69. Irrigation from lakes, marshes, and ponds is regulated much in the same way as that from the reservoirs on streams and swamps. All the estates that extend into the lakes and marshes have a certain number of inlets or *pains* from them. In some cases estates that are separated by the lands of other proprietors from the lakes and marshes have canals communicating with the latter, along which, above a certain level, water of itself flows. It not unfrequently happens that the whole basin of a lake or pond is included in one or some only of the estates that lie on one side of it, while the other estates bordering on it stop short at its margin. As a rule, the latter estates have by prescription a certain number of irrigation inlets, but not always ; and disputes regarding irrigation sometimes arise which are not always easy of decision.

70. Most of the artificial tanks (upwards of 15,000 in number) that are used for irrigation are of old date. Though not wanting in the north division of the district, they are to be found chiefly in the south division, especially in tahsil Deogán and in the south of tahsil Máhul. The construction of many of them is assigned to the *Suiris* and *Rajbhars*, by which names the predecessors of the present tribes of landholders are now known. But many also have been dug by the ancestors of persons still living in the land, and are known as theirs. In the present day two or three tanks probably are dug in the district every year, not for irrigation purposes however, but generally near thoroughfares and as works of religious merit, or to perpetuate the name of the childless constructor. The latter are not only landholders, but mostly outsiders—traders and the like—who have purchased permission to make the tanks from the landholders. Tanks of recent construction are rarely, if ever, used for irrigation ; they are reserved for ablution and the watering of cattle. In almost all cases they are simple excavations ; rarely is a masonry approach made even on one side. There are not a dozen tanks completely walled with masonry in the district.

71. The artificial tanks vary much in size. Some of the *Suiris* and *Rajbhar* tanks cover several acres ; while at the present day one acre or less is as much as is usually taken up for them, banks and all. Their depth also varies both at the time of construction and with their age. They are now rarely carried deeper than twenty feet, are made of a square or oblong shape, and a *kachela* well, reaching to the spring level, is generally dug in the middle. The earth removed in excavation is thrown round them in high banks or mounds parallel with their sides. Openings in the mounds are left at two at least of the corners for ingress and egress, and also to allow a certain amount of the surface water of the neighbouring lands to run into and fill the tanks during the rainy season. In the south part of the district, where the country is open and the view is not interrupted by groves and trees, these mounds are conspicuous in the landscape. Where bare, they look like old mud forts ; but occasionally they are planted with trees and covered with thicket.

72. The people have not done their best to keep up the capacity of their irrigation tanks. They have generally been content to see them silting up, when a little periodical cleaning out might have preserved their original depth. Rather than clean out and repair tanks known by other men's names, those who have money to spend on such works covet the undivided glory of making a new one. The cultivation of crops on the mounds is not very often attempted, and even when possible, is not generally allowed, because it promotes the shoaling of the tanks. The only plant that is raised to any extent on them is *pán* (betel leaf). Almost invariably, tanks on the mounds of which there are large *pán* beds are old and much silted up. Possibly, the *pán*-growing was less the cause of the mischief, than started because the mischief had already been done. But, irrespective of this, very many of the old tanks have become in the course of generations little better than large shallow sancers. It is hoped occasion may not arise for them, but no more useful local relief works than the restoration of old tanks could be opened in the south part of the district.

73. It remains to notice the artificial irrigation works called *láts*. A *lát* is a long straight or curved embankment thrown across a plain on which rice land is cultivated, and there is a flow of surface water. The earth with which the embankment is formed is dug from one side—the inner side—of it only, and a moat of some depth is thus formed. Not only is the surface drainage collected in the moat, but the flow being stopped by the embankment, the cultivated land in front of it is kept flooded. The area that can be irrigated from an ordinary *lát* in seasons of unsteady rainfall is not great; but in ordinary years *láts* help to equalize the water-supply of the whole area within their influence.

74. As a rule, the cultivators of those fields of an estate that lie round or near a tank or *lát* irrigate from it, irrespective of the individual ownership of it. But the water is not generally allowed to pass out of the estate. Sometimes, however, an old tank is situated on the boundary of an estate, and claims to prescriptive rights of irrigation are brought by the holders of the neighbouring one. It is not always easy to get at the facts in these disputes, or after they have been ascertained, to determine whether irrigation, if enjoyed by the outsiders, was so by grace merely or by legal right.

75. While tank water is available, the people use it in preference to well water for all ordinary field crops. It is supposed to be less beneficial to the spring crops and sugarcane than well water. But, as we shall see (paragraphs 362—374), the method of using it is easier and cheaper than well-irrigation. In the general run of seasons the proportion of tank-watered land is about three-fourths of the whole irrigated area in the south division and in the *kachhár* part of the northern division of the district, and about one-half of the irrigated area in the *bángar* part of the latter division.

76. In the *bángar* part of the latter division water is generally found during the dry months at fifteen or sixteen feet from the surface of the ground, and in the *kachhár* at eight or ten feet. In the former wells are deepest in the country near the main streams. In the south division of the district the average depth at which water is met is eighteen or twenty feet.

77. The construction of masonry (*pakká*) wells, of which there are about 24,000 in the district, is not a matter of very much difficulty in most parts of it. When intended for irrigation, they are almost always made of kiln-burnt bricks set in mud cement. Very rarely is calcareous cement used, except at the top of the shaft near the surface of the ground. Occasionally wells are to be seen lined with thick circular hoops of kiln-burnt earthenware, called *kothís*, the pieces of which are fitted to each other by a rough tenon and mortise. But as the shaft of wells of this sort cannot be sunk through the strata, the hoops being simply set up round the pit of the well,

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such wells have little depth, and are made chiefly to supply drinking water. Generally, irrigation wells are made of a diameter sufficient to allow only two watering parties to work at once: wells for four watering parties are seldom met with. In all, the number of irrigation wells in the district is about 18,000.

78. Irrigation wells vary in their water-supply according as they contain a more or less copious bottom spring or *musard*, or are filled merely by filtration from their sides, that is, by *sotís*; and the character of the well may generally be inferred, at least in the south division of the district, from the method in which it is worked (*see paras. 371 - 373*).

79. According to the settlement returns, the average area irrigated from the masonry wells of the district is $14\frac{1}{2}$ acres. But this does not fully represent the extent to which they are utilized in years of scanty rainfall. In such years the lever wells alone must approach that average, while the average area watered from bucket wells is probably little less than 25 acres.

80. The cost of making a masonry well depends upon the depth to which it must be sunk, and the character of the strata in which it is sunk. Of at least one village in the district (Galji, in pargana Kauriá), the common report is that the tenants can make a masonry lever well for Rs. 25. In other spots twenty times that amount has failed to make a good bucket well. Probably a well for a single bucket costs most agriculturists in cash from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150, and a lever well of the same size about half that amount.

81. In Azamgarh plain or *kachchá* wells are almost always temporary only. They are dug after the rainy season at the cost sometimes of a few anas, at the most of two or three rupees; and they last, except in rare instances, till the next rainy season begins. They can be made in almost all parts of the district, but in some with greater facility and to greater advantage than in others. Where the strata through which a kachcha well is dug are tolerably firm, the shaft is not strengthened in any way. In some such places the people are not at the trouble even to make the well round. It is simply a deep rectangular hole dug in the ground. But when beds of sand are struck, it is necessary to line the shaft. This is generally done with a thick cable (*bíur*) made of arabar or tamarisk stalks, or of long thatching grass. The cable is coiled round the inside of the well over the stratum that threatens to give way, and it generally retains its position, and keeps the well clear during the short period for which it is required. In the *kachhár*, where such wells run into beds of sand only, they are of course very shallow. But in the *bángar*, if stiff *sirata* overlie and underlie the sand stratum, the well can be sunk to a considerable depth and be made very serviceable.

82. What has been said in the foregoing paragraphs may help to an opinion on the necessity for irrigation canals in this part of the country, and for relief operations in future droughts. With water so near the surface, wells so easily constructed, and a rainfall which has never within memory been an utter failure, Azamgarh is not in need of canals for the autumn, sugarcane, and spring crops. The rice tracts only in some seasons require artificial supplies of water. If canals were constructed to the westward in Oudh, a system of channels, in continuation of them, and to be kept open and worked only during the rainy season, might be devised for this district, which, ramifying along the watersheds, would communicate with the chief rice tracts, swamps, and natural drainage lines. Were such a system constructed, the swamps and drainage lines would become part of it, and the management of the water-flow in them would pass to Government officers. The outturn of the rice crops would then be comparatively uniform from year to year, and the distress which the people suffer from their periodical failure, as well as the difficulty that arises therefrom in collecting the land revenue, would be prevented. In fact, the revenue of many rice tracts which the uncertainty of their assets keeps low

might be considerably raised, and much land now waste would doubtless come under cultivation. For, vicissitudes of season being obviated, rice is one of the most easily raised and repaying of cereals. But, in the circumstances before described, would these advantages warrant the cost of making and keeping up such a system of canals?

83. As to relief operations, there can be no doubt that the partial droughts to which the district is subject cause a good deal of extraordinary distress among the lower classes of the population. These seasons of drought. never are blessed with an abundance of food and clothing, and the loss of part of their crops and a great rise in the price of food press them severely. At the same time most of them live partly by working for hire, and there is no want of agricultural employment in ordinary years of drought. If, therefore, the autumn harvest has been tolerably successful, the sugarcane crops have not been lost, and the prospects of the spring crop are fair, the failure of the rice may be tided over without any interference on the part of the authorities with the efforts of the general population to help itself. This was the case within our own experience in 1868-69 and 1873-74, the only relief that was called for being to the impotent poor in the town of Azamgarh and one or two other places. It would be different if (a contingency fortunately as yet unknown to the people) all the crops of the year were lost or deficient. In such a case the exigency of the district would be extreme; for it is thickly peopled with a poor agricultural population; and as the grain produced in it in favourable years seems scarcely sufficient to feed the population, the stores of grain within the district are probably small.

SECTION VI.

Communications.

84. The main lines of communication between the Azamgarh district and the outside world are—(1) the Gogra river; (2) the metalled roads which lead through the town of Azamgarh to Jaunpur and to Gházipur on the one side, and to Gorakhpur, by way of Dohrighát, on the other; and (3) the metalled road which connects Dohrighát directly with Gházipur. The movement of traffic into and from Azamgarh seems always to have been northward (towards the Gogra) and southward (towards the Ganges); not eastward and westward.

85. The Gogra river is still, and probably always will be, more or less of a highway, both westward and eastward, for the carriage into the north half of the district of food grains, salt, tobacco, and some other kinds of merchandise. The traffic eastward upon it, however, is less than it was thirty or forty years ago. Especially, the export traffic in sugar-stuffs to Calcutta, which once went on extensively, has now become small. The import traffic is still very considerable. But the cessation of export freights and the construction of the East Indian Railway have wrought a change in it also. Patná, which is situated both on the Ganges, below its junction with the Gogra, and on the East Indian Railway, is the limit to and from which much of the Gogra-borne traffic of Azamgarh now goes by water. Not many of the boatmen of Dohri and other river ports in Azamgarh now travel beyond Patná; whereas most of the older men will be found to have made in former days many voyages to Calcutta; and a considerable amount of imports from the eastward, which used to enter the district *via* the Gogra from the north, now travel by rail and enter it by road from the south. As for the traffic westward, that seems not to have altered perceptibly, though the construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway may eventually affect it. It consists chiefly of an import trade in grain from Gorakhpur, Basti, and the trans-Gogra districts of Oudh. In exchange for the grain, the only commodity produced in Azamgarh itself that is exported seems to be sugar, and that in limited quantity.

86. The roads—(1) from Azamgarh to Gházipur, (2) from Azamgarh to Jaunpur, (3) from Azamgarh to Dohri, and (4) from Dohri to Gházipur—
 (2.) The metalled roads through Azamgarh to Jaunpur and Gházipur and to Gorakhpur. are of very old date; but they have been improved, bridged, and metalled during the last thirty-five years. They have thus become more easily traversable, if not by foot passengers and pack-cattle, at least by pony carriages or *ekkas* and bullock carts and drays. They are much used, not only for Azamgarh traffic, but also for that outside traffic which passes through Azamgarh to and from the trans-Gogra districts. The first and fourth of them tap the Ganges, which is still a great highway of commerce; and all of them have now become feeders of the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways. Much of the merchandise that passes over them is transferred to or from the railways. They are the main passages out of the district for the sugar exports to the south and west, for the indigo and other exports to the east, and the main passages into the district for the imports of raw cotton, cloth, metal and other manufactured wares. The improvement of the roads above described and their connection with the railways have greatly facilitated traffic, and thus given to it a general impulse. But no new industry, agricultural or other, has thereby been developed.

87. The district possesses another metalled road besides those above described, namely, the Azamgarh and Benares road; and a raised and bridged road runs from Azamgarh to Faizábad. However useful for administrative and merely local purposes these roads may be, neither of them is much used for general traffic. The latter especially is not only out of the line in which traffic travels by road into and out of the district, but it has also to compete with the Gogra. It was metalled for about 26 miles some years ago, but has, very wisely, been again degraded to the rank of an unmetalled road. As to the former, the traffic between this district and Benares is very limited; and to and from other parts of the country to the east and west of Benares the Azamgarh trade seems to find its easiest paths through Jaunpur and Gházipur.

88. Throughout the district is a network of unmetalled roads and tracks over which the local trade is conveyed, and by which district imports are distributed and exports collected on the main lines. Some of these have been improved during the last thirty years; most of them are still little different from what they were then. A great deal of the local trade on these roads is by pack-loads on bullocks, buffaloes, ponies, and human beings. Not many of them bring in or take away outside traffic, the chief exceptions being the tracks leading out of pargana Máhul to Sháhganj and Khetá Sarai in the Jaunpur district, and the tracks which tap the Gogra at Mahárájganj, Chaprá, Nainíjor, and other places where grain is landed.

89. Of the minor streams of the district none are navigable all the year round, but during the rainy season and for a short time after it, the Tons with its branches, the Kunwar and Majhái; and the Chhotí Sarjú of the east kachhár country, are used for the carriage of goods. Even this, however, is to a limited extent. A few boatloads of stone sugar-presses from Chunar generally come up the Sarjú and Tons; molasses is exported eastward, and a little local traffic in grain, sugar, and firewood goes on. The last is cut in dhák woods and in groves along and near the banks of the streams, and is either sold on the spot to sugar refiners, who cut and ship it for themselves, or it is cut and shipped to places where it commands a profitable sale. The subordinate branches of the Gogra, as well as the

* Dohri is unquestionably the point at which a light railway from the southward towards Gorakhpur should strike the Gogra. The passage of the river is easy at that point (*see above, para. 38*). At Dohri merchandise is with facility shipped for Golá Gopálpur and other river ports up the Gogra, and for Barháj and other ports down the Gogra; and on it traffic from those directions converges. The line of rail from the south to Dohri should run through the town of Azamgarh. The distance from Gházipur to Dohri direct is 30 miles less than that from Gházipur to Dohri *via* Azamgarh. But a railway *via* Azamgarh would run more nearly through the centre of the district and benefit it more than a direct line would. As Azamgarh is, its claims to have the line of rail carried through it will, it is hoped, not be forgotten when the railway to Gorakhpur is projected.

Badrauwan and that part of the Chhoti Sarjā which is directly connected with the Gogra, are also navigable during the rainy season, and a considerable number of boats pass along them. But as soon as the floods subside they become dry or shallow, and can be no longer used for navigation.

SECTION VII.

Population and caste distribution.

The total population.

90. The total population of the district is 1,317,554.

Tahsil.	Pargana.	Total area in square miles.	Cultivated area.		Total population.	Population of towns (under Acts X. of 1866 and VI. of 1868.)	Rate of population per square mile of total area.	Rate of population per square mile of cultivation.	Average area of cultivated land to each individual.
			Square miles.	Acres.					
									A. r. p.
Deogāon ...	Deogāon ...	200	105	67,36½	101,472	...	507	966	0 2 26
	Belhábāns ...	61	34	21,730	33,986	...	557	999	0 2 22
Azamgarh ...	Nizamābād ...	442	248	158,786½	315,906	20,623	715	1,274	0 2 0
	Māhul ...	259	136	86,724½	150,371	1,902	580	1,105	0 2 12
Māhul ...	Kauriā ...	60	36	22,836½	41,494	...	691	1,153	0 2 8
	Atrauliā ...	116	70	44,891½	81,261	2,509	700	1,161	0 2 8
	Gopālpur ...	65	30	19,000½	37,012	2,068	570	1,234	0 2 2
Sagri ...	Sagri ...	230	131	83,729	137,294	...	596	1,048	0 2 18
	Ghosi ...	165	95	61,124	75,246	1,901	456	792	0 3 10
	Kiriāt Mittū ...	23	12	7,722½	11,380	...	495	948	0 2 29
Muhammādābād ...	Chiriākot ...	74	42	26,589½	42,344	2,092	572	1,008	0 2 20
	Muhammādābād ...	307	186	119,290½	202,509	26,818	659	1,089	0 2 14
	Mau Nāthbhanjan, ...	23	13	8,187½	19,326	11,702	840	1,487	0 1 26
Sikandarpur ...	Nathūpur ...	122	61	39,078½	67,953	...	557	1,114	0 2 13
	Total ...	2,147	1,199	767,062½	1,317,554	68,615	613	1,099	0 2 13

The population is dense. On the average there are 613 persons to the square mile, and 2 roods 13 poles of cultivated land to each person.

Its density. The density of the population bears out what has been said in the foregoing paragraphs about the healthiness of the climate, the immunity of the district from famines, and the facilities it possesses for raising produce.

Its distribution over the three main sections of the district. The population is located, as follows, in the divisions of the district which were described in the second section of this report :—

South division	525,569, or 565 persons to the square mile	
Bāngar portion of the north division	705,414, or 739 ditto	ditto.
Kachhār portion of the latter	86,571, or 830 ditto	ditto.

The reason for the comparatively thin population of the kachhār will be found in the description of the country before given. In the bāngar portion of the north division of the district all the principal towns are situated, namely, Azamgarh, Mau, Mubārakpur, and Kopā. But even excluding the population of these towns, that portion of the district is more thickly inhabited than the south division, the average density of the rural population being nearly 700 to the square mile. The principal cause of this also will be found in the foregoing paragraphs ; namely, the smaller proportion in the bāngar country of barren land or úsar, and of land that can be used only for rice crops.

91. A comparatively small part of the population is settled in towns. According to the census returns of 1872, the inhabitants of the district are accommodated in 242,348 enclosures or separate buildings. Of these, 8,366, with a population of 47,042 persons, are included in the four towns of Azamgarh, Mau, Mubārakpur, and Kopā. The rest (233,982), with their 1,270,512

inhabitants, are grouped into between 18,000 and 19,000 villages, which range from

And villages. hamlets of a few hovels to little towns of a thousand houses.

The average number of villages to the square mile is eight or nine; the average size of the villages is twelve or thirteen enclosures, and their average population upwards of fifty persons. The distribution of hamlets resembles that of the population. They are fewest in number and furthest apart in the kachhár country, most numerous in the north portion of the bángar.

92. The diffusion of the inhabitants over the surface of the district is due in a certain degree to the custom that compels some low castes to dwell apart. It may indicate, too, the great security of property and life that the people enjoy; with this, however, the poverty also of many of them. The people of outlying hamlets are often too poor to be worth the robbing. But the chief cause of it is the very large proportion of the population that is agricultural, and the minute sub-division of the land among them. In the circumstances it is highly advantageous. A large proportion of the cultivated area receives a fair share of tillage and manure; and probably more renovating matter finds its way directly into the soil, than if the people were gathered, with their animals, into a smaller number of larger villages.

93. According to the census returns of 1872, only 465 houses in the district were built with skilled labour; that is, it is supposed, were built of kiln-burnt bricks by professional bricklayers. The return in this sense is probably correct; for the walls of the great majority of the houses, even in the towns, consist of mud which had not been made even into sun-dried bricks and regularly built up by bricklayers. The walls are run up with lumps of damp mud (*londá*) in stages (*raddá*) of about a foot and a half in height all round, a new stage being added when the last is nearly dry. Common labourers—men and women—are employed in building, and receive, outside the town of Azamgarh, about 2 anas for a full day's work. In the towns the houses of all classes of people, and in the villages the houses of landholders, traders, writers, artisans, and tenant cultivators of the Brahman, Bhuinhár, and Rájput castes, are mostly tiled, and, in the towns at least, furnished with doors. A certain amount of skilled labour is called for in the construction of these houses; and though the tiled roofs cost more than plain thatch, they last longer, and are less likely to catch fire. The tiles are made by potters; carpenters are employed to make the doors and adjust the framework of wood and bamboo for the roof; common labourers make and put down the bundles of reed grass which are laid across the framework, but regular tilers (mostly of the Konhár and Luníán castes) are employed to set the tiles in mud upon the layer of grass bundles. Tilers and carpenters receive, out of the town of Azamgarh, from about 2 anas 4 pice to 2 anas 8 pice a day for a day's labour. But a very large proportion of the low caste peasantry live in thatched huts, on which no skilled labour is spent. This is due partly to their poverty and their being able to thatch their huts for themselves every year; partly to the uncertainty of their position. A man in their grade of life whose circumstances improve may change thatch for tiles, if he feels that he can hold his own against his landlord and the world in general. But if he is in doubt on the point, he prefers to keep his wealth in movables. If thatching grass (*khar* or *katrá*) is to be had for the cutting, which is the case only in some parts of the kachhár country, that is used; if not, rice straw or the dry leaves of the sugarcane plant are made into thatch. It is fastened on a frame made of fagots of arahar stalks or tamarisk, and is strengthened with a few bamboos. About most hamlets clumps of bamboo will be seen which the residents have planted, and one of the chief uses of which is to supply material for roofing. Rice straw, sugarcane leaves, and arahar stalks the people get from their fields, and tamarisk, where it is used in the kachhár, may be had for the cutting. No timber is used except for the ridge-pole. Even that often consists only of a couple of bamboos braced together; and the entrance to the hut is closed with a screen made of arahar or tamarisk stalks and sugarcane

leaves, or long grass. A fire therefore, if it clears the roofs and doors off a thatched village in a very short time, very rarely does any serious damage. The hovels in which the poor of the population are housed are, to our notion, miserable in the extreme. But much of their time is passed in the open air, and fortunately use breeds habit in all countries. To the dull sensibilities of these people their lot does not seem so hard as it does to ours.

The number of Hindus and Muhammadans.

94. The population is mainly Hindu.

Tablel.	Pargana.	Total population.	Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Percent- age of Hindus.	Percent- age of Muham- madans.
Deogán	Deogán ...	101,472	93,639	7,833	92.28	7.72
...	Belhábans ...	33,986	32,923	1,063	96.87	3.13
Azamgarh	Nizamábád ...	315,906	262,631	53,275	83.14	16.86
...	Mábul ...	150,371	125,086	25,285	83.18	16.82
Mábul	Kauriá ...	41,494	39,395	2,099	97.35	2.65
...	Atrauliá ...	81,261	74,914	6,347	92.19	7.81
...	Gopálpur ...	37,012	33,596	3,416	90.77	9.23
Sagri	Sagri ...	137,294	117,342	19,952	85.47	14.53
...	Ghosi ...	75,246	67,818	7,428	90.13	9.87
...	Kiriát Mittú ...	11,380	10,663	717	95.46	4.54
Muhammadábád	Chiriákot ...	42,344	38,261	4,083	90.36	9.64
...	Muhammadábád, ...	202,509	168,831	33,678	83.37	16.63
...	Mau Náthhanjan, ...	19,326	13,627	5,699	70.46	29.54
Sikandarpur	Nathúpur ...	67,953	60,285	7,668	88.71	11.29
	Total ...	1,317,554	1,139,211	178,343	86.47	13.53

The Muhammadan element is $13\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the whole, being, as we shall see, strongest in those parganas in which it holds a considerable share of the land. Pargana Mau is an exception to this. Most of the landholders are Hindus, but the area of the pargana is small, and the Muhammadan weaver population of the town forms a large part of the population of the pargana. Table I., Appendix IV., contains a complete caste statement for the district. Reference to it will show that while the Hindu trading, inferior cultivating, and mixed castes maintain a tolerably even average in all parganas, Muhammadans preponderate in those parganas in which the percentage of high caste (landholding) Hindus—especially of Kshatris—is smallest, and *vice versa*.

Hindu castes.

95. The details of the castes of the Hindu portion of the popula-

tion are these:—

Brahmans	92,752, or 7.05 per cent. of the whole population.		
Bhuinhárs	41,748, or 3.17	ditto	ditto.
Kshatris	113,087, or 8.59	ditto	ditto.
Total high caste Hindus	247,587, or 18.81	ditto	ditto.
Baniáns	36,243, or 2.75	ditto	ditto.
Agricultural low castes	621,406, or 47.24	ditto	ditto.
Other Hindu castes (writers, artisans, &c.)	239,149, or 17.51	ditto	ditto.

The figures differ from those given in the printed returns of the census of 1872. In the latter Bhuinhárs were not entered as a separate class, and it is not apparent in what classes they were included. The district caste statement has therefore been made up anew in the settlement office from the vernacular parganawár census returns.* But even now the return may be to some extent erroneous in respect to Brahmans, Bhuinhárs, and Kshatris; for it has not been practicable to examine the village statements, and in some of the pargana statements Bhuinhárs seem to have been entered as Brahmans or Kshatris.

* The classification of castes or tribes given in the printed returns is unsatisfactory in other respects. The names, for instance, of the great classes (such as Sarwaríá) among Brahmans are mixed up with the names of the hereditary titles (like Dábe and Chaubé) which may belong to Brahmans of any of the great classes of Brahmans of Northern India. Again, the name of the Bháradwáj got, to which both Brahmans and Kshatris belong, is put down as if, like Bais or Chauhan it were the title of a Kshatri class. The names of several castes, as printed in the returns cannot be identified, and the printed district totals for some castes do not agree with the vernacular parganawár returns.