

GAZETTER

of the

**DERA GHAZI KHAN
DISTRICT**

1893-97

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SANG-E-MEEL PUBLICATIONS
25 - SHAHRA-E-PAKISTAN (LOWER MALL), LAHORE-2 PAKISTAN

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REVISED EDITION,

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PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION, 1883-84.

THE period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the *Gazetteer* of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from District Officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the *Gazetteer* of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft *Gazetteer* compiled between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by District Officers; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilized. Of the present volume, Section A of Chapter V (General Administration), and the whole of Chapter VI (Towns), have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner; Section A of Chapter III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report; while here and there passages have been extracted from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to. But with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost, if not quite verbally from Mr. Fryer's Settlement Report of the district.

The draft edition of this *Gazetteer* has been revised by Messrs. Fryer, Gladstone and Douie, and by the Irrigation Department so far as regards the canals of the district. The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been fixed throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of transliteration.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

The present edition of the *Gazetteer* was prepared at the conclusion of the revision of settlement of the district. The following portions of it which are closely connected with the settlement have been almost entirely re-written :—

Chapter I.

„ IV, Section A.

„ V, „ C.

In the following the matter of the last edition has been partly retained but they have for the most part been re-written :— Chapter II Chapter III Sections D and E. Chapter III Section B is the account of social life given in Sir F. Fryer's Settlement Report, altered only so as to make it accord with the present time and Section C of the same Chapter is similiary his account of the religious life of the people slightly added to. Chapter III, Section F, contains his account of the Kalhora family, and the rest of the section describes the other leading families of the present days. Chapter III, Section A, Chapter IV Sections B and C and Chapter VI have been revised and brought up to date. Chapter V, Sections A and B have been revised with the assistance of the officers of the departments to which they relate. Valuable notes on various subjects have, as indicated where they appear in the *Gazetteer*, been kindly contributed by Captain C. P. Thompson, Deputy Commissioner, Mr. B. Wallis, Superintending Engineer, Mr. Molloy, Executive Engineer Indus Canals, and Dr. Jukes.

DERA GHAZI KHAN: }
March 3rd, 1898. }

A. H. DIACK,

Settlement Officer.

GAZETTEER

OF THE

DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT.

CONTENTS.

	SUBJECT.	PAGE.
<i>CHAP. I.—THE DISTRICT</i>		1
A.—DESCRIPTIVE		<i>ib.</i>
B.—GEOLOGY, FAUNA AND FLORA		11
" <i>II.—HISTORY</i>		18
" <i>III.—THE PEOPLE</i>		33
A.—STATISTICAL		<i>ib.</i>
B.—SOCIAL LIFE		41
C.—RELIGIOUS LIFE		49
D.—TRIBES AND CASTES		56
E.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES		76
F.—LEADING FAMILIES		91
" <i>IV.—PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION</i>		97
A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE AND LIVE STOCK		<i>ib.</i>
B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE		123
C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND COMMUNICATIONS		127
" <i>V.—ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE</i>		136
A.—GENERAL		<i>ib.</i>
B.—MILITARY AND FRONTIER		145
C.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE SETTLEMENTS		151
" <i>VI.—TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CANTONMENTS</i>		182

CHAPTER I.—THE DISTRICT.

Section A.—Descriptive—

General description	1
Physical features—The Sulmans	2
The Hill-torrents	<i>ib.</i>
The Pachad	3
The Sindh	4
Minor Natural divisions	5
Levels	<i>ib.</i>
The River Indus	<i>ib.</i>

SUBJECT.

PAGE.

CHAPTER III.—THE PEOPLE—*continued.*

Section B.—Social Life—

Infirmities	41
European and Eurasian population	<i>ib.</i>
The villages	<i>ib.</i>
Houses	42
Seclusion of women	<i>ib.</i>
Biloch dress, ornaments and arms	<i>ib.</i>
Food	43
The custom of <i>hál</i>	<i>ib.</i>
Biloch mares	<i>ib.</i>
Maintenance of Biloches when in attendance on the <i>tumandárs</i>	<i>ib.</i>
Biloch tactics in war	44
System of reprisals and commutations for murders	<i>ib.</i>
Adultery and divorce	<i>ib.</i>
Ceremonies attending birth	<i>ib.</i>
Ceremonies attending betrothals and marriages	45
Ceremonies attending funerals	<i>ib.</i>
Customs of other Muhammadan tribes	<i>ib.</i>
Hindu customs and ceremonies	<i>ib.</i>
Hindu dress and food	46
Character and the disposition of the people	<i>ib.</i>
Language	<i>ib.</i>
Bilochi	47
Education	<i>ib.</i>
Amusements; annual fairs	48
Dates on which fairs are held	<i>ib.</i>
Poverty or wealth of the people	<i>ib.</i>

Section C.—Religious Life—

General statistics and distribution of religions	49
Medical Mission	50
Fort Munro Hospital	51
Hindu sects	<i>ib.</i>
The district is a favourite resort of saints	<i>ib.</i>
Sakhi Sarwar—Miracles performed by Saidi Ahmad—Origin of the name of Sakhi Sarwar	52
The guardians of the Sakhi Sarwar shrine	<i>ib.</i>
Division of income—Description of the shrine	53
The Taansa shrine	54
The Dera Din Panah shrine—The Pir Adil shrine	54, 55
The Rais Sahib shrine	56

CHAPTER III.—THE PEOPLE—*continued*.

Section D.—Tribes and Castes—

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes	56
Division of land amongst the different tribes inhabiting the district ...	<i>ib.</i>
Jats and Rajputs	59
Biloches	60
Origin of the Biloches	61
Tribal organization of the Biloches	62
Causes which have preserved the tribal organization	63
Tribal divisions	<i>ib.</i>
Kasranis	65
Bozdars	66
Nutkánis	<i>ib.</i>
Sori Lunds	67
Khosás	<i>ib.</i>
Legharies	69
Tibi Lunds	70
The Gurchanis... ..	<i>ib.</i>
The Drishaks	72
The Mazaris	73
The Hindús or Karárs	75

Section E.—Village Communities and Tenures—

Village tenures	76
Village Communities	<i>ib.</i>
Riverain custom	78
Proprietary tenures	<i>ib.</i>
Forms of proprietary tenure	<i>ib.</i>
Value attached to landed property—Origin of proprietary right in the district—Custom in Sanghar of periodical re-distribution	79
Tenants and rents	80
Cash rents	<i>ib.</i>
Zabti rates	<i>ib.</i>
Rents in kind	81
Anwanda	82
Payments to menials	83
Liberty to the tenants to feed off crops green to well cattle	84
Occupancy rights	85
Designations of tenants	<i>ib.</i>
Rights of Mundemar tenant	<i>ib.</i>
Rights not generally recognised	<i>ib.</i>

CHAPTER IV—PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION—*continued.*Section A.—Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live Stock—*continued.*

Chahi Nahri Circle of Dera and Sindh Circle of Jampur	98
The Sanghar Chahi-Nahri Circle	99
The Dhundi Circle	100
The Kutb Circle	<i>ib.</i>
The Kadra Circle	<i>ib.</i>
The Sanghar Sindh and Dera Danda Circles	101
Rajanpur Sailab Circle—Similar tracts in other tahsils	<i>ib.</i>
Rajanpur Gharkab Circle	102
Methods of cultivation	<i>ib.</i>
Hill-torrent cultivation	103
Well cultivation	104
Cultivation in the canal-irrigated part of the district	105
Sailab cultivation	<i>ib.</i>
Abi cultivation	<i>ib.</i>
Agricultural implements and appliances	<i>ib.</i>
Ploughing, sowing and reaping	106
Principal staples	<i>ib.</i>
Wheat—Barley	107
Gram	<i>ib.</i>
Mohri and peas	<i>ib.</i>
Tobacco	<i>ib.</i>
Poppy cultivation	108
Assun—Sarson	109
Rotation of crops—Cotton	<i>ib.</i>
Jowar and Bajra	110
Indigo	111
Rice	<i>ib.</i>
Til	112
China—Nangni and Kangni	<i>ib.</i>
Somuka	<i>ib.</i>
Mash—Mung and Moth—Cane, henna and chillies	113
Gardens and garden produce...	<i>ib.</i>
Titak	<i>ib.</i>
Average yield	114
Production and consumption of food grains	<i>ib.</i>
Agricultural Calendar—January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October November, December	115, 116
Arboriculture and forests	116

SUBJECT.

PAGE.

CHAPTER IV.—PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION—*concluded.*Section A.—Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live Stock—*concluded.*

Rakh	116
Fazilpur	117
Kotla Isan	<i>ib.</i>
Daman	<i>ib.</i>
Kotla Hasan Jamra—Murghai	<i>ib.</i>
Narpur Gharbi and Nasir ...	<i>ib.</i>
Shahgarh	<i>ib.</i>
Shikarpur	<i>ib.</i>
Azmatwala	<i>ib.</i>
Cattle	<i>ib.</i>
Sheep and goats	<i>ib.</i>
Camels	118
Horses and horse and mule-breeding operations	<i>ib.</i>
	119

Section B.—Occupations, Industries and Commerce—

Occupations of the people	123
Biloch woollen weaving	124
Jampur lacquer wood-turning	<i>ib.</i>
Course and nature of trade	<i>ib.</i>
Frontier trade	125
Trade of the different towns; exports and imports	126

Section C.—Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications—

Prices, wages, rent rates, interest	127
Wages of labour	<i>ib.</i>
Local measure	128
Local weight	<i>ib.</i>
Measures of length and areas	129
Communications	<i>ib.</i>
Rivers	<i>ib.</i>
Country boats	130
Roads	131
Principal passes	133
Staging bungalows and encamping grounds	<i>ib.</i>
Post offices	135
Telegraphs	<i>ib.</i>

CHAPTER V.—ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE—*concluded*.

Section C.—Land and Land Revenue Settlements—*concluded*.

Produce estimates	159
Systems of fluctuating assessments	161
Rates of incidence of new revenue on soils	162
Causes of increase in the land-revenue	163
Special rules for Danda wells—Protective leases for new wells	<i>ib.</i>
Scheme for remissions and suspensions of land-revenue	<i>ib.</i>
Distribution of the land-revenue over proprietary holdings	<i>ib.</i>
The instalments in which the new demand is payable	164
Cesses	<i>ib.</i>
Period of settlement	<i>ib.</i>
Date revenue. Fiscal treatment at regular settlement and at revision	165
Treatment of trees not subject to annual auction of the produce	167
Summary of results of revision of date-tree assessment	<i>ib.</i>
Assigned land-revenue	168
Inams of Biloch Chiefs	169
The Rajanpur jagir—Sub-assignments of jagir revenue	169, 170
Similar sub-assignments from the Drishak Chief's inam	170
Kasura in the Mazari tribe	171
Assignments of revenue in kind in Jampur	<i>ib.</i>
Other assignments to individuals and institutions	<i>ib.</i>
History of the Indus Canals	172
Financial results of the recent settlement—Credit of land-revenue to the Irrigation Department	174
Apportionment of the income to the Irrigation Department	175
Scales of occupiers' rates	176
Extension of clearance operations by the Irrigation Department—Acquisition of land for spoil banks	<i>ib.</i>
Registers of rights to irrigation from canals dispensed with.—Those of the regular settlement obsolete	<i>ib.</i>
Registers of rights to irrigation from hill-torrents	177
Government lands, forests, &c.	<i>ib.</i>
History of the rakhs	<i>ib.</i>
Treatment of rakhs at revision of settlement	178
Government proprietary right	<i>ib.</i>
Beds of hill-torrents	179
Grazing dues and camel tirni	180
History of the operations connected with the revision of settlement, 1893-97	<i>ib.</i>
Contents of the record of rights	181

SUBJECT.

PAGE.

CHAPTER VI.—TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CANTONMENTS.

General statistics of towns	182
Town of Dera Ghazi Khan—Description	<i>ib.</i>
History	183
Trade, taxation, &c.	187
Public buildings	189
Population and vital statistics	<i>ib.</i>
Mithankot town	190
Rajanpur town	191
Dajal Municipality	193
Jampur town	194

Table No. I.—showing LEADING STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DETAILS.	District.	DETAIL OF TANSILS.			
		Dora Ghazi Khan.	Sanghar.	Jampur.	Rajapur.
Total square miles	5,032	1,459	658	805	2,020
Cultivated square miles	1,617	632	266	423	296
Culturable " "	1,925	290	177	265	1,193
Irrigated " "	359	219	18	88	34
Average square miles under crops (Revision of Settlement)	852	323	137	239	153
Annual rainfall in inches	805	805	608	502	306
Number of inhabited towns and villages, 1891	655	184	141	155	178
Total population, 1891	401,031	177,062	53,161	83,583	90,225
Rural " "	355,648	149,176	53,161	71,683	81,628
Urban " "	48,383	27,886	...	11,900	8,597
Total population per square mile, 1891	80	121	81	91	45
Rural " "	71	102	81	80	40
Hindus, 1891	52,903	25,748	6,268	9,532	11,355
Sikhs, 1891	1,424	793	10	61	560
Christians, 1891	117	107	10
Musalmans " "	349,587	150,414	46,883	73,090	78,350
Average annual Land Revenue * (Revision of Settlement)	519,314	234,535	61,158	120,020	102,701
" " gross revenue	530,819	figures not available.

NOTE.—Figures taken from Administration Report.
* Fixed and fluctuating.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

SECTION A—DESCRIPTIVE.

The Dera Ghazi Khan District is the southernmost of the four districts of the Derajat Division, and lies between north latitudes $28^{\circ}20'$ and $31^{\circ}15'$, and east longitudes $69^{\circ}35'$ and $70^{\circ}59'$, occupying the extreme southwest corner of the Province. It is bounded on the north by the Punjab District of Dera Ismail Khan, and on the south by the Province of Sind, of which the Upper Sind Frontier (or Jacobabad) District touches it on one side of the Indus and the Shikarpur District on the other. The eastern boundary for most part of its length follows the deep stream of the river Indus, but in places crosses from side to side in accordance with local rules for its demarcation. The total length of the river frontage of the district is 210 miles, of which the first 30 to the north, face the Cis-Indus portion of Dera Ismail Khan, the next 115, the Muzaffargarh District, and the remaining 65, the State of Bahawalpur. The western limit, for the purposes of the ordinary laws in force in British India, is the eastern base of the Suleman mountains, but the political control of the Deputy Commissioner extends to certain of the Biloch tribes inhabiting those mountains. The country of those tribes is bounded on the west by the country of other tribes administered from Quetta by the Governor-General's Agent for Bilochistan, and the boundary which has now been demarcated for its whole length by officers deputed from time to time by the Punjab Government and the Bilochistan Agency, runs northwards from the tri-junction near the Lini tower, of the Punjab, Sind and Bilochistan, along the Suleman Range, sometimes following the top and sometimes the western base of the mountains to Drug, north of which the hill country immediately adjoining the Punjab is under the political control of the Deputy Commissioner of Dera Ismail Khan. The length of the district measured along the base of the mountains is 180 miles, and its total area is 5,032 square miles, excluding the hill tract. The breadth from the river to the base of the mountains varies from 40 miles at the centre of the district to 20 miles at the northern and southern extremities, and the breadth of the hill tract is about 40 miles. The hill tract is under the charge of a Political Tahsildar, and the rest of the district is divided into four tahsils by lines drawn in a general east and west direction across it. These are, running from north to south, Sanghar, Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur and Rajaunpur, which last constitutes a separate Sub-Division in the charge of an Assistant Commissioner. The three southern tahsils are named from the principal towns

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

General description.

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

General description.

in them, which are also the tahsil head-quarters, and Taunsa in the head-quarters of the Sanghar tahsil, which is called after the torrent of that name. Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several tahsils into which it is divided are given in Table No. I. The district contains one town of more than 10,000 souls, namely, Dera Ghazi Khan, with a population of 27,886, at which place the administrative head-quarters are situated. Dera Ghāzi Khān stands eighth in order of area and twenty-seventh in order of population among the 32 districts of the Province, comprising 3·3 per cent. of the total area, 1·93 per cent. of the total population, and 1·15 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown below :—

Town.	North Latitude.	East Longitude.	Feet above sea-level.
Dera Ghazi Khan	30° 4'	70° 49'	395
Rajanpur	29° 6'	70° 22'	305
Jampur	29° 39'	70° 38'	349

Physical features.
The Sulemans.

The conformation of the district is largely due to the action of the torrents which drain the Suleman mountains. In the north of the district these rise into peaks as high as 10,000 feet above the sea, and two smaller chains run parallel with the main range between it and the plain; the two merge into one, and disappear in the north of the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil, cropping up into two small chains of low hills (Rorhi) near Batil and Sakhi Sarwar, and at the same time the height of the main range gradually diminishes southwards, the highest peak to the south being Gainsahāri, 4,160 feet, from which the range turns away westwards from the Indus Valley. The highest peaks towards the centre of the district are Ekbbhai, 7,462 feet, Fort Munro, 6,300 feet, and Dragul, 5,285 feet. To the south of Dragul is the Mari mountain, the summit of which forms a large and fairly level plateau. The mountains are formed of sandstone with occasional outcrops of limestone, and as they are completely bare of trees except some of the higher summits in the north of the district, they yield readily to the action of rain and present jagged and fantastic outlines.

The hill-torrents.

Three large torrents rising far to the west of the Sulemans pierce through them from west to east through narrow and tremendous gorges. The most northerly, the Vihowa, emerges from them into the Dera Ismail Khan district, but its flood water reaches villages in the north of Sanghar. The Sanghar

Chapter I. A.
Descriptive.

The hill torrents.

emerges near the village of Mangrotha at the centre of the western boundary of the Sanghar tahsil, and the third, the Kaha, near Harrand, which is similarly situated in the Jampur tahsil.

Tahsil.	Name of torrent.
Sanghar... ..	Bhati. Kanwan. Mahoi.
Dera	Sori. Vador*. Sakhi Sarwar. Mithawan.
Jampur	Khasra. Chacher.
Rajanpur	Chezgi. Pitok. Northern Shori. Southern Shori.

There are several other large torrents* and a large number of smaller ones, † which rise in the range itself and drain its eastern face; the drainage of its west face feeds the Sanghar and the Kaha. With the exception of the Vihowa, Sanghar and Kaha, none of these torrents flow except when fed by rain in the summer and autumn. They then come down in flood heavily laden with detritus washed from the slopes of the hills, which deposited year after year over the space between the base of the hills and the

* There is perennial flow in this torrent, but it does not reach the plains.

Indus has formed the tract called the Pachád.

The Pachád.

The Pachád is continuous from the north to the south of the district, and slopes very gently from the pebble-covered base of the hills eastwards towards the river. From the method of its formation it follows that the soil is a rich loam, but the rainfall outside the hill tract is so small that cultivation is only possible with the aid of water from the hill-torrents. To catch the water, embankments, sometimes of earth, sometimes of loose stones, are made in the torrent bed, a little below the place where the torrent issues from the hills, and the water thus held up is led by a system of distributary channels to the fields, each of which is surrounded on all four sides by strong banks so as to be capable of taking a depth of two to four feet of water, and so get thoroughly saturated and receive a good deposit of silt. All the land in the Pachád for which torrent water is available in a good year, has been made into embanked fields of this nature, and outside the blocks of cultivation, the soil originally formed by the action of hill-torrents having now been deprived of fresh deposits by the arrangements for cultivation has, in Sanghar, been broken up by the rainfall into hollows and ravines, and large stretches of sandhills have been formed by the high wind which is prevalent in the hot season. In the rest of the district sandhills are frequent in the Pachád, but where the soil is free from sand it presents a smooth surface on which, in the Rajanpur tahsil, the mirage may be observed daily even in the cold weather. So

* Called *nañ* in Jatki and *khaur* in Bilochi.

† Called *churh* or *larik*.

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.
The Pachád.

level is the plain or *pat* in that tahsil that a traveller can see the village or tower he is making for eight or nine miles ahead. The ground is generally absolutely bare of grass, but a few hardy plants * flourish and afford food to sheep and goats, and to field rats, whose holes pierce the ground in all directions. The beds which the hill-torrent here cut for themselves through the soil formed by their action cross the Pachád from west to east, but do not generally extend very far into the plain, the water being absorbed by the distributaries and drawn off to the fields. This is the case also with the perennial flow of the Sanghar, but its autumnal floods sometimes reach the Indus, and it has a well-marked bed down to the river bank.

The Sindh.

In the northern portion of the district and also in the extreme south the Pachád extends eastward to the present bed of the Indus, which flows alongside it at the foot of a high bank varying in height, but in places as high as 20 and even 30 feet. The remains of similar banks † are found further inland in these localities, and it is probable that the Indus at some remote period flowed under these and then receded, after which new torrent deposits were formed on the land abandoned by it. Between the two points where the Pachád touches the Indus a tract of land intervenes. The clay soil of which it consists shows that it was formed by the action of the river, which at one time probably here as in the north and south of the district flowed along the eastern limits of the Pachád and then receded, but the torrents here were not powerful enough to cover with their silt the land abandoned by the river. The southern half of this tract is in the Rajanpur tahsil, and is swept annually by river floods more or less extensive. These floods follow surface depressions, of which the most famous originates at Rakh in the north of the tahsil, and other important ones are those of Shahgarh, Kadra and Miranpur. The northern half of the tract which lies in the Dera and Jampur tahsils is traversed by two similar depressions, one called the Jalpa which originating at Kala in the Dera tahsil keeps the city and cantonment on its left and extends southwards nearly to Rajanpur, and the other commencing at Shah Jamal joins the Rakh inundation. In spite of its liability to be flooded the tract has long been irrigated by Inundation Canals from the Indus which are supplemented by well-irrigation in the rabi harvest, and since A. D. 1857 the northern half has been protected from floods by embankments constructed at Kala and Shah Jamal. In the southern half are the remains of several old canals, the Mihmudwah, the Sonwah and others, which became disused in the early part of the century owing to their inability to contend against the floods. One canal, the Kadra, is still precariously maintained alongside

* The vernacular names of the chief of these are *launa*, *bhukan* and *thuma*.

† The present bank is called *Bhik*. That further inland is called *Kur* in the north and *Kaushal* in the south.

them and an embankment to exclude the floods and to give Rajanpur canal-irrigation throughout its length has been designed in the Irrigation Department, though its construction has not yet been decided upon. The Sindh is the local name given to the tract irrigated by canals and wells in the north and traversed by floods in the south, with the river bed alongside of it.

Besides the two main natural divisions of the district there are other minor ones. The Pachád has been described as extending from the mountains to the river in the northern part of the district. This is the case throughout the Sanghar tahsil, except in the northern half of it where, between the river and its traditional old bank, the Kur, inland there is a tract which is lower in level than the Pachád, but too high to be swept by river flood, and in which an Inundation Canal, the Massuwah has been made. The Pachád extends to the river bank in the north of the Dera tahsil also, as far south as Kala. Neither in Sanghar nor in Dera are the hill-torrents sufficiently powerful to supply water for the extreme edge of the Pachád along the river in all years, and cultivation is there carried on with the aid of wells which are of considerable depth; the belt of land so situated is called the Danda. And in the Sanghar and Jampur tahsils portions of the Pachád are distinguished from the rest of it by receiving irrigation all the year round from the perennial flow (*kalapani*) of the Sanghar and Kaha torrents.

There is a gentle slope from the north to the south of the district down the Indus Valley, as well as from the mountains to the river, and the elevation of the Pachád in the north of the district near the hills is 700 feet above sea-level, and of the Indus bed 480 feet, while the corresponding levels in the extreme south of the district are 480 and 260 feet, respectively.

The district has been formed by the action of the hill-torrents on the one side, and of the river on the other, and is dependent for most of its cultivation on water from one of these two sources or the other. Both actions are still in progress, and that of the Indus is unfortunately of a destructive tendency at present. The river begins to rise in May when the melting of the snow on the Himalayas commences, and gradually swells till it fills its bed for as much as a breadth of nine miles, in places pouring floods (*chal*) down the depressions in the Rajanpur tahsil and filling the Inundation Canals. The river usually rises about 8½ feet in the inundation season, but it sometimes rises even higher. It continues high till the end of August, and then begins to subside reaching its cold weather level at the end of September when the canals cease to flow. While subsiding the river gradually adopts the channel or channels down which it is to flow in the cold weather, and should the main channel adopted be on the extreme east or the extreme west of its bed the fall of the river is accompanied by much erosion of the land adjoining it. Violent erosion also

Chapter I. A.
—
Descriptive.
The Sindh.

Minor natural
divisions.

Levels.

The river Indus.

Chapter I. A.**Descriptive.****The river Indus.**

occurs when the river is in high flood earlier in the season if the current happens to be attracted towards either bank of the river. Whether one channel is followed in the cold weather or several they rarely coincide with those of the previous year, and land which was on one side of the main stream (*dhar kalan*) one year may be on the other side of it in the following without losing any of the trees or jungle growing on it, or being otherwise materially affected by river action. Land so circumstanced is generally at first an island or *chakkar* between the main stream on one side and a creek (*dhand* or *phat*) on the other, but if the change becomes a permanent one the creek silts up in course of time and disappears. Not only do the channels followed within the river bed vary from year to year, but as a consequence of erosion on one side or the other, the whole bed moves a considerable distance eastward or westward in the course of a number of years. The earliest bed that can be traced occupied the middle of the Sind-Sagar Doab. Thence the river gradually travelled westwards until, at a period probably anterior to the Muhammadan invasions, it reached the bed whose western bank is marked by the *Kur* in the north of the Sanghar tahsil, and by a depression called *Kappar* in the south of the Dera tahsil and to the west of the town of Jampur. On the east of the *Kappar* are alluvial mounds said to cover the remains of a Hindu City which was on the left bank of the Indus, and was destroyed and submerged by the river. Floods from the Vidor torrent sometimes breach the canals and fill this depression. Four hundred years ago when the city of Dera Ghazi Khan was founded the river basin was travelling eastward, and the city is said to have been built on an island or *chakkar*, the creek to the west of which has long ago silted up, though parts of it are traceable in slight depressions. The eastward movement was continued during the two following centuries, and throughout these changes the junction of the Indus and the Chenab appears to have been at Uchh in the Muzaffargarh District instead of as now near Mithankot in this district. The country between Uchh and Rajanpur was in the 18th century a rich tract irrigated by the Dhundi and Kutb Canals and by others, of which remains exist in the Rajanpur tahsil. An abrupt change in the river in A. D. 1787 cut this canal system in two, leaving the heads of the Dhundi and Kutb on the left banks of the river, and since then the Indus bed has been gradually moving westward. Its progress in this direction has been very marked during the last twenty years, and the river is now flowing under the walls of the town of Dera Ghazi Khan, from which it was in A. D. 1872, 3 miles distant. Accounts of the measures taken to check its advance and to protect the city are given in Chapter V, Section C, and in Chapter VI.

Memorable floods.

Great floods occurred in 1812 and 1833 A. D., and again in A. D. 1841, when a lake pent up by the fall of a glacier in

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.
Memorable floods.

the far Himalayas broke loose and poured down the Indus. In 1856, there was a flood from which the people of the district long calculated their dates. The then cantonment and civil station of Dera Ghazi Khan were swept away by the flood which that year came down the Jalpa depression, and villages were demolished, and cattle and crops destroyed. The construction of the Kala embankment in the following year kept the Jalpa flood in check till 1878 A. D., when the river rose 54·6 feet at Attock and overtopped and breached the Kala embankment sending down a flood which did immense damage to the Dera Ghazi Khan Cantonment and to all the villages along the Jalpa track. In the cantonment the whole of the Cavalry and Infantry lines and many of the officers' bungalows collapsed. A flood from another direction breached an embankment in A. D. 1882, and the whole of the garrison and all the available population of Dera Ghazi Khan town and neighbourhood were only able to keep the river flood out by constant work on the inner chain of embankments. The high floods of 1888 and 1889 A. D., decided Government to undertake the construction of the stone embankment for the protection of the city, which is described in Chapter VI. The next year of very high flood was 1895 A. D. when a great bay was cut out above the stone *band*, and the town was for a time in danger of being swamped. This was followed by an extension of the original stone *band* project, but there is now a danger of the river breaking in between the head of this and the Kala system of embankments, and sending a disastrous flood down the Jalpa depression. The south of the district has also suffered from floods as well as the north, and the town of Mithankot was destroyed by the river in 1862 A. D. Its site has lately been laid bare by the river. The new town which was built to take its place is some distance from the river.

In years of good rainfall in the hills the people find it impossible to control, for irrigation purposes, all the water that comes down the hill-torrents, and the surplus floods sometimes breach canals and the whole district then becomes for a time a sheet of water. Even in years of slight rainfall there is not generally any scarcity of drinking water in the autumn, for the floods are generally sufficient to fill the tanks. In the Sindh irrigation-wells are numerous, but in the Pachád except in the short rainy season difficulty is often experienced in procuring water. For some time after the torrents cease to flow water is obtained from pits dug in their beds, but this source of supply ceases in time, and is not of much benefit to those who are not fortunate enough to live near a torrent. The tanks also dry up quickly except in good years, unless they are very large and special measures are adopted for supplying them with water. A large tank or rather lake at Dajal in the Jampur tahsil is supplied with clear water from the perennial flow of the Kaba stream, which is conducted to it by a channel 28 miles in length,

Drinking water.

Chapter I. A.
Descriptive.
Drinking water.

and generally keeps it full all the year round. The large tank at Kot Kasrani in Sanghar is filled from the Karwan torrent when it is in flood, and generally retains a supply of muddy water all the cold weather. Wells in the Pachad are very deep, and the cost of sinking them is generally prohibitive to the people, but once to see the crowds of men and animals waiting for their turn at a well is sufficient to show how wells are appreciated. A turn given to the creaking wheel will collect cattle from all directions. Wells have been sunk at Government expense at most of the posts along the foot of the hills and money has been granted by the District Board for their construction elsewhere, and the number is now much greater than it used to be, but water has still to be carried considerable distances in skins and vessels loaded on camels and donkeys to provide for the wants of the people working in the fields.

Rainfall.

The annual rainfall in the plains is very small and diminishes from an average of 8 inches at Taunsa in the north of the district to 5 inches at Rajanpur. The amount also varies considerably from year to year as the figures of even very recent years show. The rainfall recorded at the four tahsil headquarters in two specimen years was as follows:—

Tahsil.	April 1st, 1891, to March 31st, 1892.	April 1st, 1892, to March, 31st, 1893.
Taunsa	234	1965
Dera Ghazi Khan	243	774
Jampur	297	973
Rajanpur	143	72

In the Selemans the rainfall in the summer is much greater than in the plains, but is equally variable. It averages about 10 inches at Fort Munro, and the following are the figures recorded at that station for eight years, for the period April 1st to September 30th:—

Year.	Inches.
1890	9.62
1891	7.54
1892	19.11
1893	19.30
1894	17.60
1895	4.99
1896	6.20
1897	15.94

The winter rainfall at Fort Munro has been recorded only during the last few years, and is inconsiderable. Snow falls there in small quantities in some years. Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall registered at each of the Rain-gauge stations in the district for a number of years. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. III A and III B. On the rainfall in the Sulmans in the hot weather the prospects of the crops in the Pachád entirely depend, but the summer rainfall in the plains exercises little or no influence on the crops either in the Pachád or in the Sindh, except that if excessive it floods and blights them. The cold weather rains, on the other hand, are beneficial for all crops and necessary for some.

Chapter I. A.
Descriptive.
Rainfall.

The climate is exceedingly dry both in the hills and in the plains, and both in summer and in winter. The cold weather is a very short one, comprising only the months of December and January, during which fires are welcome in the house by day as well as by night and the night temperature out-of-doors sometimes falls below freezing point. November and February are pleasant months with a minimum night temperature running between 40° and 50°. In March the days warm up and the minimum night temperature is seldom below 60°, and often reaches 70°, and *punkahs* are often brought into use towards the end of the month, though it is generally possible to do without them till the 15th of April. All measures possible to keep the houses cool have to be taken from the 1st of April till near the end of October. In May, June, July and August the heat is intense everywhere and especially in the Pachád, where a hot furnace blast known as the *laku* blows, and has often proved fatal to life; record maximum temperatures are marked and the night minimum outside rarely falls as low as 80°. August is sometimes rendered tolerable by a breeze, but is generally steamy as well as hot. In September and October the heat becomes gradually less oppressive.

Climate and temperature in the plains.

In the hill tract the climate is cold and bracing from September till April, and mild and pleasant in the summer months. At the small hill station of Fort Munro the night temperature in June averages 70° or under, and the day temperature in-doors rarely rises over 80° with the house open to the wind, which blows without ceasing throughout the summer. The misty clouds characteristic of the Himalayas in the monsoon are seldom seen and the rain generally takes the shape of an afternoon shower, after which the atmosphere resumes its normal dry condition.

Climate and temperature in the hills.

The district is not unhealthy, and is rarely visited by epidemic disease, but in September and October fever is very

Statistics of Leaths and disease.

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

Statistics of death
and disease.

prevalent though not often fatal. Hot days in that season are followed by comparatively cool nights, and chills are readily caught. In the city and cantonments of Dera Ghazi Khan, Dr. Jukes, who has practised there as a Medical Missionary, considers that "the health of the whole community has suffered owing to the rise of water-level in the soil, due to the near approach of the river Indus. During the hot season of 1897, a large part of the circular road round the city was under water that rose up out of the soil, and the marks may still be seen on the trunks of trees about 1 foot from the ground. This has caused immense damage to walls and buildings, and the amount of salt efflorescence brought up by the *soma* (water rising through the soil), not only affects the stability of buildings, but very greatly the health of the inhabitants, whose houses become permanently damp, as earth impregnated with the alkaline water does not readily dry, the bricks, whether sun-dried or burnt, crumble away where exposed to the action of the damp and the air, as when the temperature falls below 45° the alkali crystallises and powders the brick exposed to its influence. To give an example of the extent of the mischief thus caused, I may state that a store-room belonging to the Mission, 14 feet by 35 feet, equal 490 square feet, had the floor laid in concrete in August 1897; this remained good till the end of October, but in the beginning of December, *i. e.*, six weeks later, 200 lbs weight of alkali and powdered brick were swept up, and ten days later 60 lbs more. The whole population have suffered more or less from fever, so that the average daily attendance at the male Mission Hospital rose from 50 to 400, and the Zenana Hospital had an attendance of over 200 three times a week, besides what were attended in the Government and Civil Hospitals and by native *hakims*; the number seeking relief could not have been less than 2,000 *per diem* in November 1897, if all the sick were counted attending hospitals and native practitioners. A tenth of the whole population of the city were ill at one time. Very few escaped between September and January, and the amount of sickness, colds, bronchitis and pneumonia now existing is very great, due to dampness of the houses in very large measure, dependent on the near approach of the river." Tables Nos. XI, XI A, XI B, and XLIV give annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district and for its towns during the last five years, while the birth and death-rates, so far as available, will be found in Chapter III for the general population, and in Chapter VI under the heads of the several large towns of the district. Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes, and lepers as ascertained at the census of 1891; while Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries since 1893.

SECTION B.—GEOLOGY, FAUNA AND FLORA.

Chapter I, B.

Geology, Fauna
and Flora.

Geology.

A full account of the geology of the part of the Suleman Range which lies in and near the Dera Ghazi Khan District has been given by Mr. W. T. Blanford in Volume XX, Part II, of the Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India. He describes it as an anticlinal of lower eocene and cretaceous rocks, with a number of low ridges, more or less continuous, parallel to each other and to the main range, and formed by the outcrop of the harder bands occurring in the eocene and newer tertiary beds. There are broad plains at a considerable elevation above the sea, bordered by slopes of detritus derived from the hills and often composed of fine and fertile soil. The system is composed of hard brownish and purplish sandstone, amongst which a few beds of shale or of limestone are intercolated, and from which bands of nummulitic limestone outcrop towards the summits of the range. The limestone abounds in fossils. "It is clear," writes Mr. Medlicott in the Provincial Volume of the *Punjab Gazetteer*, "that disturbance commenced long before the deposition of the newer beds which now fully partake in that disturbance; the top conglomerates which are now themselves very often tilted up to the vertical, are formed of the *débris* of the rocks of the main ridge, which must therefore have been partly upraised and undergoing denudation in the Siwalik period."

The hill-torrents in the southern part of the district bring down much saline matter in their waters. The Chachar, which rises in the north of the Sham, one of the broad plains of the hill tract, and enters the district near Drigri in the Jampur tahsil, contains salt or saltpetre, but not to such an extent as to materially affect its utility for irrigation. The Pitok and Northern Shori in the Rajanpur tahsil, which rise from the northern slopes of Giandhari, are so heavily laden with saline matter, that they are useless for irrigation until their water has spread over the Pachád plain and lost its saline deposit. In contrast to these, the Southern Shori, which, rising in the south of the Sham behind Giandhari, flows round that mountain in a south-westerly direction and enters the district at its southern extremity, contains no salt. It is doubtless due to the character of the torrents, that the soil throughout the Rajanpur tahsil is very saline in places, and incrustations of salt are to be observed on the *lai* and other bushes growing on it.

Saline deposits.

In two localities, Bhagsar and Miranpur, the deep black soil is full of salt, and the manufacture of earth-salt was there carried on until stopped by order of Government in 1881 in consequence of the abolition of the Indus Customs line. The method of manufacture was very rough. A platform was made on the top of which the salt-impregnated earth was piled, and round the platform low retaining walls were built; water was raised by a Persian-wheel and discharged on to the top of the platform, and after oozing through the earth

Earth-salt and its
manufacture.

Chapter I, B.
Geology, Fauna
and Flora.
Earth-salt and its
manufacture.

on the top of the platform, was run into a reservoir, and thence into vats. Round the vats were placed shallow pans built in with mortar, in shape like ice pans, and into these the water was ladled. As the water evaporated a crust of salt was formed, and the pans were filled and re-filled till, at the end of some fifteen days, they were full of salt. The salt was then dried in the sun. Salt is made only in the hot weather months, and of course only in fine weather. The earth or *kallar* from which salt is made is of three qualities—white, black and brown. The proportions used are $\frac{1}{2}$ white, $\frac{1}{4}$ black, and $\frac{1}{4}$ brown. It took from twelve to twenty men to work a salt manufactory. The men usually employed were—one expert in *kallar*, three men to dig up the *kallar*, three men to load it on donkeys, and three to drive the donkeys; two men attended to the pans, one to pump up water, and one to make the pans. Earth-salt was used in the district in the proportion of two-thirds to one-third of the Salt Range salt, and was largely exported into the hills. It was more esteemed than Bahadur Kheyl salt, and sold at four *seers* less for the rupee. Under the Sikhs the tax on earth-salt was Rs. 8 per manufactory. In 1869, the lease of the right to manufacture salt was sold for Rs. 22,000 for three years, or for Rs. 7,333 per annum. In 1872, the lease sold for Rs. 7,200, and in the two succeeding years for Rs. 8,000 in each year. The salt is called *nán*, and the salt manufacturers, who are a race apart, are called *nánárs*.

Metals.

No metals are found in the district. There are seams of coal in the Sulemans, but not in the part of the range lying in the district, and not of sufficient thickness to repay the working of them.

Alum.

Alum used to be made in the Mazari country, in the extreme south of the district, but the manufacture has been abandoned, though the shale is still to be found in the low hills near the Zangi, Aspalanji, and Sori streams; it is either black, with white veins, or white, and is called *páki*. The alum miners are called *páki*. The shale, when excavated, is put into pans and mixed with water in the proportion of 20 *seers* of alum to two *gharas* of water. This mixture is boiled for an hour, and then drawn off into earthen pans, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ *seers* of saltpetre added to it. The solids are allowed to settle, and the liquor is then drawn off and left to crystallize. It is once again dissolved, and the sediment is again extracted, after which the alum is fit for the market. It sold at about Rs. 3-8-0 per maund. There were 12 pans to each alum mine; and, working only in the cold weather, 15 maunds of alum were extracted from each pan. The alum made from one mine in a season was worth about Rs. 630, from which rather more than one-half must be deducted for working expenses.

Saltpetre.

The white efflorescence called *kallar* was formerly used to make saltpetre, especially that produced on mounds contain-

ing the *débris* of old towns or villages. The manufacture was similar to that of salt, and it was taxed at Rs. 4 per pan. The manufacture has now died out.

A saponine drab-coloured earth, something like Fuller's earth and called *mati* or *Multani mati*, is found in the low hills adjoining the plain. It is used as a medicine, and also as a substitute for soap. True Fuller's earth is also found.

Lime is made in the Pachád of the Dera tahsil for sale in the city and cantonments; limestone boulders are found in the torrent beds, and fuel is abundant.

Sajji, which is a species of carbonate of soda, is made from a bush called *khár* (*Salsola Griffithsii*). The *khár* is cut in December and January, dried, and then put into a hole in the ground and burnt. A cross stick is inserted into the ashes, which are then covered over with earth for eight days, at the expiration of which term the *sajji* is drawn out in a hard mass by means of the stick previously inserted. It is made in the low hills in the Mazari and Buzdar countries, as well as in the plains. The monopoly of manufacturing *sajji* in the plains was formerly sold by auction annually, but this was stopped in 1893, and the manufacture is now free. It never was a source of much revenue to Government; the amount realized in 1893 was Rs. 70.

The trees most commonly found in the district are stated by Doctor Stewart to be—

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. <i>Tamarix indica</i> (<i>leh</i>). | 5. <i>Salvadora oleoides</i> (<i>jál</i>). |
| 2. <i>Tamarix orientalis</i> (<i>farash</i>). | 6. <i>Salvadora Indica</i> (<i>jhál</i>). |
| 3. <i>Prosopis spicigera</i> (<i>khunda</i> or <i>jhánd</i>). | 7. <i>Capparis aphylla</i> (<i>karín, karal, or kaler</i>). |
| 4. <i>Populus Euphratica</i> (<i>bahn</i>). | 8. <i>Colligonum polygonoides</i> (<i>phog</i>). |

The *leh* is abundant in the low alluvial land on the banks of the Indus, and in the islands in the bed of the river. A gum called *shaklo* is obtained from it, and is taken dissolved in water as a cooling drink. The *bahn* is a handsome tree growing thickly in places on older alluvial land. The *jhánd* is found in similar localities, and grows well in the forest-rakhs of Fazilpur, Rekh, and Daman. The *kikar* grows wild in the same neighbourhood. The *karín* or wild caper, is common all over the district. The *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*), the *siris* (*Acacia speciosa*), the *kikar* (*Acacia Arabica*), and the *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*), can be grown in most parts of the district with a little trouble. Groves of planted *ber* trees exist in the Sangarh Pachád, and single trees are common in the embanked fields of that tract, and are valued for their fruit. *Farash* trees are the only others of any size found in the Sangarh Pachád. South of Sangarh the *jál* grows thickly in waste land in the Pachád, and yields a small sweet berry (*pilu*), which is much appreciated by the Biloch population. The gathering of the fruit is a regular harvest in the Rajaupur tahsil, where the tree is commonest. It lasts for nearly the whole of June, and collects

Chapter I. B. Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Multani mati.

Lime.

Sajji.

Trees most com-
monly found in the
district.

The dwarf palm (*Chamacrops Ritchiana*), which is called *pisik* by the Bilochis, grows freely in the Sulaimans. The finer leaves are made into mats, and the more coarse ones into ropes and sandals. The only trees to be seen in the hills, are scattered and stunted wild olive trees, except in a few places where *bohar* and other trees have been planted in cultivated land. In the garden at Khar near Fort Munro, the deodar, the long leaved pine, the eucalyptus, the mulberry, the vine, the French olive, the almond, and also pear and peach trees, and plums and apricots have been successfully grown, and the Lombardy poplar does well beside the water tanks.

Chapter I. B.

Geology, Fauna
and Flora.Trees in the hill
tract.

The spontaneous products of the plains are, in addition to those already mentioned, *munj-grass* and *isafghol*, the seeds of a plant which grows in the Pachád, and specially at Kot Kasrani in the Sangarh tahsil, and are collected and sold for officinal purposes. The seeds are considered cooling and emollient, and are given for fever and diarrhœa. The *nilofar* or water-lily, of which the root and seeds are eaten, is found in some of the ponds of the district. *Nilofar* is called *bhen* in this district. The colocynth runs wild in the sandy wastes at the foot of the hill, and is much used as a medicine for horses and cattle.

Spontaneous pro-
ducts.

The following is a list of the more common grasses found in the district:—

Grasses.

Bhur.—A fodder grass found in the Jampur Pachád.

Dila or Kal or Khaba.—A grass which grows spontaneously on land which has been swamped by canal spill. Good cattle fodder, but not eaten by horses.

Drabh.—The most common of the shorter grasses on the banks of the river. Not very good fodder and troublesome because of its long roots.

Gam.—A tall grass found in the Pachád. Good fodder. The seed is edible.

Khin.—A fodder grass of the Jampur Pachád.

Khura.—A grass grown in June in canal-irrigated land as fodder for horses. Like *sawanh* in appearance. Sells at Rs. 5 per *kanal*, and gives three cuttings.

Munjhal.—Resembles Italian rye grass in appearance, and is good fodder for horses and cattle. It grows spontaneously along with cotton and *jowar* in canal-irrigated land. Is not grown alone by the people, and is fed off green to the live stock, but is in cantonments grown alone and made into hay for cold weather use.

Makhrála.—A broad-bladed, succulent grass, growing wild in *chahi-nahri* land.

Chapter I. A.
Geology, Fauna
and Flora.

Grasses.

Sawri.—Wild *sawanh*.

Sef.—A good fodder grass, growing in clumps in the Jampur Pachád.

Mushrooms are gathered in July and August on the sandhills of the Pachád and are eaten fresh, and are also dried for winter use.

Fauna.

Pig and hog-deer are thick in the dense river jungles. Hares are also fairly common, and black and grey partridges are found in the same locality, and also inland from the river wherever there is jungle adjoining cultivation. Black partridges are generally abundant, but a year of high river floods drowns out the young birds and reduces their numbers for a time. In the cold weather, many varieties of duck and teal visit the district, and frequent the smoother and shallower of the river creeks, and the jheels left after the river floods subside. The position of these varies from year to year with the movements of the river, but there are a number of old and narrow creeks (*gurang*), which contain water throughout the cold weather and are regular stopping places for duck. The *kulgn* (*Gras Cinerea*), the sandgrouse, and the *obara* (*Houbara Meg queenii*) are also cold weather visitors. The last-named are to be found wherever *assum* or *sarson* is grown, generally in the Pachád, but often by the river also. The larger sandgrouse frequent the sandhills in the Pachád, but the smaller feed in the fields by the river, which are also the habitat of the *kulan*. The golden curlew is not uncommon on the river, and snipe are shot, but not in large numbers. Towards the hills, ravine-deer are common, and *markhor* are numerous on the cliffs of the Sulemans. *Chikor* are plentiful in the mountains, and hares towards their western base. *Sisi* swarm on the lower slopes of the hills. Herds of wild donkeys used to graze in the Rajanpur Pachád, at the base of the hills, and in the Sham plain beyond, and they were often to be seen up till 1886, but now that the hill country is settled, and the Sham plain is being brought under cultivation, the wild donkey is extinct. Tigers were once common in the river jungles, but have long disappeared; four were killed in 1872 by a shooting party from Bahawalpur, and one was killed near Shahwali by some natives in the same year. Leopards, and black bears of small size are occasionally encountered in the Sulemans, and at least one leopard has been seen near Rajanpur in comparatively recent years. Wolves are numerous in the plains, and hyenas in the hills. Snakes, including *cobras* and *karait*, swarm wherever there is canal-irrigation, and especially in Rajanpur. The *karait* and the *echis carinata* are common at Fort Munro. A minor pest in the plains is that of bats, which take possession of the verandahs of all houses and buildings, and frequently of the houses themselves as well. Squirrels are common in the Sindh, but are never seen in the Pachád, where field-rats take their place.

The river Indus contains a number of alligators (vernacular *sansár*), and a variety of fish of which the best is the *roh*. The fishermen on the Indus are called *moháns*. They work also as boatmen, and sometimes as field-labourers. Fish are caught in greater quantities in the cold weather months, when the river

recedes and leaves water in inlets called *dhands*. The best fishing is in the Hairo *dhand*, in the Jampur tahsil, and in the Vang, Nurpur, and Rojhan *dhands*, in the Rajanpur tahsil. The *moháns* run up reed villages on the banks of these *dhands* in the cold weather. Fish are eaten by all classes, except the more orthodox Hindus, but no system of curing fish is known. The lease of the right to fish is sold yearly by auction, and the annual amount realised is shown in the margin. An excellent account of the Indus fish will be found at page 39 of the late Mr. O' Brien's Settlement Report of the Muzaffargarh District, in which the game birds and the reptiles of this part of the district are also exhaustively described. *Mahseer* are found in the clear running streams in the hill tract, and good sport can be got within easy reach of Mangrotha and Harvand. Sun-

nosed crocodiles are also encountered in the Kaha, a little way above the latter place.

Year.	Rupees.
1871-2 ...	520
1872-3 ...	477
1873-4 ...	440
1874-5 ...	640
1875-6 ...	572
1876-7 ...	325
1877-8 ...	292
1878-9 ...	732
1879-80 ...	470
1880-1 ...	130
1881-2 ...	258
1882-3 ...	532
1883-4 ...	462
1884-5 ...	474
1885-6 ...	350
1886-7 ...	414
1887-8 ...	3
1888-9 ...	170
1889-90 ...	177
1890-1 ...	1
1891-2 ...	1
1892-3 ...	200
1893-4 ...	95
1894-5 ...	68
1895-6 ...	99
1896-7 ...	92

Chapter I. B.
Geology, Fauna
and Flora.
Fisheries.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Chapter II.

History.

Early Hindu history.

Even if it were not for other reasons certain that the early population of this part of the country was essentially Hindu, the fact is amply attested by the existence in several parts of this district of Hindu remains, dating back to a time far anterior to the period of Muhammadan invasion. The most noticeable of these are found at Sangarh, at Dilara near Jampur, at Harrand, and at Mari in the Rajanpur tahsil. Tradition states that centuries before the first Muhammadan invasion, there were three towns only in the area now composing the district—Harrand, Mari, and Asni; and that, with the exception of a small area of cultivation attached to these, all the rest of the country was an uninhabited waste.* Two of these towns are remarkably connected by tradition with Rasalu, the legendary Punjab hero, and his opponent Raja Sirkap. General Cunningham has fixed the probable capital of this Raja Sirkap at Amba Kapi, in the district of Lahore.† The same authority traces the connection of the Sirkap legend with the ruins of Taxila and Manikiala, both in the modern district of Rawalpindi.‡ By the people of this district the same legend is circumstantially connected with the towns of Asni and Mari. It is thus given by Mr. Bruce in his "Notes upon the Dera Ghazi Khan District":—

"There was a Raja, name unknown, but who was called Sirkap, who founded the town of Asni. It was called Asni from its being the *asan* (a Hindi word, signifying a place or *dehra*) of the Raja. He had a beautiful daughter, whose name was Mussamat Kokola, whose charms and accomplishments became known throughout the length and breadth of the land. The Raja's appellation of Sirkap was thus derived:—He was in the habit of playing a game called *choper*, the stake on the game being that, if the Raja won, he was allowed to cut off his adversary's head and take his property; and if the Raja was beaten, he was to give his opponent the hand of his lovely daughter in marriage. On the ground where the game was played the Raja had a rat, which, when the dice were thrown, turned them, unobserved, with his tail, and so the Raja won and beheaded his adversary. Raja Rasalu heard of the fame of Mussamat Kokola, and came from far to try his luck for her hand. He also became acquainted with the deceit practised by Sirkap, and determined to frustrate it. For this end he brought a cat with him, which made its appearance when the game commenced. The rat, seeing the cat, was afraid to leave its hole; and Rasalu won the game, and with it the hand of the lovely Kokola, whom he married and made his Rani. After his marriage, he suspected her of carrying on an intrigue with some man, and erected a large building of hard-burned bricks of immense size on the site of the present town of Mari, in which he locked up his Rani and her attendants whenever he went out hunting or was obliged to leave the district. The building became known by the name of Mari Kokolawali, by which name Mari is known to this day. One day, when the Raja returned from hunting, he saw his Rani's lover letting himself down from the top of the Mari by his *luagi*, and killed him. He then cut off some steaks of his flesh, which he roasted and gave to his Rani to eat. After

* Bruce, Notes on Dera Ghazi Khan District, p. 121.

† Ancient Geog. i, p. 195.

‡ *Ibid*, pp. 113 and 121. See also Arch. Rep. 1863-64, p. 155.

eating and approving of them, he informed her what he had done; and she threw herself from the top of the Mari and expired. After I heard the story," continues Mr. Bruce, "I sent to Mari and had some excavations made, and found several large hard-burned bricks of different sizes, about two feet long by one foot wide, and weighing about 13 seers."

The legend thus given corresponds in many particulars with the legends of the Lahore and Rawalpindi Districts, while it has, on the other hand, sufficient points of divergence to attest its independence as an authentically local story. This fact alone, without attributing any real historic value to this particular version of the tradition, is of a high degree of interest as exemplifying the widespread prevalence of the Rasalu legends, and as affording a clear indication of unity of nationality between the mass of the population in this district and in other parts of the Province.

The large ruined fort at Kot Khewali in the south of the Rajapur tahsil, is said to be of Hindu origin and to have been founded by a Raja called Kehwa, who was contemporaneous with another called Seva, who founded Sibi (Sevi). From another story, also recorded by Mr. Bruce, it may be gathered that the history of this district was early connected with that of Mooltan. The town of Harrand, he states, is said to have been founded by one "Harranakiss Diet," a Raja of Mooltan. "When Harranakiss died," Mr. Bruce continues, "he was succeeded by his son Parlád, whose shrine is still at Mooltan, to which Hindus from all parts of the country repair on pilgrimage."

At the time of the first Muhammadan invasion, Elphinstone says that "the mountains of Mekran were inhabited by Bilochis, and those of the Suleman by Afghans. With respect to the plain, if we may judge from the present state of the population, those between the Suleman and Mekran mountains and the Indus were occupied by Jats or Indians." The first appearance of the Muhammadans in India was in the year 44 of the Hijri (A.D. 664). From General Cunningham's Archæological Report for 1863-64, it seems that the then inhabitants of the district were, Jats. General Cunningham says:—

"When the Muhammadans first appeared in Sindh towards the end of the seventh century, the Zaths and Meds were the chief population of the country. But, as I have already shown that the original seat of the Medi or Med colony was in the Punjab proper, I conclude that the original seat of Jat or Jatu colony must have been in Sindh. With the Meds they at first gallantly opposed the advance of the Arabs, but afterwards they were induced to join the foreign invader against their rival brethren."

At the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of India by Muhammad Kasim in A. D. 711, in the reign of Caliph Walid, the district formed part of the country subject to the Hindu prince called Dahir, whose capital was at Alor near Bhakkar, and who was in possession of Mooltan and all Sindh with the adjoining plains of the Indus, probably as far as the mountains of Kalabagh. The seizure by Dahir of an Arab ship at a Sind seaport drew upon him the wrath of the Caliph, whose victorious

Chapter II. History. Early Hindu history.

Population of the district at the first Muhammadan invasion according to Elphinstone.

According to General Cunningham.

The first Muhammadan invasion, A. D. 711.

Chapter II.

History.

A. D. 750.

army was led by Kasim through Mekran to Sind, and conquered successively all the Hindu prince's strongholds up to, and including, Mooltan. The country remained subject to the Arabs till A. D. 750, when they were expelled by an insurrection led by the Sumra* tribe of Rajputs, and their Indian conquests were restored to the Hindus.

Second Muham-
madan invasion.
A. D. 978.

In the interval that followed before the next Muhammadan invasion, nothing is known of the history of the district, but when Sabaktagin of Ghazni defeated Jaipal Raja of Lahore and his confederacy, and annexed the country west of the Indus, this district or the greater portion of it formed part of the Province of Mooltan which was ceded by the Hindus to Hamid Khan Lodi, to induce him to desert Sabaktagin and take up arms on their side. After the defeat of Jaipal, Hamid Khan submitted to Sabaktagin and retained his hold upon Mooltan. His grandson Abul Fath Lodi was governor of that Province when Mahmud of Ghazni first invaded India, and threw in his lot, not with the Muhammadan conqueror, but with the Hindu king Anangpal, who succeeded his father Jaipal as Raja of Lahore, and a special expedition to reduce Abul Fath was undertaken by Mahmud in A. D. 1004. After a successful siege of the city of Mooltan, Abul Fath's submission was accepted, and he was allowed, on payment of an indemnity, to retain his Province; but his hatred of the Ghaznavi must have been deep-rooted, for he revolted again in 1010 A. D., when he became the subject of a special expedition and was brought prisoner by Mahmud to Ghazni. Mahmud's descendants, driven from Ghazni by the house of Ghor, made Lahore their capital for a time, but in A. D. 1186, the Province of Mooltan, in which the greater part of this district continued to be included, passed, along with the other dependencies of the house of Ghazni, under the rule of Shahab-ud-din Ghor, who had conquered up to Uch, the then junction of the Indus and Chenab, ten years previously, but had subsequently had varying success. In A. D. 1203, a reverse experienced by Shahab-ud-din in fighting against the Tartars encouraged one of his chiefs to take possession of Mooltan and revolt, but the revolt was quickly put down. When the Ghor dynasty died out, Kutb-ud-din, the slave king, who had ruled their territory in India for them, succeeded to the full sovereignty over that tract, and his superiority was acknowledged by his brother-in-law Nasir-ud-din, Kabacha, who was governor of Mooltan and Sind under the Ghoris. Nasir-ud-din subsequently in the reign of one of Kutb-ud-din's successors, Altamish, asserted his independence and for a time successfully, but in A. D. 1225 he was driven back to Bhakkar, and was there drowned with all his family in a sudden squall on the Indus. The slave kings were succeeded in their government at Delhi by the house of

* There are still Jats of the Sumra tribe in this district and in Muzafergarh.

A. D. 1001.

A. D. 1004.

A. D. 1010.

A. D. 1186.

A. D. 1203.

A. D. 1206.

A. D. 1217.

A. D. 1225.

A. D. 1286.

Khilji, and the Khiljis by the house of Tughlak, who ruled until the invasion of Tamerlane in A. D. 1398, and during those changes the Province of Mooltan remained subject to Delhi. Early in the spring of 1398, Pir Muhammad, the grandson of Tamerlane, who had been employed in reducing the Afghans in the mountains of Suleman, crossed the Indus in line with Uch, and soon after laid siege to Mooltan.* "After reducing it he joined his grandfather, who had marched by Kabul, Haryub and Bannu, in the defeat of the Indian army under Mahmud Tughlak and in the sack of Delhi. In the confusion which followed the withdrawal of Tamerlane, and while the Saiyads governed at Delhi, the Province of Mooltan became independent under a family of Langas. There are still Langas in this district and in Muzaffargarh, and they describe themselves as Jats. The Langas maintained their independence or a semi-independence from A. D. 1445 to A. D. 1526, during the rule of the Lodis at Delhi. Behlol, the first Lodi king, who was the grandson of a governor of Mooltan, and a descendant of the Lodi who defied Mahmud of Ghazni, would have reduced Mooltan and had marched against it, but was recalled by an attack from the king of Jounpur. His relation, Islam Khan, was then in charge of the southern part of the Mooltan Province, including Sitpur in the present Muzaffargarh District, Kinnowa which is now in this district, and Kashmir in Sind; all this tract was then, it must be remembered, on the right bank of the Indus, though now partly on the left and partly on the right. Islam Khan cut himself adrift from the Langas at Mooltan and set up a separate government at Sitpur, and he and his descendants, although belonging to the house of Lodi, were thenceforward known as Nahars. The name is said to have been given them on account of their rapacity, being the Sanskrit for a tiger.

About the same time Sultan Hussain, the then Langa ruler of Multan, found himself in difficulties with the trans-Indus part of his Province, and was glad to avail himself of the services of Malik Sobrab, a Biloch of the Dodai tribe, in procuring tranquillity, and assigned him a considerable territory across the Indus in *jagir*. Sobrab was the father of Ismail and Fath Khan, after whom are called the principal town of the Dera Ismail Khan District and the village of Dera Fath Khan on the bank of the Indus, a little way above the northern extremity of this district. The Dodai tribe is said to have originated from the union of a Rind Biloch with a Sumra Rajput. Haji Khan, a member of another branch of this tribe, the Mirranis, also entered the service of Sultan Hussain of Mooltan about this time, and on the succession of Sultan Hussain's grandson, Mahmud, set up independent authority in the greater part of the Dera Ghazi Khan District, which from that time forward became known by that name.

Chapter II.

History.

A. D. 1321.
A. D. 1398.

A. D. 1445.

A. D. 1452.

The Nahar govern-
ment.A. D. 1469.
The Mirrani go-
vernment of D. G.
Khan.

* Elphinstone's History, Book VI, Chapter III.

Chapter II.

History.

Expulsion of the
Nahars by the Mak-
dums.

The Nahars ruling at Sitpur fell into decay about the same time. They were expelled thence during the reign of Nadir Shah by Makhdum Sheikh Rajan, who had been employed by them in a position of trust and succeeded in usurping part of their territories to himself. It has to be remembered that Sitpur was still entirely on the right bank of the Indus, which explains how the Sitpur rulers escaped, the victorious advance northwards of Nur Muhammad Kalhora, who drove the Nawab of Bahawalpur before him, and was for a time in power over the country as far north as Dera Ghazi Khan and Leiah. It is from Sheikh Rajan that Rajanpur takes its name.

A. D. 1747.

Kalhora govern-
ment at Dera Ghazi
Khan.

On the assassination of Nadir Shah in A. D. 1747, Ahmad Shah, Durrani, obtained possession of the eastern part of his dominions. Nur Muhammad, Kalhora, submitted to him and received the title of Shah Niwaz Khan, but a year or two after rebelled, and subdued by Ahmad Shah, had to flee to Jaselmir, where he died. He was succeeded by his son Ghulam Shah, who with the help of Mahmud Khan, Gujar, then in rebellion against the decayed Mirranis, succeeded, in re-establishing Kalhora rule at Dera Ghazi Khan. (Another version is that Ghulam Shah established his power in spite of opposition from both Mahmud Khan and Ghazi Khan.) This, however, Ahmad Shah, who had in A. D. 1752 annexed the Punjab in addition to the country west of the Indus, would not brook, and Kaura Mal, governor of Mooltan, was despatched against the Kalhora, and defeated him in A. D., 1758. The history of the following thirteen years is somewhat uncertain, but it appears likely that Mahmud Khan was *de facto* governor of Dera Ghazi Khan, responsible either to Kaura Mal or direct to Ahmad Shah. In A. D. 1769, Ghulam Shah, Kalhora, again attacked Dera Ghazi Khan, and finally broke the Mirrani power.

A. D. 1752.

A. D. 1772.

Decay of the Kal-
horas.

The Kalhoras lost their power in Sind and elsewhere in A. D. 1772, when they were driven out by the Talpurs, a section of the Leghari tribe, whom with other Bilochis they had called in as allies. The last Ghazi Khan, Mirrani, who exercised actual authority at Dera Ghazi Khan, died in A. D. 1758, and the last member of the family who bore that name died in A. D. 1775. There is a couplet which gives the date of the death of the last Ghazi Khan:—

A. D. 1775.

Final decay of the
Mirranis.

“ Chu Ghazi Khan az dunya raft mahrum,
Musafir be watan mard ast mazlum.
Khirad Tarikh ve guft ast bishno,
Zafrija bishmari, ai yar masum.”

“ When Ghazi Khan died, a traveller and an exile and oppressed, a wise man told the date of his death, which hearing, count the date of his death—oh, my friend !”

Mahmud Khan was now governor of Dera Ghazi Khan under Ahmad Shah, Durani. He was very active in bringing the district under cultivation, and excavated the Nur Manka and Muhammadwah Canals, and also the Nur branch of the Dhingana Canal. He was succeeded by his nephew Barkburdar Khan, who was killed in A. D. 1779, after which governors were appointed direct from Khurasan by the Durani kings.

In the manuscript translated by General Maclagan, the governors of Dera Ghazi Khan under the Duranis are given as follows :—

Chapter II.

History.

Gojar government.

A. D. 1779.

Governors of Dera Ghazi Khan under the Duranis.

Under Timur Shah.

Zeman Khan, Durani, for three years.	Samandar Khan, Badozai, for one year.
Musa Khan, Atakzai, for nine years.	

Under Zeman Shah.

A'zad Khan, Barakzai, for two years.	Samand Khan, for three years.
Samand Khan, Popalzai, for two years.	
Sheikh Kamr-ud-din, for one year.	
Ibrahim Khan, Popalzai, for one year.	
	Abdul Jabar Khan, for three years.
	Habibula Khan, Sadozai, for two years.
	Zeman Khan, Barakzai, for three years.

Under Shahzadah Mahmud.

Samandar Khan, for two years.

As General Maclagan points out, the total period during which governors were appointed in Zeman Shah's reign amounts to seventeen years, whereas Zeman Shah was only seven years in power. Probably the reigns during which these governors served have been incorrectly stated. The period was one of great confusion and constant intertribal warfare among the Biloch clans now settled in the district. Before long, all semblance of order seems to have disappeared, and a state of anarchy ensued, only to be finally terminated by the British annexation. Canals were neglected and cultivation abandoned, while large numbers of the peaceful classes are said to have fled the country in despair, leaving the district in a more desolate condition than when, three centuries before, it had first come under the rule of Ghazi Khan.

This state of anarchy extended to the southern part of the district, which, when we last noticed it, was under the rule of the Makhdum Sheikh Rajan and his successors. The revolt of the Kalhoras against Ahmad Shah, and their subsequent decay gave the Nawabs of Bahawalpur their opportunity, and they gradually enlarged their possessions. The change in the course of the Indus by which its junction with the Chenab was shifted from Uch to Mithankot threw the greater part of the territory held by the Makhdums open to the attacks of the Nawabs, who gradually annexed the whole up to the present left bank of the Indus. The small portion of their territory left on their right bank became nominally subject, like the northern part of the district, to the Afghan governors at Dera Ghazi Khan. The greater part of it was conferred in jagir in

Decay of the Makhdums.

Chapter II.**History.**

A. D. 1792.

The Rajanpur
jagir.

A. D. 1792, by Timur Shah, Durani, on the brother of Ghulam Shah, Kalhora, Abdul Nabi, whom he had, on the expulsion of the family from Sind, appointed governor of the Province of Leiah, but who had been ejected on account of his tyrannical government.

A. D. 1758.

The Harrand Da-
jal country.

One part of the district, the country around Harrand and Dajal inhabited by the Gurchani and Tibbi Lund tribes, was not subject to the governors appointed by the Durani kings. It was granted in A. D. 1758, by Timur Shah, Durani, to Nasir Khan, Brahoi, the Khan of Kalat, who assisted him against the Mahrattas. The Khan of Kalat remained in possession of this tract until it was annexed by the Sikhs in A. D. 1827, and even endeavoured to impose his authority on the Mazari tribe in the south of the district.*

1806 A. D.

Annexation by the
Sikhs.

The Sikh power, which arose on the decay of the Delhi Empire, had, since A. D. 1806, dominated the greater part of the Punjab from its capital, Lahore, but it was not till A. D. 1818 that Ranjit Singh, encouraged by the murder of Fath Khan, the Wazir, whose talents and energy had alone kept the Afghan monarchy from dissolution, turned his attention to the trans-Indus districts.

1818 A. D.

1819 A. D.

In the following year he seized the Derajat, including the district of Dera Ghazi Khan which was evacuated by the Afghan governor. An expedition to bring the northern part of the Derajat under subjection was, however, found necessary in A. D. 1821, and it was not till then that Asad Khan, the chief of the Nutkani tribe, who was then the dominant authority in the Sangarh tahsil, was forced to engage for tribute.

1821 A. D.

Government for
the Sikhs of the
Nawab of Bahawal-
pur.

Until 1830 A. D., the district was farmed by the Sikhs to the Nawab of Bahawalpur for four lakhs of rupees as land revenue, with an additional lakh as *nazrana*. The Nawab was led, by the instigation of the Nutkani Chief, into a long struggle with the Khosa tribe. Lal Khan, Nutkani, was killed in battle, and to humiliate the Khosas, the Nawab demanded a daughter of their chief in marriage. Ghulam Haidar, the chief, refused, and was supported in his refusal by the Leghari, Gurchani and Nutkani Chiefs. The demand was, however, finally enforced, and the three chiefs last mentioned were also compelled each to give a daughter in marriage to the Nawab. It was the Nawab of Bahawalpur who, in 1827 A. D., conquered the country round Dajal and Harrand for the Sikhs. His delegates for administering the district were Ghulam Kadir, Daim Khan, and lastly Kaim Khan.

1827 A. D.

1830 A. D.
General Ventura
and Diwan Sawan
Mal.

After the Nawab's farm of the district ceased in A. D. 1830, General Ventura held charge of it for two years as governor, and was succeeded by Diwan Sawan Mal, who

* The Gurchani Chief accompanied Nasir Khan to the battle of Pasipat.

governed this and the adjacent districts from Mooltan till his death in A. D. 1844. One of the Diwan's first acts was to proceed against the Mazari tribe, who, cut off from the rest of the district by the Harrand-Dajal country, did not come under the influence of the Sikhs till the annexation of that country in A. D. 1827, and who then refused to acknowledge their supremacy and continued the predatory habits for which they were notorious. Diwan Sawan Mal marched against them with an army of 7,000 men, drove them into the hills, and made them surrender all the stolen cattle in their possession. They soon broke out again and sacked the town of Mithankot, but a second expedition proved more effective; terms were arranged, and Bahram Khan, the Mazari chief, attended the Diwan's Darbar at Mooltan in A. D. 1833-4. A rebellion of the Gurchani tribe, which rose immediately after the great fort at Harrand was built by the Sikhs and murdered the warden of the fort, had also to be put down, and subsequently, in a struggle between rival claimants for the chieftainship of that tribe, the Diwan opposed the claimant, Bijar Khan, favoured by the tribe, and supported the Leghari tribe in making war upon them. Expeditions were sent against two hill tribes, the Khetrans and the Bozdars, in which the Khosa and Sori Lund tribes assisted the Sikhs, but which did not prove successful. Asad Khan, the Natkani Chief, who had, in 1821 A. D., agreed to pay tribute, had, either from insubordination or from real inability to pay the demand, fled into the hills before Diwan Sawan Mal became governor. He was well treated by the Diwan, who called him to Mooltan and gave him an annual allowance. Sawan Mal's *kardars* were: Jawabar Mal, Rang Ram, Kirpa Ram, Bahadur Chand, Radha Kishen, Longa Ram. Diwan Sawan Mal's administration was most able. He promoted cultivation and commerce, and did more for the district than any previous governor of it. Diwan Sawan Mal's character is so well known that it would be useless to enlarge upon it further.

Chapter II.

History.

1832-1844 A. D.

Ability and good government of Diwan Sawan Mal.

Sawan Mal was succeeded by his son, Mulraj, whose defiance of the Sikh authority caused the outbreak at Mooltan. Sir Herbert Edwardes was then in the Upper Derajat, the settlement of which he had just completed. On receiving instructions from the British Resident to hold the Upper Derajat, and also to seize the lower, which was the trans-Indus portion of the Province of Mooltan, he advanced southwards. He describes the Lower Derajat as divided into two districts, Sangarh and Dera Ghazi Khan. His first advance was on the fort of Mangrotha in Sangarh, which Chetan Mal, Mulraj's governor, seeing Edwardes supported by the Kasrani tribe, surrendered without a struggle. Sir Herbert Edwardes halted at Dera Fath Khan while General Cortlandt with a small force moved on towards Dera Ghazi Khan. On the way he was joined by Ghulam Haidar, the son of the chief of the Khosa tribe, by the Sori Lunds and their chief, and by other well-disposed inhabit-

Events in Dera Ghazi Khan during the second Sikh War.

Chapter II.

History.

Events in Dera
Ghazi Khan during
the second Sikh
War.

ants of the district. Mulraj won over Asad Khan, the Nutkani Chief, and Jalal Khan, who was then the *de facto* chief of the Leghari tribe, by offering the former Sangarh and the latter Dera Ghazi Khan in *jagir*, and they joined Longa Mal, Mulraj's governor, at Dera Ghazi Khan, and preparations were made to oppose General Cortlandt's advance. Kaura Khan, the Khosa Chief, obtained permission from the General to go on in advance and strike a blow at his old enemies, the Legharis, and was signally successful, putting the Sikhs and Legharis to flight, and killing 40, with a loss of 15 on his own part. General Cortlandt then occupied Dera Ghazi Khan and was joined there by Sir Herbert Edwardes. Jalal Khan, Leghari, soon came in, made his submission and added 80 men to their force. Asad Khan, Nutkani, declined to come in, but he did not oppose, and ultimately joined, the British side as one of the force under the Nawab of Bahawalpur, and the only enemy now left in the district was Mohkam Chand, *kardar* of Harrand, who was holding the fort there with a force of 200 men. He was reduced, after Edwardes had left the district to advance against Mooltan, by a force under Lieutenant Ralph Young, aided by the Gur-chani tribe and their chief, who had from the first been burning for a chance of attacking the Sikhs and the Legharis.

Their chief, Ghulam Haidar, was for a time at the siege of Mooltan. At the conclusion of the second Sikh War, the district was, with the rest of the Sikh dominions, annexed by the British, and General Cortlandt became its first Deputy Commissioner.

Expeditions against
the tribes of the
district.

A. D. 1853.

The only tribes who gave trouble after annexation were the Kasranis in the plains and the Bozdars in the hills. The former were inveterate plunderers and cattle thieves, and in A. D. 1853, broke out into open defiance, and a force of 900 men under General J. S. Hodgson was sent to punish them.

A. D. 1857.

The town or village of Bati, which is built on a pinnacle approached by a narrow mountain gorge, was taken and destroyed. The Kasranis afterwards assisted the force which, under General Chamberlain, subdued the Bozdars in March 1857. The Bozdars brought their punishment upon themselves by persistent raiding into the plains. In 1850 they raided as far as Vidor, Yaru and even Umarkot.

District officers.

The following have been the Deputy Commissioners of the district since the annexation :—

Name of Officers.	From	To
General Cortlandt	1849	1854.
Captain Pollock	1854	1856.
Colonel Graham (acting)	In 1857.	
Captain Pollock	1857	1858.
" Munro (acting)	1859	1860.
Major Minchin	1860	1866.

Name of Officers.	From	To
Captain Sandeman	1866	1869.
Major Shortt (acting)	In 1869.	
Captain Sandeman	1869	1875.
Mr. Gladstone (acting)	1875	1877.
Mr. Fryer	1877	1879.
Mr. Becket (acting)	1879.	
Mr. Fryer	1879	End of year.
Mr. Gladstone (acting)	1879	December 1880.
Captain Roberts (acting)	December 1880	January 1881.
Mr. Thorburn (acting),	January 1881	September 1881.
Mr. Tucker (acting)	September	November 1881.
Mr. Fryer	1881	May 1883.
Captain Massey	May 1883	August 1883.
Mr. Fryer	August 1883	March 1884.
Major T. J. C. Plowden	March 1884	January 1885.
Mr. R. Clarke	January 1885	January 1885.
Major T. J. C. Plowden	January 1885	January 1886.
Mr. J. G. M. Rennie	January 1886	April 1886.
Major T. J. C. Plowden	April 1886	September 1886.
Mr. M. L. Dames	September 1886	April, 1890.
Mr. R. E. Younghusband	April 1890	October 1890.
Nawab Muhammad Afzal Khan	October 1890	November 1890.
Mr. W. O. Clark	November 1890	November 1890.
Mr. R. E. Younghusband	November 1890	March 1893.
Mr. M. L. Dames	March 1893	May 1894.
Mr. H. A. Casson	May 1894	November 1894.
Mr. M. L. Dames	November 1894	January 1895.
Lieutenant R. M. Lewis	February 1895	May 1895.
Mr. M. L. Dames	May 1895	April 1896.
Captain C. P. Thompson	April 1896	To date.

Chapter II.
History.
A. D. 1857.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report. Captain Pollock's first step here was to summon to the protection of Dera Ghazi Khan Captain Hughes, commanding 1st Punjab Cavalry at Amri. In a few hours this officer was on his way with 300 sabres; but his services being needed elsewhere, Captain Pollock was directed by the Chief Commissioner to raise a levy of 300 horse and 300 foot to guard the outposts and relieve the drilled troops who were called on service in the field. The people showed great alacrity in joining these levies. They performed the duties of all but three of the outposts. On them much of the guarding of the jail and treasury devolved, and the very entertainment of the men tended greatly to keep the country quiet. One coalition to make a disturbance was discovered to have been solemnly ratified by two tribes in this district. Their leaders were summoned, detained until the end of the year, and then released on security. Individuals among the troops were also punished for using seditious language, &c.; but no general breach of the peace occurred. The vigour and energy displayed prevented this. The regular troops were mostly removed from the district, and the defence of the border was left to the Biloch tribes who occupy land

The Mutiny.

Chapter II.
History.
The Mutiny.

along it. The Marris took the opportunity to make a raid upon the Asni border. In August 1857, a body of 230 horsemen came down into the plains, and were met by Bijar Khan, Drishak, and a body of Bugti and other militia from the Mubammadpur post. The Drishaks were not properly supported by the Bugtis and others, and out of a force of 60 men, they lost their chief, Bijar Khan, his son, Drihan Khan, and 38 men. In recognition of the conduct of the Drishaks on this occasion, a pension of Rs. 1,000 per annum was granted to the late chief, Miran Khan. A body of Khosa horse was sent to operate against the rebels, but the leader, Secundar Khan, Khosa, was badly chosen, and the party returned after going no further than Montgomery.

The Harrand raid.
A. D. 1867.

In 1867, an attack known as the Hargand raid was made upon British territory by the Bugti outlaw Ghulam Hussain Khan, at the head of 1,200 men, and was repulsed by a body of Gurchani and Tibbi Lund tribesmen, headed by their chiefs and aided by 27 sabres from the garrison of Harrand Fort.

Changes in the
constitution of the
district.
A. D. 1866-71.

Adjustments in the boundary between this district and Dera Ismail Khan were made in 1866 and 1871, of which the final result was to include the country of the Kasrani tribe in this district, and not in Dera Ismail Khan. The names of the villages on either side of the boundary between this district on the one side, and Dera Ismail Khan and Muzaffargarh on the other, along the Indus, were published in 1897 in *Gazette* Notifications by which the boundaries between the districts will remain fixed, unless good reason be shown for the transfer of a village from one district to another. The boundary between the district and Bahawalpur State is a varying one, and is revised from year to year in accordance with the general rule that the main stream of the Indus is the boundary in cases of alluvion, but not in cases of avulsion; in other words, that the *chakkars* described in the first chapter do not change the jurisdiction to which they are attached, but land does so which is transferred by river action from one side of the Indus to the other in an unidentifiable form. The village of Kot Khewali was transferred from Sind to this district in 1889, and the southern boundary of Dera Ghazi Khan is now only a few miles north of the town of Kashmir in the Upper Sind Frontier district.

1889 A. D.

Delimitation of
the boundary of the
district in the hills.

A. D. 1887.

When the Quetta Agency was established after the Afghan War of 1879-80, and the western limits of the country to be administered from it were fixed in A. D. 1887, it was decided that all the tribes residing in the plains of Dera Ghazi Khan District should remain under the authority of the Deputy Commissioner, Dera Ghazi Khan District, including the portions of the tribes resident in the hills. The Bozdars were also placed under his authority because, although only a small part of the tribe is resident in the plains, their relations are more intimate with the

tribes on this side of the Sulemans than with those of the other. The Khetrans, the Marris and Bugtis were made subject to the Governor-General's agent at Quetta.

Chapter II. History.

Development since
annexation.

Some conception of the development of the district since it came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. II, which gives some of the leading statistics for five-yearly periods, so far as they are available; while most of the other tables appended to this work give comparative figures for the last few years. In the case of Table No. II, it is probable that the figures are not always strictly comparable, their basis not being the same in all cases from one period to another. But the figures may be accepted as showing in general terms the nature and extent of the advance made. In the following table an attempt is made, as far as possible, to bring into a comparative form the Imperial revenue of the district for four years, one shortly after annexation, and the others following after intervals of a decade.

Imperial Revenue, 1851-52, 1861-62, 1871-72, 1881-82, 1891-92,
1896-97.

YEAR.	LAND REVENUE.		Salt and Customs.	Excise (Spirits).	Opium and Drugs.	Assessed Taxes.		Miscellaneous.
	Permanent.	Fluctuating.				Rs.	Rs.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1851-52 ...	4,08,496	11,024	7,126	2,562	1,833	...	5,164	69,806
1861-62 ...	3,41,085	868	...	6,255	5,598	...	18,023	...
1871-72 ...	2,96,739	6,023	3,600	14,548	7,050	1,552	58,678	...
1881-82 ...	3,48,250	23,656	...	17,315	10,191	45,809	71,277	...
1891-92 ...	3,37,613	32,681	...	20,229	11,213	13,615	65,134	...
1896-97 ...	3,21,462	1,69,519	...	20,584	15,224	13,601	80,070	...

The following picture of the administration of justice under native rule, taken from Mr. Fryer's Report, presents a vivid contrast with the present state of affairs. Under native rule the administration of justice was carried on in a very rough and summary manner. Civil suits for money were generally conducted by the nearest Government official, who received a percentage on the amount awarded to the successful litigant. Suits regarding inheritance, divorce, marriage, adultery, and such like, were made over to the Kazis, who gave written decisions called *fatwas* in accordance with Muhammadan law. Diwan Sawan Mal used to receive written petitions, and either dispose of them himself or hand them over to his *kardars* for disposal.

Administration of
justice under native
rule.

Chapter II.

History.

Administration of
justice under native
rule.

Another usual tribunal was the *panchayat*. Criminal cases were disposed of by the governor himself. Murderers were usually punished by fine, rarely by death. It was never considered murder for a husband to take the life of his wife's paramour and of his wife. Offences against property were punished by fine or mutilation. There was no regular prison. Prisoners were kept in stocks. The State did not maintain prisoners. They were left to be maintained either by their own means or by charity. A percentage was levied by the State on all stolen property recovered. In Biloch Tumans the *tumandar* was the head judicial authority. Murders were settled on the *wanni banni*, woman or land, principle. Cases of theft were met by restoration of property. If there was a doubt as to the accused's guilt, he was tried by ordeal. The common form of trial by ordeal was to put the accused into the water. A man stood by the water, and shot an arrow from a bow. If the accused could keep his head under water until a friend could run for and bring back the arrow, his innocence was established. If not, he was guilty.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tahsil and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families; while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1891:—

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of
population.

Percentage of total population who live in villages ...	{	Persons ...	58.02	
		Males ...	48.05	
		Females ...	39.97	
Average rural population per village			647	
Average total population per village and town			617	
Number of villages per 100 square miles			13	
Average distance from village to village in miles... ..			8	
Density of population per square mile of—	{	Total area	Total popu- lation	80
			Rural popu- lation	71
	{	Cultivated area	Total	250
			Rural	220
	{	Culturable area	Total	210
			Rural	185
Number of resident families per occupied house	{	Villages	1.07	
		Towns	1.07	
Number of persons per occupied house	{	Villages	5.38	
		Towns	5.10	
Number of persons per resident family	{	Villages	5.03	
		Towns	4.78	

Many of the villages are mere areas included within a common boundary for administrative purposes, and comprising many scattered hamlets. The district is very sparsely cultivated. In the Pachad, owing to the difficulty of obtaining drinking water, no permanent habitation can be set up except in the vicinity of a well or other source of water-supply, and the distances between villages are very great. In Rájanpur the Pachad is a greater wilderness than in the other tahsils because cultivation is only possible to a very limited extent, and in the remaining part of that tahsil, owing to the wide area flooded by the river, there is extensive jungle and little cultivation, and the population is consequently more sparse than elsewhere. The most thickly populated part of the district is the Sind of the Dera and Jámpur tahsils.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Migration and
birth-place of popu-
lation.

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and States with

Population per mille of total population.

	Gain.	Loss.
Persons	63	104
Males	75	139
Females	45	94

which the district has exchanged population, the number of migrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by tah-

sils. Further details will be found in Table No. XI and in Supplementary Abstracts Nos. 64 and 65 and 77—80 of the Census Report for 1891, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Chapter X of the same report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth-place:—

Born in	PROPORTION PER mille OF RESIDENT POPULATION.		
	Males.	Females.	Persons.
The district	921	955	938
The Province	998	1000	999
India	992	993	992
Asia	1,000	1,000	1,000

Migration and
birth-place of popu-
lation.

It was ascertained at the census of 1891 that, of the whole population 379,103 were born in the district, 13,541 were born in neighbouring districts, 2,472 were Pathans and 8,813 were natives of other districts. The immigrants from neighbouring districts including the Baháwalpur State are for the most part residents of the alluvial lands along the Indus, who move about with their cattle wherever there is grazing, and are sometimes in one district and sometimes in another. The Pathans are Po-windas from the other side of the border. They come by two main routes, one direct into the district by the Sind-Peshin road, the other by one of the passes into the Dera Ismail Khan District and thence southwards. They comprise traders, who leave most of their camels to profit by the grazing available in this district and carry their wares on into the Punjab for sale, and also labourers with their families who come to work on canals and roads, or failing that, are content to be hewers of wood and drawers of water at the towns of Dera Gházi Khan and Dajal, and in either case lose no opportunity of adding by begging to their income. They come early in the cold weather, and depart in March, when it begins to get hot. Of the natives of more distant districts and States, about one-half were servants of Government serving either in the army or in civil employ, and the other half were casual settlers or travellers.

The figures in the statement below show the population of the district as it was at the four enumerations of 1855, 1868, 1881 and 1891 :—

Chapter III, A.
Increase and decrease of population.

	Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Actuals	1855 ...	238,964	134,031	104,933
	1868 ...	309,192	170,446	138,746
	1881 ...	363,340	200,667	162,679
	1891 ...	404,031	221,946	182,085
Percentages... ..	1868 on 1855	129·4	126·5	133·0
	1881 on 1868	117·5	117·7	117·2
	1891 on 1881	111·2	110·6	111·9

The figures for 1868 have been corrected for transfer of territory, but it would have been impossible to do this for the figures of 1855. A calculation of the annual increase of population as shown by these figures gives the following forecast of the population of the district in different years. The figures are in even hundreds :—

Year.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1891	4,040	2,219	1,821
1892	4,081	2,241	1,840
1893	4,122	2,262	1,860
1894	4,162	2,283	1,879
1895	4,203	2,305	1,898
1896	4,244	2,326	1,918
1897	4,284	2,347	1,937
1898	4,325	2,368	1,957
1899	4,366	2,390	1,976
1900	4,406	2,411	1,995
1901	4,447	2,432	2,015

Chapter III. A.

Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

A similar forecast based on the Census figures for 1881 gave the population of 1891 as 411,400, and by actual enumeration in that year it was 404,000, so it is reasonable to suppose that the forecast now made will be nearly realized. The urban population is 48,383, and the increase was 17 per cent. as compared with 11 per cent. in the rural. The population of individual towns at the respective enumerations is given in Chapter VI. Within the district the increase for the various tahsils is as follows :—

Tahsil.	TOTAL POPULATION.				PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION.		
	1855.	1868.	1881.	1891.	1868 on 1855.	1881 on 1868.	1891 on 1881.
Dera Ghāzi Khan ...	109,026	136,297	159,733	177,062	125	117	111
Sangarh ...	38,949	42,157	51,779	53,161	108	123	103
Jámpur ...	33,013	61,613	69,159	83,583	186	112	121
Rájaapur ...	57,976	71,684	82,675	90,225	124	115	109
Total District ...	238,964*	311,751	363,346	404,031	130	116	111

Increase, 1855 to 1868.

The figures show an increase of 30 per cent. between 1855 and 1868, part of which is due to a transfer of villages, now including a population of some 3,000 souls, from Dera Ismail Khan to the Sangarh tahsil. This transfer has been allowed for in the figures for 1868, as the population of that year was ascertainable; but no such correction could be made in the figures for 1855. It is doubtless possible that a part of this increase is apparent rather than real, being attributable to defective enumeration at the time of the first census. At the same time, apart even from natural causes, it is certain that the population of the district received a very material accession. "The increase of population," Mr. Fryer wrote, "was due to the settlement of many hill Bilochis in the plains, to the increase of canal irrigation, to the return of many inhabitants of the district who emigrated to avoid the heavy assessment of the first Summary Settlement, and, lastly, to the considerable natural increase of population consequent on the state of peace which has been secured to the district since annexation." Nor is there any special reason for supposing the enumeration of 1855 to have been defective.

* These figures do not agree with the figures for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

During the similar interval which elapsed between 1868 and 1881 the increase was 17 per cent. The causes of this increase were: firstly, a more accurate enumeration; secondly, the natural increase of population; thirdly, the fact that the census was taken at a time when considerable numbers of the hill tribes had come down to the plains to get grass for their cattle; fourthly, considerable extension of cultivation due to the digging of new wells and canals. The increase varied considerably in the different tahsils from a little over 12 per cent. in Jampur to 23 per cent. in Sangarh.

One reason of the large increase in the Sangarh tahsil doubtless was that the population in this tahsil especially was probably greatly under-estimated at the Census of 1868. The last census was taken only a very short time after Captain Grey had been carried off to the hills by the Kasranis who inhabit almost the whole of the northern portion of this tahsil, and accurate enumeration was an impossibility with the country in so unsettled a condition. Since that time the district had received a first Regular Settlement and the whole border had become comparatively quiet.

During the next decade the increase was 11 per cent., but was not equal throughout the district, being 20 per cent. in Jampur, 11 in Dera, 9 in Rájanpur, and less than three in Sangarh. The cause of the increase being small in Sangarh was that successive years of drought had driven numbers of men, especially Bilochis of the Kasrani tribe, to emigrate temporarily to the Jampur and Dera tahsils. This partly accounts for the increase in Jampur being large, and it is known that the development of cultivation was very great during the decade and doubtless attracted immigrants.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1893 to 1897. The distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables No. XI A and XI B.

The annual birth-rates *per mille*, calculated on the population of 1868, are shown below:—

Birth-rates.

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	Average.
Males	22	19	27	35	23	22	24	26	22	25	29	30	37	40	43	45	29
Females	30	17	24	35	20	19	21	23	16	23	27	27	32	36	44	44	27
Persons	21	18	25	35	21	20	23	25	21	24	28	28	35	38	44	44	29

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Increase, 1868 to 1881.

Increase, 1881 to 1891.

Births and deaths.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Other.

The figures below show the annual death-rates *per mille* since 1882, calculated on the population of 1881 :—

Death-rates.

	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	Average.
Males	28	24	18	15	12	15	18	17	16	27	43	26	26	26	26	37	24
Females	28	22	17	13	11	15	17	16	17	26	41	24	26	26	26	42	24
Persons	28	23	18	14	11	16	18	17	16	27	42	25	26	26	26	39	24

Regarding the accuracy of vital statistics, Mr. MacLagan wrote in paragraph 26 of his Census Report that they were "based on the reports made by the village watchmen to the police, and though they are improving in accuracy there is still grave cause for refusing to rely on them." He considered the birth and death-rates on the frontier abnormally low.

Such further details as to birth and death-rates in individual towns as are available will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

Age, sex, and civil condition.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great detail in Tables VII to VIII of the Census Report of 1891 while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter V of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller ; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for tahsils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures :—

	Under one year.	One year.	Two years.	Three years.	Four years.	Total 0—4	5—9	10—14	15—19	20—24	25—29	30—34	35—39	40—44	45—49	50—54	55—59	60 and over.
Persons	471	381	390	389	350	1,980	1,457	833	965	830	967	567	727	319	506	158	384	307
Males	431	352	367	371	340	1,861	1,511	904	911	818	936	603	723	347	515	167	396	308
Females	518	417	418	409	360	2,122	1,391	747	1,030	845	1,066	523	736	285	494	148	368	305

Chapter III. A.

Statistical.

Age, sex, and civil condition.

Population.		Villages.	Towns.	Totals.
All religions	1885	5,634
	1908	5,513
	1881	5,493	5,745	5,523
	1891	5,468	5,761	5,493
Hindús	1891	5,434	5,608	5,485
Sikhs	1891	5,614	3,248	7,753
Musalman	1891	5,461	5,730	5,484

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is shown in the margin, and the number of females per 1,000 males in the ear-

lier years of life was found to be as below at the Census of 1891 :—

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindús.	Musalman.
Under one year...	988	953	993
One year	972	997	909
Two years	933	1,029	920
Three years	904	914	901
Four years	871	959	859

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total numbers of each sex in each age-period.

The figures of 1881 and 1891 bear out the known characteristics of the natives of this district as of most parts of India; viz., that the women marry considerably younger than the men, and that they look much more to the welfare of their male than of their female children. Polyandry and infanticide are unknown in the district. There is comparatively little polygamy. A man will marry two wives if he can afford it, but the inhabitants are mostly too poor to be able to support more than one wife. Girls are usually married at the age of between twelve and twenty years. Boys do not generally marry till they can support themselves. They usually marry their cousins. There is little difference in this respect between the Hindús and Bilochís and other Muhammads.

There is no striking difference in the ratio of the figures as regards ages and time of life at which marriage takes place between Hindu and Muhammadan women. The women are not very fertile as a rule. They have to work hard for their daily bread in a hot dry climate. These causes tell more severely on women than on men, and the figures show that the proportion of women to men decreases rapidly after the age of 39. The Musalmans appear to be more long-lived, as a rule, than the Hindús, perhaps because they live more in the country, and breathe a better atmosphere. The Bilochís,

who are a long-lived race, raise the general percentage of the Muhammadans.

Chapter III. A.

Statistical.
Infirmities.

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes, and lepers in the district in each religion. The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables XII to XVA of the Census Report give farther details of the

age and caste of the infirm. By comparison with the figures of 1881 there is a very considerable decrease. This is probably due to increasing accuracy in census work, but there is believed to have been a real decrease in the number of blind persons owing to the ravages of small-pox having been checked by vaccination.

The figures given below show the composition of the Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned their birth-place and their language as European. They are taken from tables X and XI and A and B of the Census Report for 1891 :—

European and
Eurasian population.

Details.		Males.	Females.	Persons.
Races of Christian population.	Europeans and Americans	45	28	73
	Eurasians	7	3	10
	Native Christians	21	13	34
	Total Christians	73	44	117
Languages	English	52	31	83
	Other European languages
	Total European languages	52	31	83
Birth-place.	British Isles	14	6	20
	Other European countries	6	1	6
	Total European countries	19	7	26

The distribution of European and Eurasian Christians by absails is shown in Table No. VII. All the Europeans in the district are employed either in Government service, civil or military, or on missionary work. The number of troops stationed in the district is given in Table No. VII.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL LIFE.

It is not the custom in this district for the agricultural population to live much in one village. There are houses on most of the wells in the Sind in which the proprietors of the wells or their tenants live, and in the Pachad there are scattered encampments made of wicker-work and reeds, or of matting, in which the Bilochis live whilst they graze their flocks, or in the season in which they have to cultivate their lands. As the pastures become exhausted, or as the agricultural seasons change, these encampments are moved.

The villages.

words, and generally also shields made of leather and studded with silver or brass. In the scabbard of the sword is stuck a knife. Many Bilochis have matchlocks, but they do not carry them ordinarily.

The staple food of Bilochis is *jowár* or *bájra* flour baked into *chapatis*. Wheat flour is only eaten by the well-to-do. Meat is eaten freely when it can be obtained. A Biloch usually carries a *katora* or brass drinking vessel, an iron plate for cooking *chapatis* on, and an iron tripod on which the plate is rested. The method of cooking is very simple. A stone is made red hot, and a lump of dough is pasted round it. The cake thus made looks like an apple dumpling with a stone in the centre where the apple ought to be. This cake is called *kak*, and it is very indigestible. The following note regarding the food of the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879. "The average estimate of the food-grains consumed in a day by an agriculturist's family consisting of five people, among whom are one old person and two children, is as follows:—

Wheat	3	sers.
<i>Jowar</i> and <i>bajra</i>	3	"
Rice	2	"
					8	"

For non-agriculturists—

Wheat	2½	sers.
<i>Jowar</i> and <i>bajra</i>	2½	"
Rice	2	"
					7	"

Rice is eaten in this district, either boiled or ground and made into cakes."

A strictly Biloch custom is that by which any Biloch traveller is asked by those whom he may chance to meet for the news, commonly called *hal* by the Bilochis themselves. The *hal* means the latest intelligence, which the traveller is bound to communicate forthwith. The interrogator in his turn reports the news he has gained to the first person he meets, and thus all sorts of intelligence is quickly spread amongst the Bilochis.

Every Biloch keeps a mare either of his own or in partnership with a friend. A mare is considered to consist of four parts or legs, and is sold at so much a leg. The owner of one leg keeps the mare for three months in the year. It is common for a Biloch to own shares in several mares.

Every Biloch, when attending his *tumandar*, is entertained at his *tumandar's* expense. On a journey a Biloch burdens himself only with a little flour, and, if he has far to go, with a goat-skin of water which he slings under the saddle.

Chapter III. B.
Social Life.

Food.

The custom of *hal*.

Biloch mares.

Maintenance of Bilochis when in attendance on the *tumandars*.

Chapter III. B.

Social Life.

Biloch tactics in war.

The Biloch tactics in war are never to attempt an attack unless the enemy can be surprised or is in inferior numbers. The Biloch always fights on foot. This is the reason that Bilochis always ride mares. A mare is easily tied up, and is not likely to betray her master by whinnying, as a horse would do. Burnes gives a Biloch proverb illustrative of this custom:—"A man with his saddle on a mare has his saddle on a horse; a man with his saddle on a horse has his saddle on his head."

The rule of Biloch war is never to molest women or children, and women may go out safely when their male relations are in the midst of war. Boys are considered fair prey as soon as they assume the *toga virilis* in the shape of a pair of *pyjamas*.

System of reprisals and commutations for murders.

Amongst different tribes the murder of a member of one tribe by a member of another tribe must always be avenged by the murdered man's relations. A tally is kept by each tribe of the lives they owe to, and are owed by, other tribes. When the tally becomes complicated, it can be settled by giving one girl in marriage for each life due, or by the payment of cattle as may be agreed upon. Amongst members of the same tribe a murder may be commuted by *wanni*, the bestowal of a girl in marriage to one of the murdered man's relations, or by *banni*, the gift of a *band*, or field.

Adultery and divorce.

Adultery is very severely punished. A woman taken in adultery is made to hang herself, and even now the adulterer is usually killed if caught. Amongst the hill tribes and the Gurchanis a man is allowed to marry any unmarried girl he can entice away, provided that he gives either another girl or else land to his wife's relations. Divorce was, up till 20 years ago, unknown among Bilochis, and is still uncommon though now recognised and permitted.

Ceremonies attending births.

On the birth of a son cakes of flour and sugar are distributed amongst the parents' relations. A *moula* reads the *bhang* or Muhammadan confession of faith into the child's ear. Before the child is suckled, water is dropped from the point of a sword into its mouth. This latter ceremony is supposed to make the child valorous in future life. An old Biloch custom now dying out was to give ass's milk to the infant for a day or two before he was suckled. On the sixth day the child is named, and there is a feast at which sheep are roasted and eaten. The hair is first removed when the boy is a year old, and the scalp (*jhand*) is deposited near the mosque, or if the birth followed a vow made by the father to a shrine, is presented to the shrine along with a gift of bangles. This ceremony is obligatory only once, but may be repeated a year or two later if the father has to fulfil another vow made with some other object, *e. g.*, to obtain oxen for his plough. Circumcision takes place between the fourth and the ninth year of the boy's age, and is followed by

a feast. The birth of a daughter is not attended with any ceremonies.

Betrothals take place at any age, and are usually between cousins. If this cannot be managed, then betrothals take place between strangers. Fifteen days after the betrothal the father of the betrothed boy goes to the house of his future daughter-in-law's father, and presents his future daughter-in-law with a suit of clothes and a ring, also with some ornaments, which are returned before marriage. The marriage day is then fixed. On the wedding day a procession goes from the bridegroom's house to the bride's. The procession is composed of drummers, of men on horseback carrying lances, and of gaily caparisoned camels. A dinner is given by the father of the bride, and the marriage ceremony is read by a *moula*. After the ceremony the bride and bridegroom's heads are placed together. The bridegroom is dressed in red and the bride in white with a red jacket. The following ornaments are given the bride:—

Anklets and bells	An arm-piece.
Bracelets.	Nose-ring.
Ear-rings.	Necklet.
	Clothes.

Clothes are also given to relations. Money is never paid for a bride. A married girl is called *kowar* and the bridegroom *gôt*. A girl is married at from twelve to twenty years of age. The bride lives for seven days after marriage with the bridegroom, and then returns home for a time, which is not fixed. Horse-racing and dancing are the chief amusements at weddings. Wealthy Bilochis also engage dancing girls, and give illuminations and fireworks.

The funeral of a Biloch is attended by all his male relations. The corpse is wrapped in a shroud and buried in a *kacha* grave. On the day a death takes place, no bread is baked in the deceased's house. Turbans are distributed to the dead man's relations. The bed clothes and cooking utensils are given to the Pir or spiritual guide of the deceased. On the seventh Friday, and on the fortieth day after the decease, a feast is held in the dead man's honour. At the feasts of *ashura* and *shabbadar* food is given to relations and distributed in charity. At the feast of *ashura* the graves are *leaped* and repaired.

The customs of other Muhammadaan tribes resemble very closely the Biloch customs, to which the miscellaneous Muham-

Ceremonies attend-
ing funerals.

Customs of other
Muhammadaan tribes.

madans endeavour to assimilate them. The Sayads alone retain distinctive customs and ceremonies of the same character as those followed by Sayads in other parts of the Province. The Hindu customs are mostly similar to those that prevail elsewhere. When a Hindu boy is six days' old, a bow and arrow, a ledger, and box for holding pens and ink, are placed under his head. When a boy is fifteen months old, he is taken to Sakhi Sarwar or to the shrine of Shamji to have his head shaved. Betrothals are usually reciprocal, and a girl's name is

Ceremonies attend-
ing betrothals and
marriages.

Hindu customs and
ceremonies.

Chapter III, B.

Social Life.

Chapter III, B.

Social Life.

Hindu customs
and ceremonies.

changed on her marriage. When a Hindu is dying, a lamp is set burning, and it is kept alight for ten days after the Hindu's death. If possible, one bone from each limb of the deceased is carried to the Ganges. If it is not possible to carry the bones to the Ganges, they are thrown into the Sakbi Sarwar stream; but now that the Ganges is easily reached, this custom has died out. The ashes of the deceased are thrown into the Indus. One hundred and eight jars of water are poured out under a *pipal* tree to the deceased's memory, and all the deceased's sons shave their heads and faces.

Hindu dress and
food.

Hindu men dress in a coat reaching to the knees, loose *pyjamas*, generally coloured, a scarf, and a skull cap. The women wear a petticoat, bodice, and a scarf, over the head. Besides the usual ornaments, the women wear a curious silver ornament called a *chilki* round the waist. The Hindu's food consists of *chapatis* and *ghi*; some Hindus will eat mutton, and most will eat fowls and fish. Nearly all drink spirits. The women never eat flesh.

Character
disposition of
people.

The Bilochis are robust and manly, but until comparatively recent years they looked upon fighting as their trade, and despised agriculture and the arts of peace. All the tribesmen living in the plains have now settled down to cultivate their lands, but the wilder tribes, such as the Mazaris and Garchanis, are still very indifferent about the improvement of their land; and those who have settled down to agrit culture are still very rough and ready in their habits; murders are not infrequent, and cattle-theft is very prevalent. But the Bilochis are, on the whole, an easy people to manage. They have no fanatical prejudices against British officers, and, if kindly and firmly dealt with, easily become much attached to those officers with whom they are brought into contact. As a body, the Bilochis are exceedingly well affected. The Jats and Hindus of the district are well-behaved, and not more litigious than their fellows in other parts of the Province. Tables Nos. XL, XLI, and XLII give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants.

Language.

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of

Language.	Number per 10,000 of population.
Hindustani Hindi	30
Bagri	1
Punjabi	173
Jatki	8,907
Pashto	93
Bilochi	688
Dialects of Vagrants	26
Other Indian Languages	21
Non-Indian Languages	3

the principal languages current in the district separately for each tahsil and for the whole district. More detailed information will be found in Table No. X of the Census Report for

1891, while in Chapter IX of the same report the several languages are briefly discussed. The figures in the margin give the

distribution of every 10,000 of the population by language, omitting small figures.

The number of individuals whose mother tongue is Bilochi may possibly have been under-stated at the census. Of the tribesmen settled in the plains a large number are, it is true, ignorant of Bilochi and speak Jatki only, but a large number are acquainted with both languages and use Jatki with strangers and Bilochi in their own families. Bilochi is an Iranian language, nearly related to Persian, to which most of the words in use can, after application of rules governing consonantal changes, be traced. Words have also been adopted from Sindi and Jatki, but they can easily be distinguished from the original Bilochi words. There is no literature, and the only composition in the language are the songs and stories of the bards. Mr. Dames' Text-book (published by the Punjab Government Press) contains an excellent collection of these in addition to a treatise on the grammar of the language.

Jatki, or Mooltaui as it was called by the late Mr. O'Brien, whose Glossary is the best published work (Punjab Government Press) on the language, was described by him as a purely Sanskritical language containing many Punjabi and Sindi words, but with a large vocabulary purely its own. It differs from Punjabi and Sindi in having most of its inflections different from both. The "Glossary" contains an interesting collection of proverbs illustrative of the use of the words peculiar to the language which it gives, and there is also a brief but complete grammar in the book. A larger work by Dr. A. Jukes of the Dera Ghazi Khan Mission, a voluminous dictionary of the language which is called by him Western Punjabi, is now passing through the press.

Chapter III. B

Social Life.

Bilochi.

Education.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at the Census of 1891 for each religion and for the total population of each tahsil.

Education.		Total population.
Males	Learning	151
	Literate	601
Females	Learning	3
	Literate	7

The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the Census Returns. Statistics regarding the attendance at Government and Aided Schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII.

The distribution of the scholars at these schools by religion, and the occupations of their fathers as it stood in 1891 is shown in the margin.

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans, Eurasians	9	7
Native Christians	...	22
Hindus	1,811	28
Mosalmans	1,463	...
Sikhs	41	...
Other

Education has made great strides in recent years. It is now the exception instead of the rule for a Biloch Chief to be unable to read or write, and cadets of their families are occasionally sent to the Chiefs' College at Lahore.

Chapter III. B. Social Life.
Education.

Other Bilochis also have been successful in the Middle School and higher examinations, and Jats attend the Government schools in large numbers especially in Sangarh. As elsewhere in India, the usual aim of a student is employment in a Government service, but is qualified by a strong objection to serving anywhere outside a twenty-mile radius from home. The indigenous languages, Jatri and Bilochi, are unwritten, and the character (*kiraki*) used by Hindu merchants or Kirars is so complicated that one man can seldom read another's writing.

Amusements ;
annual fairs.

At every shrine and holy place in the district there are one or more annual fairs held ; some of the fairs are only local, but some are attended by everybody who can get the opportunity. Women, as well as men, dressed in their best and mounted on gaily trapped camels, resort to these fairs. The amusements are horse-racing, wrestling, dancing, singing, and riding in merry-go-rounds.

These fairs serve to break the dull monotony of the country-man's life, and are the only public amusements in the country.

The litigants will abandon a long disputed suit sooner than remain in Court when such a fair as the Sakhī Sarwar is in progress.

Dates on which
fairs are held.

The dates on which the various fairs are held vary slightly every year, but are approximately as follows :—

Sakhī Sarwar fair	6th to 11th of April.
Pir Adil	16th March.
Dhand Lalgir fair	12th March.
Hajipur fair	12th June.
Taran Iman fair	16th, 23rd, and 30th of March, 6th of April.
Mithaukot	21st of August, 20th of October, 31st of January, 10th of March.

Poverty or wealth
of the people.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the

Class.	1894-95.		1895-96.		1896-97.	
	Number taxed.	Amount of tax.	Number taxed.	Amount of tax.	Number taxed.	Amount of tax.
500-750 I	432	4,326	431	4,345	427	4,370
750-1,000 II	193	3,612	187	2,805	165	2,350
1,000-1,250 III	110	2,209	105	2,180	113	2,300
1,250-1,500 IV	63	1,428	40	1,120	4	1,050
1,500-1,750 V	21	755	19	665	17	575
1,750-2,000 VI	11	462	10	320	10	400
2,000-2,500 VII	19	1,161	14	807	17	968
2,500-3,000 VIII	3	278	3	269	3	269
3,000-10,000 IX	1	130	1	149	1	132
10,000-20,000 X	1	322	1	330	2	672
20,000-30,000 XI
30,000-40,000 XII
40,000-50,000 XIII
50,000-1,00,000 XIV
1,00,000 and over XV
Local Bodies	20	273	21	254	21	262
Companies	6	50	4	43	2	33
Professional men	9	800	12	265	12	368
Commercial men	260	4,667	300	7,042	303	6,895
Traders	639	8,025	377	5,304	304	4,473
Manufacturers	22	300	11	126	126	1,727

wealth of the commercial and industrial classes. Table No. XXXIV gives statistics for the income-tax for each year since its imposition, and the figures given in the margin show its working during the last three years.

But the numbers affected by these taxes are small. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case, the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather-workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed in Section D.

Chapter III, C.

Religious Life.

Poverty or wealth of the people.

SECTION C.—RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each tahsil and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the Census of 1891, and Table No. XLIII gives similar figures for towns. Tables Nos. VII and VIII

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Religion.	Rural population.	Urban population.	Total population.
Hindu	965	3,841	4,806
Sikh	17	173	190
Musalman	9,018	5,902	14,920
Christian,	21	21

of the report of that Census give further details on the subject. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures must be

taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of Hindus, are fully discussed in Part I, Chapter III of the Census Report.

The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalman population

Sect.	Total population.
Sunnis	996
Shiabs	11
Others and unspecified	3

by sect is shown in the margin. The Shiabs are chiefly followers of the Kalhora family settled at Hajipur. The sects of the Christian population are given in

Table A of the Census Report, Part II.

Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities, and it would be out of place to enter here into any disquisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by tahsils can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII.; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. The land-owning classes and village menials are almost wholly

Chapter III. C. Musalman, the Hindus and Sikhs being confined to the trading classes and their priests, or to men in Government employ. **Religious Life.** The Labanas of the Indus are for the most part Sikhs.

Medical Mission.

The Medical Mission at Dera Ghazi Khan is in connection with the Church Missionary Society. It was founded by the Rev. G. M. Gordon in 1879, and it was at first intended to establish it in the heart of independent Biloch territory where medical aid would have been novel as well as valuable, and Nawab Jamal Khan, of the Legharis, offered to build a hospital and Mission house at Choti. But Mr. Gordon's sad death at Kandahar disturbed the arrangements; and eventually work was begun at Dera Ghazi Khan early in 1882, though a dispensary had then been open for some years, either at headquarters, or itinerating among the villages.

The Mission School, which was started in 1892 by the Rev. A. Lewis, was continued while a clerical Missionary was in Dera Ghazi Khan to superintend it. In 1890 he was withdrawn to take up other work and the school ceased to exist. The Mission Church in the bazar built by the Rev. A. Lewis of *kachcha* brick was one of the first buildings to suffer from the approach of the river, and the foundation having given way it had to be dismantled to prevent accident in 1891. The Native Christians and Missionaries met to consider what was to be done, and the Christians agreed to set apart one-tenth of the year's income towards a fund for rebuilding it. As the heads of families did not number more than ten or twelve, this act of self-denial, although over Rs. 300 were subscribed for in the room, could not build a Church, and the fund now amounts to over 3,000, and they are waiting for plans to begin building a new Church on another site. Funds are also wanted to build a Reading-room and Book Depot on the site of the old Church.

The Mission Hospital, giving accommodation for twelve in-patients, which was first started on the east side of the city, continued its work there till 1895, when new premises to the north of the city on the circular road were occupied, the new Medical Mission Bungalow, Hospital Assistants' and servant's houses having been erected at a cost of about Rs. 24,000. The new Hospital is raised above the highest flood level of the river Indus, and gives accommodation for 22 beds, and is so arranged that in case of emergency, by occupying the verandahs and central hall, 46 feet by 20 feet, double that accommodation could be provided. It is floored with slate throughout, with the lower lintels of the doors sunk to allow of the whole being periodically washed out with disinfectants. About 10,000 patients, paying over 30,000 visits to the Mission Hospitals, are treated annually. The old hospital is occupied by the Mission as a Zenana Hospital under the superintendence of Doctor and Mrs. Summerhayes, assisted by Mrs. Ghulam Kadir Shah and Mrs. Khair-ud-din as compounder; from 3,000 to 4,000 women and children are here treated annually.

The Mission Staff now consists of :—

Rev. A. E. Day.
Rev. M. H. Izbaq, Deacon Evangelist.
Dr. J. O. Summerhayes.
Dr. A. Jukes.
Dr. Najm-ud-din.
Sayad Ghulam Kadir Shah, Catechist.
Luther, Head Compounder.
Khaire-ud-din, Buta, }
Gansham Das, } Compounders.
Girdhari Lal, }

All are Christians except the two last.

The Mission has also a hospital at Fort Munro, where much good work is done among the hill Bilochis. The hospital was opened in 1882 with two *kotries*, for in-patients. There are now 6 *kotries*; the number of patients continues to be much the same each year. The number of visits paid to the hospital varies from 1,500 to 2,000 during the months from April to October, and the in-patients number about 40 in the same period. There were last year 233 operations performed, major and minor. There is always a large attendance during September when the *jirgas* are held, and the European residents find the Mission Hospital a great convenience both for themselves and their servants.

Fort Munro Hospi-
tal.

There are a large number of Hindu sects, most of those met with elsewhere being represented here. Two peculiar to this locality may be noticed. The first are the worshippers of the river Indus (*darya sewak*), whose principal temple is in the island formed by the Indus opposite Bhakkar in Sind, and who have temples in this district at Dera and at Jampur, at each of which a lamp is kept burning day and night. One act of worship is the floating of little lamps down the river at evening time. They worship the river and also a hero known variously as Vadera Lal, Darya Sahib, Aulia Purah and Amar Lal Dula, who is said to have risen from the Indus and to have rescued the Hindus from Muhammadan oppression. They are a sub-division of the Vaishnawa sect and their *gurus* are called Thakur. The second and more numerous sect is that of the Gosains who are also Vaishnavas in their tenets and their followers. The Gosains of Dera are the descendants of Shamji and Lalji, who were sent from Bindrabun (Matra) to reclaim the Hindus of the lower Indus from the errors into which they had fallen in consequence of their association with Musalmans. Their followers are called Shamdasis and Laldasis, and their temples are, of the former that of Nannit Praya, and of the latter that of Gopi Nath, both at Dera Ghazi Khan.

Hindu sects;

From the number of shrines scattered about the Dera Ghazi Khan district it would appear to have been in by-gone days a favourite resort of saints. This Sir F. Fryer ascribed to the unattractive nature of this district, which contains many places admirably adapted for the residence of those who desire

The district is a
favourite resort of
saints.

Chapter III, C.**Religious Life.**

The district is a favourite resort of saints.

to mortify the flesh. The most renowned saint of the district is Sakhi Sarwar ; and if the renunciation of self is really one of the virtues by the exercise of which pious Muhammadans become saints, Sakhi Sarwar well deserves his high place amongst holy men, for the spot selected by him is the last place that any one, who in the least regarded his personal comfort, would choose as an abode.

Sakhi Sarwar.

Sakhi Sarwar, the Lakhdata of the Western Punjab, is said to have been the son of Hazrat Zenabuldin, who migrated from Baghdad and settled at Siakot, 12 miles east of Mooltan, in 650 A.H. (1220 A.D.). Hazrat Zenabuldin had two sons ; one was Saidi Ahmad, afterwards known as Sakhi Sarwar ; the other was Khan Doda, who died at Baghdad, and was not famous. There is a shrine to him between Dera Ghazi Khan and Sakhi Sarwar, at a place called Vador. Saidi Ahmad studied at Lahore, and from there went to Dhokal, near Wazirabad, in the Gujrat. Whilst at Dhokal he saw a mare, the property of a carpenter, and asked the carpenter for it. The carpenter denied having a mare, whereupon Saidi Ahmad called to the mare, and it came up to him of its own accord. Saidi Ahmad then told the carpenter to sink a well, which he did, and the descendants of the carpenter are the guardians of the well, at which a fair is held every year in June to Sakhi Sarwar's honour. After this Saidi Ahmad, by his father's order, went to reside at the foot of the Suleman Range, and settled at the place now called after him. Shortly after retiring into the desert, Saidi Ahmad performed another miracle. A camel belonging to a caravan, which was going from Khorasan to Delhi, broke its leg. The leader of the caravan applied to Saidi Ahmad, who told him to return to where he had left the camel and he would find it sound. The merchant did as he was directed, and was rewarded by finding his camel recovered. On arriving at Delhi, the merchant published the miracle, and the Emperor heard of it. The Emperor, anxious to inquire into the miracle, sent for the camel and had it killed. The leg was examined and found to have been mended with rivets. The Emperor, convinced of the miracle, sent four mule loads of money to Saidi Ahmad, and told him to build himself a house. Sakhi Sarwar shrine was built with this money. One Gannu of Mooltan now gave his daughter in marriage to Saidi Ahmad, who had miraculously caused two sons to be born to him. Gannu endowed his daughter with all his property, and it was for his generosity in distributing this property to the poor that Saidi Ahmad obtained the name of Sakhi Sarwar, or the bountiful lord or chief. Sakhi Sarwar now visited Baghdad ; on his return he was accompanied by three disciples, whose tombs are shown on a low hill near Sakhi Sarwar.

Origin of the name of Sakhi Sarwar.

The guardians of the Sakhi Sarwar shrine.

The present guardians of the Sakhi Sarwar shrine are the descendants of three servants of Gannu, who attached themselves to Sakhi Sarwar. These were Kulung, Kahin, and Shekh.

Sakhi Sarwar limited the number of the descendants of these three men to 1,650, which number has been strictly observed ever since. This number is thus distributed—

Descendants of Kulung	750
Ditto Kabin	600
Ditto Shekh	300

All the offerings made at the shrine are divided into 1,650 shares, and it is said to be a fact that there are never more nor less than 1,650 *mujawars* or descendants of the three original keepers of the shrine. This number includes women and children. It is not, however, a fact that there are never more nor less than 1,650 *mujawars*, as was ascertained when the village pedigree title deed was prepared. The *mujawars* in excess of the required number absent themselves in rotation as pilgrim-hunters or otherwise. The *mujawars* are all equal, and an infant gets the same share of the proceeds of the shrine as an adult. The *mujawars*, after the annual fair, which is held in April, almost all disperse over the Punjab as pilgrim-hunters. It is only at the great annual fair that the treasure box of the shrine is opened and its contents distributed. Throughout the year the shrine is the resort of mendicants and devotees, but the mendicants usually receive nothing more substantial from the shrine than an order upon some worshipper of the saint given under the seal of the shrine. This order, when presented, is paid or not according to the respect in which the shrine is held by the presentee. When Mr. Bull, the Assistant Secretary to the Lahore Municipality, was attacked by a fanatic, an order from the Sakhi Sarwar *mujawars* was found upon his assailant. This at first gave rise to a suspicion that the guardians of the shrine were in some way implicated in the murder. The order had, however, been granted merely in the ordinary course. One of the chief peculiarities of the shrine is that it is venerated equally by Hindus and by Muhammadans. The shrine is built on the high banks of a hill stream, and a handsome flight of steps leads up from the bed of the stream to the shrine. These steps were built at the expense of two Hindu merchants of Lahore. The buildings of the shrine consist of Sakhi Sarwar's tomb on the west and a shrine to Baba Nanak on the north-west. On the east is the tomb of Mussammatt Bibi Bhai, wife of Sakhi Sarwar, and a *thakardwara*. The shrine of Sakhi Sarwar is thus a curious mixture of Muhammadan and Hindu architecture. Diwan Sawan Mal endeavoured to stop Hindus from frequenting Sakhi Sarwar, and fined all who attended at the fair Re. 1-4-0 each. In 1883 the shrine was destroyed by fire and two rubies presented by Nadir Shah, and some valuable jewels presented by Sultan Zaman Shah, were consumed or lost. It has since then been re-built.

The village of Sakhi Sarwar, which bears a nominal cash assessment of Rs. 725, is revenue free in favour of the shrine. Nearly the whole of the village land is owned by the *mujawars*,

Chapter III, C.

Religious Life.

The guardians
of the Sakhi Sarwar
shrine.

Division of in-
come.

Description of the
shrine.

Chapter III. C
Religious Life.
 Description of the
 shrine.

who pay only a small share, one-sixty-fourth of the produce of their fields, as revenue to the shrine. The shrine exercises a right of pre-emption in respect of transfers by landowners to persons other than *mujawars*, but in spite of this some outsiders have acquired land in the village, and these are required to pay a full revenue to the shrine. The village is noted for a fine breed of camels. The *mujawars* are independent and inclined to be unruly, and require strict treatment.

The Tounsa shrine.

There are numerous other shrines. First comes that of Muhammad Suliman Shah at Tounsa, commonly known as Tounsa Sharif. This is the handsomest shrine in the district. It was built by the Nawab of Bahawalpur in 1272 A. H. as a mausoleum to Suliman Khan, his Pir or spiritual guide, whose tomb it contains, at a cost of Rs. 85,000. A dwelling house round the shrine was built by Ghulam Mustafa of Multan at a cost of Rs. 10,000. There is also a *tykhana* or underground dwelling place and a *serai*, which cost Rs. 33,000. Suliman Khan belonged to the small Pathan tribe called Jafr inhabiting Drug in the upper valley of the Sangarh, and his descendants came and settled at Tounsa at the invitation of the Nawab of Bahawalpur when he built the shrine. The building has been much improved both internally and externally by the present custodian, Mian Allah Bakhsh (commonly called the Hazrat Sahib), who is the grandson of Suliman Shah. The outside of the dome has been covered with tiles of Jeypur marble, and its beauty is enhanced by contrast to the dry desert country surrounding it, over which it can be seen from a distance of several miles. The tomb beneath the dome is of marble, and the inside of the dome and the walls supporting it are laid with tiles of the blue and white pattern made by potters from Multan. There is a fine mosque beautifully decorated attached to the shrine. The *Urs* or celebration of the anniversary of Suliman Shah's death falls in the beginning of the Muhammadan month of *Safar*, and so is a moveable festival occurring in different months of the solar year in different years. It lasts three-days and is attended by large multitudes from all parts of the frontier and from Bahawalpur and Sind and elsewhere, who are fed from the Mian Sahib's kitchen. Gifts of great value are received by the Pir from time to time and the offerings presented to him at the *Urs* amount to a very large sum of money, but his charity is great and his expenditure on the shrine has been free-handed. One of his additions is a handsome clock-tower which is illuminated during the *Urs*.

The Dera Din
 Panah shrine.

About five miles from Tounsa, on the bank of the river Indus and threatened with erosion by it, is the Dera Din Panah shrine, the tomb of a Bokhari Sayad who died in A. H. 1012. The Makwals who are the keepers of the shrine are called Khadims. There is a shrine of the same name on the opposite bank of the Indus, in the Muzaffargarh District, in

which a duplicate of the saint's corpse is said to have been miraculously interred. The Dera Din Panah, also called Daira Shah, of this district is a favourite resort of Muhammadan pilgrims, and a festival is held on each Friday of the month of *Chetar*. The shrine of Pir Adil, nine miles from Dera Ghazi Khan, is the site of a fair, second in importance only to the Sakhi Sarwar fair. Pir Adil was so designated because, so the story goes, his son killed a goat whilst out hunting. The goatherd attacked the saint's son, who inadvertently killed him. The goatherd's mother demanded justice from Pir Adil, and he, at her demand, put his son to death. The Pir came from Mashed in the ninth century of the Hijra. The shrine was built by the first Ghazi Khan whose spiritual father the saint was. It is said that after the tombstone was completed, Ghazi Khan came to see it and asked the dead Pir to make some manifestation that he was aware of the presence of his servant, on which the arm of the saint was immediately thrust forth through the masonry of the tomb. This is the explanation of a circular hole which is shown in the masonry. The festival days at this shrine are the Mondays of the month of *Chetar*, on one of which falls the great annual fair. At Mithankot there is a handsome domed shrine of some fame dedicated to Akil Muhammad. The annual *Urs* is very largely attended.

There are two *dhands* or arms of the river Indus which are held in special veneration. One of these is the Dhand Lalgir near Jhok Utra in the Dera tahsil, from which a saint, Baba Lalgir, diverted by his prayers the water of the Indus. The river has now found its way into the creek again, which is at present the main channel of the Indus, but the place of pilgrimage, which is marked by a very magnificent banian tree, has up till now escaped erosion. The other creek, that of Taran Imam in the Rajanpur tahsil between Rajanpur and Vang, has long silted up but is still held in honour, and large crowds flock to the fair annually held there. Hence the saying:—

Taran Imam da dar,
Malik Osman da kur.

"As the dust at Taran Imam, so are the lies of Malik Osman."
Malik Osman's name is given us a specimen, and it need not be inferred that he is untruthful; any name that suits the metre is brought in, but preferably that of some person who is objectionable to the speaker.

There is a shrine called Zinda Pir in the Lund country, in the valley of the Shori torrent, about six miles above the place where it issues from the hills. It stands beside a hot sulphur spring which is efficacious in cases of skin disease and lameness. As the name implies, the spring is believed to be frequented by an immortal and invisible saint. The shrine consists of a house which has been built for his residence and has been furnished with beds and other furniture, and a copy of the *Koran*. Numerous pilgrims visit it, especially in the month of March.

Chapter XII. C.

Religious Effs.

The Dera Din
Panah shrine.
The Pir Adil
shrine.

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
The Rais Sahib
shrine.

A tomb which, judging from the offerings made at it, is held in great respect, though no shrine has been erected, is that of Sheikh Rais Sahib at Gadi in the Sangarh tahsil. The visitors to it pray for what they are in want of and present offerings representative of their wishes. The tomb is hidden under a heap of these forms, which consist of toy models of cradles presented by barren women desirous of having children, toy wooden models of bullocks, camels and yokes, strings of cowries with which camels are ornamented, and the like.

There are many small shrines in the district, and rag trees, i.e., trees which for some reason or other come into veneration and get covered with rags, are very common.

SECTION D.—TRIBES AND CASTES.

Statistics and local
distribution of tribes
and castes.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IXA shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of them are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Dera Ghazi Khan are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as land-owners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following sections; and each caste will be found described in Chapter XI of the Census Report for 1891. The figures, however, are materially affected by the loose manner in which the word Jat is used in the district.

The Census statistics of castes were not compiled for tahsils at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere clans or subdivisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and castes are available. But the general distribution of the more important land-owning tribes may be broadly described as follows:—The tribally organised Bilochis hold the hill country and the Pachad, the tract immediately under the hills. The territory of each tribe is described below under the tribal headings. They extend to the river only in the south of tahsil Rajanpur. The riverain tract is held by a mixed population of disorganized and scattered Bilochis, and of Jats, which term includes all Musalman agriculturists who are not Biloch, Pathan, Sayad, or Kureshi, and therefore comprises Rajputs.

Division of land
amongst the differ-
ent tribes inhabiting
the district.

Of the total area of the district, 1,436,796 acres are held by Bilochis, 333,446 acres by Jats, 163,271 acres by Karars (Hindus), and 98,198 acres by Sayads.

The Bilochis hold 61 per cent., the Jats 14 per cent., and the Hindus 7 per cent. of the total area, of which 11 per cent. is

included in Government preserves. The areas held by all other tribes are small.

Chapter III. B.

Tribes and Castes.

Division of land amongst the different tribes inhabiting the district.

The detail of religions and tribes according to the Census of 1891 was as follows:—

Religion and Tribe.	District.
Hindus	52,903
Sikhs	1,424
Mohammadaus	349,587
Christians	117
Total	404,031
Percentage on total population	100
Biloch—	
Nutkani	6,805
Kasrani	3,841
Khosa	24,286
Lishari	6,469
Leghari	20,410
Lund	11,087
Gurhani	3,259
Pitafi	2,186
Mazari	5,544
Drishak	4,649
Gopang	4,640
Jatohi	2,372
Ahmdani	3,849
Chandia	4,303
Other	28,992
Total	132,192
Percentage on total population	33
Jat	116,740
Percentage	29
Sayad	
Patbau	6,774
Rajput	8,808
Sheikh	13,909
Arain	4,641
Mughal	4,793
Machi	869
Other agriculturists	7,741
	8,279
Total	55,804
Percentage	14

Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes.

Division of land amongst the different tribes inhabiting the district.

Religion and Tribe.		Districts.
Tarkhans	...	3,02
Churbas	...	8,01
Other menials	...	10,60
Total		28,16
Percentage		
Weavers, goldsmiths and other craftsmen	...	12,84
Priests and mendicants	...	8,77
Hindus, shopkeepers, bankers	...	43,98
Others	...	7,02
Churlas	...	1,92
Sikhs	...	1,42
Christians	...	117
Total non-agriculturists		76,097
Percentage		19

The Jats are a congeries of Muhammadan tribes without any common origin; indeed the word Jat (or Jaghdal in Bilochi) may be said to be applied in this district to all Musalman agricultural tribes other than Biloch. The following figures, which show some of the principal Jat tribes returned at the Census of 1881, show how what would be known elsewhere as distinct castes are in this part of the Punjab classed as Jats.

Sub-Divisions of Jats in 1881.

Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.
Awan	1,015	Khang	888	Kurtanah	2,319
Ahir	419	Gadhwal	816	Mochi	5,721
Bhatti	12,971	Khokhar	4,690	Majhar	1,076
Bhutta	3,162	Langa	2,305	Machhi	1,610
Tahim	2,229	Sumra	887	Mohana	1,316
Chhina	408	Arain	13,408	Panwar	1,019
Sial	2,658	Babbar	2,389	Jotia	1,421

Some of these tribes at the Census of 1891 declined to allow themselves to be classified as Jats and the following table shows which of the above did so and which continued to describe themselves as Jats; those not mentioned in this table but mentioned

in the first were returned as "Jats—Miscellaneous" at the Census of 1891.

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
Jats and Rajputs.

1 Tribe.	2		3	
	NUMBER			
	Returned as Jats both in 1881 and 1891.		Returned as Jats in 1881 but not in 1891.	
Awan	1,766	...
Abir	37	...
Bhutta	1,661
Tabim	1,026
Cbsina	400
Khokhar	979	...
Langa	2,057
Sumra	1,058
Arain	4,793	...
Mochi	4,767	...
Machhi	7,371	...

Some of the Jat tribes are descendants of the original Hindu inhabitants of the district who were converted to Islam at the time of the Muhammadan conquest. Among these may be the tribes which make use of Hindi or Sindi titles, for example the Sontras who use the title Rai and the Burras who prefix the word Jam to their names. Others are immigrants from the south and from the neighbouring districts of Mooltan and Muzaffargarh and from Bahawalpur State. Some tribes are located within the country of a Biloch tribe and have adopted their manners, customs and dress. Examples of such are the Hanbis, of whom one branch is settled in the Gurchani and another in the Tibbi Lund country, and the Kachelas who live in the Leghari country. The Manjothas in the Sanghar tahsil claim to have come with the Bilochis from Mekran. Biloch men marry Jat women, but do not give their women in marriage to the Jats. Some of the Jat tribes are of fine physique, notably the Jamras, but the general level of intelligence is low. They are less extravagant than their Biloch neighbours, but cannot be said to be thrifty. They are on the whole good cultivators. The name applied to these tribes, in which the *t* is hard, must not be confused with the Jat, in which the *t* is soft, and which is applied to the men who tend camels.

It is to the presence of the Bilochis, in the proportion of 33 per cent. of its total population, that the district owes its distinguishing characteristics. Bilochis, elsewhere scattered in occasional colonies, here form, not indeed numerically, but both politically and socially, a preponderating element in the population; so that upon them centres the whole interest both of the past history and of the present administration of the district.

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
Bilochis.

They are a fine martial race, free from bigotry, and therefore disposed to view the English with more favour than can be looked for in Pathans; their history on the other hand, and social customs, offer a wide field for research.

The Biloch is tall and spare in appearance, temperate in his habits, and endued with great powers of endurance, being capable of sustaining prolonged fatigue on very poor food.

The face is long and oval, and the hair is worn long in the style of the cavaliers of the time of King Charles I, the beard and whiskers being allowed to grow untrimmed, but the moustache being shaved in the orthodox Muhammadan style. Curls are common, but the hillmen often wear their hair hanging down behind in unkempt shocks. They are a frank, good-humoured people, thoroughly enjoying a joke and capable of a hearty laugh, in the characteristics of truth and honour infinitely superior to their Afghan neighbours. To their chiefs they are generally very docile and obedient, but towards others their bearing is proud, free and independent. They had at one time a deserved reputation for truthfulness, but they have now learned to lie, and the progress of their education in this respect has been most marked even in the last ten years, a woeful result of the application of English laws to a people for whom they are unsuited. They are still, as a rule, truthful to their chiefs.

The Bilochis are nominally Muhammadans of the Sunni sect, but are by no means strict in their religious observances, and set but scanty value on the orthodox times of prayer, on pilgrimages, alms, or fasting. A Biloch once, on being asked why he was not keeping the Ramzan fast, naively replied that there was no necessity for him to observe the fast, as his chief was keeping it for him. As a natural consequence, there is little or no bigotry in the attitude of the race generally towards the English as professors of Christianity, a particular in which the Biloch is strikingly different from the Pathan. On the other hand, they are superstitious, and place implicit faith in omens, charms and spirits. About the latter especially they tell ridiculous stories, in the truth of which they believe most firmly. Many of their religious and social characteristics have already been described in Sections B and C of this Chapter. In the treatment of their women Bilochis are far more chivalrous than is usually the case with Muhammadan races. When the hills were disturbed and the Bilochis of the plains were unable to pass the border, they had no hesitation in sending their women; and at all seasons of the year large parties of Biloch women are found wandering fearlessly about the hills, pulling the leaves of the dwarf palm or collecting Fuller's earth. Unfaithfulness, on the other hand, is very severely punished. A woman taken in adultery is by Biloch law made to hang herself, while even the penalty attaching under English law to murder cannot save the adulterer, if caught, from death at the

hands of the woman's relatives. The Bilochis are lavish of their hospitality. Even among the poorest of them, all who turn up during a meal are welcomed to a share of whatever is going on, and the Chiefs spend a great part of their income in entertaining guests. All Bilochis who come to a chief's village on business or on the occasion of a great ceremonial are fed from the chief's kitchen.

Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes.

Bilochis.

Now that the tribes on both sides of the Suleman hills are under direct British control, blood feuds and reprisals are much less common than they were, but an occasional outbreak shows that in ferocity the Bilochis are no whit superior to the Pathans. In fighting the Biloch tactics may be summed up in the simple principle that an attack is never to be made unless the enemy can be surprised, or is in inferior numbers. Battle once given, however, the fight is carried on hand to hand with sword and shield, and not, as in the case of Pathans, by a desultory matchlock fire at long ranges. The following interesting description of the Bilochis of 1871 is quoted from Sir F. Fryer's Settlement Report:—

"It is not often that the Bilochis meet each other in fight, tribe to tribe. The ordinary rule is that small parties of a tribe go out on a marauding expedition. These parties are called *chapaos*, and their object is to murder and plunder only those enemies whom they can surprise.

"The wild hill men see the Bilochis from within our border sleek and well-to-do, and they contrast their own condition with that of our subjects. The hill man is lean, hungry, unkempt, clad in filthy rags and sheepskins, in constant fear of his life, never able to call the cattle, which form his only wealth, his own. The plain Biloch from within our border has a suit of English cotton cloth, a good mare to ride, and is prosperous and free from anxiety. The element of danger has a charm of its own to the Biloch as to all wild tribes, but it is a charm which the stern realities of hunger and privation are fast dissipating. The hill Bilochis live from hand to mouth, and are often reduced to great straits. Most of them grow no crops, but live by keeping herds of cattle, which they graze in the numerous plains of their country. When grass is scarce, and the graziers are scattered comes the season for *chapaos*. Of course the victims of a *chapao*, if they escape with their lives, can join a return *chapao*; but a *chapao* must, I should say, be very profitable to repay those who join one for the trouble and fatigue they undergo. The members of a *chapao* have to travel long distances by night, lying concealed by day, and they have no food but what flour they can carry with them, which they dare not light a fire to bake. They often end by falling into an ambuscade themselves, or by finding their intended victims too much on the alert for an attack to be ventured."

The Biloch tradition of their origin is that they came from Aleppo in the 12th century *via* Baghdad, the banks of the Euphrates, and the northern border of the Persian Gulf to Mekran, from whence they spread north, intermixing with the Pathan tribes.

Origin of the Bilochis.

Elphinstone says in his History of India that in the 7th century of the Christian era, the mountains of Mekran were inhabited by Bilochis and those of Suleman by Afghans. The Afghans were certainly at one time in possession of part of the Suleman Range, as remains of their tanks and tombs are still to be seen on the Mari Mountain, which now belongs to the Gurchani tribe of Bilochis, but Elphinstone's authority for

Chapter III, D. Tribes and Castes. Origin of the Bilochis.

saying that the Biloch nation reached Mekran so early is not clear. Another theory advanced by Pottinger and adopted to some extent by Dr. Latham is, that the Bilochis belonged to the horde of Seljuk Tartars which in the 5th century of the Christian era overran Persia and, forming two branches, wrested on the east under the house of Ghor, the sovereignty of Khorasan and India from the house of Ghazni, and on the west under the lead of Toghrul Beg conquered Western Persia, captured Baghdad and invaded the Roman Empire. This theory agrees with the statement advanced by Elphinstone. The religion, manners and customs of the Biloch tribes in their fondness for horses, their nomadic habits, their mode of life and their dress present a strong resemblance to those of the Turkomans. At the same time Dr. Latham thought that the outline of their physiognomy is very similar to that of the Arabs of Egypt and Syria; and if a Biloch was dressed in the Arabic dress, it would be exceedingly difficult to detect his nationality. Others, he considered, are Sindians, who fled to the hills on the invasion of their country by the Muhammadans. This modified theory that the Bilochis are partly of Turkoman origin but have a by-no-means homogeneous descent from any one source, met with the approval of Sir Frederick Fryer. The Brahois, who are almost certainly Tartar mountaineers by origin, are represented in this district only by a sub-section of the Mazari tribe, the Kirids a name which, by the well established rule that the Bilochi *i* corresponds to the Persian *u*, is identical with Kurd. The Dast-i-tedaulat in Bilochistan is inhabited by Kurds who probably came from Kurdistan, and perhaps, laden with spoil, preferring on their return to stay where they now are rather than continue their march to their own country, made a choice of the Dast-i-be-daulat.

Tribal organization of the Bilochis.

The constitution of a Biloch tribe may be best described as a species of limited monarchy. At the head of the tribe, or *tuman*, is the *tumandar*, hereditary referee upon all matters of dispute in time of peace, and leader in time of war. The tribe is divided into sections (*phalli*), each of which has its own headman, called *mukaddam*, whose office, like that of the *tumandar*, is hereditary. No business of importance can be transacted by the *tumandar* without consultation with the *mukaddams*, and a system of responsibility is maintained which runs through the tribe, and ensures the harmonious working of the whole. Practically the power of the *tumandar*, if he is a man of common ability and energy, is unlimited; for the Biloch is docile, and from long custom has acquired the habit of implicit obedience to his chief. Still, when the common interests of the tribe are at stake, he cannot with impunity act contrary to the wishes of the tribe as expressed by its *mukaddams*. Before the tribes came under British control, the *tumandar* was within the tribal country, a sort of limited monarch. He could not declare peace or war without the advice of his council of *mukaddams*,

but when war was declared he was charged with the conduct of it. Every member of the tribe was bound to render military service to the chief; the chief also received a one-fifth share in all plunder of the tribe, and in the produce of its fields. Now that the tribes are under British rule plunder has ceased to form an item of the chief's income, and it is only as an assignee of Government revenue that he is permitted to take a share of the produce of the land.

Still for all matters of administration the power of the *tumandar* for good or evil in his tribe is immense, and it is through him that an alien Government can best rule his tribesmen. All the *tumandars* are invested with Magisterial powers.

One of the chief causes which has preserved the tribal organization amongst the Bilochis who are subject to us may be referred to the manner of their original settlement in the district. When the Bilochis came down from the hills and settled in the plains, they parcelled out the lands they acquired according to their sections, and the sections divided the lands amongst their own members. The *tumandar* retained a considerable private estate for himself and his family; and where the *tumandar* is influential, he still retains the right to provide for the cultivation of waste lands and of lands deserted by their occupants. The *tumandars* also usually receive some payment in kind from all the members of their *tuman* as an acknowledgment of their position. All but two *tumandars* retained up to the time of the regular Settlement of the district the right to collect in kind from all or part of their *tumans*. The *tumandars* received the *mahsul* or authorized Government share of the produce, and in return paid the cash assessment. It was this right to collect in kind which most served to preserve the hold of the *tumandars* over their *tumans*; and by giving the *tumandars* full granaries, it enabled them to exercise that liberal hospitality which is regarded by the Biloch as the greatest of all virtues. Hospitality alone would not give a Biloch influence if he had none of the other qualities of a chief, but no qualities of mind or body would secure a chief power with his tribe if his doors were closed to the members of it. Every Biloch, when attending his chief, is entertained at the expense of the latter.

Pottinger, who travelled in Bilochistan in A. D. 1838, wrote that the Bilochis were divided into three branches, the Narhoi, Rind and Mughsi, and gave a list of the Rind tribes, in which all the tribes located in this district are mentioned. He described the Drishaks and Mazaris, who are now almost wholly resident in the plains, as living in the hills. Sections of them, however, had settled in the plains long before this time. All the tribes were then at continual war with one another and kept no engagements.

Chapter III. D.
Tribes and Castes.
Tribal organization
of the Bilochis.

Causes which have
preserved the tribal
organization.

Tribal divisions.

Chapter III. D.

Tribes and Castes.

Kasranis.

the district a cash *inam* of Rs. 1,200, which has now been increased to Rs. 2,000 and may possibly be further increased. The power of collecting the revenue in kind had, in this tribe, fallen into abeyance before the Regular Settlement of the district, and was not revived. The tribe is divided into seven sections: Laskarani, Rubdau, Budani, Wasnani, Lagari, Jarwar and Rustamani.

Bozdars.

The expedition against the Bozdar tribe in 1857, A. D., has been referred to in Chapter II of this work. For the most part resident in the hills and dependent upon their flocks and herds, they had been before that time guilty of many marauding excursions into the plains, but their chief was subsidized with a small assignment of land revenue in the district. In consequence of the conduct which evoked the expedition, this assignment was resumed for several years, but finally re-granted. The conduct of the tribe has been good on the whole since then, and in 1887 A. D., the Bozdars became subject to the political jurisdiction of the Deputy Commissioner of Dera Ghazi Khan. Their present chief is Mohammad Hossain Khan. The value of the assignment of land revenue held by him would, by the new assessment, be Rs. 589, and he receives in addition Rs. 960 from the tribal allowances. An increase in the assignment is under consideration.

Nutkanis.

The Nutkanis are an important tribe and are organized into sections under *mukaddams*, but they have now no chief. They occupy the country watered by distributary channels from the Sangarh lying between the Kasrani country to the north and the country of the Khosas and the Sorj Lunds to the south. None of them are resident in the hills, and they share with the Bozdars a small part of the plain country in front of the point of issue from the hills of the Sangarh torrent. The conduct of Asad Khan, the last chief of the tribe, in refusing to pay the tribute demanded by the Sikhs and, subsequently, in taking the part of Mulraj against Edwardes, has been noticed in Chapter II of this work. He finally joined the Nawab of Bahawalpur's army and assisted at the siege of Mooltan, but he never returned to Sangarh to resume the chieftainship of the tribe. Being related by marriage to the Nawab of Bahawalpur, he spent the rest of his days with him, receiving a pension of Rs. 3,600 from the revenues of Bahawalpur. His son, Azim Khan, returned to Dera Ghazi Khan, and his grandson, Mohammad Massu Khan, entered the police and was for many years Inspector of Police in this District and had a high reputation for ability and integrity. He died in 1836, leaving two sons, Mohammad Khan and Iman Bakhsh Khan. Haji Mohammad Massu Khan, cousin of Asad Khan, was a man of influence in the Sangarh tahsil, where he excavated the Massuwah Canal at his own expense, subsequently selling it to Government on finding himself unable to manage it successfully. He died childless in A. D. 1882.

The more important *mukaddams* of the Nutkani tribe are Sardar Khan, Tangwani, of Hairo, and Imam Bakhsh Khan, Moghlani, of Sokhar. Chapter III, D. Tribes and Castes.

The Lunds of Sori occupy the country lying between the Khosa tribe on the south and the Kasranis on the north. They are divided into six sections, and the chief belongs to the Haidrani Section. The part which they took in the wars and feuds which convulsed the country under former Governments was chiefly confined to aiding their powerful neighbours, the Khosas, in carrying on their wars with the Legharis and Bozdars, and is not deserving of special mention. The tribe has risen to importance under British rule. Fazl Ali Khan, the grandfather of the present chief, was an energetic and clever man, and rendered himself deservedly respected in the country. From the first he exerted himself on the side of Government. He joined Lieutenant Edwardes' camp with 200 horsemen and was present during the siege of Mooltan. To his services at this time, which were acknowledged and rewarded, may be traced the turning-point in the career of his family, as well as the influential position which the tribe and its present chief now possess. Fazl Ali cut a canal from the Indus at his own cost through a part of the Lund country, which greatly improved the well-being of the tribe. It is called the Fazlwah, and was ultimately transferred by him to Government as he found difficulty in managing it. The chief used to receive the fifth share of the produce in kind (*mahsul*) of the estates of his clansmen, and he was responsible for the payment of the revenue. At the Regular Settlement a new arrangement was made, the chief receiving an *inám* of Rs. 4,000 per annum, part of which, *viz.*, the revenue of the village of Shadan Lund, he was allowed to continue to collect in kind, while the remainder was paid to him in cash from the revenue of other villages. The then chief was Ghulam Haider Khan, son of Fazl Ali, and he was succeeded by his son Mohammad Khan. Mohammad Khan was murdered in A. D. 1886 by his half-brother, Hassan Khan, who was hanged for the murder. Ahmad Khan, his full brother, who succeeded him, died in 1898 after ably managing his tribe for 12 years and leaving behind him a high reputation for probity and honesty of purpose. He left no male issue and has been succeeded by his cousin, Naurang Khan, a grandson of Fazl Ali. At the present settlement of the district, the chief has been allowed to continue to collect the revenue of Shadan Lund in kind and to receive it in *jágir*, and as the nominal cash assessment of that village was increased at the recent revision of settlement, the value of the *inám* will now be Rs. 4,595 if the part of it paid in cash is maintained unaltered.

Sori Lunds.

The Khosas occupy the frontier southwards from the Lund territory as far as the Sakhi Sarwar pass, and there are

Khosas.

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
Khosas.

also two sections isolated from the main body of the tribe but forming part of its organization, one (Mattī) between the Nutkani and Sori Lund tribes, and the other (Dalana) within the limits of the Leghari tribe. There are also Khosas (of Mamuri and Basti Khosa) within those limits, but they form a component part of the Leghari country, and, similarly, the Khosas found elsewhere belong not to the main Khosa tribe but to the tribe whose country they inhabit; wherever met with they are quarrelsome and litigious. General Pollock wrote of them in 1859 "it is rare to find a Khosa who has not been in prison for cattle stealing, or deserved to be; and a Khosa who has not committed a murder or debauched his neighbour's wife or destroyed his neighbour's landmark is a decidedly creditable specimen; and if, added to this, he be out of debt, he is a perfect marvel."

Their criminal propensities are now kept more in check, but the description of their character is still true in the main, though they are now much better off than they were. Politically the tribe was formerly an important one. The brilliant behaviour of the Chief Kaura Khan and his son, Ghulam Haider Khan, during the march of Sir Herbert Edwardes and General Cortlandt in A. D. 1848 has been described in Chapter II of this work. Ghulam Haider was the model of a Biloch leader, but if he had all the virtues of a Biloch Chief, he had also all the faults. He was brave to foolhardiness, but he was dissipated, and had an unbridled temper. Many tales are still told of his daring and eccentricities. He was immensely admired by his tuman, who would have followed him anywhere. Ghulam Haider Khan was the third son of Kaura Khan, and was recognized as *tumandar* in supersession of his elder brothers, Ahmad Khan and Barkhurdar Khan, men of very dissipated habits and unfit for any position of trust. Ghulam Haider, however, died in 1870 before his father Kaura Khan, who lived to over 100 years of age and died in 1871. Sikandar Khan, the eldest son of Kaura Khan's eldest son, Ahmad Khan, then acted as *tumandar* in trust for Ghulam Haider's son, Bahadur Khan, who came of age and was invested as *tumandar* in 1879. The relations between the *tumandar* and Sikandar Khan, and subsequently, on the death of the latter, with his son, Mubarik Khan, were long unsatisfactory, owing to the discontent felt by the elder branch at having been passed over for the chieftainship, especially after the regency had been for eight years in their hands. At the Regular Settlement of the district an *inam* of Rs. 5000, including allowances amounting to Rs. 500 to three *mukaddams* of the tribe, was conferred upon the chief, with permission to collect as part of it one-quarter of the revenue of the village of Batil in kind, although the practice of the chief's taking the revenue in kind had then fallen into abeyance. The small share of the gross produce represented by one-fourth of the revenue was not a very profitable source of income to the

chief, and the delay it involved in the removal of the produce from the threshing floor was apt to be vexatious to the people. It was, therefore, decided at the recent Revision of Settlement that the collection of the land revenue in kind should cease in this tribe. It is possible that, by way of compensation, the cash *inam* allowed to the chief may be raised. The tribe is divided into seven sections, Balel, Tangel, Jindani, Jarwar, Isani, Tumiwala and Maharwani. The *tumandar* belongs to the Balel section.

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
Khosas.

The Legharis inhabit the plain country between the Vador torrent on the north and the Khura torrent in the Jampur tahsil on the south, and also a considerable extent of hill country in which lies the station of Fort Munro. The four main divisions are the Alianis, Hadianis, Boglanis, and Haibatani. The section resident in the hills is that of the Hadianis. They settled at Choti in the plains in the time of the Emperor Hamayun, ousting the Ahmadanis. The Talpurs, who were the last Amirs of Sind, belonged to the Leghari clan. The Legharis are at enmity with both the Gurchanis and the Khosas. Bijar Khan, a Gurchani Chief, was murdered by the Legharis, and when the Khosas took Dera Ghazi Khan for Sir Herbert Edwardes the Legharis espoused the cause of the Sikhs as has been stated in Chapter II. Jamal Khan was then the chief of the tribe, but his uncle Jalal Khan had more influence and practically exercised the authority of chief. Both of them are deservedly famous for their enterprise in the matter of excavation of canals. The extension of the Manka Canal to Choti and to the waste land south of it which was carried out by them, not only enriched Jamal Khan, but increased the prosperity of the tribe as a whole. Jamal Khan was also a partner in the company which executed the work of extending the Dhundi Canal to the Rajanpur tahsil. He allowed his greed for profit to carry him too far, and, in connection with certain frauds relating to canal management, he was for a time deprived of his magisterial powers which were, however, restored to him as a reward for useful service done by him for Government with the trans-border tribes. He accompanied Sir Robert Sandeman to Kelat in 1875-76, and in recognition of his loyal behaviour was invested with the title of Nawab. He died in 1881 on his return from a pilgrimage to Mecca, and was succeeded by his son Muhammad Khan, a man of magnificent physique and fine presence who was held in great honour by his tribe, and highly respected by all who knew him. He received the title of Nawab on the occasion of Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1887. He died in 1896, a short time before a decision in his favour was given in regard to his claim to the tract in Bilochistan known as Leghari Barkhan. This tract, though separated from the Hadiani country by land inhabited by the Khetran tribe, is an ancestral possession of the chief's family, and though not of much value when the hill tribes were in a state of constant warfare, is likely to yield a considerable income now that the tribes are

Legharis.

Chapter III. D. controlled by the Bilochistan Agency. Nawab Muhammad Khan pressed his claim to proprietary right in the land all his life, and though it was at first resisted by Government on the ground that his *status* was not that of an owner, it was finally in effect conceded, but not, unfortunately, until after his death. His only son, Jamal Khan, is a boy, and his estates are managed by Sardar Taggia Khan, first cousin of the late Nawab, who also exercises the authority of chief of the tribe for the minor. The chief's family belongs to the Aliani Section of the tribe and resides at the village of Choti Zerir. The *tumandar's inam* was fixed at the Regular Settlement of the district at Rs. 12,000, and consists of the revenue of several Leghari villages which is collected in kind. The power to collect in kind was continued at Revision of Settlement, and the cash assessment framed at Regular Settlement for the land other than the chief's own property on which revenue is collected in kind was Rs. 15,305. The actual amount of the *inam* had not been fixed by Government for the new term of settlement when this work went to press.

Tibi Luads.

This is a small settlement of Luads, Rinds and Khosas in the midst of the Gurchanis. Mazar Khan is their *tumandar*, and did good service at the time of the Harraud raid when his brother was killed. In return for this Mazar Khan was given the village of Muhammadpur revenue-free, and allowed to collect his revenue in kind. At the Regular Settlement this grant was increased to an *inam* of Rs. 800 per annum. At the recent Revision of Settlement permission to collect in kind was continued, and if the *tumandar* is allowed to receive in addition the cash assignment he draws at present, the value of his *inam* by the Revision of Settlement will be Rs. 1,347. The amount of the *inam* for the new term of settlement has, however, not yet been fixed. Mazar Khan is a very shrewd and capable man, and his age and experience make him one of the most useful of the chiefs in the district for the settlement of inter-tribal disputes.

The Gurchanis.

The Gurchani tribe borders on the Leghari to the north and on the Drishak to the south. The Gurchanis own the Mari and Dragul hills, and their boundary extends further into the hills than that of any other tribe. They are divided into branches; the Shekhani (to which the chief belongs), Lashari, Petafi, Jiskani, Durkani, Hotwani, Khalilani, Bazgir, Chang, Sahrani and Hulwani. The Gurchanis trace their descent to Gorish, son of Doda, a converted Hindu said to have been the great-grandson of a Raja Bhim Sen of Hyderabad. Doda was expelled from Sind in the time of Humayun, and lost his way in the wilderness. To restore him to life the Rind Biloches, who found him in the desert, sent a young virgin to bring back warmth to his body. Gorish was son of Doda by this damsel, or, according to some, by the daughter of Nur Shabak, the Biloch Amir, and the Gurchanis or Gorishanis are the descend-

ants of this Gorish, and consequently not true Biloches. The Jiskani, Lishari, Pitafi, Durkani, Chang, Suhrani, Bazgir, Hotwani Sections of the Gurchani tribe are said to have been Rinds who joined the Gurchani tribe. Gorish was one of the Biloch Chiefs who joined Humayun in his march on Delhi in 1556, and upon his return was one of the first to lead bands of Biloch adventurers into the plains of India. The Gurchanis were notorious as the worst behaved of all the Biloch tribes. Their raids were at first directed from Sham and Phailawagh in the hills, where they settled on their return from Delhi, against Harrand and its neighbourhood, until, in the reign of Ahmad Shah, Durani, they formally received charge of the Harrand and Dajal districts, and became responsible for the safety of the Kandahar route as far as the Mari border. When Diwan Sawan Mal built the Harrand Fort, the Gurchanis broke into it before it was completed, because the Sikh *kardar* had caused a Gurchani woman to be maltreated; subsequently to this the Gurchanis always maintained a state of war against the Sikhs. Chuta Khan, uncle of Bijur Khan, having usurped the *tumandari* during his nephew's minority, married the daughter of Jalal Khan, Leghari. Bijur Khan surprised and killed Chuta Khan, and thus made the Legharis his bitterest enemies. Bijur Khan was entrapped by the *kardar* of Harrand, and sent in chains to Mooltan, and is said to have been made over by Diwan Sawan Mal to the Legharis, who put him to death. The Legharis and the Gurchanis are now only prevented from falling upon each other by their both being subjects of the British Government. In 1848, Ghulam Haider, son of Bijur Khan, embraced the cause of the English against Mulraj, and served with distinction under Lieutenant Edwards at Dera Ghazi Khan, and afterwards at Harrand under Lieutenant (now General) R. Young. For many years after the annexation, however, the tribe, especially the Lishari and Pitafi branches, continued to give much trouble by constant raids, in which they were joined and assisted by the Maris. In 1860, a grant of land in the plains was made to the Lishari headmen, by which a certain hold was acquired over them, and, finally in 1867, this branch of the tribe, together with the Pitafi and Durkani branches, was partly withdrawn from the hills by a revenue-free grant of land in the plains. The good effect of this treatment was attested by the conduct of the tribe at the close of the same year, when it was mainly instrumental in repelling a serious raid made on Harrand by the Maris. For his services on this occasion Ghulam Haider was restored to the farms of the five villages of the Nurwah estate which had been confiscated by General Van Cortlandt; and this greatly improved the pecuniary position of the *tumandar*, who has been enabled to bring his tribe under more complete control. It is a gratifying result of the policy thus pursued that, of late years, the conduct of the tribe has been uniformly good. The Lisharis have still a bad reputation as cattle-thieves, but they are

Chapter III, D.
Tribes and Castes.
The Gurchanis.

Chapter III, D. Tribes and Castes. The Gurchanis. decidedly better behaved than they were. The Pitafis now bear a good character and have settled down to agriculture in Sham, which is a fertile plain in the hill country, but lay waste owing to inter-tribal warfare until British rule was extended to Bilochistan. The Sham is owned partly by the Gurchanis and partly by the Bugti tribe, which is one of those subject to the jurisdiction of the Quetta Agency. The boundary between the two tribes has been demarcated, and they now peaceably cultivate on either side of it. Ghulam Haidar Khan died in 1884, and was succeeded by his son, Jalab Khan, who is a strong, able and intelligent chief. He is unfortunately suspected by the Legharis of having been privy to the murder in 1886 of Aladad Khan, the head of a branch of the Leghari chief's family settled in the Bahawalpur State, and this suspicion has done much to revive the slumbering enmity between the two tribes. A feud broke out between the Durkani Section of the Gurchanis and the Hadiani Section of the Legharis in 1889, and in order to enforce the authority of Government it was found necessary to blockade the Durkanis. The feud is not yet healed and continues to give trouble from time to time. A blood feud between two sections of the tribe resident in the plains, the Bazgirs and the Hotwanis, has been the cause of several murders in recent years, but the murder of the head of the one section was punished in 1896 by the conviction and execution of the head of the other section and his accomplices, and the feud is not likely to revive. The tribe is a wild and unruly one, and requires a strong chief like its present one to keep it in check. At the Regular Settlement of the district the chief's *inam* was increased to Rs. 3,000 per annum, a considerable part of which he was authorized to take by collections in kind in several Gurchani villages, while the remainder he receives in cash. If the cash portion remains unaltered, now that permission has been given to the chief to continue collecting in kind in the same villages as before, the value of his *inam* becomes, in consequence of revision of settlement, Rs. 3,782, but this is a matter not yet decided.

The Drishaks.

The Drishaks are said to have accompanied Mir Chakar in his wanderings, and to have been among his most trusted soldiers. They came down from the hills at the invitation of the Nahar ruler, Islam Khan, who gave them the country near the hills in the north of the Rajanpur tahsil. They have now no possessions in the hills. The head-quarters of the tribe are at Asni near Rajanpur, where a cantonment was formerly located. The chief of the tribe belongs to the Kirmani Section of the tribe. The other sections are the Mingwani, the Gulfaz, the Sargani, the Arbani, and the Jiskani. Mahmud Khan, Governor of Dera Ghazi Khan, is related to have once sent an army against Asni. The Drishaks beat off the army of Mahmud Khan with great slaughter, and still show with pride the camel guns and other weapons which are preserved in memory

Chapter III. D.

Tribes and Castes.
The Drishaks.

of Mahmud Khan's defeat. The chief of the time, Bijur Khan, sent a hundred men, led by his cousin, to join Edwardes in A. D. 1848. Bijur Khan was killed along with his eldest son in 1857, when endeavouring to repel a Mari raid with a very inferior force. His younger son, Miran Khan, succeeded him and received a pension of Rs. 1,000 a year in recognition of his father's good conduct on this occasion. Miran Khan was noted for his physical strength, horsemanship and good looks as a young man. In later life he quarrelled with all his relations, and devoted his whole energy to a long and expensive lawsuit with the Mazari Chief about a waste and worthless tract of land to the south of the Drishak country. The suit was settled by compromise while under appeal in the Punjab Chief Court. Miran Khan died in 1894, and was succeeded by his son, Drihan Khan, who had served for two years previously in the 15th Bengal Lancers. He has dropped his father's senseless feud against the Mazari Chief, and has devoted himself to the interests of his tribe, showing great skill and intelligence in his management both of it and of his own estates. The tribe has spread from the foot of the mountains to the river, but is in an impoverished state owing to their land having been included in the jagir granted in A. D. 1792 to the Kalhora Mian Sahib. The revenue was paid to him in kind up till the time of the Regular Settlement of the district. A cash assessment was then put upon the *jagir*, but, owing to the deterioration of the canals in this part of the district, it proved too heavy, and in 1884 the Drishaks reverted to payment of their revenue in kind. Owing to these causes they are deeply in debt, and have had to sell much land to Hindus. Their chief has to some extent shared in their misfortune. He originally held a lease from the *jagirdar* of five of the *jagir* villages. At the Regular Settlement these five villages were given to him in *inam*, the *jagirdar* being compensated in another way, and the revenue of other villages was also assigned to him to make up a total *inam* of Rs. 3,217 collected entirely in kind. The villages have shared in the deterioration mentioned above, and their cash assessment as framed at the recent revision of settlement is Rs. 2,471, of which a great part is enjoyed by assignees other than the chief, and the portion representing the chief's *inam* is Rs. 1,963 only. It is probable that this amount will be increased. The Drishaks speak no Bilochi, but are very Biloch in appearance, and many of the men are very handsome.

The Mazari tribe occupies the southernmost portion of the district, their territory being some 40 miles long by 20 broad. Their western boundary is the hills, and their eastern boundary the river. They own all the country between these limits up to Umarkot and the Pitok Pass on the north, and their southern boundary is also the boundary between the Dera Ghazi Khan District and Sind. The head-quarters of the tribe are at

The Mazaris.

Chapter III. D.
Tribes and Castes.
The Mazaris.

Rojhan, and their country has been formed into 23 large *mahals*. The tribe is, from its position and numbers, one of the most important in the district, and is divided into four sections; the Rustamanis, the Balaobanis, the Masidanis, and the Sarganis. The *tumandar* belongs to the Balachani section of the tribe. The name of the Mazari is said to be derived from the fact that when in Sistan it was located on a stream called the Mazar. A tiger is called *mazar* in Bilochi, so that this may also be the origin of the name. Hamal Khan, *tumandar*, is said to have brought the Mazaris from Leri, whence they had migrated from Sistan, to settle in the country they now occupy, and which was then held by the Nahrs. Kaim Khan, Nahr, resided at Kin, and he had quarrelled with his relation Islam Khan, governor of Bhagsar. The Mazaris sided with Kaim Khan against Islam Khan, and it was in return for this that Kaim Khan allowed the Mazaris to settle in his country. Mitha Khan, son of Hamal Khan, ejected the Chandias from their settlement in that locality. Hamal Khan was nominally subject to the Amirs of Khairpur, to whom he agreed to pay half the *mahsul* or Government share of produce in the Mazari country, receiving the other half himself in *kasur*. The Mazari country was annexed by Diwan Sawan Mal in 1827 A.D. The Mazaris had been constantly at war with all their neighbours, whether Maris, Drishaks, Bugtis or Legharis; and it was not till the British Government annexed their country in 1849 A.D. that any stop was put to the plundering and reprisals of the Mazaris and their opponents. Dost Muhammad Khan is the nominal chief of the Mazaris, but Imam Bakhsh, his uncle, is the actual chief, and is always held by the present Government to be the headman of the tribe. Half the revenue of all lands in the Mazari country is released either to the chief or to the headmen of the tribe; consequently only half the very moderate revenue of this large tract is paid into the Government Treasury. The Mazaris were at one time noted as pirates on the Indus; but judging from their present habits, it is doubtful whether they ever can have been boatmen. They probably confined themselves to robbing boats moored to the banks for the night.

The Mazaris are still a very wild and nomadic tribe. They take no pains to sow or attend to their fields, but subsist principally by keeping flocks and herds, which they graze along the river banks in the hot weather, and in the low hills during the cold weather. At the Regular Settlement the Mazari *tumandar* received an *inam* of Rs. 10,000 per annum, inclusive of his own share of the Mazari *kasur*, and was permitted to receive the greater part of it in kind from the villages he had previously held in farm. At the recent revision of Settlement he was permitted to continue to collect in kind in these villages, and the value of the *inam* is by the re-assessment then effected, Rs. 11,897. Nawab Sir Imam Bakhsh Khan, who

ruled the tribe when the district was annexed by the British, is still its head. He has always been distinguished for his loyalty to us, and he received the title of Nawab as a personal distinction for his services in connection with Sir R. Sandeman's Mission to Kelat, and was made a Companion of the Indian Empire in 1884 and four years later was raised to the rank of Knighthood in the same Order. "He has never allowed self-interest or partizanship to stand in the way of justice, and the general recognition of his integrity has given him enormous influence not only with Bilochis generally, but among all classes of the population, Mussalman and Hindu. Crime is severely dealt with and good order enforced, his word being law to his people, who have entire faith in his justice. An excellent feeling of loyalty prevails in his territories. The Nawab is unquestionably the best and most worthy of the many excellent chiefs whose aid is so valuable in watching our western border and keeping it free from the ravages of the semi-civilized races living beyond our jurisdiction. Every aspect of his character is admirable. He is brave, truthful, just, generous, hospitable; dignified in his bearing: of kindly and sympathetic ways: gentle in disposition; but in purpose and action strong as iron."* He has had the misfortune to be stricken with blindness in his later years, but his energy has been in no degree impaired.

Chapter III. D.

Tribes and Castes.

The Mazaris.

In Cunningham's History of the Sikhs, page 11, there is the following note:— "In the Lower Punjab and in Sind the whole Hindu population is included by the Muhammadans under the term Karar. In the Upper Punjab the word is used to denote a coward, or one base and abject; and about Mooltan it is likewise expressive of contempt as well as of a Hindu or trafficker. In Central India the Karars form a tribe, but the term there literally means dalesmen or foresters, although it has become the name of a tribe or class in the lapse of centuries." The Hindus or Karars.

Whilst subject to the Muhammadans, the Hindus were allowed to ride nothing but donkeys. They were also forbidden to wear turbans. Even now, in spite of the efforts of the Sikhs during their supremacy to do away with these signs of social degradation, a Hindu, unless he be in Government employment, seldom wears anything but a skull-cap or rides anything but a donkey. The Hindus are also very lax in their religious observances, and will drink out of a skin, and will also use the same vessels as Muhammadans. There are a few Hindu families of high position in the district, but this position is mostly official, and was first gained under the Sikhs. Indeed of the Muhammadan period a Hindu is always mentioned as "Mutis-ul-Islam," or subject to the followers of Islam.

* Mr. Daines' account of the chief in Massey's 'Chiefs and Families of Note.'

Chapter III, E.

SECTION E.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village communi-
ties and tenures.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure, as returned in Statement No. XI of the Land Revenue Administration Report for 1896-97, and an abstract of it is given below.

Description of villages according to revenue paid by them.	Tenure.	Dera Ghazi Khan.	Sargarh.	Jampur.	Rajampur.	Total.
Villages paying Rs. 5,000 to 50,000.	Zamindari
	Pattidari and Bhayachara.	8	8
Do. Rs. 100 to 5,000.	Zamindari*	12	8	1	18	39
	Pattidari and Bhayachara.	158	92	143	117	510
Do. less than Rs. 100.	Zamindari	3	13	2	25	42
	Pattidari and Bhayachara.	20	40	16	11	87
	Leases from Government without right of ownership.	27	29
Total	...	201	154	162	198	715

Village communi-
ties.

There are in this district no village communities in the sense in which that term is used in reference to the villages of the Punjab proper and Northern India generally. Elsewhere in the province, even in villages whose shareholders realize in practice the nearest approach to the idea of individual property in land, theoretically even there the village community, as a whole, constitutes the proprietary unit, its sections being really sub-divisions properly so-called.

In this district, on the other hand, the village is a fortuitous aggregation of independent units. The units in the Sind tract are wells, *i.e.*, the well and the land irrigated by it; or even, not unfrequently, a compact holding, though no well may exist in it; in the Pachad the unit is the area included within one irrigation embankment, and hence known as a *band* or embankment. Several of these wells or embankments, as the case may be, are collectively called a village, and are looked upon from an administrative point of view as forming one community; but they are not, properly speaking, sub-divisions of a village, but a series of proprietary units not really in any way knit together, but thrown into association either by the necessity for mutual protection, or, still more often, by the accident of having

been included for administrative purposes within a common village boundary, and now maintaining that association simply as the result of the revenue system of the country. An apparent exception, to which allusion is made hereafter, occurs in certain villages of the Sangarh tahsil, where the custom of periodical re-distribution of land obtains; but otherwise the rule here given holds good even in the Biloch settlements upon the frontier, where, from the peculiar tribal organization preserved down to the present time, a different result might have been expected. In the Sind tract there is nothing in this result to cause surprise. Indeed, the state of things is a very natural one. In the Punjab proper, lands can be cultivated without any great expenditure of capital or labour. In this district, considerable individual exertion or expenditure of capital was necessary before lands could be cultivated, and every man's holding depends upon himself. Every man would therefore be anxious to secure for himself advantages gained by the labour or expenditure of himself alone, and the needful stimulant to enterprise would have been wanting to men living in a community. In the Pached wide tracts belong to the members of the same tribe, but even here the lands of each village are said to have been parcelled out to the members of the tribe by the *tumandar* when the tribe first settled in the plains; and each member of the tribe has held his land ever since in complete independence. This view of the formation of villages in the district is amply borne out by the absence of village common, even in Pached villages held by families belonging to one tribe. In the Punjab proper, it is most exceptional to find a village in which some land, or some right connected with a portion of land, does not constitute a property common to the whole body of village sharers. Here there is no trace of any such relic of ancient community of property to be found from end to end of the district.

In the well or embankment, a minute and complicated subdivision of shares is by no means unfrequent; but it is rare to find these shares carried out into actual partition of the area. Embankments cannot be easily divided off into separate holdings; the nature of the irrigation requires the maintenance of substantial banks to surround each property; and such banks are expensive to erect, occupy much space, and complicate the operation of watering. Few wells, therefore, and fewer embankments, are found in a state of partition. The shares as a rule are called *sams*, and are expressed by the interest of each sharer in the oxen used for cultivating the common holding, the unit of calculation being the leg of a bullock. Thus, a man's share in a well is expressed to be, one leg or more of a bullock, or a whole bullock, or a yoke of bullocks, as the case may be. There are generally eight oxen (four yokes) employed upon each well, and a leg would therefore imply a share of $\frac{1}{8}$; a yoke, a share of $\frac{1}{2}$; and so on.

Chapter III, E.

Village communi-
ties and tenures.
Village communi-
ties.

Chapter III, E.
Village communi-
ties and tenures.
 Riverain custom.

In the northern half of the district, where it borders with the Dera Ismail Khan District, proprietary right in land is recognised as subsisting irrespective of any kind of river change. Though a man's land may be temporarily absorbed by the river it is still his property, and when it is again left bare by the river and becomes culturable he is allowed to take possession of it on whichever side of the river it may re-appear. In short, the whole bed of the river has always been in the mind's eye of the people mapped out into plots belonging to individuals, and the changes in the course of the river between the Regular Settlement and the recent Revision of Settlement have allowed the theoretical map to be converted into a real one, namely, the village field maps which have now been prepared. This simple and rational custom made it easy to fix the boundary along the river between this and the neighbouring districts in the manner described at the end of Chapter II of this work. The varying boundary, also there described, between this district and Bahawalpur has up till now prevented a decision of the question how proprietary right is affected by river change in the southern half of the district. The Indus has been moving steadily westwards ever since the rule governing the course of the boundary was framed, and the district has steadily lost land to Bahawalpur. Land lost in this way has in some few cases been recovered, and in these cases the original owners have resumed possession. The Bahawalpur State is entitled to treat land acquired by it by alluvion in any way it pleases, and in practice the original owners have not been put in possession of it, but this may be in some part due to an indisposition on their part to follow their land and become subjects of the Nawab of Bahawalpur.

Proprietary tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of tenure, and also gives details for Government grants.

Forms of proprietary tenure.

The ordinary forms of land tenure in the district are, besides those everywhere recognised, such as are based upon original possession or purchase :—

- I. *Patchir*.—This form of acquisition of land is a peculiar one. It refers to the original distribution of land amongst a tribe. *Pat* means land, and *chir* means to divide. *Pat-chir* is division of land, and means acquisition of land by original tribal division.
- II. *Dak*.—This form of acquisition of land arises when lands are portioned out amongst co-sharers. For instance, the new cultivation of the Dhundi Canal was given out in *daks* or parcels to each contributor to the canal extension scheme.

- III. *Sil*.—*Sil* means a brick, and is a term applied to proprietorship gained by sinking a well in waste lands. The owner of the well generally owns the land in which it is situated.
- IV. *Adhlapi*.—This is a very common form. The proprietor of a well estate not possessing a well gives half his land in proprietary right to an outsider who sinks a well, and thereupon acquires the proprietary right of half the well, and of the lands attached to it. The *adhlapi* share is variable, but is generally half; sometimes it is only one-fourth of the well.
- V. *Ghasab*.—This is the term applied to a forcibly-taken possession.
- VI. *Poria*.—This is a proprietorship acquired by manual labour. One-eighth or some smaller share in a well may sometimes be bestowed in return for jungle clearance or such like. This tenure only prevails in parts of the district thick with jungle, and where tenants are not easy to come by.

Chapter III, E.

Village communities and tenures.

Forms of proprietary tenure.

This is an essentially agricultural district, and every man endeavours to be owner of some land. The Hindu traders are always ready to advance money on land, and thus in time to become landed proprietors. The origin of proprietary right in this district is somewhat peculiar. It was never sufficient for a man merely to occupy a piece of land. It was also necessary that a certain amount of capital or labour should be expended on the land. In the Pachad tract there were embankments to be made to intercept the hill streams, and in the Sind tracts the colonist had to sink a well, or else to join with others in cutting a canal from the river. Lands, even up to the present day, may be acquired by reclamation and by the expenditure of capital in sinking a well. The acquisition of proprietary right by the first method is now unusual, and even occupancy rights which were formerly freely conferred as a reward for clearing land are now granted only occasionally. In the Dera tahsil the custom of *adhlapi* still prevails. In the Sangarh tahsil the custom of *vandara* or periodical distribution of land obtains in Mangrota and Taunsa and a few other villages. *Vandara* signifies a division of land for a term only which may be any period from one year up to thirty years or more. The custom is probably due to the fact that lands irrigated by hill streams are of very different value. The lands with the greatest facility of irrigation are the best, and the lands least easily irrigated the worst. The hill streams too are liable to change, and lands do not always retain the same character. The proprietors by dividing lands only for a time, consider that they secure to each proprietor a chance of holding good lands in turn. Besides this all the proprietors have a

Value attached to landed property.

Origin of proprietary right in the district.

Custom in Sangarh of periodical redistribution.

Chapter III, E. common interest in the maintenance of dams which they may use themselves some day.

Village communities and tenures.

Custom in Sangarh of periodical redistribution.

Some landowners have mortgaged the lands in their temporary occupation, the mortgagee undertaking to transfer his mortgage to whatever lands may fall to the mortgagor when a fresh division takes place. The custom is an objectionable one. Supposing a man to be in possession of poor lands for a short term, say ten years, he would have no inducement to expend capital in improving the lands, but would bide his time till he, in his turn, obtained good lands, and neglect the poor ones in the meantime.

Tenants and rent.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1896-97, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in the same year.

Except in the Jampur tahsil, tenants are not easy to get, and the relations between landlord and tenant are consequently good. In Sangarh if an owner has more land than he can cultivate himself he is often glad to make over a well estate to a tenant on condition of his keeping up the well and paying the land revenue with a nominal rent in addition. Occupancy tenants are comparatively numerous in that tahsil and cultivate 8 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Circumstances are similar in the north of the Dera tahsil, but the custom there has been to confer, as a reward for sinking a well or clearing jungle, not occupancy rights, but a share of the proprietary right in the land benefited. Towards the south of the Dera tahsil conditions begin to assimilate to those of Jampur, where this kind of tenure is rare and occupancy tenants are almost unknown. In Rajanpur occupancy rights were freely granted in the past as a reward for clearing jungle, sinking wells or making *bands*, but much more care is now exercised in conferring them and the number of occupancy tenants has been reduced owing to land having been rendered unculturable by the river and abandoned. Sixteen per cent. of the cultivated area, however, is still in the hands of occupancy tenants.

Cash rents.

It is not common in the district to find a purely cash rent taken for a well estate or other plot of land.

Such rents are found as a rule only in the neighbourhood of the towns of Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur and Rajanpur, and average Rs. 5 or Rs. 6 per acre of the total area leased to the tenant, rising to Rs. 10 and Rs. 20 in the immediate vicinity of the town of Dera Ghazi Khan.

Zabti rates.

Cash rates on particular crops are taken by landlords from tenants to some extent in the Dera and Rajanpur tahsils; in Dera on tobacco only, on which the rate is from Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 an acre; in Rajanpur on poppy, tobacco, zira, garlic, chillies

onions and other vegetables. The rate on poppy cultivation is Rs. 8 an acre and about the same on the other crops except onions and vegetables, on which about half that rate is charged.

But by far the greater part of the cultivated area, varying from 42 per cent. in the Sangarh-Pachad, to 76 per cent. in the Jampur Sind, is held by tenants paying rent in kind. Most of the remainder is cultivated by the owners themselves. In the method of the division of the produce between landlord and tenant there is a survival of the system in force previous to the annexation of the district by the British, when the Government revenue was collected in kind. From the gross produce certain menials for the payment of whom landlord and tenant are jointly liable first receive their dues. The *mahsul* or Government share, which is always a simple fraction ($\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{5}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$), is then measured off and the remainder, the *rakkam* as it is called, is divided in a certain proportion between the landlord and the tenant, the landlord's share being called *lichh* or *khuti* or *bhutari*. The owner takes both the *mahsul* and the *lichh* except in the villages in which Biloch Chiefs have been allowed by Government to collect in kind the land revenue which forms their *inam*. The most general custom as to division of the *rakkam* is for the owner to take one part for every 16 parts taken by the tenant, i.e., the *lichh* is $\frac{1}{17}$ th of the *rakkam*, but it is sometimes as high as $\frac{1}{7}$ th. The effect of the division of the produce is as indicated above, but the actual method of partition is a little more complicated. The *mahsul* is first estimated roughly and set aside in a separate heap from the remainder of the grain, which is similarly divided into a large heap and a small one. The large heap is then measured with a grain measure and (if the *lichh* is $\frac{1}{17}$ th) for every 16 measures taken from the large heap for the tenant one measure is taken as *lichh* from the small heap, which is called the *tal*. Similarly, when 256 measures have been removed from the large heap for the tenant (the measure used is given in Chapter IV, Section C. of this work) a certain number of measures are taken from the *tal* for each village servant entitled to receive from the owner and the tenant jointly. When the large heap has been exhausted, the heap representing the *mahsul* is then treated in the same way except that deductions are made from the *tal* in proportion to it on account of menials only, and not on account of *lichh*. The *mahsul* heap is generally found not to have been separated with absolute accuracy, and a little adjustment is required at the end of the proceedings. In some places it has become usual for the owner to take a simple share of the produce in lieu of everything, e. g., $\frac{1}{3}$ rd of the whole instead of $\frac{1}{4}$ th as *mahsul* and $\frac{1}{17}$ th of the remainder as *lichh*. In the northern part of the Dera tahsil it is customary for the owner to contribute towards the payment of the water-rates due from the tenant to Government for the use of canal water, the contribution being the same share of the rate as is taken

Chapter III, E.
Village communi-
ties and tenures.

Rents in kind.

Chapter III, E. of the produce in the way of *mahsul*. A table giving the proportion of the produce received by the owner in the different parts of the district is given below:—

Tahsil and Circle.	Rockohi.	Barani.	Chahi.	Chahi nah ri.	Nahri.	Sailab.	Abi Kalapani.	Chahi sailab.	Abi Jhalari.
Sangarh-Pachad ...	40	30
Dera-Pachad ...	37	37	46
Jampur-Pachad ...	35	31	50
Rajanpur-Pachad ...	26	27	16
Sangarh-Sind
Dera Danda	23	28	...	24	21
Dera Chahi-nahri circle	23
Sangarh Chahi-nahri circle	24	32	30	30	...	33	27
Jampur Sind	50	50
Rajanpur & Kutb and Kudra circles	19	30	30	31	...	37	33
Rajanpur Gharkub	25 & 26	26 & 27	27 & 28
Rajanpur sailab circle	28	...	26	24
Jampur Kalapani	31	...	26	30
	49

In the greater part of the district the rents taken in kind rose between the Regular Settlement of the district and the recent Revision of Settlement in consequence of increasing security and a growing appreciation of the value of land.

The rise was most marked in the Sangarh tahsil, where the area paying half-produce or more as rent in the Pachad is now 43 per cent. of the total area instead of 13 per cent. as formerly, and the rate is more than a third in the greater part of the Sind instead of less than a third as it was at the time of the Regular Settlement. In the Dera tahsil similar but less marked changes occurred, and in the Kalapani portion of Jampur a rise was traced which was due to improvement in the methods of irrigation. In Rajanpur there was a marked rise along the river which was owing in great part to the extinguishment of rights of occupancy by river action.

Another share of the produce taken in some localities by others than the owner or tenant of the land is *anwanda*. A tenant who has broken up land is supposed to have thereby acquired a right to *anwanda*, which is the share of produce considered to belong to the improver of the soil, and is calculated only on the cultivator's share of the produce. This right to *anwanda* may be sold, or it may be realized from any tenant substituted for the original improver; but, whenever sold, it must be offered first to the owner of the land. Another variety of *anwanda* is a share of the cultivator's share of the produce taken by the person who clears the

channel by means of which the cultivator's field is supplied with canal water. This practice, although practically equivalent to a sale of canal water, which is illegal under the Canal Act, and although strongly objected to by the cultivators, survives to the present day.

The number of menials paid by the landlord and tenant jointly varies with the class of cultivation. It is greatest in the case of well cultivation, for which the potter is required to supply pots for the well wheel in addition to the carpenter and blacksmith and other menials, whose services are necessary for repairs to the plough and other agricultural implements on all classes of cultivation. It is least on land flooded by the river, which is the easiest to cultivate. And the number diminishes from the north to the south of the district, and in the Rajanpur tahsil custom requires the tenant to pay from his share of the produce all menials except the *lambardar's* assistant (the *karawa* or *kotwal*) and the *dhanwai* (the man who effects the division of produce). The deductions from the gross produce before division on this account were estimated at the recent Revision of Settlement to be from $\frac{1}{10}$ th to $\frac{1}{12}$ th in Sangarh and Dera Ghazi Khan tahsils, $\frac{1}{14}$ th to $\frac{1}{18}$ th in Jampur and $\frac{1}{25}$ th in Rajanpur. Specimens of the payments made are as follows; where no entry is made for a tahsil opposite the name of a menial, it is meant that he is paid by the cultivator from his share of the produce.

Chapter III, E.
Village communi-
ties and tenures.

Payments to me-
nials.

Menials.	AMOUNT PAID FROM GROSS PRODUCE IN TOPAS PER PATH OF 250 TOPAS (SEE CHAPTER IV, SECTION C).			
	Sangarh.	Dera.	Jampur.	Rajanpur.
Kotwal or karawa (lambardar's assistant)	2	3	2	4
Kakha (crop watchman)	2	4	2	...
Chhaji (winnow)	4	6	6	4*
Markhan (carpenter)	2	4	4	...
Kutana (rope-maker)	6	2*
Chhar (blacksmith)	4	4
Hikmar (superintendent of repairs to embank.) } menial)	2	1
Potter	4	4	4	...
Dhanwai	2

In the canal-irrigated part of the Dera tahsil it has become usual in many villages to pay not a proportion of the produce to village menials but a fixed quantity per well estate of wheat and cotton. The quantities vary very much from place to place, but the following are the most common :—

* Sometimes from the joint heap, but generally paid by the cultivator.

Chapter III, E.

Village communi-
ties and tenures.

Payments to me-
nials.

	Menial.	Wheat in <i>topas</i> .	Cotton in <i>seers</i> .
Carpenter	20	12
Potter	20	12
Blacksmith	12	8
Kutana	8	8
Munshi	2	2
Kotwal	2	2
Bithara or manure carrier	8	1
Total	72 <i>topas</i> (equal to 450 <i>seers</i> standard weight).	45 (or 55½ <i>seers</i> standard weight).

In the Rajanpur tahsil certain dues or cesses are taken by the proprietor in addition to the *mahsul* and *lichh*. These are *raj-kharch*, *jholi*, *tobra*, *niwarn* and *dari*, and vary each from 2 to 8 *topas* per *path*. They are not all found as a rule in the same village, and they are in many villages taken not by the owner but by the *lambardar*, sometimes as a contribution towards village expenses, sometimes in recognition of his authority (*haq sardari*). *Jholi* and *tobra* are more often appropriated by the owner than paid to the *lambardar*; theoretically they are in lieu of what the proprietor used to take by way of extras.

Jholi was the amount of grain that the proprietor could carry off in his sheet or scarf. *Tobra* was the amount which he could carry in his mare's nose-bag, every man of any position riding a mare which has its nose-bag attached to the saddle.

In this arid district the cultivator has considerable liberty to deal with the crops before they ripen. Ordinarily all the carrots and turnips in a well estate are grown solely as fodder for the cultivator's oxen, and are sufficient to feed them from the middle of December to the middle of February; no share of them is taken by the landlord. Grass being scarce, it becomes necessary when turnips give out to get other food for the cattle, and part of the wheat crop is cut green for this purpose. This is estimated at from $\frac{1}{8}$ th to $\frac{1}{10}$ th in Sangarh, $\frac{1}{8}$ th to $\frac{1}{15}$ th in the Dera tahsil, and $\frac{1}{20}$ th in the Jampur and Rajanpur tahsils. The wells are deeper in the north of the district than in the south and require more and stronger oxen to work them and consequently more fodder. Another cause of the diminution from north to south is that in the southern tahsils the river area is considerable and pulses are obtained from it and used as fodder to save the wheat. In the riverain tract itself wheat is never fed off green to cattle. During the

Liberty to the tenant to feed off crops green to well cattle.

kharif harvest a portion of the *jowar* grown on the well estate is fed off green to the oxen in the same way as wheat in the *rabi*; this is estimated at $\frac{1}{3}$ th. When the *jowar* ripens its straw (*sharri*) affords sufficient fodder to last, in the canal-irrigated tracts, until the turnips are ready in December. In and near the Pachad, *charri* is so plentiful that it lasts all the year round, and the well cattle are never allowed green wheat. If, in place of feeding off wheat or pulses green to the well cattle, the cultivator sells a portion of his green crop standing, a common circumstance near the larger towns and villages, where there is a demand for green wheat for horses, the proprietor takes the same share of the price realized by the tenant as he would of the grain produce. In Rajanpur, where nearly all the *matar* is fed off or sold green, a special rate (Rs 4 per acre) of cash rent is taken on the crop.

Chapter III. E.

Village communities and tenures.

Liberty to the tenant to feed off crops green to well cattle.

"It may be roughly stated," wrote Sir F. Fryer in his Settlement Report regarding the usages prior to the introduction of the first Tenancy Act, "that the indigenous occupancy tenants of the district are those who by clearing land, the property of another, from jungle, by raising an irrigation embankment, or other work of the same kind, have acquired a right to hold the land brought by their exertions under cultivation. Never having become liable to the State for the revenue of his holding, such a cultivator pays *mahul* to the proprietor, who is liable for the revenue; and he further pays a small share of produce to the proprietor in recognition of his superior right (*tichh*); but with this exception, the whole profits of cultivation (*raikam*) are his own; to use the local phraseology, he has acquired a right to the *anewada*. His right to maintain possession of his holding is indefeasible as long as he continues to cultivate. He is liable, however, to ejection if he wilfully cultivates inferior crops to the injury of the landlord; and, as a rule, he loses all claim to his holding if the land is carried away by the river, new land subsequently accruing upon the old site becoming the property of the landlord, free of all claim by the tenant. This is not the case in the Mazari territory, where an occupancy tenant can re-claim his land when it is again thrown up by the river.

Occupancy Rights

"The tenants of this district are known as *mundemar*, *butemar*, *jhuriband*, *kahmar*, *latmar*, *charait*, *lichain*, *micdi*.

Designations of tenants.

"The *mundemar* tenant is one who in the Sind lands clears jungle and brings land under cultivation. The *mundemar* tenant exercises the following rights: (a) He cannot be ejected as long as he continues to cultivate. (b) The occupancy right is heritable in the direct line. (c) He can cut self-grown timber for agricultural purposes.

Rights of a *mundemar* tenant.

"Even occupancy tenants have not by custom the full rights defined in the Punjab Tenancy Act. The following rights are not generally recognized, but they are claimed in some cases, and their admission by particular landlords, or by the general body of landowners, is regulated by local custom:—I.—*The right to sink wells*.—A tenant cannot sink a *pakka* well without his landlord's permission, but he can sink a *kacha* well, though his doing so gives him no claim to compensation. The right to sink even a *kacha* well is not admitted universally. II.—*The right of the landlord to eject on payment of compensation*.—This right does not exist. It was, however, once awarded a landlord in a suit to eject a tenant who had been out of possession of the greater part of his holding for three years. This suit was tried in the senior Extra Assistant Settlement Officer's Court. III.—*The right of sub-letting*.—There is much difference of opinion as to the existence of this right. The correct view seems to be that a tenant may sub-let his holding temporarily, but not permanently. IV.—*The right of building houses*.—A *mundemar* tenant has this right; but if he vacates his holding he can remove only the building material he has paid for himself. This is the general rule. V.—*The right of transfer*.—This right is denied in most cases. Where it is admitted it is provided that before any transfer of tenant right can be made to an outsider, an offer of the right must be made to the landowner. VI.—*The right of inheritance to rights of occupancy in the direct line is unquestioned*. It is not allowed to

Rights not generally recognised.

Chapter III, E.

Village communities and tenures.

females or collaterals, but the practice on this point has been very loose, and any heir of a deceased occupancy tenant able to cultivate has ordinarily been allowed to do so. This is owing to the scarcity of tenants in the district.

Butemar tenant.

"A *butemar* tenant is the same as a *mundemar*. In the Sangarh tahsil a *butemar* tenant exercises none of the rights of which the enjoyment by occupancy tenants is doubtful in the rest of the district.

Latmar tenant.

"The *latmar* tenant is a tenant who erects embankments for irrigation in the Pachad. His rights are the undisputed rights of a *mundemar* tenant. It is, however, very usual for a *latmar* tenant to take out a lease for a term of years. In *mauzah* Gadai, tahsil Dera Ghazi Khan, the custom as regards *latmar* tenants was proved to be that they could not be ejected until the *band* which they had embanked had obtained one good supply of water and borne one good crop. The position of a *latmar* tenant is mostly governed by local custom.

The tenant.

Jhuriband

"The *Jhuriband* tenant is only found in the Sangarh tahsil. The tenant pays the landlord a *nazrana* in cash or in kind, and the landlord marks out the tenant's land by tying down the bushes—*Jhuriband*. These tenants are found in Bet or river lands, and their rights correspond with those of the *butemar*.

The tenant.

"The *kukmar* tenant in Sangarh corresponds to the *adhlap* proprietor in other tahsils. The *kukmar* is, however, only a tenant, and his tenure lasts as long as the *pakka* brick or wooden well he has sunk lasts. The *kukmar's* heirs in the direct line succeed him. The proprietor receives only *lichh* from the *kukmar*, and the *lichh* payable is fixed at the commencement of the tenure.

The tenant.

"The *churait* tenant is a tenant-at-will, and can be ejected at the close of the agricultural year. The *churait* tenant pays *lichh* and *mahsul*.

The tenant.

"The *lichain* tenant is found in the Sangarh tahsil. The bullocks used by the *lichain* are the landlord's, and the *lichain* receives only half or one-third the gross produce, after deducting *lichh* and *mahsul*. If the *lichain* tenant receives one-third produce, he is paid Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per annum. These tenants have to find an amount of seed equal to their share of produce. A *lichain* tenant is sometimes given a cash advance by the proprietor, and cannot throw up his holding until he has repaid it.

The tenant.

"The *miadi* tenant is, as the name implies, a tenant for a term."

Size of holdings.

The size of holdings varies in the different parts of the district according to the nature of the soil and cultivation. Mr. Fryer estimated that a man would be considered rich who held eight wells in the Sind, or 40 embankments in the Pachad, or 200 acres of *sailaha* land. A man holding four wells or 20 embankments would be considered well-to-do. A quarter share in a well would be the smallest holding which would support a cultivating proprietor, giving him an income of about Rs. 8 per month. In the Pachad the number of embankments which would be required to support a cultivating proprietor would depend very much upon facilities of irrigation. Two embankments, if well situated for irrigation, would suffice. As for tenants, it was stated for the purposes of the Famine Report that they cultivated by *jogs* or pairs of oxen. A well is divided into four *jogs*; and each *jog* may be said to consist of ten acres.

As a rule a tenant cultivates one *jog*; some, however, cultivate two or more. Every cultivator possesses *jogs* in proportion to the number of men in his family, as also to his condition in life. If he has two men in his family, viz., himself and a son or brother, he will as a rule cultivate two *jogs*. If the family consists of four men four *jogs* will be cultivated.

Chapter III, E.

Village communities and tenures.
Size of holdings.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in

Lambardars, *zails* and *zaildars*.

the several tahsils. There are no chief headmen in the district. *Zaildars* were appointed for the first time at the Regular Settlement of the district. It was observed at the time that many of the *zails* were small and that some of them were made up of detached vil-

Tahsil.	ZAILDARS.		Village headmen.
	Present.	Proposed.	
Dera Ghazi Khan ...	16	13	292
Bangarh ...	17	9	222
Jampur ...	21	11	227
Itanpur ...	24	15	253
Total ...	78	48	994

lages, but it was accepted that the circumstances of the district were not so suitable as those of the north-east of the Punjab for the formation of agricultural *zails*. Alterations and amalgamations were, however, contemplated during the term of settlement, especially where *zails* had been made in behalf of particular individuals or on account of temporary feuds and jealousies, but no alterations were made, and at the recent Revision of Settlement a very radical revision of the *zaildari* arrangements has been proposed which will probably be given effect to by degrees. Within each of the eight Biloch tribes which are organized each under the rule of a chief, the *tumandar* is the only person who could properly be recognised as *zaildar*, but he should delegate authority to his *mokadams* who are the headmen of sections of the tribe, and should supply to the Deputy Commissioner lists of the *mokadams* who are responsible for the various villages comprised in the tribe. These men are rewarded by the chief in various ways according to their deserts, and the *zaildari* fees in villages which do not contribute towards the chief's *inam* should be paid to the *tumandar*. There are some exceptions to the rule that the *tumandar* is the sole *zaildar* in his *tuman*, but even in these exceptions the supreme authority of the *tumandar* is maintained, and though there are reasons for treating those cases exceptionally they need not be permanent. Most of the exceptions are in the *Drishak tuman*, which covers a very large extent in country and is intermixed with landowners of other tribes; a considerable portion of it has been included in the chief's *zail*, but the remainder has been split up into several *zails*.

Zaildari arrangements in *tuman* limits.

Leaving out of account the *tuman zails*, the alteration effected at the Revision of Settlement was as under:—

Chapter III, E.
Village communi-
ties and tenures.
Zaildari arrange-
ments in tuman
limits.

Tahsil.	Former scale.	New scale.
Sangarh	12	5
Dera Ghazi Khan	10	9
Jampur	17	7
Rajapur	22	12
Total District ...	61	33

Two of the new *zails* will contain two zaildars each, and the total number of zaildars in the district would be 35 were it not that one of the *zails* is the Dhundi estate, which is the property of Government, and in which the Superintendent discharges the duties of a zaildar. There will thus be 34 zaildars. The new arrangements contemplate their being divided into grades remunerated as under:—

Grades.	Number of zaildars.	Annual income of each.
First	11	Rs. 120
Second	12	100
Third	11	80

The Deputy Commissioner will have power to give grade promotions when vacancies occur, and also to degrade, with the previous sanction of the Commissioner, a zaildar from a higher to a lower grade.

The proposed head-quarters of the *zails*, with the number of villages and amount of land revenue, are shown in the tables below, and are compared with the *zails* framed at Regular Settlement.

Chapter III, E

Village communi-
ties and tenures.
Zaidari arrange-
ments in tuman
limits.

Tabell.	Zail.	No. of vil- lages.	Amount of land rev- enue.	Tabell.	Zail.	No. of vil- lages.	Amount of land rev- enue.
SARGARH.				DEGA GHARI KHAN.			
<i>Regular Settlement.</i>				<i>Present Settlement.</i>			
Ghali	...	32	7,472	Shadan Lund	...	38	18,614
Daira Shab	...	15	1,004	(Shori Lund Tuman)	...	17	27,309
Towaa	...	2	4,253	Batil	...	28	20,007
Paol Girain	...	6	1,985	(Khosa Tuman)	...	7	15,578
Jhang	...	9	1,709	Pir Adil	...	10	10,376
Sajjan Laugah	...	7	632	Sadr Zail I	...	14	13,822
Dona	...	8	2,228	Do. II	...	5	13,766
Hairo	...	6	4,967	Do. III	...	10	10,362
Poadhi	...	7	7,250	Do. IV	...	21	16,784
Mangratha	...	12	5,891	Kot Chutta	...	35	14,118
Sokar	...	5	550	Jhok Utera	...	10	14,326
Matti	...	6	793	Sheru	...	18	36,008
Aliani	...	17	4,916	Manab	...	5	13,455
Makiwal Kalau	...	7	1,030	Abmdani	...	6	13,455
Tibbi Kasrani	...	9	1,700	Choti	...	217	2,31,535
Kot Kasrani	...	30	18,536	(Leghari Tuman)	...	21	6,028
Shadan Lund	...	2	4,601	(in Kasrani Tuman)	...	24	5,165
Sbah Sadr Din	...	6	11,570	Ghali	...	11	12,972
Batil	...	8	5,125	Tanna	...	10	9,020
Marhatta	...	14	11,746	(2 Zaidars)	...	41	11,073
Pir Adil	...	19	29,968	Sokar	...	22	8,940
Dera Ghazi Khan	...	14	10,418	Hairo	...	6	894
Samir	...	22	21,069	Makwal Kalan	...	6	894
Mabram	...	11	16,751	Matti	...	6	894
Fasti Malana	...	8	5,763	(in Khosa Tuman)	...	163	61,158
Moon	...	22	12,250				
Sheru	...	12	24,225				
Choti	...	8	3,322				
Shah Jamal	...	8	10,392				
Yaru	...	5	9,727				
Mamuri	...	10	10,276				
Lundi Pita	...	4	1,536				
Bet Ratanpur	...	7	8,067				
Hairo	...	8	7,281				
Nurpur	...	7	5,125				
Kota Moghlan	...	12	11,824				
Jampur	...	3	2,185				
Kot Tabir	...	4	2,612				
Kot Jami	...	13	4,666				
Dhinzana	...	6	2,053				
Muhammadpur	...	5	426				
Islampur	...	8	3,455				
Hajipur	...	6	2,156				
Tufki	...	3	1,233				
Tal Tanubi	...	5	3,143				
Tal Shumali	...	11	7,344				
Nowshera	...	4	1,461				
Wah Saidan	...	37	12,253				
Bhimbi-cow-Lalgarh	...	6	3,384				
Tibbi Lund	...	16	3,362				
Lundi Saidan	...	5	4,046				
Sabuwala Muhara	...	4	2,769				
Bozdar Sabuwala	...	7	7,211				
Nowshera Gopang	...	3	1,650				
Nowshera Dadpotra	...	10	4,317				
Nurpur Jatoi	...	5	5,139				
Wang	...	2	3,696				
Kot Mithan	...	5	1,515				
Bhagsar Sharki	...	4	1,790				
Bhagsar	...	3	1,280				
Bhagsar Janubi	...	7	2,173				
Murghai	...	5	2,676				
Bhagsar Gopang	...	7	1,200				
Kota Isan	...	3	3,006				
Shikarpur	...	4	3,425				
Kasimpur	...	12	2,901				
Jehanpur	...	2	1,904				
Faizpur	...	3	629				
Pir Baksh	...	4	4,854				
Rajanpur	...	4	1,735				
Kota Nager	...	6	2,834				
Kota Said Khan	...	22	3,052				
Dhundi	...	7	3,222				
Asni	...	24	17,866				
Rojhan	...	12	5,850				
		8	7,449				
		11	6,717				
		18	6,101				
		1	220				
		28	5,280				
		4	3,638				
		19	4,795				
		14	8,065				
		6	9,405				
		19	5,233				
		10	7,469				
		15	5,712				
		13	3,109				
		31	23,489				
		210	1,02,701				

Chapter III. E.

Village communi-
ties and tenures.
Inamdars.

A sum of Rs. 1,280, equivalent to one quarter per cent. of the revenue of the district as assessed at the Revision of Settlement, it is proposed to award in *inams* to leading landowners other than *zaildars*. This sum will include certain *inams* which were given to *zaildars* at the Regular Settlement to supplement the small income they received from their fees, and which will, it is proposed, gradually be absorbed as they fall vacant and will be awarded to others than *zaildars*.

Wages of labour.

The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

Poverty or wealth
of the proprietors.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA show the operations of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil litigation.

Alienation of land.

A very large area of land was transferred by sale and mortgage between the Regular Settlement and the Revision of Settlement. The percentage of the total cultivated area transferred during that time in each *tahsil* was as follows:—

Tahsil.	Now under mortgage.	Sold.	Total.
Sangarh	22	10	32
Dera Ghazi Khan	21	12	33
Jampur	21	13	34
Rajanpur	10	7	17

Most of the transfers were in favour of Hindus, but wealthy Muhammadans also, such as the Leghari Chief, have acquired land by purchase and mortgage. The excessive alienation of land does not appear to have occasioned any disquieting effects. It was in no way due to the pressure of the old land revenue demand, which was only a very small fraction of the average price realized for land. In a tract where a year of plenty is frequently followed by one or two years of scarcity, even a careful agriculturist is likely to be driven to the money-lender by need for food and seed, and the Biloch landowners of the district are the reverse of provident. But in many cases the alienated land represents merely the surplus in excess of the requirements of the original owners who have preferred to realize on it rather than arrange for its cultivation. The percentage of area alienated is lower than elsewhere in the Rajanpur *tahsil*, where the income of the people from their land is supplemented by their profits from live-stock, and where also the powerful

influence of the Mazari Chief is exerted to keep his tribesmen and the money-lenders on good terms and to prevent the land from passing away from the former. It is a noteworthy fact that in the numerous villages in which the revenue is collected in kind by the Biloch Chiefs to whom it is assigned, alienations are much less common than in villages under a cash assessment, in spite of the fact that the limits of the collections in kind are well known and the chiefs are most careful not to abuse the privilege that has been conceded to them. The price of land is high and has increased considerably since the time of the Regular Settlement. It averages about Rs. 50 per acre of cultivated land in the more highly cultivated parts of the district and Rs. 20 in the poorer tracts, and considerably exceeds Rs. 100 in the neighbourhood of the city and cantonments of Dera Ghazi Khan. The price per acre of gross area acquired by Government for public purposes in that vicinity has in recent years averaged Rs. 110, and elsewhere, in the canal-irrigated part of the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil, has been Rs. 50.

Chapter III, F.

Leading Families.

Alienation of land.

SECTION F.—LEADING FAMILIES.

The most notable family in the district is that of the Mian Sabib Serai, a descendant of the Kalhora Kings of Sind. The head-quarters of this family are at Hajipur, in the Jampur tahsil. The founder of the family was, according to Captain Goldsmid's Memoir on Shikarpur, one Jam Junjar. This Jam had two sons, Daud and Muhammad. Daud was the founder of the Daudpotras, now Nawab of Bahawalpur. Muhammad's son was Ibrahim, who was also called Kalhora Khan. The seventh in descent from Muhammad was Adim Shah, who flourished in 1500 A.D. This Adim Shah was the disciple of a famous Syad of Jampur, and succeeded to his master's position as a religious leader. Adim Shah was put to death at Multan, and one Aga Muhammad, Kotwal of Multan, brought Adim Shah's body to Sakkar, and there built him a tomb. Adim Shah's grandson Alias was the first Kalhora who endeavoured to become a worldly as well as a religious leader. The third in descent from Alias was Nasir Muhammad. Nasir Muhammad gained considerable influence, and became the leader of a band of freebooters. He was imprisoned by the Emperor Aurangzeb, but was released. Nasir Muhammad had three sons, Din Muhammad, Yar Muhammad, and Mir Muhammad. Din Muhammad rebelled against the Governor of Sewi, and became the *de facto* ruler of a great part of Sind. The prince Mouj-ul-din was sent with an army from Delhi to punish Din Muhammad. The Kalhoras submitted to the prince, but Din Muhammad was imprisoned. Yar Muhammad took refuge with the Khan of Kelat. The Khan of Kelat gave Yar Muhammad assistance and restored him to the position which Din Muhammad had held. Yar Muhammad defeated the Governor of Sewi, and took possession of that Province, to

The Kalhora or Serai family.

Chapter III, E. of the produce in the way of *mahsul*. A table giving the proportion of the produce received by the owner in the different parts of the district is given below:—

Village communities and tenures. Rents in kind.

Tahsil and Circle.	Rodkahi.	Beran.	Chahi.	Chahi nah ri.	Nabri.	Sailab.	Abi Kalapani.	Chahi sailab.	Abi Jhalari.
Sangarh-Pachad ...	40	30	46
Dera-Pachad ...	37	37	50
Jampur-Pachad ...	35	31	16
Rajanpur-Pachad ...	26	27
Sangarh-Sind	23	28	...	24	21
Dera Danda	23
Dera Chahi-nabri circle	24	32	30	30	...	33	27
Sangarh Chahi-nabri circle	50	50
Jampur Sind	19	30	30	31	...	37	33
Rajanpur + Kntb and Kudra circles	25 & 26	26 & 27	27 & 28
Rajanpur Gharkub	28	...	26	24
Rajanpur sailab circle	31	...	26	30
Jampur Kalapani	49

In the greater part of the district the rents taken in kind rose between the Regular Settlement of the district and the recent Revision of Settlement in consequence of increasing security and a growing appreciation of the value of land.

The rise was most marked in the Sangarh tahsil, where the area paying half-produce or more as rent in the Pachad is now 43 per cent. of the total area instead of 13 per cent. as formerly, and the rate is more than a third in the greater part of the Sind instead of less than a third as it was at the time of the Regular Settlement. In the Dera tahsil similar but less marked changes occurred, and in the Kalapani portion of Jampur a rise was traced which was due to improvement in the methods of irrigation. In Rajanpur there was a marked rise along the river which was owing in great part to the extinguishment of rights of occupancy by river action.

Another share of the produce taken in some localities by others than the owner or tenant of the land is *anwanda*. A tenant who has broken up land is supposed to have thereby acquired a right to *anwanda*, which is the share of produce considered to belong to the improver of the soil, and is calculated only on the cultivator's share of the produce. This right to *anwanda* may be sold, or it may be realized from any tenant substituted for the original improver; but, whenever sold, it must be offered first to the owner of the land. Another variety of *anwanda* is a share of the cultivator's share of the produce taken by the person who clears the

Auwanda.

him, killing Abdul Arif, eldest son of Abdul Nabi. In 1792 A.D., Abdul Nabi went to Rajanpur, where Timur Shah gave him the *jagir* still held by the family.

Abdul Nabi's son was Taj Muhammad, and Taj Muhammad's son was Ahmad Yar, father of Khan Muhammad, who died in 1871, leaving a son, Ata Muhammad. Ata Muhammad enjoyed the *jagir* for 25 years and died childless in 1896.

The *jagir* was continued to his nephew Lutf Hussain, whose father, Lutf Muhammad, the only brother of Ata Muhammad, waived his right of succession. The *jagir* was originally valued at Rs 40,000 per annum, but it is doubtful whether it ever yielded this amount. When the district was farmed by the Sikhs to the Nawab of Bahawalpur, the latter confiscated one-third of the *jagir*, but in place of this confiscation the Maharaja Ranjit Singh fixed a *nazrana* of Rs 4,500 per annum, which Diwan Sawan Mal raised to Rs 9,000. The British Government fixed the *nazrana* at Rs 3,000 only and made the succession to the *jagir* subject to confirmation on the death of each successive *jagirdar*. At the Regular Settlement of the district six out of the 33 villages then comprised in the *jagir* were transferred from it to the Drishak Chief's *inam*, and in compensation for this the *nazrana* of Rs 3,000 was remitted. On the villages remaining in the *jagir* which had always up till then paid revenue in kind to the *jagirdar* a cash assessment of Rs 11,200 was imposed, but this amount, although 20 per cent below the average income from collections in kind, proved too heavy and in A. D. 1884 most of the villages reverted to payment of the revenue in kind. At the recent Revision of Settlement the cash assessment framed for the *jagir* villages was Rs 8,600. The *jagirdar* is required by Government to devote one-third of this to the maintenance of the other members of the Kalhora family who have settled at Hajipur. In addition to the *jagir*, the *jagirdar* receives, subject to no maintenance charge, one-third of the revenue of Hajipur and of five villages adjoining it in the Jampur tahsil. This fractional grant from the revenue of a village is called a *kasur*: it is continued from Mian Sahib to Mian Sahib with the *jagir* but is not subject to the maintenance charge. Its value under the new settlement is Rs. 1,695; and it was granted originally by Nasir Khan Brahui, the Khan of Kelat, who held the Harrand-Dajal country when the Kalhora family settled in it at Hajipur.

The eldest son of the *jagirdar*, always on his father's death, takes the title of Shah Newaz. The family is also known as that of the Mian Sahib Serai. Serai is said to be a common appellation for natives of Sind. The males of the family never cut their hair, and never shave their moustaches. This has led to a story that the founder of the Kalhora family

Chapter III, F.

Leading Families.

The Kalhora family obtain the Rajanpur *jagir*.

Meaning of the designation Serai.

Chapter III. F. was a disciple of Baba Nanak, and there is a couplet which says :—

Leading Families.

Meaning of the designation Serai.

"Sikh, Serai, donon Bhai; | The Sikhs and the Serais are both brothers;
Baba Nanak put banni." | Baba Nanak made them his sons.

Religion of the Serais.

Another account is that Adim Shah, to keep up his attention when at prayers, used to tie himself by the hair to a beam, and wore his hair long so that it might be useful for this purpose. Hence arose the habit of never cutting the hair. The Serais are all Shias, and have many followers in Sind. They tie their hair in a knot on the crown of the head instead of at the side of the head, as the Sikhs tie it. The Serais abjure the use of tobacco. The head of the family still maintains its dignity by sitting on a *gaddi*, and never rising whoever enters the room. Till the death of Taj Muhammad a pair of kettle-drums were always played whilst the Mian Sahib remained upon the *gaddi*.

Rural notables.

By their own account the Serais are descended from the prophet, and the first of the family who settled in Sind was Adam Shah, who came direct from Arabia.

Besides the *tumandars* already noticed in the description of the several Biloch tribes and the Rajanpur *jagirdars* there are not many men of family or influence in the district.

Saiyad Mehr Shah, Kharsin.

Saiyad Mehr Shah is the chief of the small and scattered Kharsin tribe which inhabits a part of the mountain country adjoining the Sangarh tahsil and lying both sides of the boundary between the district and Bilochistan. His father, Zaman Shah, rendered important services as an intermediary between the British Officers of Dera Ghazi Khan and several of the minor hill tribes before British influence was established in Bilochistan.

Men of position in the Sangarh tahsil.

In the Sangarh tahsil only two men call for notice; in addition to those who have been noted in the accounts of the Kasrani and Nutkani tribes in Section D are Shah Muhammad Shah of Panjgraon and Sadik Muhammad Khosaof Matti. Shah Muhammad Shah is the hereditary Pir of the Legharis and has followers in Sind. His father, Mehr Shah, did good service to Government at the time of Kaura Khan's exploit which has been described in the account of the Kasrani tribe, and was given in reward the revenue of the village of Panjgraon, two-thirds of which have been continued to Shah Muhammad Shah. Sadik Muhammad is the *mukaddam* of the section of the main Khosa tribe resident at Matti in this tahsil, and enjoys an assignment of land revenue.

Rural notables in the Dera tahsil.

In the Dera tahsil three rural notables may be mentioned here. Kadir Bakhsh Khan is the chief representative of the broken tribe of Ahmdanis who were driven out of Choti when the Legharis settled there, and would be their chief if the tribe

was an organized one. He is a fine old Biloch and served as a jamadar of cavalry in the mutiny. He takes a keen interest in horse-breeding. Shah Muhammad Shah is the guardian of the shrine at Pir Adil and is a considerable landowner. Malik Mitha of Basti Malana was a wealthy landowner. He died some years ago, and his heir being a minor, his estate is in the Court of Wards.

Alla Bakhsh Khan, Saddozai, though not wealthy, is perhaps the most notable person in the city of Dera Ghazi Khan. He is a descendant of Haji Sharif Khan of Herat who was sent by Ahmad Shah, Durani, as governor of first Dera Ismail Khan and afterwards Dera Ghazi Khan. Haji Sharif left two sons, the elder of whom succeeded him as governor, while the younger became Kazi of Dera Ghazi Khan City. It is from the younger that Allah Bakhsh Khan is descended. His brother, Ghulam Mustafa, served as a risaldar under Sir Herbert Edwardes and received a grant of land in the district for the service he then rendered. Muhammad Khan, Mirrani, a lineal descendant of the Mirrani Nawabs, lives in the city, but his family have now little position or influence. The Gosajns Kunj Lal and Roşhan Lal are the custodians of the temples founded by Shamji and Lalji. Darbari Lal is a wealthy banker, and Hakim Bala Ram is an eminent physician, whose fame as a Hakim draws many visitors to Dera Ghazi Khan.

Kaura Khan, the chief man among the broken Biloch tribe of Jatoie, was the most notable person in the Jampur tahsil after the tumandars. He resided in Muzaffargarh, where most of his land was situated, but owned some villages on this side of the Indus. All but one were, at the recent Revision of Settlement, transferred to the Muzaffargarh District in connection with the demarcation of the district boundary. Kaura Khan died childless in 1896, and though he assigned away a great part of his property by will, his nephew, Said Khan, has succeeded him in part of it. Mian Sultan Ali of Basti Panah Ali near Harrand is the Pir or spiritual guide of the Gurchau tribe. He succeeded his father, Mian Akil Muhammad, who was an interesting and intelligent old gentleman, in 1894, and has not yet done anything to distinguish himself. Aziz Muhammad, Pitafi, of Kharwah, is a good and useful zaildar and belongs to an old and respectable family. Barkurdar Khan of Hairo, Mirza Abdulla of Kotla Moghlan, and Malik Ghulam Nabi of Jampur may be mentioned as leading zamindars.

In the Rajanpur tahsil, the Bozdar family of Mehrwala and Kotla Sikhani and the Kalhora family of Rajaupur get chairs. The Bozdar family is descended from the Bozdars, who occupy part of the hills on the boundary of the Sangarh tahsil. Two brothers who settled at Dera Ghazi Khan in the time of Ghazi Khan IV, are said to have founded the family. The sons of these two Bozdars who settled at Dera Ghazi Khan took service under the Makhdom of Sitpur, who gave them the lands in which

Chapter III. F.

Leading Families.

Rural notables in the Dera tahsil.

City notables.

Men of position in the Jampur tahsil.

Men of position in the Rajanpur tahsil.

Chapter III. F. the villages of Kotla Nur Muhammad Khan and Kotla Ali Muhammad Khan, now known as Rakba Nabi Shah, are situated. **Leading Families.** The Bozdars afterwards attached themselves to the Amirs of Sind. A Bozdar, called Nur Muhammad, is said to have been ambassador from the Amirs to Ranjit Singh at Lahore. Mir Nasir Khan gave Yar Muhammad, Bozdar, a pension of Rs. 1,000 per annum, and the family still has the *sanad* granting the pension. When the British annexed the district, the Bozdars took service under the new Government, and Nur Muhammad Khan, Bozdar, was for long Tahsildar of Rajanpur, in which capacity he did excellent service and was much esteemed by the people. He died in 1896 and was a keen sportsman to the last. His grandson, Yar Muhammad Khan, has succeeded to his estates; he served for a time as Naib-Tahsildar, but has renounced the world. Nur Muhammad's nephew, Gul Muhammad, is a useful zaidar. The Bozdar family owns land in Mehrewala, Kotla Sikhani, Kot Mithao, Kotla Nabi Shah, Gujarwali, and Baghon. They acquired a good deal of land by the favour of the Makhdums of Sitpur, and they have purchased land largely. Muhammad Khan of Bhagsar is the representative of the Nahar family which once ruled the southern part of the district and which was dispossessed by the Makhdums. The Makhdums also still survive and own a good deal of land in this tahsil acquired by them in connection with the excavation of the Kutb Canal, of which they made it a condition that they should receive a share in all land benefitting by the canal. The present Makhdum lives at Sitpur, and has only recently come into possession of his estates, which were in the Court of Wards during his minority. Rai Bahadur Hittu Ram, c. 1. E., who was employed in this district under Sir Robert Sandeman when the latter was its Deputy Commissioner, accompanied him to Bilochistan and there rose to be an Extra Assistant Commissioner and distinguished himself by excellent and honourable service for which he was rewarded by the decoration he bears, and by the grant of waste land and of a *jagir* in this tahsil. He has now retired and settled there, and is occupying his old age with the work of an Honorary Magistrate and the completion of a history of Bilochistan. Gul Shah of Murghai, Sidhu Ram of Shikarpur, Khair Muhammad Khan, Drishak, of Kotla Nasir, and Sabu Khao, Drishak, of Fazilpur may be mentioned as leading landowners and useful zaidars.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE, AND LIVE-STOCK.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation, and for Government waste land; while the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III and IIIA and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates. Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this Chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section E.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.

General statistics
of agriculture.

For the purposes of the recent Revision of Settlement the district was divided into fifteen Assessment Circles, of which six are in the Rajanpur tahsil and three in each of the three northern tahsils. The circles were determined by the methods of agriculture followed in them. There are four Pachad Circles, one in each tahsil; a Kalapani Circle in Jampur; two Chahi-Nahri Circles, one in the Sangarh and one in the Dera tahsil, and a Sindh Circle, of a nature similar to these, in Jampur, with three corresponding circles—the Dhundi, the Kutb and the Kadra—in Rajanpur; a Sindh Circle in Sangarh and a Dunda Circle somewhat resembling it in Dera; and two Riverain Circles, the Sailab and the Gharkab, in Rajanpur.

Assessment Cir-
cles.

The soil in the Pachad is a rich loam formed by the action of the hill-torrents, but owing to the scanty rainfall the whole tract is a bare waste except in the blocks of embanked fields for which water for irrigation is available from the hill-torrents. Such land is called *rodkahi*. It is sometimes possible to utilize the local rainfall in this tract by leading the drainage from sand hills in channels to fields which are embanked in the same way as *rodkahi* fields, but with lighter embankments, and such land is called *barani*. *Rodkahi* and *barani* soils occupy 99 and 95 per cent. respectively, of the total cultivated land in Sangarh and Jampur, which are the more distinctively Pachad Circles; in the Dera tahsil canal-irrigation has been extended to part of the tract, and in Rajanpur some of the Pachad villages extend into the river bed and get river flood. As the cultivation is dependent on the rainfall in the hills, the area cropped varies tremendously from year to year. It was, for instance, in the

The four Pachad
Circles.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.
The four Pachad
Circles.

Sangarh-Pachad as low as 40 per cent. in 1893-94 of the total area classed as cultivated, and as high as 80 per cent. in 1892-93. *Jowar* and *bajra* are the crops most grown, the former supplying nutritious fodder for cattle in addition to the grain which is the staple food of the Bilochis, and as a rule all the fields that are flooded sufficiently well to produce these crops are sown with them, so long as there is any chance of their maturing, or, in the case of *jowar*, of its even growing high enough to be used as fodder (*charri*). In fields flooded in September this would not be the case, and wheat or *sarson* or *assun* is sown instead. Wheat is most grown in Sangarh, where it occupies 13 per cent. of the average area cropped, and oil-seeds are more popular in Jampur, where they are sown in 26 per cent. of the average area of crops. Wheat is not grown at all in the Rajanpur-Pachad. The average size of a proprietary holding is generally very small, and in Jampur it was found that the average area cropped annually on a holding was only two acres in the case of 88 per cent. of the proprietors. The Rajanpur Pachad, though the most extensive of the four Pachad circles, has, owing to the saline nature of its torrents and the small size of most of them, the smallest cultivated area.

Kalapani Circle.

The Kalapani Circle comprises the land which, at the point of issue from the hills of the Kaha torrent in the Jampur tahsil, receives perennial irrigation from that stream. The perennial flow is called *kalapani*, and it is led away from the torrent by water-cuts at a point considerably above the place where embankments are made to guide the autumn floods (*rodkahi pani*) into the distributaries. The land to which the perennial flow is applied is also called *kalapani*. The crops grown upon it are rice of a superior quality in the *kharij* and wheat in the *rabi*, and fallows are given from time to time. *Rodkahi* water does not reach this land. Date trees flourish on this soil, and 3,403 were counted at the recent Revision of Settlement, of which 1,430 were female, *i. e.*, fruit-bearing, trees.

Chahi Nabri Circle
of Dera and Sindh
Circle of Jampur.

The most valuable land in the district is comprised in the Chahi Nabri Circle of Dera and the Sindh Circle of Jampur, which together include nearly the whole of the tract that has been protected from river flood by embankments, and is irrigated by a good system of Inundation Canals supplemented by wells. The cities of Dera Ghazi Khan and Jampur are situated in this tract; the former is surrounded by gardens of fruit trees, and there are a few near the latter; gardens are also met with in a few outlying villages. During the interval between the Regular Settlement and Revision much land was eroded by the river, but well-sinking was actively carried on and canal-irrigation was extended by the improvement of canals. It was estimated at Revision of Settlement that in the Dera Circle cultivation had increased at least 19 per cent. and the area protected by wells by 8 per cent., and that in the Jampur Circle

cultivation had increased by 20 per cent. The number of wells at Regular Settlement and at Revision was as below :—

	At Regular Settlement.	At Revision.
Dera	3,458	4,309
Jampur	828	1,301
Total	4,286	5,670

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.

Chahi Nabri Circle
of Dera and Sindh
Circle of Jampur.

The average depth of wells is to water 12 or 14 feet, and to the bottom 21 or 22 feet. The average area attached to a well is from 24 to 27 acres in the two circles on which about 22 acres of crops are annually grown; half with the aid of canal water alone and the other half with water from the well in addition to canal water. Wheat is the chief crop grown, occupying 38 and 36 per cent. of the area annually cropped in the two circles. Cotton is the most important *kharif* crop in the Dera tahsil and is sown in 18 per cent. of the area annually cropped; the corresponding figure in the Jampur tahsil is 8 only; there is more water-logging there and rice (14 per cent.) takes the place of cotton. For indigo the figure is 6 per cent. in each of the two circles. In the water-logged area in Jampur it is common to grow a second crop of grain or inferior pulses in the *rabi* in fields which have borne a crop of rice in the *kharif*, without giving them an additional watering from the canal. The same practice prevails to a small extent in Dera. The distinctive feature of these circles is that a larger area can be put under wheat in the well estates than could be if canal water were not available, because a watering can be given from the canal preliminary to sowing and before the Indus falls and the canals cease flowing. Similarly, while a fair crop of cotton can be obtained from the plants matured with canal water alone, the yield is greatly increased if water can be given to them from the well after the canals have ceased running.

The Sangarh-Chahi Nahri Circle, a small and inferior one, lies between the Pachad and the Indus in the half of the tahsil lying to the north of the Sangarh torrent, and is on a lower level than the Pachad, though for the most part beyond the reach of river flood. The eastern half of it is irrigated by the Mussawah Canal, and though the head of that canal is badly situated and the irrigation arrangements are very irregular, the area watered by the canal doubled between the time of the Regular Settlement, when the canal was under private management, and that of the recent Revision, when it had been managed by Government for a number of years. Wells increased in the same interval from 278 to 341. The average depth of a well is 16 feet to the surface of the water and 22 feet to the bottom. Wheat occupies 32, *bajra* 24, *jowar* 12, *assua* 13, and rice 6 per cent. of the average area annually cropped; cotton is grown only to a small extent. The canal is liable to be breached and the land adjoining it to be injuriously flooded by two hill-

The Sangarh-
Chahi Nahri Circle.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.
The Sangarh-
Chahi Nabri Circle.

torrents, the Vahowa and the Kanwan, when they come down in great flood. On account of this and the unsatisfactory position of the head the watering of the canal is often bad, but the spring level of water in its vicinity has been raised by its construction, and this is the cause of the increase in the number of wells. The canal at present never flows late enough to give a watering preliminary to *rabi* sowings in the well estates.

The Dhundi Cir-
cle.

The Dhundi Circle comprises the area irrigated in the Rajanpur tahsil by the Dhundi Canal, and was, before the extension of the canal to this tahsil, the north-east corner of the Pachad. The soil is a rich loam formed by the action of hill-torrents, and the fields are often embanked the better to retain the canal water, and the yield of *jowar* is very superior. When there is good rain the bare waste or part to the west of the canal becomes for a short time a shallow lake, and oil-seeds are then grown as a *barani* crop. Wells are few in number and deep. Of the area annually harvested, rice is grown in 31 and *jowar* and oil-seed each in 23 per cent. The whole of the circle, with the exception of a very small area, is the property of Government and is cultivated by tenants who pay rents in kind.

The Kutb Circle.

The Kutb Circle contains the land irrigated by the Kutb Canal and lies to the east of the Dhundi Circle. The northern extremity is flooded in some years from the river in one direction and from hill-torrents in the other. The town of Rajanpur is in this circle, and there are numerous gardens in its vicinity and also in the neighbourhood of the large village of Fazilpur. Wells increased in number from 270 at Regular Settlement to 429 at Revision, but cannot be properly utilized owing to the bad working of the canal. The average area of a well estate is 8 acres, on which 5 acres of crops are on an average obtained every year. The smallness of the crop area is due to the fact that the poppy, which is the most important well crop here, and which occupies 6 per cent. of the area annually cropped in the circle, requires much water. The percentages under other crops are wheat 28, *jowar* 21, rice 18, and indigo 10. Most of the villages forming the Miyan Sahib Sarai's *jagir* are in this circle. The Kutb Canal has a badly situated head, unprotected by embankments, and a winding course, and its working is very erratic.

The Kadra Circle.

The Kadra Circle lies to the south of the Kutb and is traversed by the Kadra Canal and by a depression to the east of it which receives flood water from the Indus. In this depression crops are sown when the soil has absorbed the moisture and ripen without the aid of irrigation, though they are improved if there is rain in the cold weather; such crops are called *sailab*. Land irrigated from the canal alone (*nahri*) forms 41 per cent. of the total cultivated area; land irrigated from wells alone, and from the canal and from wells in addition (*chahi* and *chahi nahri*) 24, and *sailab* and *abi* land 31 per cent. *Abi* land is that to

which water is raised by lift from ponds or creeks. Wells increased from 294 at Regular Settlement to 403 at Revision, but it is difficult to work them unless canal water is available to grow fodder crops in the *kharif* for the well cattle. The average depth is 14 feet to water and 21 feet to the bottom, and the average area of a well estate is 11 acres, on which on an average 6 acres of crops are annually grown. Wheat occupies 46, rice 18, and *jowar* 14 per cent. of the average area annually harvested. The Kadra Canal has no proper head; its construction is faulty and it is liable to be breached by hill-torrents, and for the last ten years (1887 to 1897) it has been steadily deteriorating and cultivation, especially rice cultivation, has declined.

The special feature of the Sangarh-Sind Circle and the Danda Circle of the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil is that, while containing land of other classes, they include the edge of the Pachad towards the river, in which, as torrent floods reach it only in exceptional years, cultivation is carried on with the aid of deep irrigation wells unaided by canals. This belt of land extends from the south bank of the Sangarh torrent southwards to the centre of the Dera tahsil, where it disappears and merges in the canal-irrigated tract; north of the Sangarh its place is taken by the Chahi Nahri Circle of Sangarh. The average depth of Danda wells is from 18 to 22 feet to water and from 28 to 30 feet to the bottom. The average area of a well estate of this nature is 40 acres, and the area cropped on each varies from 16 acres near the river to 9 acres further inland where the wells are deepest. Wheat is the chief crop grown, and a larger area than elsewhere is devoted to turnips, as the need for fodder for the well bullocks is greater. The soil being of the Pachad order is good, and it is enriched by hill-torrent deposits in the exceptional years when the torrent floods reach this part of the Pachad, but the well water is often saline.

The Rajanpur Sailab Circle contains all the villages adjacent to the Indus which are wholly or partially submerged by it when it rises. It includes both land in the river bed which is liable one year to be rendered unculturable by a deposit of sand and another year to be enriched by river silt, and also land on a higher level which, while subject to inundation, is less liable to injury and less fortunate in receiving silt deposits. There are similar tracts in all four tahsils, but those in the three others are much less extensive than that of Rajanpur and have been included in the Sind Circles of Sangarh and Jampur and in the Chahi Nahri Circle of Dera. Wells are common in the north of the Rajanpur Sailab Circle, but not in the south, where the cultivators, the Mazari tribe, are careless agriculturists; water is met with near the surface, but there was little change in the number of wells between Regular Settlement and Re-

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.
The Kadra Circle.

The Sangarh-Sind
and Dera-Danda Cir-
cles.

Rajanpur Sailab
Circle.

Similar tracts in
other tahsils.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.Similar tracts in
other tahsils.

vision. The advantage of having a well is that crops sown on river-flooded land can be watered afterwards from the well if the cold weather rains fail, but on the other hand there is a constant danger of the wells being eroded or choked with river silt. Of the total area of the crops annually harvested, wheat occupies 63, and *másh* and peas each 9 per cent. There is a large area of waste land covered with grass and jungle, and affording excellent grazing to the large flocks and herds that are kept in the circle. The area harvested depends on the nature and extent of the autumn floods in the Indus, and fluctuates enormously from year to year.

Rajapur Gharkab
Circle.

The Gharkab Circle lies to the east of the Kutb, between it and the Sailab Circle. Most of the cultivation is dependent on river flood, which is distributed over it by depressions called *dhoras*; the water so distributed is less rich in silt than the flood-water of the Sailab Circle, and when the set of the Indus is towards the east only a small volume of water reaches the Gharkab. Much of the cultivation is secured by wells, but these are not worked except for the more valuable garden crops if the land attached to them gets a good flooding from the river. Land receiving flood-water and also irrigated by wells is called *chahi-sailab*. *Sailab* and *abi* land form 69 and *chahi-sailab* forms 22 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Wells increased from 306 at Regular Settlement to 459 at Revision; the average depth is 16 feet to water and 22 feet to the bottom, and the average area of a well-estate is 14 acres with an average annual area of crops of 9 acres. A well is thrown out of work if the land attached to it fails for two years running to receive river inundation, as the soil in that case becomes infertile. Wheat occupies 64 and peas 15 per cent. of the average area annually harvested. The area harvested fluctuates from year to year to a greater extent than in the Sailab Circle even, the effect of the eastward set of the river having a more marked effect here than there, where a certain area is always sure of a flooding. There is much jungle affording excellent grazing for buffaloes, cows, sheep and goats.

Methods of cultivation.

The several methods of cultivation pursued in the district are thus :—

- (1) Hill-torrent cultivation,
- (2) Irrigation by wells alone on the skirt of the Pachad,
- (3) Canal supplemented by well-irrigation,
- (4) River flooding and
- (5) Irrigation by means of *jhallars* which raise water from ponds or creeks to fields lying at a higher level.

The force with which a hill-torrent descends is too great to admit of its being entirely dammed up by any embankment such as the agriculturists of the Pachad could construct. All that can be done is to erect at suitable intervals earthen embankments extending about half way across the torrent-bed to head up the flood water and lead it down the distributary channels which open immediately above the embankments. 'Band' is the name of an embankment as well as of an embanked field, and a distributary is called *wah*. Several torrents have a tendency to break away from their old and natural bed from which the distributaries take off and to rush down an alternate channel generally to the south of the original one. In such cases the alternate channels have to be blocked by strong embankments made of boulders bound with bushes and boughs of trees. Instances of these are the Mahoi in Sangarh and the Vador in the Sadr tahsil. The supply of labour for both kinds of embankments is regulated by rules well known to the irrigators from hill-torrents and intended to proportion the labour to the benefit received from the water; the rules are ancient and well-established, the growth of years, and were carefully recorded at the Regular Settlement in registers of irrigation rights. The earthen embankments are made with the aid of oxen, which are yoked to a kind of large shovel (*kihan*) which fills with earth as they drag it along, and is then upset on the rising embankment. Some of the embankments in the torrent-beds are permanent and are never breached except by accident, and the distributaries taking off from them get all the water they can take and only the surplus water goes on to the distributaries whose heads are lower down the torrent. Other embankments have to be cut as soon as their distributaries have received a supply sufficient to afford a watering to most of the fields along them in order that water may be available to the distributaries lower down. The site of each embankment and the rule as to its permanency or its liability to be broken are recorded in the registers of irrigation rights. In the *wah* or the main distributary similar embankments, in this case called *wakra* and extending right across the channel, are inserted at intervals to entirely dam up the water and force it into the channels (*wahi*) by which the water is conducted to the fields. Each of these is cut as soon as the field dependent upon it has got a watering. Needless to say the enforcement of the rules relating to the cutting of *bands* and *wakras* is a fertile source of disputes and riots. When conducted into the field the water is allowed to flow until it stands as high as the embankment (*lath*) surrounding the field can stand, often a height of three feet or more. The head of a torrent or distributary is called *mund* and the tail *pand* in this district, but the Pashitu equivalents used in Dera Ismail Khan are *saropa* and *paina* and the name *saropa-paina* has come to be used for the custom by which the head channels or distributaries are entitled to receive

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture.
Arboriculture,
and Live-Stock.

Hill-torrent cultivation.

Chapter IV. A.
Agriculture,
Arboriculture
and Live-Stock.
Hill-torrent culti-
vation.

their supply of water before the lower ones. When the water has been let into a field it is allowed to slowly soak in and deposit its silt, and when the ground surface is dry it is ploughed lightly and the seed is sown. In a field of good loam the first watering is sufficient for the maturing of a crop, but if the soil is clayey a second but less copious watering is desirable. If a field is filled over-full the *lath* surrounding it is liable to burst, and the water pouring forth through the opening tears a deep cutting through the friable soil. The same result but on a larger scale is produced if a distributary is dammed up too long, and in this way ravines (*para* or *bhargar*) are formed. These are most numerous in the Sangarh tahsil. The amount of silt contained in hill-torrent water is so great that the smaller ravines and cuttings formed in this way can be filled up and obliterated in a year or two if water is dammed up in and over them. The fields gain steadily in level by the yearly deposit of silt, and many of the Sangarh village sites now lie in deep hollows in the middle of cultivated land, though when the sites were originally chosen they must have been level with or higher than the land then under cultivation.

Well cultivation.

The total number of wells in the district as ascertained at

Tahsil.	WELLS.		
	In use.	Out of use.	Total.
Dera Ghazi Khan ...	6,456	183	6,639
Sangarh ...	469	81	550
Jampur ...	1,339	146	1,485
Rajapur ...	1,028	364	1,402
Total ...	6,302	774	9,076

the Revision of Settlement is given in the margin. In the deeper wells in the Pachad which have been made for drinking purposes only, the rope and bucket are made use of, but for irrigation the Persian wheel is invariably used. The average depth of wells and the area that can be cultivated by well-irrigation have been mentioned in the description of the Assessment Circles of the district in the

first part of this section. The cost of sinking a masonry well is not more than from Rs. 250 to Rs. 300 in the riverain tract, but rises to Rs. 400, Rs. 500 and Rs. 600 further inland. A well costing more than Rs. 600 would not pay because, apart from the initial expenditure, its depth would make its working costly, but the deep drinking wells in the Pachad cost as much as one, two, or even three thousand rupees. In the richer villages of the canal-irrigated tract double-wheeled (*doratta*) wells are not uncommon, and a pair of wells (*bilhar*) are often sunk close together for the irrigation of the same well estate. The area attached to a well of the Danda class is much larger than that of a well estate commanded by a canal, because from half to two-thirds of the area must be left fallow to rest. The Danda wells near the river bank which are not very deep can be worked in the hot weather as well as in the cold, and a little cotton of good

quality is matured with their aid in addition to the wheat crop; further inland the depth of the wells and the great heat in the hot weather prevents their being worked except in the cold weather, and wheat and turnips are the only crops grown and the area that can be annually cropped is small. The number of waterings given from a well is from six to ten.

When a well estate is commanded by a canal about half of it is sown every year in the *kharif* with crops irrigated with canal water only, *jowar*, indigo or rice, and the other half with crops such as wheat, cotton and tobacco, which require well water with or without canal water also. It is profitable to use manure and a suitable rotation of crops can be arranged and consequently nearly every acre of the well estate yields one crop a year. A canal irrigated village is divided into well estates (*khu*) with wells working, estates (*dal*) of which the wells have fallen in, and plots (*banjar*) which have no wells and get canal irrigation only. Accustomed to the free use of hill-torrent water in the Pachad, the people are apt to be very wasteful in their use of canal water. One pernicious habit is that of damming up a canal with an earthen embankment (*chab*) to feed a distributary, of which the result is that the canal and its banks suffer and land lower down gets no water. Another is that of over-flooding a field for time and then letting the water flow off on to any waste area that may be convenient, preferably the public road.

The cultivation of *sailab* land is of the simplest order. When the water has subsided and the surface of the soil begins to dry, the land is ploughed and the seed is sown in October or November. *Kharif* crops of *til* and *wash* are grown on the land from which the floods retire earliest, but *rabi* crops are grown in most of the land. Rain in January or February is necessary to secure the proper maturing of the crops, though a certain proportion of the crops sown can be harvested even if the cold weather rains fail altogether.

Abi cultivation resembles well cultivation. Water is raised by means of a wheel from a natural or artificial pond or from an arm of the river and applied to the fields. In part of Sangarh there are *jhallars* which, working in couples, raise water a considerable height to the top of the high bank of the Indus. The object of this is that the two *jhallars* may utilize one well channel.

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts and ploughs in each tahsil of the district as returned in 1896-97. The agricultural implements do not differ from those used elsewhere. The *kihan*, which is peculiar to this part of the Pachad, has been described in connection with hill-torrent cultivation. The roller drawn by cattle over the fields to break up clods is very necessary in the *sailab* tract, where the clay soil hardens

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture.
Arboriculture.
and Live-stock.
Well cultivation.

Cultivation in the canal irrigated part of the district.

Sailab cultivation.

Abi cultivation.

Agricultural implements and appliances.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Ploughing, sowing
and reaping.

when the water has sunk into it and is turned up in large lumps by the plough.

The first ploughing is called *ghar* or sometimes *par*, the second *bel* or *duhar*, and the third *trai* or *trehar*. Sowing is done either broadcast, or else by means of a *nali* or hollow stick with a wooden cup at the top of it fastened to the plough behind the share. Seed is placed into this cup and passes through the hollow stick into ridges made by the plough. Reapers are generally paid in kind, receiving every fortieth sheaf.

Principal staples.

Crop.	DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT.		
	Percentage of total area sown in Regular Settlement.	Average for four years.	
		Area harvested, acres.	Percentage of total crops harvested.
Jowar	41	1,46,943	25
Bajra	42	41,077	5
Rice	2	27,888	1
Cotton	6	33,248	6
Indigo	3	10,082	2
Wheat	24	1,91,211	31
Assun	2	36,150	7
Other crops	19	77,331	11
Total	100	3,33,823	100

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. An abstract is given in the margin showing the average area of each grown during the five years preceding Revision of Settlement.

The table below shows the great fluctuations that occur from year to year in the area harvested.

Year.	Area.
1890-91	542,615
1891-92	507,651
1892-93	674,658
1893-94	482,428
1894-95	520,348
Average	545,540

The *rabi* crops are wheat, gram, peas, *mohri*, tobacco, poppy, *assun*, barley and turnips. The *kharif* crops are *jowar*, *bajra*, cotton, indigo, rice, *china*, *til*, *samukha*, *wung*, *moth*, *mandua* and *kangni*.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture.
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Wheat.

Wheat is sown at different times of the year according to the soil in which it is sown. It is sown earliest in *rodkoti* land in the Pachad after the September floods have sunk into the soil. *Chahi nahri* land gets a canal watering in September or early in October, and is then ploughed, rolled with the clod breaker and raked, after which the wheat is sown. *Sailab* land is sown later, after the 15th of October. In all classes of soil wheat is sown in drills with the *nali*. In the villages where indigo is grown the indigo refuse (*kalli*) is used as a top-dressing for the young wheat, the dry bushes being first shaken over the crops so as to scatter the leaf dust as much as possible, and then strewn over the field. The corn is reaped towards the end of March in the Pachad, early in April on the wells, late in April on *sailab* land. The wheat of the Pachad and Danda and of the canal-irrigated tract is generally white and of good quality, but that grown in river-flooded land generally contains a considerable admixture of barley, as the cultivators do not care to risk good and expensive seed in this class of soil. Much wheat is cut green for fodder on the wells and also for sale to owners of horses and at the stages along the main road. The price realized varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 an acre (Rs. 6 to Rs. 12 a *kanal*) according to the locality and the prevailing price of grain. Barley is not much grown as a separate crop from wheat.

Barley.

Gram is grown for the most part on *sailab* lands, but is also sown on canal-irrigated land in succession to rice without receiving any more water than has been given to the land for the rice crop. It is liable to be damaged by hot winds in March and by caterpillars. The local gram is not of very good quality, and most of that used in the cantonment is imported from Ferozepore.

Gram.

Peas are grown more as a fodder crop than for human food, and the green crop is bought readily by cattle-owners. It realizes about one quarter of what is paid for green wheat. *Mohri* is grown for the *dal* it produces, and not as a fodder crop.

Mohri and peas.

The tobacco grown in the south of the Dera and the north of the Jampur tahsil is famous, and fetches a good price; there is a considerable export, and much of it is made into snuff at Alipur in Mazaffargarh. Kot Chutta and Manah Ahmdani are noted for the quality of their tobacco. It is sown in nurseries in January and February, and planted out in March and April. The ground is heavily manured, generally with manure brought from the Pachad, where sheep and goats are numerous, and where manure is not much used. Well irrigation is essential and canal water is taken in addition if available. Whoever may work the well, owner, tenant or farm labourer, a special man (called *athain* or *cheogi*) has to be employed to attend to the tobacco crop, as the plants require to be carefully examined

Tobacco.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Tobacco.

daily. He receives as remuneration a share of the yield of tobacco as a first charge before division between landlord and tenant. The share is generally one-third, but sometimes only a fourth or a sixth. The plants are gathered in June and dried in the sun for three or four days till the stalks and woody matter can easily be separated off. The subsequent treatment differs in the two great tobacco centres. In Manah the leaves are exposed for a month on the threshing floor, and sprinkled with water and re-arranged daily; they are then ready for export and are packed in sacks (*bindi*) made of palm leaf fibre, and holding 45 *pakka sers*. In Kot Chutta the dry leaves after being sprinkled with water are buried in a pit over which a frame with a mat-work roof (*garira*) is erected to protect it from rain. From time to time they are dug up, re-arranged, sprinkled and buried again until the tobacco is manufactured, when it is packed in sacks as in Manah. The yield varies from 200 to 400 *sers* per acre.

Poppy cultivation.

The poppy is the most important well crop in the northern half of the Rajanpur tahsil. The seed is sown at the end of November or beginning of December. Before sowing the ground is very heavily manured. The tenant who is responsible for the manure buys it from cattle owners at so much a lot by agreement and pays a *bithara* for carrying it to and spreading it over the field; one rupee for 200 donkey loads if the manure is purchased near the field; one anna a donkey load if it has to be brought from a distance. A canal watering is taken if available before the ground is prepared. Poppy can be grown in the same field for seven years continuously in the better villages; after which a crop of *jowar* is taken and a rabi fallow given before the field is sown again with the richer crop. In the poorer villages the poppy field is cropped with *jowar* every third year. The plants flower early in March and the opium is collected from the middle of the month onward. The puncturing of the capsules and the manufacture of the drug require the superintendence of a specialist, the *packhi*, who receives for his trouble one-fifth of the opium manufactured before it is divided between landlord and tenant. The punctures in the capsule are made with an instrument called *jarah*, consisting of four iron blades tied together with cotton thread which is wound all round and over them. The capsules are punctured in the course of the day, and the juice exudes during the night and is collected in shells the following morning by women who are paid half an anna each by the cultivator for their morning's work. When a shell is full the juice contained in it is rolled up in poppy petals and allowed to dry, after which the manufacture is complete. When the capsules have yielded their opium and withered they are collected on the threshing floor, and the seed, which yields oil, is threshed out. It is not difficult to make a fairly accurate estimate of the yield of opium, for the area under poppy is carefully measured

in connection with the grant of the cultivators' licenses, and the cultivators are required to bring the opium produced to the *patwari* to be weighed. The total annual yield of the tahsil thus ascertained can be checked with the quantity of opium exported under permit, which has also to be weighed under the rules. The annual yield of the tahsil varies from 60 to 80 standard maunds, and the yield per acre from 6 to 8 *seers* by the *patwari's* returns and from 5 to 6 *seers* by the export returns. The local consumption of the drug is not great, but a certain quantity was consumed while the cantonment was garrisoned, and the total annual yield is not exported, so it is safe to estimate the annual yield per acre at 6 standard *seers*. At the assumed price of 10 *talas* this would amount to Rs. 48, of which the *pachhi's* share would be Rs. 9½ *thalas*. The duty on poppy cultivation is paid by the tenant.

Assua, though grown to a certain extent in *sailab* land, is for the most part grown in the Pachad, where it is sown broadcast in the fields which have not been fully irrigated, and ripening towards the end of February, is then cut and stacked. After remaining some time in the stack it is trodden out by bullocks. The seed is exported, and at Dajal in the Jampur tahsil oil-presses are numerous, and there is a considerable manufacture and export of oil. The oil sells at the same price as kerosine, but is said to go further and be more economical. The same description applies to *sarson*, which is a more valuable crop, but is grown to a less extent.

Cotton and wheat are staple crops on *chahi-nahri* land. As a rule a second crop of cotton is not taken from the plants in the canal-irrigated part of the district. Wheat is followed by cotton, and then the land lies fallow in the following *rabi* and *kharij*, after which the rotation re-commences with wheat. This is the general rule, but in good land which has been enriched with stable and farm-yard manure a crop of *jowar* may be taken in the intervening *kharij*. Cotton is sown in June in canal-irrigated land, and the plants come into flower towards the end of August. Picking commences in the middle of October and continues till the end of January. During that time there is a picking once a week, and in the interval between the pickings a *rakha*, generally a weaver, who can work while watching, is employed to guard the field. The pickers are women and girls, and none but those of Saiyad or very well-to-do families are above taking part in this work. They are led to the field by the cultivator, and as they approach there is a race to reach it, for payment is by results, and the field is cleared in two or three hours. Babies are left to sprawl on the ground and take care of themselves while the picking is in progress. The picker usually receives one-eighth of the cotton and one-half of the *gogra*, i. e., the pods in which the cotton has partially dried, but the rate is higher in the neighbourhood of Dera Ghazi Khan City. The *gogra* is the

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.

Poppy cultivation.

Assua.

Sarson.

Rotation of crops
Cotton.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.Rotation of crops:
Cotton.

women's perquisite, and one or more *Kirars* are always in attendance at a picking with trays of parched gram, dried dates and sweetmeats to barter for it; the cotton is carried home to be added to the family store of the picker. The yield is estimated at 125 *sers* of uncleaned cotton per acre on land irrigated from the canal alone, and at 200 *sers* when the crop can be watered from a well after the stoppage of the canal. The raw cotton (*phuti*) is separated from the pods by the pickers and the cleaning is done in the homes of the people with the old-fashioned hand machine. The general estimate is that a maund, of *phuti* yields 11 *sers* of cleaned cotton and the cleaner's wage (*velawi*) is 8 annas a maund. The cotton seed (*pewa*) is excellent cattle food and sells at from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 1-12-0 a maund. When cleaned cotton sells at Rs. 18 a *pokka* maund (50 standard *sers*), uncleaned cotton can be bought at Rs. 5. Cotton is also grown in the Pachad, where for the sowing of the seed the fields must be flooded not later than the end of May. If there are no floods in May no cotton can be sown, but once the plants are mature they yield cotton for two or three years running. Two kinds are distinguished. One, *khandni*, lasts for two years only, but gives a good yield. The other, *bagar*, does not give so good an yield, but lasts for three years. In the second year the plants do not require water before June or July and they come into flower in August.

Jowar and Bajra.

Jowar is grown in the more thoroughly irrigated fields in the Pachad. *Bajra* requires less water and ripens quicker. *Bajra* grain is considered to be the better of the two in the north of the district, but the reverse is the case in the south. The stalks of *bajra* are thin and yield little nourishment to cattle while the *jowar* stalks grow to 10 feet and higher and are succulent and fattening fodder for cattle and horses. A green *jowar* stalk is the Bilochi's sugarcane. A large proportion of the *jowar* crop is sown as fodder only (*chari*) or becomes so owing to failure of the grain to ripen. In the Pachad the heads are formed by October but ripen slowly, and reaping goes on there from November to January; the heads are first pulled and collected on the threshing floor and then the *chari* is cut, laden on camels, and removed from the field. The stubble is left fairly high and sprouts again after the cold weather rains, when the cattle are let loose to graze on the green blades. The threshing of the grain lasts in the Pachad throughout February and sometimes into March. The chaff of *jowar* (*dhui*) is valuable cattle food while that of *bajra* (*bhulari*) is worthless. In canal-irrigated land *jowar* and *bajra* are sown in May and reaped in October; they are frequently grown in well estates, but do not get a watering from the well if canal water is available. Good crops can be obtained with canal water, but they do not grow quite so high or give so fine an yield as the *jowar* in the better of the Pachad fields. *Jowar* and *bajra* are grown also in the river-flooded land from which the floods retire

earliest, and which would not therefore be moist enough to grow wheat, but they are in such land inferior.

Indigo is matured with canal water alone and gets no help from the well. It is usually sown afresh every year, though it is possible and common to get crops for three years off the same plants by simply watering them from the canal in the second and third years. In the first year it is called *rop*, in the second *mundi* and in the third *trimundi*. In the third year the yield of dye is small and the crop is generally kept for seed. The profits of the indigo crop vary very much. If the canals run low early in the season, the plants are liable to wither, while if the supply of water is excessive the dye is washed out of the plant and blight sets in. The land is prepared during the months of February and March; it receives four ploughings before the seed is sown, and is flooded with water in May and the seed is sown broadcast before the water soaks in. For about a month after sowing it is necessary to irrigate the land every third day, but at the end of this period irrigation every eighth day is sufficient. The crop ripens towards the end of July or the beginning of August. Masonry vats for the manufacture of Indigo are built in sets of three, two large ones with a smaller one in the middle. The plants when cut are tied up in bundles and taken to the larger vats. They are put into these and pressed down with heavy logs of wood. Water is then turned on in sufficient quantity to entirely cover the plant, and when the process of steeping, which generally takes about 24 hours, is complete, the plants are taken out and the liquid left in the vats is churned up, so that the sediment may precipitate. The water is then run off and the sediment transferred to the smaller vat, where it is allowed to settle again. Water is once more drawn off and the dried sediment emerges in the form of a paste and is made up into small balls, in which form it is exported to Multan and other places. The refuse plants which have been steeped are used as manure for wheat. The young shoots are liable to be attacked by caterpillar. The plants are cut close to the roots as soon as the small red flowers begin to appear and are carried in bundles to the vats. The cutting of the plants and manufacture of the dye continues from July 15th to September 15th, or even later. The same field which yields the dye can be made to yield seed also; if this is desired, a shoot is left uncut on a plant here and there. The seed is ready in December, when it is threshed out with bullocks on the threshing floor; it sells at about 5 standard *seers* to the rupee.

Rice is grown in localities where, owing to the inferiority of the soil or inability of the cultivator to sink a well, better crops cannot be grown, and especially in low-lying ground which becomes swampy when canal water is let on to it. Several varieties are grown, of which the chief are locally

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Indigo.

Rice.

Chapter IV. A.
Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Rice.

called *sathra*, *bambli*, *malhir* or *malhin* and *joari*; all are inferior and they are often mixed together on the threshing floor. The seed is sown sometimes broadcast and sometimes in nurseries from which it is afterwards planted out. The latter system is preferred, but it is only feasible if there is a well near from which the nursery can be watered, or if the canals begin to flow fairly early. Sowings in the nurseries, which are heavily manured, begin about 15th April and the young plants are transferred to the field in June. The transplanting is done in the forenoon only, and the men and women employed on it are paid 2 to 3 annas a day. Broadcast sowings are a month or more later than the sowings in the nurseries. Reaping begins in September and continues till the beginning of October. In swampy places rice is often followed by a *tabi* crop of gram or peas, without any additional watering from the canal. The rice grown in the Kalapani Circle in Jampur is of superior quality, and is more carefully cultivated.

33.

Til requires less moisture than wheat, and is grown in *sailab* land which has not been sufficiently soaked by the river flood to bear the latter crop. It is cut before the pods dry, so that the seed may not be scattered by the bursting of the pods, and the stalks are tied up in sheaves on the threshing floor. When the sheaves are dry they are brushed with the hand and the seed falls on the threshing floor and is collected. *Til* is grown to a small extent on canal-irrigated as well as on *sailab* land.

China.

China is a well crop. Part of it is cut for fodder, but the greater part of the small area sown with it is allowed to ripen. The sheaves are threshed by being beaten with the hand against the sides of a deep hole in the threshing floor to the bottom of which the grain falls. The straw is good cattle fodder, and the grain is eaten in the same manner as rice. *Nangni* (elsewhere called *mandwa* and *kodra*) and *kangni* are similar crops. Two crops of *kangni* are obtained in the year, one sown in *Phagan* and ripening in *Jeth*; the other sown in *Bhadron* and ripening in *Katik*.

N a n g n i and
k a n g n i.

Samuka.

Samuka is sown in the alluvial mud in the bed of the Indus when the river begins to contract its limits towards the end of the hot weather. As the mud dries the corn springs up and produces grain in October. The grain, which is small and inferior, is one of those admissible to Hindus on their fast-days. The straw makes good fodder, and if the river does not render the land unculturable in the following year, the *samuka* crop prepares the way for a higher order of crop in that year, *mohri* peas or gram. Wheat is not usually sown in alluvial land till the third year of its existence.

Mash is extensively grown in the southern half of the Rajanpur tahsil in *sailab* land, but not much in other parts of the district. *Moth* and *munj* are also *sailaba* crops.

Sugarcane, chillies and henna (*mehndi*) are valuable crops grown in limited areas near the three towns of Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur and Rajanpur. The cost of labour is said to be prohibitive of the extensive cultivation of cane for the manufacture of sugar, and it is all consumed green. There are two kinds of *mehndi* (*Lawsonia inermis*), one giving a black and the other a red dye. Both are canal-irrigated. The seed is sown in a nursery in April or May, and the young plants are afterwards set out in rows like tea bushes in a tea garden. They begin to yield two years after being planted out and continue to yield for years. The crop is gathered once a year, in September. Twigs and leaves are cut together and dried, but only the leaves contain the dye.

Gardens of mango, orange and lime trees are common in the villages of the canal-irrigated part of the district. The richest are those near the town of Dera Ghazi Khan, which rent at Rs. 20 an acre, and upwards, and which contain fig trees, pomegranates, a species of apple called *suf*, *amaltash* (*Cathartocarpus fistula*) and *phalsi* (*Greecia Asiatica*), as well as mangos, oranges and limes. The *phalsi* is a currant-like bush, yielding a small acid berry about the end of May. The dried pulp of the long pods of the *amaltash* is used in medicine. Vegetables, both English and Indian, are also grown in these gardens, and sweet-smelling flowers of various sorts which are sold to the Hindus for use in their worship.

The *titak* may be mentioned here as being the solitary vegetable of the Pachad. It is a small water melon cultivated in scattered patches in the fields there. It is not much valued as a fruit, but the seeds are dried, and are eaten parched. To separate off the seeds the melons are broken over a sieve through which the juicy pulp is passed.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.

Mash, munj and
moth.
Cane, henna and
chillies.

Gardens and garden
produce.

Titak.

Chapter IV. A.
Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Average yield.

The out-turn of the more important crops as assumed at the Revision of Settlement is shown in the following table:—

Name of crop.	Produce.	DEFA GHAZI KHAN.		SANGHER.		JAMRUR.		RAJANPUR.	
		High-est.	Lowest.	High-est.	Lowest.	High-est.	Lowest.	High-est.	Lowest.
RAJUR.		M. S.	M. S.	M. S.	M. S.	M. S.	M. S.	M. S.	M. S.
	Wheat { Chahi-nah-ri.	10 0	9 0	10 0	10 0	10 0	10 0	10 0	8 0
	{ Sallab ...	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0
	{ Redkohl ...	6 0	6 0	7 0	7 0	7 0	7 0	6 0	6 0
	Green ...	5 0	3 20	3 30	3 30	5 0	3 20	3 30	3 30
	Poppy and opium (estimated in cash).	Rs. 40	Rs. 40	Rs. 50	Rs. 50
	Turnips (estimated in cash).	Rs. 10	Rs. 10	Rs. 15	Rs. 10
	Barley ...	10 0	10 0	5 0	7 0	10 20	6 20	9 0	7 0
	Tara Mira ...	2 20	2 20	2 20	2 20	3 20	2 20	3 20	2 20
	Peas ...	4 0	1 0	3 0	3 0	6 0	1 0	4 0	4 0
Adas ...	3 0	3 0	3 30	3 30	5 0	3 0	2 20	2 20	
Sarsaaf ...	3 0	2 20	2 20	2 20	3 0	1 30	2 20	2 20	
KANGUR.	Indigo (estimated in cash).	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	Rs. 16
	Sucarcane (estimated in cash).	Rs. 55	Rs. 55
	Cotton { Chahi-nah-ri.	5 0	4 20	5 0	5 0	4 20	4 20
	{ Nahi ...	3 5	3 5	1 20	1 20	3 5	3 5	2 20	2 20
	{ Roikohl ...	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 0
	Bajra ...	5 0	4 20	5 20	2 20	5 20	2 20
	Rice ...	10 0	10 0	6 0	6 0	7 20	7 20	7 20	3 20
	Tobacco ...	15 0	12 20	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	15 0	8 30	12 20	10 0
	Til seed ...	2 20	2 20	1 20	1 20	2 20	2 20	15 0	15 0
	Suwak	2 0	2 0	2 20	2 20	3 0	2 20
	Mung ...	3 0	3 0	2 20	2 20	3 0	2 0
	Jowar ...	3 0	4 20	1 20	1 20	3 20	2 20	3 0	3 0
	Moh ...	3 0	3 0	2 20	2 20	3 20	2 20	7 20	2 20
	Indian corn ...	10 0	10 0	2 20	2 20	3 0	3 0
China and Kangra ...	7 20	7 20	7 20	7 20	10 0	10 0	
Vegetables (estimated in cash).	Rs. 20	Rs. 5	Rs. 15	Rs. 15	Rs. 25	Rs. 15	...	7 20	
Kamuka ...	7 20	7 20	0 0	3 0	2 20	2 20	7 20	7 20	

These are estimates of the yield of an average field in an average year, and are much exceeded in superior land and in good years. An yield of 600 sers per acre for instance is not uncommon for *jowar* in the Pachad, and canal-irrigated rice yields up to 800 sers per acre.

Production and consumption of food-grains.

Grain.	Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.	Total.
Wheat ...	753,661	662,766	1,416,426
Inferior grains ...	1,322,774	1,045,540	2,368,314
Pulses ...	288,065	132,712	421,317
Total ...	2,406,043	1,841,018	4,246,661

The total consumption of food-grains by the population of the district as estimated in 1878 for the purposes of the

Famine Report is shown in the margin in maunds.

The figures are based upon an estimated population of 308,840 souls. On the other hand, the average consumption per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough

estimate of the total production, exports, and imports of food grains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 152, Famine Report) that some three lakhs of maunds of food-grains were annually imported, and three-and-a-half lakhs exported; *jowar*, wheat and mustard seed being sent down the Indus to Sind, while wheat and gram were imported from towns higher up the Indus. The population has now considerably increased, but cultivation has largely developed and there is still a large annual surplus of grain for export. In the famine year of 1896-97, the people of the district whose land was secured by the inundation Canals and wells and who, except in parts of the Pachad, suffered little from the drought, were great gainers by the high prices which prevailed. It is said that there never has been a famine in the district.

The following is a calendar of the agricultural operations of the year.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.Production and
consumption of
food-grains.Agricultural cal-
endar.

January.—Cotton picking in progress. Turnips being dug. *Jowar* reaping finished in the Pachad, threshing continues. Wheat gets a top dressing of indigo refuse in the *chahi-nahri* tract. Indigo seed threshed out. Tobacco and poppy nurseries sown.

February.—*Assu* ripens in the Pachad, and is cut during the month. Much green wheat is cut for fodder; also barley on *chahi* and *chahi-nahri* land. *Jowar* threshing finished, and grain generally divided in the Pachad. Tobacco and chilli nurseries sown.

March.—Turnips exhausted; cutting of green wheat for fodder continues. Wheat ripens towards the end of the month, and reaping commences. Opium collected.

April.—Reaping continues and is finished. Gram is harvested. Tobacco is planted out. Rice nurseries are sown. *Zira* and poppy capsules harvested.

May.—Tobacco planting continues. *Kangni* and *china* and *kodra* (or *mandwa*) crops are well advanced. *Phalsi* berries ripen towards end of month. Sowing of rice nurseries continues. Indigo is sown, and the second and third year's stumps are watered as soon as the canals begin to flow. *Jowar* sowing commences in canal-irrigated land, and the crop begins to come up.

June.—*Filu* berries ripen. Cotton sowings begin in canal-irrigated land. Rice is planted out. Dates ripen in the second fortnight and the trees are laden with the golden and crimson fruit.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.
Agricultural cal-
endar.

- July.—*Jowar* on canal-irrigated land fairly high. Sow-
ings commence in the Pachad. Dates are dried.
Indigo cutting and manufacture commences
towards the end of the month.
- August.—Indigo is cut and dye extracted. Rice comes
into ear on canal-irrigated land towards the
end of the month. *Jowar* in the same class of
land reaches its full height. On Pachad land
the water having sunk into the lands the
soil is ploughed and *jowar* is sown. Cotton
comes into flower towards the end of the month
on canal lands.
- September.—Rice and *lajra* reaped (by women) on canal-
irrigated land in the latter half of the month.
Indigo cutting and steeping concluded. *Assam*
sown in the Pachad. Turnip sowings also
begin.
- October.—*Jowar* heads in flower in the Pachad; ripe and
being reaped on the canals. Rice in flower
in the Kalapani Circle. Cotton picking goes on
merrily on canal and well lands. Indigo seed
ripens. Wheat sowings begin. Turnip sow-
ings continue and the plants come up.
Myrtle (*mehandi*) cut, dried in the sun, and
piled on the threshing floor.
- November.—*Jowar* reaped in the Pachad. Cotton picking
still going on. *Til* harvested towards the end,
also *mung* and *china*. Wheat sowings con-
tinue and the young crop comes up. Turnips
progress.
- December.—Reaping of *jowar* continues in the Pachad
along with threshing, all the month. Cotton
picking also continues. Repairs are done to the
laths round the Pachad fields.

Table No. XVII shows the area of waste land which is
under the management of the Forest Department. The whole
of the *rokh*s are technically classed as "unreserved" forests.
The following note on the forests of the district has been furnished
by Mr. Rossiter of the Forest Department.

Arboriculture and
forests.
Rekh—1,000 acres

This forest is on the right bank of the Indus, about 42
miles north-east of Rajanpur and east of the Dera Ghazi Khan-
Rajanpur road. It is subject to inundation from the river, and
is leased to grazing.

Prosopis and *tamarix*, of which there are a fair sprinkling,
are the principal trees to be met with, but there is very little
demand for them, and the annual revenue from all sources
seldom exceeds Rs. 120.

There are two blocks to this forest, one on either side of Fazilpur town. The eastern block is somewhat better wooded than the one lying to the west, though neither of them can be said to be very dense. In 1886-87 a portion of the forest was burnt, and it is now closed to browsers, though open to kine.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture.
Arboriculture.
and Live-stock.Fazilpur—5,000
acres.

About six miles north-east of Rajanpur. Northern portion very poor; better to the south, where patches of fairly dense *Prosopis* are to be met with. Has suffered from fire, and is used chiefly as a grazing ground. Annual average revenue amounts to about Rs. 550.

Kotla Isan—7,608
acres.

On right bank of Indus and about 8 miles south-east of Rajanpur. Four thousand acres were made over to the Forest Department in 1874, and the balance in 1895. Has suffered considerably from fire, and is subject to inundation from the river. No demand for fuel.

Daman—9,969
acres.

Almost adjoining each other, and from 1 to 4 miles south of the Murghai village. Both areas are frequently flooded, and fires often occur. *Prosopis* grows well in Kotla Hasan Jamra, which is decidedly better wooded than Murghai. Cattle (kine only) are permitted to graze on payment.

Kotla Hasan
Jamra—3,168 acres.
Murghai—800 acres.

Both these *rakhs* were made over to the Forest Department in 1895. The former has a growth of *bhan* (poplar), which has been severely lopped, and the latter some inferior *tamaris*. They are open to grazing, and both receive flood water.

Nurpur Gharbi—
332 acres, and
Nnsir—503 acres.

A *bhan* (poplar) forest south of Murghai and not far from right bank of Indus. Is open to grazing, and is often flooded.

Shahgarh—233
acres.

Adjoining *rakh* Kotla Isan, and about 6 miles north-east of Rajanpur. North fairly well wooded. Poor towards south.

Shikarpur—3,608
acres.

About 7 miles west of the town of Jampur. Eastern portion sandy and poor. Growth better towards west. Cattle of all descriptions are allowed to graze on payment.

Azmatwala—4,791
acres.

Grass is generally plentiful in the cold weather along the banks of the Indus in the broad belt of land subject to inundation from the river, and cows and cow buffaloes are kept in large numbers, especially in the Rajanpur tahsil, where they have doubled in the course of the last 20 years. The Biloch tribesmen make it a point of honour not to sell milk and butter, which they keep for themselves and their guests, but other tribes derive a considerable income from the sale of these articles. In addition to the riverside pastures, the land at the foot of the Sulaman hills yields several excellent varieties of grass after even a very slight rainfall, and it affords grazing at the time of year when the river land cannot be resorted to.

Cattle.

Chapter IV. A.

**Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.**
Sheep and goats.
Camels.

Sheep and goats are also very numerous, and thrive on the herbs and bushes with which the extensive waste land of the district is studded. Large quantities of wool are exported, yielding Rs. 20 or Rs. 25 per maund to stock-owners. The *dicamba*, or fat-tailed variety of sheep, sells for good prices.

Camels are bred in the district and browse on the *jal* trees, which are abundant in the Pachad. They are very necessary for agricultural purposes, carrying water for the field workers long distances in the arid Pachad tract, where wells are few and far between, and conveying grain and *chari* from the fields to the villages. Most of the carrying trade of the district also falls to the owners of camels. Young animals are sold at prices ranging from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50, and full grown animals are occasionally required at much higher prices by Government for frontier expeditions.

In the following tables are given the numbers of stock as ascertained at Regular Settlement, and at the recent Revision of Settlement, with an estimate of the annual income to the owners:—

	Bullocks.	Cows.	She buffaloes.	Horses and ponies.	Sheep and goats.	Camels.	Donkeys.
At Regular Settlement	93,535	66,080	18,058	4,047	161,509	5,436	7,914
New	100,296	93,811	23,947	20,039	249,781	10,001	15,939

Estimate of annual income from stock.

Sale of milk and gha.	Sale of wool and goats' hair.	SALE OF				Total.
		Cows and buffaloes.	Sheep and goats.	Horses and ponies.	Camels.	
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
3,06,050	55,790	50,640	39,303	31,969	19,750	5,86,472

There is a great deal of the speculative about this estimate, but it is believed to be a moderate one. The whole of the income does not accrue to the owners of land, but most of it does, except in the Rajanpur tahsil, where the agricultural are distinct from the pastoral tribes. The increase in the number of cows in that tahsil, coupled with a decrease in the number of bullocks, suggests the abandonment of agriculture for cattle breeding, and if the Kutb and Kadra Circles continue to work as badly as they have worked in the past, there may be a tendency in this direction. The increase in the number of bullocks in the district is to some extent a measure of the increase of cultivation. They are required not only for ploughing and to

work the wells, but also for the construction of embankments round fields and across torrents and distributaries in the Pachad. Strong animals are required for this purpose, and a considerable number are imported from the Baghmari country in Bilochistan. The bullocks bred at Dajal in the Jampur tahsil and in the Mazari country in the south of Rajanpur are also famous.

The Biloch mares of this district are famous. The mares are noted for endurance, and some are very handsome. Biloch mares may be purchased for about Rs. 200 to Rs. 300. A really fine Biloch mare is a valuable animal. At the Horse Fair in March 1897, a mare bred by the Drishak chief was purchased by a native gentleman of the Jaipur State for Rs. 2,000. The Biloch never rides horses, but only mares. Before the Government breeding system came into operation in this district the Bilochis used to kill colts as soon as foaled on account of their dislike for riding horses, but since horses can fetch very high prices at annual fairs and are generally purchased by regimental officers, besides getting large prizes at exhibitions, the Bilochis have learned to value them, and take great care in breeding them. The practice of killing colts, however, still prevails to some extent among the Bozdars. The following are the local names of the best kind of Biloch mares:—1, Shiui; 2, Vaini; 3, Lakhi; 4, Karni; 5, Chiri.

Very good donkeys are found in the district, especially in the hills. The best are owned by the Bozdars, an independent Biloch tribe residing on the borders of the Saugarh tahsil. Two of these donkeys have been purchased at different times as stallions for the Horse Breeding Department. They are smaller than Arab donkeys, but they are compact and very hardy. Wild donkeys were to be found in this district, below Rajanpur, towards Sabzilkot and Bhandowali, but are now extinct. The Bilochis considered a wild donkey very good eating.

The Government stallions have now been in this district for the last 25 years. The mares in this district used formerly to be covered by country horses kept by a low class of Muhammadaus called *mirasis* or *domes*, whose profession was to keep stallions for breeding, and this is still the case in the Bozdar hills. The usual fee for covering a mare was Rs. 2. Since the Government stallions have been sent here the system of getting mares covered by private stallions has, in a great measure, given way, and now, as a rule, only those mares are covered by country stallions that are unfit for branding, and whose owners do not like to have them covered by donkeys.

There are now in this district 18 horse and 8 donkey stallions supplied by the Horse Breeding Department, 3 District Board horses, and 3 Arab stallions, originally purchased from the District Funds, which have been made over to the Nawab of Rojhan, and the Drishak and Leghari Chiefs, respectively, on condition that they keep them for breeding purposes only.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture.
Arboriculture.
and Live-stock.
Camels.

Horses and horse
and mule-breeding
operations.

Chapter IV. A.

Below is given a list showing the stands in the district and the number of stallions at each stand :—

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.

Horses and horse
and mule breeding
operations.

Stand.	Government horses	Donkeys.	District Board stallions.
Sangarh	1	2	...
Shadan Lund	1
Dera Ghazi Khan	1	3	3
Choti Zeria	1
Jampur	1
Tibbi Lund	1	1	...
Harrand	1
Rajaupur	1
Rojhan	1
Total	18	8	...

Of the 18 Government horse stallions above mentioned, there are 5 Thorough-bred English, 1 Stud bred, 1 Hackney, 3 Walers and 8 Arabs. Of the District Board stallions 2 are Arabs and 1 is a Country-bred.

Names of Stallion Stands.	No. of branded mares.
Dera Ghazi Khan	262
Shadan Lund	81
Sangarh	22
Choti	452
Jampur	64
Tibbi Lund	165
Harrand	182
Rajaupur	41
Rojhan	158
Total	1,472

Of the donkey stallions one is a "Punjabi," two are Italian, one is a Persian, two are Arabs and two are from the Bozdar hills.

YEAR.	NO. OF MARES COVERED.		PRODUCE.	
	By horses.	By donkeys.	By horses.	By donkeys.
1882	724	176	211	47
1883	676	215	222	59
1884	819	378	302	51
1885	723	281	262	55
1886	502	276	175	35
1887	439	331	168	33
1888	538	371	174	48
1889	551	376	207	63
1890	612	455	207	59
1891	665	376	182	51
1892	660	341	159	44
1893	653	370	258	71
1894	606	351	331	42
1895	1,018	472	320	62
1896	933	421
1897	505	265

tables in the margin show the branded mares of the district and the number of mares covered by horses and donkeys during the last fifteen years, with produce of each year.

In 1882, there were 1,421 branded mares in the district; now, as will appear from the table in the margin, there are 1,472. This would appear to be a very small increase for so many years, but a reason for it is to be found in the fact that, in order to popularize Government stallions, for some years after their first introduction into the district mares of any size even down to below 13-3 were branded, whereas very few below 14-2 are branded now.

The average produce of the horse stallions for the last 14 years (1882 to 1895 inclusive) has been 232, and that of the donkey stallions for the same period, 49.

An annual horse fair was instituted in the district in 1872. It was first held at the same time as the Sakhi Sarwar fair, but it has grown by degrees into independence. In 1872 Rs. 820 were distributed in prizes, and the amount of the prizes given was gradually increased till it reached Rs. 2,000 in 1878. It has since been reduced to Rs. 1,800. Two silver medals are also presented each year to the two owners (being *bona fide* breeders) exhibiting the best collection of branded mares and brood stock by Government stallions. The number of horses shown each year for the last seven years, with value of prizes, is given below:—

Year.	No. of horses shown.	Value of prizes.	Year.	No. of horses shown.	Value of prizes.
1891	563	Rs. 2,000	1895	919	Rs. 1,800
1892	490	1,900	1896	723	1,800
1893	431	1,830	1897	589	1,800
1894	637	1,700			

The average numbers of the different classes of animals which received prizes at the annual fairs for the last seven years were—

Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Class IV.	Class V.	Class VI.	Class VII.	Class VIII.	Class IX.
27.2	15.4	14	17.1	16.5	21.8	23.7	4.1	4

The fair was transferred to Pir Adil, which is nine miles from Dera Ghazi Khan, in 1875, as officers found it inconvenient to travel 31 miles to Sakhi Sarwar to attend the fair. In 1878 the fair was transferred to a place called Sharif Shah, about two miles from Dera Ghazi Khan, where a plot of land has been purchased on which the fair is annually held. A pavilion has been built and a well sunk with troughs for watering horses, and a number of trees have been planted. The fair is very popular, and Biloch races are always held after it.

There is a very brisk trade in yearlings and two-year-olds in the district. They are carried off by down-country traders,

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture,
and Live-stock.

Horses and horse
and mule breeding
operations.

Chapter IV. B.

Occupations,
Industries, and
Commerce.Horses and horse
and mule breeding
operations.

Year.	Number of colts gilt.	Number of re- mounts sold.	Number of colts taken out of the district.
191	249	38	Practically all colts that are not unsound are taken out of the district by dealers.
192	251	76	
193	222	42	
194	234	51	
195	263	43	
196	300	58	
197	305	35	

A dispensary for the treatment of animals is maintained and is in charge of the Salutri. It is well known and most popular throughout the district, as is indicated by the following figures showing the number of animals treated during the last two years:—

Year.	Horses.	Mules.	Donkeys.	Cattle.	Total.
1894	1,202	20	42	301	1,566
1897	1,184	51	48	555	1,841

Mule-breeding is not popular in the district, and owners only allow practically worthless mares to be covered by donkey stallions. Formerly, before the purchase of District Board stallions, mares that the Civil Veterinary Department considered too small to brand were served by donkey stallions, but since the District Board commenced keeping Arab pony stallions whose services may always be obtained without any regard as to size of mare, owners are less inclined to allow their mares to be covered by donkeys.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES,
AND COMMERCE.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males as returned at the Census of 1891. These include males of all ages. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found in Table No. XVII of the Occupations of the people.

Chapter IV. B. Census Report of 1891. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural.

Occupations,
Industries, and
Commerce.
Occupations of the
people.

Agricultural	504,765
Non-agricultural	99,295
			Total	...	404,031

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district :—

Biloch wool
weaving.

"In the border hills in this district there is an interesting domestic industry of woollen weaving, the products of which resemble the Arab or Semitic type of woven fabrics more than any other work found in India. The coarse and every-day forms of this pastoral craft are rough goats' hair ropes, the rude cloths on which grain is winnowed and cleaned, corn sacks, camel-bags and the like, which are used throughout this district and in the Derajat Division generally.

"More highly finished forms are camel trappings, saddle bags, *shatranjis* or rugs, and similar articles woven by Biloch women in a somewhat harsh, worsted-like yarn, dyed in a few sober colours. The patterns are as simple as the material, but they are always good, and there is a quality of tone and colour in the stuff which more costly fabrics seldom possess.

"In addition to the woven pattern, saddle-bags are ornamented with tassels in which white cowries are strung, and with rosettes skilfully and ingeniously worked in floss silk of different colours, with *pholis* (small oblong shells like seeds) sewn on the borders. The rugs have great wearing qualities, as warp and weft are both in hard wool; but being often crookedly woven, they do not always lie flat. The trade in Turkistan rugs and in some Algerian fabrics of a similar kind is supplied by a merely domestic industry, which finds employment for many hands. There are no signs that the Biloch weaving will grow to anything more than it is at present,—a household occupation for merely local use. The work is, however, interesting as an example of the instinctive "rightness" and propriety of design and colour which seem to be invariable attributes of pastoral industries. It is curious that rugs almost identical in pattern and fabric, and similarly decorated with shells, are made in the Balkans and sometimes sent to Paris for sale. The Banjars of the Deccan weave a fabric identical in pattern with the Biloch work, for women's petticoats and the peaks of bullock-saddles.

Jampur lacquer
wood-turning.

"There are but few industries excepting of a distinctly domestic kind in this district. The turned and lacquered wood-work of Jampur has some reputation in the district, and specimens were sent to the Punjab Exhibition of 1882. The articles made are bed legs, toys, &c. The colours are bright, but there is no special character in the work."

Course and nature
of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district, but Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. The exports and imports of food-grains has already been noticed in Section A of this chapter.

The principal places for shipment of produce (*ghâts*) are Dera Ghazi Khan and Mithankot. A country boat takes four days to go from Mithankot to Sakkar in the summer and a week in the cold weather, and the freight charged is one rupee for 10 maunds of cleaned cotton or for 13 maunds of grain. It is said that before the rates were lowered by the competition of the railway four times as much used to be charged. From Sakkar onward to Karachi the railway is made use of for the carriage of grain exported from the district. The boats

veyage to Multan as well as to Sakkar, and the principal cargoes they bring back are of sugar from the former place and of cloth and iron from the latter. A description of the boats used will be found in Section C of this chapter.

Formerly a considerable transit trade between Khorasan and India used to traverse this district, the Chachar and Sakhi Sarwar passes being frequently traversed by caravans. The Mangrota or Sangarh Pass was also used, but never to a very great extent. The easiest pass was the Chachar, by which Harrand is only some twenty-two marches distant from Kandahar. By this pass fruits and woollen goods used to come from Kabul in exchange for sugar and cotton cloth. In 1844, however, the Biloches commenced a system of plundering along this route, which after that year was practically deserted. In former days they used to make a good profit by escorting caravans. The Gurehani *tumandar* told Sir F. Fryer that he himself had received Rs. 700 for escorting one caravan. When the district of Dajal-Harrand belonged to the Brahois, and also when it was subject to Bhawal Khan, a garrison was maintained at Barkhan, which is two stages to the south-west of Fort Munro in the country now administered by the Governor-General's agent at Quetta.

Barkhan was abandoned by the Sikhs. After the district was annexed by the British, the passes were again opened for trade, which had considerably developed by the time posts were established for its registration. These posts were originally four in number. At Mangrota the trade by three passes, Sangarh, Mahoi, and Kauwan, was registered. At Sakhi Sarwar the trade, *viâ* the Kharr Pass, was noted. At Harrand the traffic by the Chachar Pass was recorded, and at Rojhan that with the Marri and Bagti countries, *viâ* the Siyah-Af Pass. The value of the trade recorded in 1895-96 was as follows:—

1895-96.

Posts.	Imports.	Exports.
Mangrota	44,814	38,277
Sakhi Sarwar	75,105	245,197
Harrand	70,802	72,934
Rojhan	12,966	29,342
Total	2,03,717	3,85,750

The establishment of the Bilochistan Agency and the consequent abolition of *badraga* and other fees which had previously been levied from caravans by Biloch Chiefs and Pathan

Chapter IV. B

Occupations,
Industries, and
Commerce.

Frontier Trade.

Chapter IV. B.
Occupations,
Industries, and
Commerce.
Frontier Trade.

Maliks resulted in a great development of all branches of their trade, as the following figures for certain selected years will show:—

Years.		Imports.	Exports.
1881-82	...	63,000	1,36,000
1885-86	...	70,680	2,54,600
1886-87	...	2,63,260	4,95,050
1888-89	...	1,96,600	3,55,060

The first great increase occurred in the year 1885-86, and was the result of the Zhob Valley Expedition. In 1886-87 the figures are swollen by the value of materials and tools for the work on the Sind-Pishin Road which were all sent by the Kharr Pass, for the portion of the road lying west of it as well as for the portion within the district. The construction of this high-road across the Suleimans gave a great impetus to trade, especially the import of fruit by Powindas, and from 1888-89 onwards the value of the trade did not vary much from the amounts recorded in that year and in 1895-96. The four trade posts were abolished at the end of 1896, on the ground that the trade, great part of which was with British Bilochistan, could not be considered to be foreign trade. In their place a post was opened at Kharr for the trade arriving by that pass only which had previously been registered at Sakhi Sarwar. Kharr is a much more suitable place, as no traders can avoid the post there, whereas the village of Sakhi Sarwar is some way off the road, and is not necessarily visited by traders with their wares. The total value of the import and export trade by the Kharr Pass was in 1895-96 Rs. 3,20,302 and in 1896-97 Rs. 2,44,117. The latter year was a famine year in the Punjab, and this probably accounts for the falling off of the value of the trade, though the Amir's taxation and a preference by traders for the Gomal route consequent on the occupation of Wana have also been assigned as reasons.

Trade of the
different towns; ex-
ports and imports.

The chief trading town of the district is now Dera Ghazi Khan. Indigo, opium, dates, wheat, cotton, barley, millet, *ghi* and hides are exported by river and also by rail. Cotton is also exported to Dera Ismail Khan, Bannu, Rawalpindi and Amritsar. The value of the opium exported averages Rs. 24,000 to Rs. 25,000 per annum, that of the indigo exported more than a lakh of rupees. Grain to the value of about six lakhs of rupees is exported annually; also brass vessels from Dera Ghazi Khan, wooden toys from Jampur, and cloth for coverlets and cotton *daris* from Dajal. The Dajal potters are famous, and do a good amount of business. The principal imports into the district are sugar, fruits

from Kabul; gram, which is little grown in the district, from Multan and Ferozepore; woollen goods, English piece-goods and broadcloths, metals, salt, and spices. Sugar is imported, mostly raw, to the value of some Rs. 80,000 per annum. Bones are collected by *thangis* and stacked at places along the river bank, whence they are removed in boats to be sold for purposes of manure.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications
Frontier Trade.SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES
AND COMMUNICATIONS.

The village prices of the chief agricultural staples used for the conversion of produce estimates into money at the Revision of Settlement, 1893-97, are shown in the margin. They are based upon the average prices of the thirty-four years ending with 1895. Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rents in Table No. XXI.

Staples.	Sers per rupee.
Wheat	24 to 27
Jowar	32 to 35
Bajra	30 to 32
Unhusked rice, common	40 to 45
Unhusked rice, Hurrani	28
Asau	24 to 30
Indigo	14 chitank-
Unghined cotton	104 to 12 sers.
Tobacco	84 to 10 sers.
Opium	10 tolas.

Prices, wages, rent-rates, interest, produce estimates into money at the Revision of Settlement, 1893-97, are shown in the margin. They are based upon the average prices of the thirty-four years ending with

1895. Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rents in Table No. XXI.

The artisans and menials employed by agriculturists are remunerated with a share of the produce of the fields. A common labourer can command three to four or even five annas a day for his work when harvesting is not in progress. At harvest time five to six annas a day is a common wage, and for the heavy work of silt clearance along the canals, as much as six or even eight annas have to be paid. Village carpenters, masons and blacksmiths earn from 8 to 12 annas a day and more skilled ones as high as a rupee. Under the Sikhs a common labourer was paid one-and-a-half annas a day, and a carpenter five annas to six annas. Blacksmiths were paid by the piece. Labourers employed on canal clearance were paid Rs. 3 per mensem, half in cash and half in kind. Much of the labour on Government work is done by the Powindas who visit the district during the cold weather.

Wages of labour.

In Table No. XXXII are given the returns of sales and mortgages for the last ten years. General averages struck for the district would not afford any information of the value of land, as its kind and quality varies so much in the different parts of the district. It has been mentioned in Chapter III, Section C, in which the subject of transfers of land is discussed, that the price averages about Rs. 50 per acre of cultivated land in the better parts of the district and Rs. 20 in the poorer parts, and considerably exceeds Rs. 100 in the neighbourhood of the city of Dera Ghazi Khan. At Revision of

Chapter IV, C. Settlement (1893-97), the average prices per acre of cultivated land were found to be as under in the various Assessment Circles:—

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.
Wages of labour.

Tahsil.	Assessment Circle.	Price in Rupees.
Sangarh	Pachad	70
	Chabi Nahri	38
	Sindh	34
Dera Ghazi Khan	Chabi Nahri	46
	Danda	24
	Pachad	41
Jampur	Pachad	28
	Kalapani	26
	Sindh	43
Rajanpur	Sailab	28
	Pachad	7
	Kutb	42
	Kadra	38
	Gharkab	43

Local measure.

The scale in use in the district for measuring grain is as follows:—

4 <i>chotas</i>	= 1 <i>paus</i> .	4 <i>paus</i>	= 1 <i>chauth</i> .
4 <i>paus</i>	= 1 <i>paropi</i> .	4 <i>chauths</i>	= 1 <i>bhora</i> .
4 <i>paropis</i>	= 1 <i>topa</i> .	4 <i>bhoras</i>	= 1 <i>pat</i> .
4 <i>topas</i>	= 1 <i>pat</i> .		

It must be remembered that the *paropi* is a measure and not a weight; and that the weight of its contents will vary with different kinds of grain; moreover the size of the *paropi* differs in different parts of the district. The following table was made out by Sir F. Fryer to show the weight of a measure of wheat in the four tahsils:—

LOCAL DENOMINATION.	WEIGHT IN DISTRICT SEERS OF 100 TOLAS.	APPROXIMATE WEIGHT IN STANDARD SEERS OF 80 TOLAS.			
		Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil.	Jampur tahsil.	Rajanpur tahsil.	Sangarh tahsil.
Chotai	2½ chk.	1½ chk.	1½ chk.	1½ chk.	1 chitak.
Paus	6 "	6½ "	6½ "	5½ "	4 "
Paropi	1½ ser.	1 s. 8 chk.	1 s. 3 chk.	1 s. 6½ chk.	1 ser.
Topa	5 "	6 s. 4 "	6 s. 4 "	5 s. 10 "	4 "
Pat	20 "	25 sers.	25 sers.	22 s. 1 "	16 "
Chauth	2 mds.	2½ mds.	2½ mds.	2½ mds.	1 md. 2½ s.
Bhora	8 "	10 "	10 "	9 "	6 " 16 s.
Pat	32 "	40 "	40 "	36 "	25 " 24 s.

Local weight.

Under the Sikhs the *ser* was equal to 96 rupees weight Nanak Shahi. At first the *ser* which it was attempted to introduce was the standard *ser* of 80 *folas*, but in 1870 a value

of 130 *tolas* to the *ser* was adopted, and at this present time, when a *ser* weight is used, it is this district *ser* of 100 *tolas*. The use of this weight throughout the district and even in Government estates such as the Dhundi makes it very perplexing work to deal with statistics regarding weight. To get the number of standard *ser*s equivalent to a certain number of local *ser*s the latter has to be increased 25 per cent., e.g., 8 local *ser*s are equivalent to 10 standard *ser*s of 80 *tolas* each.

The local yard or *gaz* is equivalent to 45 inches (English).

The measures adopted at the Regular Settlement were as follows:—

1 karram	...	=		5 lineal feet.
3 karrams	...	=	1 kan	= 15 do.
1 kan square	...	=	1 marla	= 225 square feet.
20 marlas	..	=	1 kanal	= 4,500 do.
8 kanals	..	=	1 ghuma	= 36,000 do.

Proportion of *ghuma* to acre 1 to 1.21, and of *kanals* to acre 9.65 to 1. This gave clumsy results, and when re-measurement of the district was decided on at the recent Revision of Settlement the local measure which is used, as, for instance, when plots of green wheat are sold and bought for fodder purposes, and which gives a *ghuma* exactly equal to an acre, was adopted. It is as under—

1 karram	...	=		5.50 lineal feet.
3 karrams	...	=	1 kan	= 16.50 do.
1 kan square	...	=	1 marla	= 272.25 square feet.
20 marlas	...	=	1 kanal	= 5,445.00 do.
8 kanals	...	=	1 ghuma	= 43,560.00 do. of one acre.

The Indus, which is navigable for country boats and more precariously for steamers, fronts the district for a length of 239 miles, and there are 901 miles of unmetalled roads and 25 miles of metalled roads in the district according to the Punjab Administration Report.

Table No. XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowance. Table No. XIX shows the area taken up by Government for communication in the district.

The Indus Steam Flotilla began navigating the Indus in 1879, but it was soon found that owing to the innumerable sand banks in the river regular traffic could not be sustained. The Chenab steamer was kept on for some time after the Flotilla discontinued its operations, and it was mentioned in the last edition of this work (1883-84) that she occasionally ran from Dera Ismail Khan to Sukkar and back and anchored at places convenient at the time. The names of ferries and

Chapter IV. C.

Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.

Local weight.

Measures of length
and area.

Communications.

Rivers.

Chapter IV, C. distances between them are shown in the table below, following the downward course of the river:—

Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.
Rivers.

List showing Ferries of the Dera Ghazi Khan District.

No.	Names of Ferries.	Distance from preceding one in miles.	REMARKS.
1	Marjhangi...	...	Tahsil Sangarh. This ferry has recently been established, vide Punjab Government Notification No. 200, dated 19th February 1897.
2	Ghali ...	12	
3	Shahwala ...	10	
4	Sajan Langa ...	4	
5	Pirwala ...	8	
6	Bet Sawal...	9	Tahsil Dera Ghazi Khan
7	Anokhar ...	12	
8	Koreshi ...	12	
9	Kinjhar ...	11	
10	Dhaniwala ...	7	
11	Shera ...	5	
12	Kundrala	
13	Ratta Leghari ...	10	
14	Sarri Miani ...	3	
15	Rekh ...	5	
16	Mehrewala ...	10	Probably 5 miles. Tahsil Jampur.
17	Kotla Sher Mahmood ...	6	
18	Andrua ...	8	Tahsil Rajanpur.
19	Nausbera ...	8	
20	Norpur ...	10	
21	Kahalwala ...	3	
22	Yang ...	8	
23	Mithankot ...	13	
24	Bangala ...	8	
25	Bhagsar ...	10	
26	Abadpur ...	6	
27	Mad Mauthar ...	5	
28	Rojhan ...	8	
29	Kin ...	12	
30	Shahwali ...	10	

The Koreshi ferry is the one connecting the city of Dera Ghazi Khan with Ghazi Ghat railway station. A steamer plies on it in the hot weather, but as it is liable to go aground on occasion the mails are carried across in a small sailing boat or rowing boat which gets over the distance quicker. In the cold weather a bridge-of-boats takes the place of the ferry.

Country boats.

Mr. Molloy of the Canal Department has kindly contributed the following account of the boats used on the Indus:—

"There are not many varieties of boats on the Indus, and these are unchanged in type from the most remote times; except a class of *dhandas* of from ten to twenty tons capacity which have been palpably fashioned after the shape used for the boat bridges. While the line of both stem and stern in profile

Chapter IV. C.

Prices, Weights
and Measures and
Communications.

Roads.

impassable. The section north of the station of Dera Ghazi Khan is especially bad. In the hot weather it is swamped by canal water for about ten miles north of the station, and further on it is flooded by the Sangarh torrent.

- (3) The Sind-Peshin road, which was completed in 1887, runs nearly due west from the station of Dera Ghazi Khan for 30 miles to Sakhi Sarwar over the plains, and thence onwards through the hills crossing the range by the Kharr Pass, immediately below the station of Fort Munro. It is a fine piece of engineering work carried along the face of perpendicular cliffs, but is expensive to maintain owing to landslips and boulders falling upon it in time of rain. When the road is in good order it is possible to drive all the way from Dera Ghazi Khan to Kharr.

There is no railway in the district, and up till 1886 the nearest railway station was Multan, 40 miles distant. In that year the railway was brought to Ghazi Ghât on the left bank of the Indus, 9 miles from the city of Dera Ghazi Khan. The position of the bridge-of-boats which connects the city with the railway station has to be selected every year with reference to the breadth of the river channel, and the road to it therefore alters from year to year. It is maintained by the Public Works Department and is generally a good driving road. The corresponding roads which connect the ferries in the northern part of the district with the Sind-Sagar Railway on the one hand and the villages of the Sangarh and Dera tahsils on the other are very bad from the nature of the land they pass through. It is due to the difficulty of lateral communication that the Indus is still used at all as a highway for the carriage of grain and other produce. There are also unmetalled roads in every direction connecting the different towns and villages. The more important are—

- (1) From Dera Ghazi Khan to Vador.
- (2) Ditto. to Yaru.
- (3) Ditto. along the main road southwards to Kot Chuta and thence to Choti.
- (4) From Rajanpur to Mithankot, 11 miles, and thence 30 miles through Bahawalpur State to Khanpur railway station. This is the best district route from the Punjab to Rajanpur, but is difficult in the hot weather owing to the floods, as is the alternate route via Dera Ghazi Khan and the main road going southward from it.
- (5) From Dera Ghazi Khan to Jampur via Jhok Utra and Sheru.

These roads are possible for wheels, but not good. Another road of importance connects Jampur with Dajal and Harrand.

It is not possible for wheels, nor are most of the other roads in the district. Wheeled traffic is consequently little resorted to, and camels and donkeys monopolize the transport trade.

The most important passes leading from the district through the Suliman hills are the Saugarh, Kharr, Kaha, Chachar, and Sori. The Saugarh pass leads into the Bozdar country; the Kharr Pass into the Khetran and Luni-Pathan country; the Kaha and Chachar Passes into the Khetran, Mari, and Bugti country; and the Sori Pass into the Mari and Bugti country.

There are altogether 92 passes leading from the district. These are all held by the Bilochis, on whose country they adjoin, and who, in consideration of certain allowances, are made responsible for all stolen property taken through the passes of which they hold the charge; the total amount of the allowance made for the charge of passes is Rs. 11,632 per annum.

On the Dera Ismail Khan and Sukkar road, there are staging bungalows in this district at Retra, Taunsa, Ahmdani, Shah Sadr Din, Dera Ghazi Khan, Kot Chuta, Jampur, Muhammadpur, Rajanpur, Murghai, and Rojhan. There are also staging bungalows at Dajal and Mithankot. The Canal Officers have bungalows at Kharakwala, Pir Adil, Paiga, Jhok Utra, Khanwah, Bulewala, Fazilpur, and Rajanpur, which when not required by them may be used by officers of other Departments and the public. They are in good order and partially furnished. The same cannot be said of the staging bungalows, which are in wretched condition.

Chapter IV, C.
Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communications.
Principal passes.

Staging bungalows and encamping grounds.

There are rest-houses belonging to the Public Works Department at Dera Ghazi Khan (Provincial) and at Ramgarh, Sakhi Sarwar, Rakhi Munh, Rakhi Gorge, and Kharr (Imperial) along the Peshin road. The rest-house at Rakhi Gorge is a temporary building only.

The following table shows the conveniences for travellers on the frontier road:—

Halting places.	Distance in miles.	REMARKS.
Retra	...	Encamping ground, dak bungalow, and a shop.
Taunsa	15	" " " "
Ahmdani	16	" " " "
Sadr Din	15	" " " "
Dera Ghazi Khan	15	" " " and a sarai.
Kot Chuta	14	" " " "
Jampur	18	" " " "
Muhammadpur	12	" " " and a shop.
Fazilpur	13	" " " belonging to Canal Dept., a sarai and a shop.
Rajanpur	15	" " " a sarai and shop.
Murghai	15	Dak bungalow.
Rojhan	23	" " " "

Chapter IV, C.

The other encamping grounds in the district are returned as follows :—

Prices of
and Meat and
Communications.

Staging bungalows
and encamping
grounds.

Road from	Name of encamping ground.	Details of buildings, wells, &c.
Dera Ghazi Khan to Dera Ismail Khan.	Dera Ghazi Khan ...	1 sarai and 1 well.
	Sbah Sadr Dia ...	1 well.
	Kala	
	Abmduai ...	1 sarai and well.
Taunsa to Mangrotha	Taunsa	
	Tibbi	
	Mangrotha ...	1 well.
	Jhok Bodho ...	1 do.
Dera Ghazi Khan to Sakkar	Kot Chata ...	1 do. and 1 sarai.
	Jampur ...	1 do. and 1 sarai.
	Muhammadpur	Well and 1 sarai.
	Fazilpur ...	1 well and 1 sarai.
	Rajapur ...	1 do. 1 do.
	Marghai ...	1 do.
Jampur to Harrand...	Rojhan ...	1 do.
	Bandowali	
	Dajal ...	Rest-house.
	Hajipur ...	
	Mithankot ...	A sarai and dak bungalow.

SIND-PESHAWAR ROAD.

Dera Ghazi Khan ...	Mile 1 ...	Shed for travellers, bardashtkhana. Well with 4,000 gallons storage tanks; drinking trough.
Gadai ...	Miles 11 ...	Same as above.
Ramgarh ...	" 15 ...	Public Works rest-house, but no water or watering arrangements and nothing else. Water may be obtained from well at Mitha Khu, mile 13.
Tombiwala ...	" 22 ...	Same as Gadai.
Sakli Sarwar ...	" 30 ...	Same as Gadai. Public Works rest-house in addition.
Rakhi Mundi (temporary encamping ground).	" 40 ...	Well, drinking troughs and Public Works rest-house.
Rakhi Gorge ...	" 44 ...	Tanks storing 4,800 gallons and connected with a pipe supply. Otherwise as at Gadai. Two miles further on a small Public Works shelter house.
Girda ...	" 52 ...	Water supply same as Rakhi Gorge. Only a subsidiary encamping ground, nothing else.
Kharr ...	" 59 ...	Public Works rest-house, 1½ miles from encamping ground. Water supply from a reservoir dam which is fitted with taps. Otherwise as at Gadai.

The post offices in the district are as follows:—

Chapter IV, C.

List of Imperial Post Offices which perform Money Order work and transact Saving Bank work.

Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.
Post-offices.

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------|
| 1. Dera Ghazi Khan. | 6. Taunsa. |
| 2. Ditto. city. | 7. Ghazi Ghat. |
| 3. Fort Munro. | 8. Dajal. |
| 4. Jampur. | 9. Harrand. |
| 5. Rajanpur. | 10. Mithankot. |
| | 11. Rojhan. |

List of Imperial Post Offices which are Money Order Offices, but not authorised to transact Savings Bank business.

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. Choti. | 7. Tibbi Lundan. |
| 2. Kot Chuta. | 8. Asni. |
| 3. Lund. | 9. Fazilpur. |
| 4. Sakbi Sarwar. | 10. Umarnkot. |
| 5. Yaru. | 11. Vang. |
| 6. Kotla Mughlan. | 12. Mangrotha. |

List of District Dāk Post Offices which are Money Order Offices, but not authorised to transact Savings Bank business.

- | | |
|---------------|-------------------|
| 1. Mana. | 3. Shikarpur. |
| 2. Shehwalli. | 4. Kot Kasraai. |
| | 5. Tibbi Kasraai. |

A line of Imperial Telegraph runs along the main road from the north to south end of this district, with Telegraph Offices at Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur, Rajanpur and Taunsa.

Telegraphs.

A line from Dera Ghazi Khan to Multan direct via the bridge of boats is also maintained in the cold weather as long as the bridge is. Telegraphic communication is permanently maintained with Multan via Jacobabad and Sakkar.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

Chapter V. A. The Dera Ghazi Khan District is under the control of the Commissioner of the Derajat, who is stationed at Dera Ismail Khan. The ordinary head-quarter's staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a District Judge who is also Assistant District Magistrate under the Frontier Crimes Regulation, an Assistant Commissioner and an Extra-Assistant Commissioner, or two Extra Assistant-Commissioners, a Revenue Extra-Assistant Commissioner and a Political Assistant, who is also commandant of the Border Military Police. The Political Assistant is an officer selected from the Assistant District Superintendents of Police of the Province. As Political Assistant he exercises 2nd class magisterial powers. There is also a Native Political Assistant of the Tahsildar class, who is generally known as the Political Tahsildar.

An Assistant Commissioner is posted at Rajanpur in charge

Tahsil.	KANUNGOES.		MUTUAS AND ASSISTANTS.					
	Present.	Proposed.	Present.			Proposed.		
			Mutuas.	Assistants.	Total.	Mutuas.	Assistants.	Total.
Dera Ghazi Khan	6	7	56	12	68	63	9	72
Sangarh	3	3	21	1	22	24	2	26
Jampur	3	3	34	1	35	37	1	38
Rajanpur	3	3	32	5	37	34	7	41
Total	15	16	143	19	162	158	19	177

of that Sub-Division. Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildar assisted by a Naib. An additional Naib-Tahsildar is to be appointed to assist in the Sadar tahsil in the cold weather and in the Jampur tahsil in the hot weather. The village revenue staff is shown in the margin. The Superintendent of the Dhundi estate will be, from the 1st of April 1898, a Naib-Tahsildar of the 1st grade.

There is at present only one Munsif in the district, who is stationed at Dera Ghazi Khan. A few years ago there was also a Munsif posted at Fazilpur where a Court was built, but he was withdrawn. It is highly probable that a Munsif will shortly be re-posted to Fazilpur. The statistics of civil and revenue litigation for the last five years are given in Table No. XXXIX.

The executive staff of the district is supplemented by a Bench of Honorary Magistrates who have jurisdiction within the Dera Ghazi Khan city Municipal limits, and by the following Tumandars who have honorary magisterial and civil powers within the limits of their respective tribes. Nawab Sir Imam Bakhsh Khan, K. C. I. E., and Sardar Behram Khan, Mazaris, of Rojhan, Sardar Taggia Khan, Leghari, of Choti, Sardar Bahadur Khan, Khosa, of Bahadurgarh, Sardar Drehan Khan, Drishak, of Asni, Sardar Jalab Khan, Gurchani, of Lalgarh, Sardar Ahmad Khan, Lund, of Shadan Lund,* Sardar Fazl Ali Khan, Kasrani, of Kot Kasrani, and Sardar Mazar Khan, of Tibbi Lund. Nawab Sir Imam Bakhsh Khan and Sardar Taggia Khan also exercise the powers of Assistant Collectors, 2nd grade. Rai Bahadur Hitu Ram, C. I. E., of Shikarpur in Rajanpur tahsil has honorary criminal and civil powers.

The Police force is controlled by a District Superintendent.

Class of Police.	Total strength.	DISTRIBUTION.	
		Standing Guards.	Prevention and detection.
District, Imperial	415	83	332
Municipal	83	...	83
Powindah	10	...	10
Total	514	83	431

The strength and distribution of the force as given by him, is shown in the margin.

In addition to this force, 253 vil-

lage watchmen are entertained and paid in cash at Rs. 3-4-0, and in some cases Rs. 5 per mensem by the village community. An increase to the village watchmen is, however, now under consideration, and it is estimated that the number will be raised to 390.

There are 16 Police stations, of which three, viz., Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur and Rajanpur, are of the 1st class and the remainder of the 2nd class. There are 10 road posts. The Police stations and road posts are distributed as follows:—

Tahsil Sangarh, Police Stations.

Tibbi Kasrani, Tanna.

Tahsil Dera Ghazi Khan, Police Stations.

Yaru, Dera Ghazi Khan, Kot Chutta, Sori Lund (a new site for which has been selected at village Kala) and Choti.

Road posts.

Shah Sador Din and Sakbi Sarwar.

Tahsil Jampur, Police Stations.

Jampur, Dajal, Harrand, Tibbi Lund.

Road posts.

Kappar and Muhammadpur.

Tahsil Rajanpur, Police Stations.

Rajanpur, Fazilpur, Kot Mithan, Rojhan, Shahwali.

Road posts.

Pul Pakhta, Dhundi, Hamwala, Sharwali, Umarkot and Kin.

* Sardar Ahmad Khan died while this work was under preparation and has been succeeded by his cousin Naurang Khan.

Chapter V. A.

General

Executive
Judicial. and

There are Municipal Police at Dera Ghazi Khan, Jampur, Dajal, Rajanpur and Mithankot.

The Powindah Police are located all the year round at Kharr and Fort Munro, their duties being to disarm the trans-border Pathans entering the district and to check the number of animals liable to *tirni* or the grazing tax, brought in and taken out of the district in order to facilitate the correct collection of the tax.

There is a cattle pound at each Police station (except Dera Ghazi Khan, Rojhan, Shahwali and Tibbi Lund) and also at other places.

The Pay Department and the internal economy of the force is under the general control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Western Circle, whose head-quarters are at Rawalpindi. So far as the prevention and detection of crime is concerned the District Superintendent's Office is a branch of the Deputy Commissioner's head-quarter office, and as such under the Commissioner of the Derajat Division.

The Tumandars being Honorary Magistrates are given assistance in the criminal administration of their own tribes. Tibbi Lund has been separated, for political reasons, from the Harrand Police station, and formed into a separate Police station under Honorary Deputy Inspector Massu Khan, the son of Sardar Mazar Khan, Tumandar of Lund.

Table XLI gives statistics of Police inquiries for the last five years.

The District Jail at head-quarters contains accommodation for 407 prisoners. Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table XLI of Police inquiries, Table No. XLII of convicts in gaol for the last five years.

The gross revenue collections of the district for the last fourteen years, so far as they are made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII, while Table Nos. XXIX, XXXV, XXXIV, and XXXIII give further details for land revenue, excise, license tax and stamps, respectively. Table No. XXXIIIA shows the number and situation of Registration Offices.

There is only one distillery in the district, which is at Dera Ghazi Khan. There are stills in it which supply liquor for the whole district. Still-head duty is levied under the ordinary rules. The liquor is issued under a *ravanna* (pass). There are 39 retail sale country spirit shops and one wholesale. The number is liable to change from year to year. The license of each shop is sold separately year by year. There are two shops for retail sale, one of European liquor and the other of rum. These are also sold by auction every year. There are 39 shops for retail sale of opium and intoxicating drugs. The licenses of these shops are sold by auction by tahsils.

Revenue, Taxation,
and Registration.

There are two branches of Excise Establishment—(1) Distillery Establishment; (2) Preventive or Inspecting Establishment. The former consists of a Moharrir on Rs. 20 and 2 peons at Rs. 5 each; and the latter of one Darogha at Rs. 50 per mensem with one Naib at Rajanpur on Rs. 10 (this amount is given as an allowance to the Naib Rakh Darogha) and 2 peons at Rs. 5 each.

Poppy cultivation is allowed in Tahsils Rajanpur and Jampur, but prohibited elsewhere. The duty per acre is Rs. 2.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from District Funds which are controlled by the District Board Committee. The authorized strength of the committee is 42 members, of which not more than 12 may be officials, and the remainder are selected from the leading men of the district. The Deputy Commissioner is *ex-officio* chairman.

The *ex-officio* members are—

1. Deputy Commissioner, President.
2. Assistant Commissioner, Rajanpur.
3. District Judge.
4. Executive Engineer, Indus Canals.
5. Revenue Extra-Assistant Commissioner.
6. Tahsildar, Dera Ghazi Khan.
7. Tahsildar, Jampur.
8. Tahsildar, Rajanpur.
9. Tahsildar, Sangarh.
10. Civil Surgeon.
11. Inspector or, in his absence, District Inspector of Schools.
12. Political Assistant or, in his absence, Political Tahsildar.

The present appointed members are—

1. Nawab Sir Imam Bakhsh Khan, K. C. I. E.
2. Sardar Bahadur Khan, Khosa.
3. Sardar Drihan Khan, Drishak.
4. Sardar Jalab Khan, Gurchani.
5. Sardar Ahmad Khan, Lund.
6. Sardar Fazl Ali Khan, Kasraui.
7. Sardar Mazar Khan, Tibbi Lund.
8. Sardar Behram Khan, Mazari.
9. Mewa Khan, Gurchani.
10. Khan Sahib Allah Bakhsh Khan, Sadozai.
11. Tillu Khan, Mazari.

Chapter V. A.

General.

Revenue, Taxation
and Registration.

Chapter V, A.

General.

Revenue, Taxation,
and Registration.

12. Gosain Dharni Dhar.
13. Shah Muhammad Shah.
14. Imam Bakhsh Khan of Sokar.
15. Qadir Bakhsh, Ahmani.
16. Jamni Das, Bhutani.
17. Fateh Muhammad, Makwal.
18. Sardar Khan, Tangwani.
19. Sidhu Ram.
20. Abdul Rahim Khan, Sadozai.
21. Sardar Taggia Khan, Leghari.
22. Lala Chandan Mal.
23. Sardar Din Muhammad Khan, Leghari.
24. Mian Sahib Lutf Huseain, Sorai.
25. Muhammad Khan, Nutkani.
26. Aziz Muhammad Khan, Pitafi.
27. Lala Das Ram.
28. Bhai Darbari Lal.
29. Risaldar Ghulam Muhammad Khan.
30. Naurang Khan, Lund.

Table No. XLV gives the statistics for municipal taxation, while the municipalities themselves are noticed in Chapter VI.

The income from Provincial properties for the last five years is shown in the table below:—

Source of Income.	1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.	1896-97.
Ferries without boat bridges ...	21,368	24,714	22,686	23,047	24,491
Staging bungalows	515	496	656	784	151
Cattle-pounds	8,025	8,754	5,404	6,541	9,053
Total	29,918	33,964	28,746	30,372	33,698

The ferries, bungalows, and encamping-grounds have already been noticed in the last section, and the cattle pounds in this section. Government lands and the general land revenue administration of the district are fully noticed in Section C of this chapter.

Statistics of Land
Revenue.

Table No. XXIX gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collections since 1868-69.

Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis and incidence of the current Settlement will be found below in Section C.

The number of public schools for boys, as given in the tables below, is fifty-seven. Of these one is an Anglo-Vernacular High School with four branches at head-quarters, two are Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools at Jampur and Rajanpur, two are Vernacular Middle Schools at Taunsa and Rojhan, forty-three are Vernacular Primary Schools and nine are Aided Indigenous Schools.

Schools in the district.

Schools.	Tahsil Dera Ghazi Khan.	Tahsil Jampur.	Tahsil Rajanpur.	Tahsil Sangarh.	Total.	REMARKS.
M. B. Anglo-Vernacular High School.	1	1	*Including 4 branches of the High Schools, 43 Primary Schools.
M. B. Anglo-Vernacular Middle School.	...	1	1	...	2	
D. B. Vernacular Middle School.	1	1	2	
D. B. Vernacular Primary Schools.	*13	4	11	13	41	
M. B. Vernacular Primary Schools.	...	1	1	...	2	
Aided Indigenous Schools ...	4	4	...	1	9	
Total ...	18	10	14	15	57	

In 1861, English was introduced into the curriculum of the Dera Ghazi Khan District School. Before that it was purely a Vernacular School. The standard was raised in 1891. The building was also enlarged by the addition of a commodious Examination Hall with two small class rooms and a good boarding-house, which was much damaged by the rains of 1896-97. The number of Muhammadan pupils in this school is very considerable, and is one of the very satisfactory features connected with it, the Biloch or semi-Biloch element of the Trans-Indus being much more inclined to Government education than the other Muhammadan tribes of the Cis-Indus Districts.

The Jampur Vernacular Middle School was converted into an Anglo-Vernacular one in April 1894, and was provided with

Chapter V. A.

General.

Statistics of Land Revenue.

Education.

Dera Ghazi Khan District Schools.

Chapter V. A.

General.

Dera Ghazi Khan
District Schools.

a new building sufficiently large and commodious, with a good boarding-house and play-ground attached to it, at a cost of about Rs. 7,000. A sum of Rs. 12,000 was subscribed by the natives of the district towards the cost of building and founding the school.

There are nine Aided Indigenous Schools in the district in receipt of grants from Public Funds, besides 179 Private Schools attended by 2,538 scholars, including 228 girls.

All the Secondary Schools in the district are provided with sufficient boarding accommodation, but the boarding-house at Taunsa stands badly in need of extension.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for scholars in the schools of the district for the last five years.

There is only one Girls' School, a Hindu one, at head-quarters, with an attendance of 95 girls, and maintained by the Municipal Committee of Dera Ghazi Khan. It was established in July 1893. It is not open to male inspection, and is under the supervision of the Inspectress of Female Schools, Punjab.

The expenditure on education and the results of examinations for the last five years will be seen in the accompanying tables:—

	District Fund, Dera Ghazi Khan.	Municipal Fund, Dera Ghazi Khan.	Municipal Fund, Jampur.	Municipal Fund, Rajampur.	Municipal Fund, Dajal.	Municipal Fund, Kot Mithan.
1892-93	11,235	3,615	825	510	555	245
1893-94	11,280	4,707	554	527	714	388
1894-95	11,445	4,619	1,549	597	960	422
1895-96	11,500	4,200	376	508	935	405
1896-97	11,653	4,905	1,122	621	960	432

	EN- TRANCE EXAMINA- TION.		MIDDLE SCHOOL EXAMIN- ATION.		UPPER PRIMARY SCHOOL EXAMIN- ATION.		LOWER PRIMARY EXAMIN- ATION.		INFANT STAND- ARD EX- AMINA- TION.	
	Number of candidates.	Passes.	Number of candidates.	Passes.	Number of candidates.	Passes.	Number of candidates.	Passes.	Number of candidates.	Passes.
1892-93	18	11	73	64	196	151	258	181	440	400
1893-94	16	16	66	35	177	136	260	218	437	405
1894-95	18	12	72	67	208	166	271	237	457	410
1895-96	24	19	47	23	192	167	314	279	476	433
1896-97	16	16	79	66	209	174	309	264	525	479

Table No. XIII gives the statistics of education collected at the Census of 1891, and the general state of education has already been described.

Chapter V, A.

General.

Dera Ghazi Khan
District Schools.

The number of Indigenous or Private Schools in the district, the majority of which are the Quran Schools attached to mosques, is 179, with an attendance of 2,310 boys and 228 girls. In 1883-84 the numbers were 501, 2,700 and 500. The marked fall in the number of schools and scholars attending them is owing to the fact that the Indigenous and other Elementary Schools examined for grants, which were returned as Private Schools in 1883-84, are now returned as Public Schools, and that no institution containing less than six scholars is now recognised as an Indigenous or Private School, which was not the case in 1883-84. The following are worthy of notice:—

(1) The Perso-Quran School, with an attendance of 32 boys and 8 girls, under Hafiz Abdul Majid. At Dera Ghazi Khan.

(2) The Perso-Quran School, with an attendance of 33 boys and 4 girls, under Maulvi Abdul Rahman.

(3) The Perso-Quran School, with an attendance of 50 boys under Maulvi Ahmad Bakhsh and his assistant, Hafiz Ghulam Muhammad.

(4) The Perso-Quran School, with an attendance of 11 boys and 20 girls, under Maulvi Saighat-Ullah.

(5) The Persian School, with an attendance of 65 boys, under Maulvi Musatam Shah and his assistants.

(1) The Arabic School, with an attendance of 50 boys, under Maulvi Iman Bakhsh. At Jampur.

(2) The Perso-Quran School, with an attendance of 24 boys, under Haji Allah Ditta.

The Gurmukhi School at Dajal, with an attendance of 30 boys, under Bawa Diyal Das.

Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the dispensaries of the district, which are under the general control of the Civil Surgeon, and of native doctors at the remaining stations.

Medicā.

The Sadar Dispensary, Dera Ghazi Khan, has existed for some 40 years. It stands to the west of the city and forms three sides of a square, comprising 20 wards, a kitchen, operating room and the Assistant Surgeon's house. Owing, however, to the soakage of the subsoil with water, due to the encroachments of the Indus, a large part of the building has fallen down this year (1897) and the rest has been rendered uninhabitable. The site is no longer a fit one for a hospital, and a proposal to rebuild it in another situation is under consideration. The

Dera Ghazi Khan
Civil Hospital.

Chapter V. A. staff consists of a Civil Surgeon, Assistant Surgeon, two compounders, an apprentice and menials. The Civil Surgeon visits the dispensary daily to supervise and perform operations, &c.

General.
Dera Ghazi Khan
Civil Hospital.

Jampur Dispensary.

The Jampur Dispensary was opened on 15th June 1875. It is situated to the west of the city, and comprises a ward for 18 male patients, an out-patient room, a dispensing room, two separate rooms for female patients and a house for the Hospital Assistant in charge. There is no operating room. The dispensary is in charge of a Hospital Assistant, assisted by one compounder, one apprentice and menials.

Taunsa Dispensary.

The Taunsa Dispensary was opened on 11th July 1891, it is situated to the north-east of the village of Taunsa, and comprises a ward for 8 male patients, a dispensing room, a separate ward for 6 female patients and a house for the Hospital Assistant. There is no operating room. The staff consists of a Hospital Assistant, one compounder and menials.

Rajapur Dispensary.

The dispensary at Rajapur is situated on the main road to Mithankot at about 150 yards to the south of the town of Rajapur. It was opened on January 1st, 1862. The main building contains a ward for 9 male patients, an out-patient room and the dispensing room. At a little distance from the main building there is a block containing three separate rooms with enclosures for female patients. There are also a good operating room, a cook-house, and the house for the Assistant Surgeon in charge of the dispensary. These are all separate from the main building. There is also a little garden attached to the dispensary with a well in it. Since the abolition of the cantonment in December 1895, the dispensary is under the charge of a 2nd grade Assistant Surgeon, who holds the civil medical charge of the Rajapur Sub-Division as well. He is assisted as before by a compounder and a dresser. All the medical and surgical work of the dispensary is performed by him. He is also in medical charge of the jail at Rajapur. The dispensary is doing a good deal of useful work, and besides local patients, Bilochis from across the border and subjects of the Bahawalpur State resort to it for treatment. The average annual expenditure is about Rs. 3,000.

The annual attendance of out-patients is about 12,000 and that of in-door patients is about 250. About 400 operations of all kinds are performed in the dispensary.

Ecclesiastical.

There is a Church at Dera Ghazi Khan capable of seating some 50 persons. No Chaplain is posted there, but service is occasionally conducted by the Chaplain from Dera Ismail Khan and on other Sundays by the Missionary attached to the Church Mission at Dera Ghazi Khan, unless he is out in the district on mission work.

The canals in this district are under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Indus Canals, Dera Ghazi Khan District, stationed at Dera Ghazi Khan. The Superintending Engineer of the canals has his head-quarters at Multan.

The main roads running through the length and width of the district, i. e., that from Retra to Rajanpur and thence to Mithankot, and that from the Indus* to Kharr and Rakhni, and also the boat bridge across the Indus, the river defence works which are described in Chapter VI of this work and civil and military buildings are in the charge of the Executive Engineer, General Branch, Public Works Department, with head-quarters at Dera Ghazi Khan. The road from Dera Ghazi Khan to Rakhni is a military road and maintained from Imperial Funds. His charge also embraces the military outposts of Haraud, Mangrota and Drug. The Executive Engineer, Dera Ghazi Khan, is subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 3rd Circle, who has his head-quarters at Lahore.

The head-quarters of the Superintendent of Telegraphs who controls the telegraph lines and offices of the district are at Karachi. He is the Superintendent of the Sind and Bilochistan Division. The Superintendent of Post Offices has his head-quarters at Dera Ismail Khan. The *rakhs* under the charge of the Forest Department are in the circle of the Forest Officer of the Multan Division.

The manufacture of earth-salt was stopped by order of Government in 1881. The Government conveyed sanction to a small patrolling establishment in May 1890. It has recently been enhanced. It now consists of a European Assistant Superintendent, an Inspector, one Jamadar and 20 peons, out of which 8 are permanent and the remaining 12 are considered on deputation. Its head-quarters are at Rajanpur.

SECTION B.—MILITARY AND FRONTIER.

The principal military station in the district is the cantonment of Dera Ghazi Khan, adjoining the civil lines and close to the city. The station of Rajanpur was abandoned as a military cantonment in the end of December 1895, the garrison up to that time having consisted of one regiment Native Cavalry. The ordinary garrison of Dera Ghazi Khan consists of one regiment of Native Cavalry and one of Native Infantry. The cantonment and military outposts of the district belong to the Punjab Frontier Force, and the troops are under the command of the Major General Commanding the Punjab Frontier Force at Abbottabad.

Chapter V. B.

Military and Frontier.

Head-quarters of other departments.

Cantonments, troops, &c.

* He also holds charge of the road from the Indus through the Muzaffargarh District to Eher Shah Bridge.

Chapter V. B.

Military and Frontier.

Cantonments, troops, &c.

STATION.	British Officers.	NATIVE OFFICERS, NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS AND MEN.		
		Native Officers.	Native Cavalry.	Native Infantry.
Dera Ghazi Khan ...	29	32	561	849

The total garrison of the district, excluding strength of outposts, as it stood on 1st December 1897, is shown in the margin.

The figures are taken from the Quarter-Master General's Distribution List, dated 1st December 1897, and include those who are sick or absent. There are military outposts at Mangrota, Kharr and Harrand held by detachments of the Dera Ghazi Khan garrison, strength as follows:—

Mangrota	17 sabres and 21 bayonets.
Kharr	20 bayonets.
Harrand	25 sabres.

Border Military Police.

At the time of publication of the last edition of the Gazetteer, two separate forces existed along the frontier, viz., (1) Frontier Militia and (2) Border Police.

The Frontier Militia was under the control of the military authorities, and the men composing the force were enlisted by "the Officer Commanding the outposts", upon the nomination of the Biloch Chiefs, in whose *tanmans* the posts were situated, with the approval of the Deputy Commissioner of the district. In 1890 this force consisted of 160 men of all grades, of whom 130 were mounted. A list of Frontier Militia posts, showing strength of

Posts.	Sabres.	Bayonets.
Jhok Bodho	8	...
Mangrota	3	...
Mubei	13	4
Mandani	9	2
Head-quarters Rajanpur ...	2	...
Harrand	3	...
Drigri	10	2
Kot Rum	10	6
Muhammaddpura	7	1
Sabzal Kot	23	6
Toiani	10	2
Dilbar	10	2
Ebandowali	11	3
Sheikhwali	11	...
Total	130	30

each, is given in the margin.

The Border Police was directly under the control of the Deputy Commissioner of the district, and the officers and men composing the force were enlisted by him upon the nomination of the chiefs concerned. There were in all 65 men, of whom 29 were mounted.

Posts.
Mandranai.
Batil.
Vidor.
Ganehar.
Choti.
Lal Goshi.
Pishin Road Posts.

A list of the posts occupied by the Border Police is given in the margin.

In June 1890 the Frontier Militia was brought under civil control, and it and the Border Police were amalgamated, the force so formed being designated the Border Military Police.

Chapter V, B.

Military and Frontier.

Border Military Police.

For over a year, however, this force remained virtually split up into two separate commands, the portion of it lying in the Rajanpur Sub-Division being managed by the Assistant Commissioner of Rajaupur, and the remainder directly by the Deputy-Commissioner of the district; but in August 1891 the appointment of an Assistant District Superintendent of Police to hold charge of the entire force and to act as Political Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner (with 2nd class magisterial powers), was sanctioned by the Government of India, and in November of the same year Mr. Davis, Assistant District Superintendent of Police, was sent to take up the appointment.

The duties of the Border Military Police are to watch the border, to prevent stolen property being conveyed across the frontier, to recover property so conveyed and to inquire into all cases occurring in the hills across the border—in short, to perform general Police duties outside the jurisdiction of the regular police of the district. Powers under Chapter V of Act X of 1882 were conferred on the officers and men of the force in 1896 under Punjab Government Notification No. 1070, dated 21st August 1896.

The system of enrolment is the same as that of the original Frontier Militia, appointments being given by the Commandant Border Military Police, to nominees of the chiefs concerned, with the approval of the Deputy Commissioner.

In the beginning of 1896 the force consisted of 6 Jamadars, 19 Daffadars, 142 sowars, total 167 mounted men in all, and 2 Havildars, 2 Naiks, 63 sepoy, making a total of 67 foot.

In May 1896, however, sanction was obtained for the amalgamation of two Jamadarships into a Resaldarship, and this appointment was given to Jamadar Ghulam Muhammad Khan, an able and hard-working officer of considerable experience.

In August 1897, further changes took place; the strength of the Bewatta post on the Pishin road was increased by 3 mounted men, and that of the Bozdar post at Mandrani by 3 sepoy, while four new posts were established with garrisons as follows:—

- (1) *Fazla Kach in Bozdar hills.*—Five mounted men, 4 footmen and 1 writer.
- (2) *Hinglun Kach in Bozdar hills.*—Four mounted men, 2 footmen and 1 writer.
- (3) *Chacha in Gurchani hills.*—Three mounted men, 2 footmen and 1 writer.
- (4) *Kalchas in Gurchani hills.*—Five mounted men, 4 footmen and 1 writer.

Chapter V, B.

Military and
Frontier.
Border Military
Police.

Thus on the 1st January 1898 the strength and composition of the force was as follows:—

Risaldar	1
Jamadars	7
Daffadars	21
Sowars	155
							184
							mounted men
and							
Havildars	4
Naika	2
Sepoys	76
							82
							foot.

There are in all 32 Border Military Police posts, of which a list is attached, showing strength and composition of each.

The post at Sori Sham has never been built, and the garrison sanctioned for it is distributed among the Pishin road posts, between Sakhi Sarwar and Bewatta.

The last 12 posts shown in the attached list are situated in the wilds, at a distance from villages, and have therefore to be provided with *banias* who draw pay at the rate of from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 per mensem and keep shops at these posts to provide necessaries for the garrisons.

Some of these posts are even without a water-supply, and have to be provided with camels and *pakhals* by means of which water is brought from several miles distant.

The pay of a sowar is Rs. 20 per mensem, but of this he pays Rs. 3 as *silladari* to his chief in all except the Mazari *tuman* and the 4 new posts. The Mazari Chief only takes Re. 1 as *silladari*, and no *silladari* is allowed in the 4 new posts, as they are situated in the hills, where living is expensive and a man cannot be expected to keep himself and his horse on less than Rs. 20 per mensem. For the same reason, the sepoy in these new posts draw Rs. 10 a month, while Rs. 7 is the pay throughout the rest of the district. Sepoys pay no *silladari*. Sowars and sepoy employed on special duty outside the limits of their respective *tumans* are granted an extra allowance of annas 3 and anna 1 per diem, respectively.

The system of Frontier administration of this border differs entirely from that in force in Sind. In Dera Ghazi Khan the Frontier is mainly held by the Belochis themselves. In Sindh it is held by the Sind Frontier Force, the Belochis being all disarmed. In Sind it is considered that to employ Belochis against their brother Belochis from beyond the border engenders blood feuds and leads to reprisals. The experience of this district does not sustain this theory, for the Belochis employed to guard the Frontier are looked upon by the hill Belochis much as the police are looked upon by their fellow-natives in non-Frontier districts.

Chapter V. B.

Military and Frontier.

Frontier Regulations.

After the establishment of British rule the district, that is to say the portion of it situated in the plains, remained for years under the same laws as the rest of the Province. In 1872 a special Regulation for the government of Frontier districts was enacted (The Punjab Frontier Regulation No. 1 of 1872), and was in 1887 superseded by "the Frontier Crimes Regulation, 1887," of which Captain C. P. Thompson, Deputy Commissioner, writes as follows:—

"The full power of this Regulation was not extended to this district until 1892. By this Regulation the Deputy Commissioner with the sanction of the Commissioner is empowered to—

- (1) Blockade hostile tribes;
- (2) Check the construction of villages and forts within 5 miles of the frontier;
- (3) Fine village communities for colluding with or harbouring offenders or escaped prisoners, and for suppressing evidence;
- (4) Banish any person who has a blood feud in the district or any portion of it.

"The Regulation authorizes the appointment of an additional District Magistrate, who has the powers specified in the part of Schedule III to the Code of Criminal Procedure, entitled "V—Ordinary powers of a District Magistrate," and may be invested by the Local Government with power to try as a Magistrate all offences not punishable with death, and by the District Magistrate, by order in writing, with all or any of the powers which may be exercised by the Deputy Commissioner under this Regulation.

"The Deputy Commissioner can refer certain criminal and civil cases to a Council of Elders (commonly called a *jirga*) for a finding.

"On a *jirga* finding in a criminal case, the Deputy Commissioner can award the sentence provided for the offence in the Indian Penal Code up to 7 years.

"The Regulation also authorizes all Criminal Courts in the district to pass sentences, in certain cases, of whipping upon any person against whom the Regulation may be put in force in addition to any other punishment to which he may be liable.

"It also authorizes the tender of pardon in all cases by those Magistrates who are empowered to tender pardons under Section 337, Code of Criminal Procedure.

"Under this Regulation the woman may be punished for adultery as well as the man.

"Individuals and whole families can be put on security to keep the peace for a period of 3 years.

"On a *jirga* finding in a civil case the Deputy Commissioner can pass a decree in accordance with the *jirga* finding, and such a decree can be enforced in the same way as the decree of a civil court.

"The Regulation as it now stands works most beneficially. The cause of almost every murder committed in the district is a woman. In a large percentage of these there is practically no direct evidence, though there is generally strong circumstantial evidence against the murderer, regarding whose guilt there is no moral doubt. A *jirga* finding enables the Deputy Commissioner to punish the offender and, by enforcing the executive measures authorized by the Regulation, to prevent the matter growing into a blood feud. Under the Regulation the Deputy Commissioner has practically a free hand in the disposal of fines, and in women cases the whole or a large part of these are generally awarded as compensation to the aggrieved party.

"A large proportion of the civil cases referred to *jirgas* are claims for damages on account of elopement with an unmarried girl or widow. Among Belochis these elopements are nearly, if not quite, as much resented as elopements with married women. The *jirgas* generally try to settle these cases by getting the

Working of the Regulation.

defendant to give the plaintiff in exchange a woman in marriage, and it is only when this is not possible that cash damages are awarded. A very large percentage of these cases come from the Khosa tribe. The Khosas are proverbially addicted to rape, adultery and abduction, and as the organization of the tribe has almost gone, neither the Tumandar nor his Mokadams can settle them without reference to the Deputy Commissioner.

"In other tribes there are fewer of these cases, and almost all those that do occur are settled by the Tumandar without reference to the Deputy Commissioner."

Offences committed by one member of a tribe against another are, if the circumstances are more suitable for trial by a Council of Elders than for judicial investigation, generally made over to a Council (*jirga*) composed of Mokadams of the tribe. If the offence is by a member of one tribe against a member of another, and is likely to engender bad feeling between the tribes, it is usual to form a *jirga* composed of the chiefs of the two tribes, with one or more other chiefs to assist them. *Jirgas* for the disposal of cases pending between tribes resident in the district are held at Dera Ghazi Khan in March after the annual Horse Fair, which the chiefs with most of their tribesmen attend. Fort Munro is a very suitable place for the investigation of cases in which tribesmen from both sides of the border are concerned, and *jirgas* are held there in the month of September, and are attended by the Marri, Bugti and Khetran Chiefs and representatives of the Musa Khel and Luni Pathans, and by officers of the Balochistan agency as well as by the chiefs of this district.

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Working of the Regulation.

Jirgas.

SECTION C.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE SETTLEMENTS.

Under Sikh rule after the termination of the Bahawalpur Nawab's farm the land revenue was collected in kind, and the Government share of the gross produce was generally one-fourth. After annexation of the district by the British a summary settlement was made in 1849-50 A. D. by General Cortland, and a cash demand of Rs. 4,38,968 imposed, but it was based on the full share of the produce taken by the Sikhs, and the settlement was followed by a fall in prices and speedily broke down. The demand was increased in A. D. 1851 by Rs. 6,859 owing to addition from Muzaffargarh of two villages to the Jampur tahsil. A second summary settlement was effected in 1853-54 A. D., and the demand was reduced to Rs. 3,48,815. In connection with this Sir John Lawrance, then Chief Commissioner, drew attention to the necessity, in a district so circumstanced as this, of ascertaining at every harvest how the assessments worked. "If no calamity has occurred, the revenue can be easily collected; if a failure has taken place, a half, one-third, or a quarter may be suspended. If the ensuing season is favourable, such suspension could be made good, but if two failures occur in succession it will probably be expedient to remit the balance. A third summary settlement was, however, found necessary chiefly in consequence of damage done to the canal-

Summary settlements and their working.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

Summary settle-
ments and their
working.

irrigated tract by the Jalpa inundation, and was effected by Captain (afterwards General) Pollock in A. D. 1859-60. The result of the third summary settlement was a demand as compared with previous assessments of Rs. 3,18,060. To this were afterwards added nominal assessments of Rs. 11,424 on the Mian Sabib Sarai's *jagir* in Rajanpur, and of Rs. 6,150 on the remissions enjoyed by the Mazari tribe in that tahsil, which had not been taken account of at the previous settlements, but which were now put down at those amounts, though they continued as before to be taken by assignees in kind. In A. D. 1866 the Vehowa *ilaka* with a revenue of Rs. 7,812 was transferred from the Sangarh tahsil to the Dera Ismail Khan District, the Leiah tahsil, of which several villages bearing a revenue of Rs. 2,495 were in A. D. 1869 transferred to the Sangarh tahsil in connection with the adjustment of the river boundary. The first Regular Settlement of the district was commenced in April 1869 and finished in July 1874 by Mr. (now Sir Frederick) Fryer. The demand for A. D. 1872-73, the year preceding the introduction of the demand imposed at Regular Settlement, was Rs. 3,32,664.

Two questions.
First, whether revenue should fluctuate.
etc.

At the Regular Settlement two main questions of importance came up for decision which have had to be re-considered at the Revision of Settlement now completed. The first was whether the revenue should continue to be wholly fixed as in the past, or should fluctuate in part or whole with the area annually cropped. It was objected against the introduction of a fluctuating system that the people regarded its principle with disfavour and dreaded the annual measurements which it would entail. This objection was considered weighty by all the officers who dealt with the question from the Financial Commissioner downwards, and their recommendation in favour of a fixed assessment was accepted by His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, although he considered that the alternative system had much to recommend it even from the point of view of the agriculturist, and that the objection to annual measurements was not of great importance, considering that they were already in force in connection with the half-clearance rate.

Second question:
the charge for water.

The half-clearance rate was the charge then made for canal water supplied to irrigators, and was the subject of the second question which had to be decided in 1873. The annual clearances of the canals originally effected by means of forced labour had been, in the time of Diwan Sawan Mal, undertaken by the Sikh Government in consideration of the payment by the irrigators of a fixed cash rate. At the British annexation this rate was converted into a fixed sum recovered along with, and in addition to, the land revenue. In A. D. 1857 it was found that this sum did not cover half the cost of clearance, which amount it was decided that the cultivators should in future be required to pay. In A. D. 1868, cash acreage rates, supposed to be equivalent to half the cost of clearance, were

imposed instead. The rates first charged were 4 annas per *bigha* on flow and 2 annas per *bigha* on lift irrigation, and these were raised to 5 and 2½ annas, respectively, in A. D. 1870, on the ground that the lower rates were not sufficient to cover half the cost of clearance. At the Regular Settlement it had to be decided what rates could or should be taken for the future. Mr. (now Sir Frederick) Fryer considered that it had since 1857 been the declared intention of Government to levy only an equivalent for the half cost of clearance from those who used canal water in the district, and Captain (afterwards Sir Robert) Sandeman, then Deputy Commissioner of the district, urged that Government was pledged not to levy a water-rate in addition to half the cost of clearance of the canals. But His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor (Sir H. Davies) decided that the remission of the water-rate (*i.e.*, its limitation to half the cost of clearance as decided in 1857) "must be regarded as a concession to the cultivators for the time being only, on the ground of their inability to pay it;" and further, concurring with the Financial Commissioner, that it could "not be reasonably interpreted into an express or implied promise never to levy a water-rate separate from the land assessment, should the improved circumstances of the zemindars or reasons of executive expediency justify the adoption of such a course."

After laying down these principles, however, Sir Henry Davies, on visiting the district at the end of 1873, agreed that for the term of settlement half the cost of clearance should, in lieu of the acreage rate which had been introduced, be assessed and collected over and above the land revenue and credited as income to the Canal Department. The cost of clearance was to be re-considered at intervals of five years, and for the first five years half the cost was estimated at Rs. 45,000 per annum.

Including the revenue of the Rajanpur *jagir*, the land revenue imposed at Regular Settlement was, as finally distributed, Rs. 4,35,853, including progressive increments amounting to Rs. 24,567. It was originally contemplated that the whole of this demand should be fixed, including the assessment of the riverain tract in which the provisions of the alluvion-diluvion rules then in force were considered to safeguard the interests of Government and to afford sufficient relief to the people. In connection with the decision of the question how land should be treated which was enriched by silt deposit during the period of settlement, a scale of differential crop rate was, however, devised and was gradually applied to nearly the whole of the tract subject to the direct action of the river. This system was analogous to that formerly sanctioned, and in force in the neighbouring districts of Dera Ismail Khan and Muzaffargarh which were settled after the Regular Settlement of this district was over, but it was never reported to Government or sanctioned. On the analogy of the Muzaffargarh and Dera Ismail Khan systems a grazing rate on waste land was added to the differential crop

Chapter V. C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Second question, the charge for water.

Changes in the revenue demand during the period of the Regular Settlement. Alluvion and diluvion.

Chapter V. C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Changes in the revenue demand during the period of the Regular Settlement. Alluvion and diluvion.

rates in A. D. 1891 when the scale of rates was revised by the Deputy Commissioner. The system was thus essentially a fluctuating one, but it was, in accounts, treated as if it were fixed and the difference between the riverain assessment of the year and that of the previous year was, if a plus sum added to, and if a minus sum deducted from, the fixed land revenue roll. The changes in the assessment framed at Regular Settlement which were put down to alluvion and diluvion are not, therefore, entirely of that nature, though they included remission of a large amount of purely fixed land revenue due to erosion of canal-irrigated land by the river. The Indus has since the Regular Settlement cut steadily into its west or right bank, and converted much valuable land into mud and sand. The revenue of the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil was, during the period of the Regular Settlement, reduced by Rs. 24,674, and that of the Jampur tahsil by Rs. 8,221, and these reductions were almost entirely due to the erosion of valuable land. The reduction in the Rajanpur tahsil during the same period was Rs. 2,048 only, and in Sangarh there was an increase of Rs. 2,366, and these were merely the net results of the operation of the nominally fixed, but practically fluctuating system of assessment of riverain land. The total reduction due to river action during term of settlement was thus Rs. 32,577.

Other changes, suspensions and remissions.

The reduction of the revenue assessed on land eroded by the Indus and the application of differential crop-rates to the riverain tract accorded to the people all the relief that was necessary on account of the inroads of the river, except in the Gharkab and Kadra Circles in the Rajanpur tahsil, to only a few villages of which it was considered justifiable to apply the fluctuating system described in the last paragraph. In the other villages of these circles the fixed demand pressed somewhat heavily towards the end of the period of settlement, but the remissions of land revenue, which were found necessary, amounted to Rs. 1,645 only. In the Kadra Circle the pressure of the fixed demand was due as much to the unequal working of the Kadra Canal as to variations in the extent of the inundation from the river. In most of the villages composing the *jagir* of the Mian Sahib Sarai which lie partly in these circles but mainly in the neighbouring Kutb Circle the fixed cash demand, although assessed at 20 per cent. below the average income to the Jagirdar from his collections in kind, proved too heavy, partly owing to the deterioration and bad working of the Kutb Canal, and in A. D. 1884 most of the villages reverted by agreement with the Jagirdar to payment of the land revenue in kind. Elsewhere throughout the district the fixed demand framed at the Regular Settlement proved a light one, and was generally collected from year to year without difficulty. In the Puchad tract a total of about Rs. 8,000 was suspended from time to time in years of drought, mainly in the Sangarh and Jampur tahsil, but of this sum less than Rs. 1,200 had ultimately to be remitted

One village, Choratta, in this tract in the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil lost by civil suit its right to a supply of water from a hill stream and was given a semi-fluctuating system of assessment for the land affected. In the canal-irrigated tract in the Dera Ghazi Khan and Jampur tahsils relief was required only in years of exceptional flood as in 1878, when the river overflowed and breached the embankment system near Kala, and sent an inundation down the old Jalpa channel. In this year land revenue amounting to Rs. 5,667 was remitted in this tract, a large proportion of the total, Rs. 8,983, remitted during the term of settlement. The total amount suspended during the same term was about Rs. 18,000, including the sums ultimately remitted. The land revenue assessment was light from the first, and became lighter as time went on, and a great activity in the sinking of new wells increased the area and improved the quality of crops grown.

The fixed land revenue demand was increased by Rs. 5,515 during the term of settlement by the addition of the rents of land leased from Government *rakhs*. As the result of this and of the causes alluded to in the previous paragraphs and of other minor changes including the transfer to the district from Sind in 1889 of the village of Kot Kbewali with a revenue of Rs. 289 the demand for the year 1895-96, the last of the period of settlement was Rs. 4,07,895. The fixed sum representing half the cost of clearance of the canals, was raised at the quinquennial revision of 1880-81 from Rs. 45,000 to Rs. 54,000, which sum was therefore annually distributed over the area irrigated and recovered from the irrigators, averaging 5½ annas per acre of crops irrigated by flow. Three canals were acquired by Government by purchase during the term of settlement. The first of these was an extension of the Dbundi Canal to the south of the Jampur and north of the Rajanpur tahsil, which had been effected by private enterprise fostered by the grant of the waste land belonging to the Government commanded by the extension. The promoters of the extension failed to work it successfully, and elected in 1878 to make over the canal and to return the waste land to Government on receipt of a sum of Rs. 1,11,336.

The waste land is cultivated by tenants who pay rent in kind, and the estate has proved a profitable one to Government, though the charge for water was, during the term of settlement, the half-clearance rate as on the other older canals. The cash assessment of the estate framed at the Regular Settlement was paid year by year from the income from collections in kind, and was included in the demand for 1896-97 given above. The Messuwal, the one canal of the Sangarh tahsil, was excavated in A. D. 1862 by Massu Khan, Nutkani, who was allowed certain concessions in regard to waste land, but who found difficulty in realizing his charges for the use of the water, and finally in 1877 A. D. transferred all his rights to Government

Chapter V, C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

Other changes,
suspensions and re-
missions.

Further changes
and resulting de-
mand at the end of
the period of settle-
ment. Acquisition
of three canals by
Government.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

in exchange for Rs. 25,000 in cash and a grant of land in proprietary right. Massu Khau's charges had been collected in kind, and this system was continued after the canal was acquired by Government, at first with a view to obtaining data for framing water-rates, and afterwards because owing to the canal not being under control, none but very low cash rates could be devised, and the irrigators preferred the system of collection in kind. The share of the produce taken by the Government was $\frac{2}{3}$ ths, from the proceeds of which the cash assessment put at Regular Settlement on the land commanded by it was first deducted and paid, while the balance was credited to the Canal Department as the price of the water. The third canal acquired by Government was the Fazlwah-Dhori, which was excavated in 1862 in the Dera Ghazi Khan tahsil by private enterprise. Disputes arose among the proprietors, and in 1881 A. D. the canal was purchased by Government for Rs. 10,000 supplemented by a grant of waste land. In this case cash water-rates were imposed of Re. 1 per acre on flow irrigation and 12 annas per acre on irrigation by lift.

Fluctuating sys-
tem adopted for
canal-irrigated land

The two questions as to the mode of assessment of (1) land revenue of canal-irrigated land and (2) charges for canal water had again to be considered in connection with the recent revision of assessment. The only objection to a fluctuating form of settlement was that taken to it at the time of the Regular Settlement, that it involves annual measurements which are disliked by the people. To this it was replied that throughout the term of settlement there had been annual measurements in connection with the distribution of the half-clearance charge, and that the system of differential crop rates in force in the riverain tract was therefore popular. The opposition of the people to the introduction of a fluctuating system in canal lands did not appear to Mr. Diack, the Settlement Officer, to be so strong as he had expected to find it. The advantage to them in their having to pay only in proportion to their crops was undoubted, and the loss to Government from the old system of fixed demand under which a large amount of revenue was remitted on account of canal irrigated land being eroded by the Indus, while no return was relieved for increase of irrigation due to extension of existing canals, had been considerable.

Mr. (now Sir) Mackworth Young wrote as Financial Commissioner :—

"The main argument against a fixed net assessment for canal lands is that the Canal Officer is, under such a system, bound to keep the supply of water up to the volume on the basis of which the assessment was calculated, while the experience of the current settlement shows that where this volume has been increased the additional revenue due to such increase is difficult to realize."

Differing from Mr. Dames, who was then in charge of this part of the Division as Commissioner, and who objected to a

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

Fluctuating as-
sessment in the
riverain tract.

The nature of the
assessment of the
Pachad.

demand was therefore low. The income from the occupiers' rates on the older canals is expected to average not less than Rs. 79,522, an increase of 47 per cent.

The system of differential crop rates in force in the riverain tract was continued, as it was found to be popular, and the scale of rates was raised. The grazing rate of Rs. 5 per 100 acres of waste land was remitted as it was considered to be opposed to the decision come to at the Regular Settlement of the district not to impose a grazing tax otherwise than in the shape of fees for grazing in Government *rakhs*. The assessment of the riverain tract was placed for the future on its proper footing as fluctuating land revenue, and the fixed land revenue of the district now consists only of the assessment of (1), the Pachad tract, (2) the well estates, and (3) canal-irrigated land in its unirrigated aspect. The propriety of introducing a fluctuating assessment in the Pachad tract where the fluctuations in the area of crops harvested are more considerable than even in canal-irrigated or riverain land was considered, but after careful consideration and discussion the Financial Commissioner, Mr. Rivaz, agreed with the Settlement Officer that the assessment should be a fixed one. "The difficulties," he wrote, "of working a fluctuating system properly in this remote and extensive tract would be very great; the people are accustomed to fixed assessments, and are almost unanimously, so far as the Financial Commissioner could judge, in favor of their retention;" and he saw no reason "why the Pachad villages should not thrive if their assessments are kept light, and if suspensions of the revenue are judiciously and freely allowed in unfavourable years" In the case of certain selected villages towards the tail of the hill-torrent irrigation where the harvests are specially precarious, Mr. Rivaz directed that the people should be allowed the option of a fluctuating assessment, but this was taken advantage of in the Sangarh tahsil only, and there only in three villages.

Demand framed
for the first year of
the new settlement.

The new demand for A. D. 1896-97 consisted of Rs. 3,21,462 fixed and Rs. 1,69,510 fluctuating land revenue, total Rs. 4,90,972, an increase of Rs. 83,577, or 20 per cent. as compared with the demand for the previous year framed on the basis of the old assessment. The year 1896-97 was an inferior one owing to drought prevailing throughout a great part of the Pachad, failure of the canals at the time of the sowing of the *rabi* crop, and to deficient winter rains in the riverain tract, and the income from fluctuating land revenue was much less than may be expected in an average year. At the same time, the harvests were not so deficient as to involve scarcity; on the contrary, there was a surplus of grain for export, the people profitted by the high prices which prevailed owing to the famine in other parts of India, and the year was a favourable one for the introduction of the new demand.

The land revenue of each tahsil and of the district at different periods is given in the following table :—

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.
Land demands as
at different

Period.	Sangarh.	Dera Ghazi Khan.	Jampur.	Rejan- pur.	District.
	Bs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
First Summary Settlement, 1849-50	57,770	1,95,775	96,388	89,035*	4,38,968
Second " " 1853-54	40,448	1,66,771	75,797	65,799*	3,48,815
Third " " 1859-60	36,686	1,55,104	71,064	55,206*	3,18,060
Year before the demand of the Regular Settlement was imposed, 1872-73.	37,055	1,53,118	72,295	72,196†	3,32,664
Demand imposed at Regular Settlement, 1873-74.	49,118	2,08,100	93,981	84,654	4,35,853
Demand on the basis of the Regular Settlement for 1895-96.	50,593	1,86,855	86,263	83,684	4,07,395
Demand framed on revision of assessment for 1896-97 ‡.					
(1). Fixed	45,769	1,53,132	87,083	35,478	3,21,462
(2). Fluctuating	12,675	69,924	31,076	55,835	1,69,510
Total ...	58,444	2,23,056	1,18,159	93,313	4,90,972

* Excluding *jozir* income.

† Including *jozir* income.

‡ For the estimated average income from fixed and fluctuating assessments, see page 161.

The assessment prepared by the Settlement Officer for each circle was the sum total of the amounts which he considered, after a careful inspection, could be paid by the various villages comprised in the circle. To justify his assessment, however, a Settlement Officer is required to prepare a produce estimate for each circle, and to prove that his assessment, while not exceeding the maximum limit prescribed by Government, namely, half the net profits derived by agriculturists from their land, does not fall so far below it as to be unfair to Government or less than the standard of similarly circumstanced districts. The estimate was prepared in Dera Ghazi Khan in the following way. The area cropped in each harvest of the five concluding years of the period of the Regular Settlement was known, and an average was struck to represent the area of crops in an average year. Rates of yield for each kind of crop were worked out, of which specimens have been given in Chapter III, Section A, of this work. An estimate was also formed of the standard prices of agricultural produce below which the average prices of the new term of settlement are not likely to fall.

Produce
mates.

Fatf

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.
Produce
mates.

From these data the value of the gross produce of the land in an average year was calculated. The proportion of the produce received by the proprietors as rent has been stated in Chapter III, Section E, of this work, in which the customs of paying certain menials from the gross produce, between landlord and tenant, and of the tenant being permitted to utilize certain crops as fodder for his well cattle have been explained. The gross value of the produce was diminished so as to allow for the deductions and for the use of fodder, and of the estimate so diminished the percentage usually taken by the landlord as rent was the value of the net profits derived by landlords from their land. One-half of this was the limit, the half-asset estimate which Government does not think it equitable to exceed. These estimates were worked out for each class of soil in each Assessment Circle, and in doing this care had to be taken to credit the value of the various crops to the soils on which they were grown, a matter for which the then method of recording crops from year to year did not give the facilities which now exist. The incidence of the estimate on the area of the soil was then worked out to facilitate comparison of the estimates one with another. The soil rates corresponding with the half-asset estimates are given below for the more important soils in each Assessment Circle except for those on which the assessment is an entirely fluctuating one and is levied by rates on the crops matured.

Taluk and circle.	HALF-ASSET SOIL RATE PER ACRE OF CULTIVATION.																	
	Rudkohi.			Bārādi.			Abi Kālā-pāni.			Chāhi.			Chāhi nahri.			Nāhri.		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Sangarh-Pachād ...	0	8	0	0	2	0	1	0	0
Dera " ...	0	6	4	0	0	8
Jāmpur " ...	0	7	2	0	2	1
Rājanpur " ...	0	1	7	0	1	3
Sangarh Sind
Dera Danda	0	8	0
Sangarh-Chāhinahri	0	7	10
Dera "	0	8	0	0	8	0
Jāmpur-Sind	1	2	8	1	7	0	0	6	0
Rājanpur-Kutb	1	5	10	1	9	2	0	14	1
Jāmpur-Kālāpāni...	1	6	9	1	5	8	0	9	5

The *chāhi nahri* rate is low in Sangarh, because there is no true *chāhi nahri* cultivation there at present, the Massawah canal never flowing so late as to afford a watering for the *rabi* sowings. The *nahri* soil rate is higher in Jāmpur than in Dera, though the *nahri* crop rates are nearly identical, because land of this class lies longer fallow in the latter tahsil. This is partly due to the permanent cause of tenants being more easily procurable in Jāmpur than elsewhere and partly to the accidental one of the Dhūndi Canal having been kept flowing in the cold weather during two out of five of the years on which the produce estimate is based. The half-asset estimates which these rates represent were considered "cautious" by Financial Commissioner (Mr. Rivaz) and by His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor (Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick). The results of the re-assessment are shown in the following table:—

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

Produce Esti-
mates.

Tahsil.	REVENUE BEFORE REVISION.		Demand mentioned in Orders on the Assessment Report.	REVENUE ACTUALLY IMPOSED.					INCREASE BY NEW ASSESSMENT.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.		Initial.		Deferred.	Total distributed.		Total.	Percentage.
				Fixed.	Fluctuating.		Grand total fixed and fluctuating.	Rate per acre cultivated.		
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Sangarh ...	50,593	0 5 4	50,710	45,769	14,815	545	61,129	0 6 0	10,536 21	
Dera Ghazi Khan.	1,96,855	0 7 10	2,39,735	1,53,132	76,354	5,449	2,34,935	0 9 10	47,080 25	
Jāmpur ...	86,263	0 5 5	1,17,054	87,083	31,964	1,873	1,20,920	0 7 7	34,657 44	
Rājapur ...	83,684	0 7 1	1,01,527	33,478	67,143	80	1,02,701*	0 8 1	19,017 23	
District ...	4,07,395	0 6 7	5,19,026	3,21,462	1,90,310	7,342	5,19,114	0 8 1	1,11,719 27	

* Pending formal sanction of the Financial Commissioner to the Comparative Demand Statement for Rājapur.

The fluctuating revenue shown in this table is an estimate based on the average area cropped during the five years preceding re-settlement of the probable annual income from fluctuating assessments. It includes the assessment of crops in the riverain tract, which is entirely fluctuating and is in the form of differential crop rates, the more valuable crops such as the poppy being rated as high as Rs. 3 an acre, while wheat is charged Re. 1-4-0 an acre in *sailāb* land with 4 annas extra if it receives well-water, i.e., is *chāhi-sailāb*.

Systems of fluctuating assessments.

The rates are different in the different tahsils, but will not be changed during the term of settlement. The fluctuating assessment accepted by three villages in the Sangarh tahsil for their *rodhohi* and *barāni* cultivation is also in the form of

Chapter V. C. differential crop rates, one rupee per acre for wheat and nine annas per acre for all other crops.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Systems of fluctuating assessments.

The assessment of canal-irrigated crops in Sangarh is also entirely fluctuating, but is uniform, eight annas per acre on all crops. The corresponding rate in the Dera and Jampur tahsils is also uniform, 10 annas per acre on all crops receiving canal water, but is in addition to a fixed assessment on *nahri* and *chahi-nahri* land. The system is the same in a small part of Rájanpur except that there the rate is one rupee per acre on all crops, but in the Kadra and Gharkab Circles of that tahsil in which *sailába* cultivation is mixed with canal-irrigated land, the differential rates of the riverain circle have been made applicable to both classes of cultivation, and the fixed assessment is a light one on the waste land of the villages.

Rates of incidence of new revenue on soils.

The following table shows the rates adopted in distributing the sanctioned fixed land revenue over soils for the purpose of bringing out the assessments of villages:—

Tahsil and Circle.	Rockohi soil.	Barani soil.	Abi Kalapani soil.	Chahi soil.	Chahi-nahri soil.	Nahri soil.	REMARKS.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
Sangarh-Pachád...	0 5 7	0 1 5	0 14 9	These rates embrace the whole of the new assessment.
Dera	0 3 0	0 0 4	
Jampur	0 4 6	0 1 5	
.. Kalapani...	0 11 4	
Rájanpur Pachád	0 0 11	0 0 11	
Sangarh-Sind	0 8 6	
Dera Danda	0 6 11	
Sangarh-Chahi Nahri Circle.	0 8 0	0 8 0	...	
Rájanpur K u t b jagir villages.	1 7 5	1 5 8	0 9 5	
Dera Chahi-Nahri Circle.	1 0 0	0 13 5	0 2 4	In addition to these rates on soils a fluctuating assessment on canal-irrigated crops is taken at 10 annas on Dera and Jampur, and Re. 1 per acre in Rájanpur.
Jampur-Sind	1 1 0	0 13 0	0 4 0	
Rájanpur K u t b non-jagir villages.	1 9 5	1 4 4	0 3 8	

The total increase in the land revenue demand, provided the Settlement Officer's estimate of the income from fluctuating assessment is realized, is Rs. 1,11,919, or 27 per cent. There was no rise of prices justifying the enhancement except to a small extent in the Jampur tahsil, where the rise was estimated as 11 per cent. But cultivation had increased in the canal-irrigated part of the district, in the years following the Regular Settlement and the area protected by wells had expanded. There had also been a rise in rents. But the increase of the demand was justified mainly by the facts that the assessment imposed at Regular Settlement was exceedingly light, and that now when the people have benefited in general prosperity by the peace we have given them on the border there no longer exists any strong reason for keeping the revenue low. At the same time even the new demand is by no means a heavy one.

In addition to introducing systems of fluctuating assessment into the more precariously situated tracts, it was necessary to provide for elastic treatment for the deep and expensive Danda wells. A proprietor is not always able to replace one of these when it falls in or otherwise becomes useless, and it was provided that in the event of such a well becoming unworkable through no fault of the owner the fixed assessment imposed at Revision of Settlement should be remitted, but should be re-imposed on the well being repaired or replaced by a new one. Four years' grace is allowed after the repair, or 6 years' grace after the replacement of the well before the assessment is re-imposed. These provisions do not apply to well estates commanded by canals. During the period of remission of the assessment, cultivation is impossible without some of the methods of irrigation, for which fluctuating rates have been devised, and any such cultivation is liable to pay such rates. All new wells are protected for 20 years and old wells repaired for 10 years from enhancement of fixed assessment under the general rules in force in the Punjab. This is the cause of a portion of the fixed demand of the recent settlement being deferred.

Another measure for rendering as elastic as possible the working of the fixed assessment of the Revision of Settlement was the preparation by the Settlement Officer of a scheme for the working of suspensions and remissions of land revenue in years of drought. The scheme is printed as an Appendix to the Settlement Report.

When the assessment of each tahsil and circle had been framed and sanctioned, and the demand for each village in each circle had been worked out and announced, the fixed land revenue of the village was then distributed over the fields and holdings comprised in it. This was equivalent to framing the assessment of each band or embanked field in the Pachad and of each well-estate in the Sind. In doing this, effect was

Chapter V. C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Causes of increase in the land revenue.

Special rules for Danda wells.

Protective leases for new wells.

Scheme for remissions and suspensions of land revenue.

Distribution of the land revenue over proprietary holdings.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

given as far as possible to the wishes of the people. They generally divided the *bands* or wells into a number of classes, and decided the proportion which the acreage rates of the various classes should bear to one another. The resulting assessments were examined by the Settlement Officer by the light of the crop statistics and were modified where necessary.

The instalments in which the new demand is payable.

The demands for the *kharif* and *rabi* harvests are each paid in two instalments, of which the dates approved at Revision of Settlement were, for the *kharif*, January 1st* and February 1st, and for the *rabi* June 15th and July 15th. The *kharif* dates are late because in the Pachad harvesting lasts long, and in the Sind it takes some time to prepare the papers relating to fluctuating assessment. As regards the proportion of the whole fixed demand in each village payable in the *kharif* and the *rabi*, respectively, the wishes of the people were ascertained and were complied with when they were not unreasonable. In the Jampur Sind most of the villages elected to pay the whole of the fixed demand in the *kharif* and the whole of the fluctuating in the *rabi*. Elsewhere the fluctuating assessment is payable immediately after the harvest for which it is framed.

Cesses.

The cesses collected in addition to the land revenue are in this district the following percentages on the land revenue:—

	Rs. a. p.
Local rate	10 15 0
Pachotra or headman's fee for collection of the revenue ...	5 0 0
Patwari cess	6 4 0 in Sangarh,
	5 0 0 in the other tahsils, which will probably be raised to 6 per cent., so as to cover the cost of the <i>kanungo</i> staff as well as that of the patwari establishment.

In villages of which the revenue is assigned and the assignees have authority to collect the revenue in kind, the assignees and not the landowners, are responsible for the payment of cesses.

Period of settlement.

The demand framed at Revision of Settlement was introduced in all four tahsils with effect from the *kharif* harvest of A. D. 1896, and the period of settlement is understood to be 20 years† and will expire with the *rabi* harvest of A. D. 1916. The fixed assessments will ordinarily remain unchanged for that period except where reduction is required on account of erosion of land by the Indus, and the rates of fluctuating assessment are not subject to alteration during the period of settle-

* When this work was prepared it had not been finally decided whether this or December 1st should be the date in the Kulapasi Circle of Jampur.

† Final orders on this point had not been passed when the Gazetteer was revised.

ment. The scale of occupiers' rates is, however, liable to revision every five years, and as the initial scale on the older canals is a very low one it will probably be gradually raised if the profit on capital from the total income assigned to the land revenue assigned to the Irrigation Department at the recent settlement proves insufficient.

The date-palms of the district have been described in Chapter I, Section B of this work. Groves of date trees are common in the canal-irrigated part of the Dera tahsil, and there the trees are, as they were in the time of native rule, the property of Government. In the other tahsils the trees are comparatively few and valueless, and the income derived from them by the owners of the land is merely one of the minor assets considered in fixing the land revenue assessment of an estate. In the Dera tahsil it was found at Regular Settlement that the produce of all date-trees was sold by auction annually with the exception of certain groves which were leased either on quit-rents or rent-free. The principles then laid down for the guidance of the Settlement Officer were that Government should retain its proprietary right in the trees, that female (i. e., fruit-bearing) trees should not be felled at all and that male trees should be felled only on permission first obtained and on payment of a fee of Re. 1 per tree. A considerable concession not before enjoyed by them, or not to such an extent, was made to the owners of the land in which the trees grow, viz., the right to take under all circumstances one-fourth of the fruit of the trees in consideration of their protecting the trees and the fruit. For detached trees an estimate was made of the value of the other three-fourths of the fruit, and on this rates were based at which the trees were leased for the term of settlement to the village communities, or in effect to the owners of the land bearing the trees. The power to take the Government three-fourths of the produce was, in the case of groves of date trees, to be sold by auction annually to contractors, but the landowners were given the option of taking a five years' lease of the groves at an annual rent 10 per cent. below the auction purchaser's bid. Of this option advantage was taken in the case of one grove only, and the auction system has continued in force up till now in respect of all the more valuable groves. Quit-rents and rent-free tenures were investigated, and deductions of 5 per cent. each were allowed to lambardars and patwaris from the date revenue paid by the proprietors of the land. No other cesses were collected on this revenue, and none were allowed on the proceeds of the auction sales. The trees were enumerated at the time of the Regular Settlement, and again at the recent Revision of Settlement, and it was found at the latter that while 138,191 trees (including 67,018 female trees) had been eroded and carried away by the Indus there had been a large increase due to reproduction. On well estates in which at the Regular Settlement there were either no trees or so few that it was considered

Chapter V, C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.

Date revenue. Fiscal treatment at Regular Settlement and at Revision.

Chapter V. C. unnecessary to put any date assessment on the well, there were now found to be 161,294 trees (including 37,753 female trees). Excluding these, the increase in the number of trees contributing towards the Government revenue by auction or otherwise or formally exempted was from 359,104 (including 180,864 female trees) at the Regular Settlement to 614,965 (including 259,312 female trees) at Revision, or 71 per cent. in the total and 43 per cent. in the number of female trees. The Government income from the trees leased to the landowners was Rs. 6,357 at the Regular Settlement, and was reduced by erosion to Rs. 4,575 at the expiry of that settlement. The income from the auctioned groves varied from Rs. 7,677 in 1876-77 to Rs. 10,970 in 1896-97, and the average for periods of five years is given below.

	Rs.
1875-76 to 1879-80	7,970
1880-81 to 1884-85	8,757
1885-86 to 1889-90	8,450
1890-91 to 1894-95	9,780

At the recent settlement the villages containing date trees were divided into three classes, the first containing the city and cantonments of Dera Ghazi Khan and adjacent villages which contain the densest and most valuable groves of the tahsil, the second composing a ring of villages surrounding those of the first class, and the third containing the remaining villages of the Sadar tahsil. The third class contain no groves subject to annual auction. Inquiry showed that the auction purchaser who farms out most of the groves to minor contractors receives an income of which the incidence per female tree is 2 annas 7 pies in the case of groves in the first class villages, and one anna 3 pies in the second class villages. There was no reason to alter the auction system, which has now been in force for so long, and for any inconvenience occasioned the owners of the land have been fully compensated by the concession to them at Regular Settlement of one-fourth of the fruit. At the same time it was considered desirable to give some facilities to the owners of the soil for taking up leases of the groves, provided that no considerable loss was caused to Government by this course. Leases for a period of five years, and subject to re-consideration at the end of that period, were accordingly offered to the landowners, and the Settlement Officer was authorized to lease separately each grove or set of groves in a village. The rates sanctioned as a basis for the leases were: per female tree 2½ annas in the case of first class villages, and 1½ annas subject to a deduction of 10 per cent. in second class villages. The leases were accepted in all the villages of the second class, but in only one village of the first class. In the other villages of the first class, therefore, the auction system still continues

In the case of trees that had not previously been subject to auction, but which had multiplied and become groves, it was a question whether the auction system might not be extended to them, but it was decided that no material alteration should be made in their treatment, and that auction should be limited to the groves in which it had hitherto been practised. Leases of the trees were accordingly given for the term of settlement to the proprietary body of each village. The rates per female tree, which were sanctioned as a basis for the leases, and which were used also in distributing the date revenue over well estates, were as follows :—

First class villages	One anna.
Second class villages	Nine pies ordinarily, but 6 pies in water-logged villages in which the fruit is difficult to collect.
Third class villages.	Four pies.

These rates were lower than those proposed for the trees subject to the auction system because the latter were mostly old trees in full bearing, while the former contained many which, though they had begun to bear fruit, did not give a full yield. This was especially the case in the villages of the third class in which the proportion of trees which have grown up since the last settlement was greater than elsewhere.

The demand on account of date revenue as finally worked out was Rs. 1,244 on trees formerly auctioned and Rs. 8,540 on non-auction trees, total Rs. 9,784. Deductions in favour of village headmen and the patwari fund of the district amount to Rs. 910 and assignees receive Rs. 408, so that the amount due to Government is 8,466. The assigned date revenue is for the most part made up of that of trees standing in graveyards, in enclosures attached to religious edifices, or in land of which the land revenue also is assigned, and there are only seven special assignments of date revenue as distinct from land revenue. Such quit-rents as were maintained at the Revision of Settlement are included in the Rs. 8,466 due to Government and were assessed at the same rates as leases to village communities. These quit-rents were originally concessions to particular individuals some of whom had no connection with the land on which the trees stand, while others were owners of the land but were allowed quit-rents in the time when otherwise the produce of the trees would have been auctioned. The latter class of quit-rents will in course of time merge in the leases to village communities. The increase in the income from leases as compared with the demand for the year preceding the introduction of the new demand was Rs. 3,891, or deducting the sum of Rs. 1,244, by which sum the annual amount yielded by auction will probably be diminished, Rs. 2,647, an increase of Rs. 58 per cent.

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Treatment of trees not subject to annual auction of the produce.

Summary of results of revision of date tree assessment.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.
Assigned Land
revenue.

The following table * shows the distribution of the assigned land revenue of the district :—

	SANGHUR.			DESA GHAZI KHAN.			JAMSHED.			BILASPUR.			TOTAL DISTRICT.		
	Fixed.	Fluctuating.	Total.	Fixed.	Fluctuating.	Total.	Fixed.	Fluctuating.	Total.	Fixed.	Fluctuating.	Total.	Fixed.	Fluctuating.	Total.
Total Revenue	96,990	14,848	111,838	138,341	59,364	197,705	68,056	31,961	100,017	35,458	67,141	102,599	127,004	190,310	317,314
Due to Government	43,108	14,512	57,620	129,693	75,127	204,820	79,021	31,669	110,690	8,330	55,525	63,855	261,301	170,723	432,078
Assigned :—	3,291	37	3,328	28,288	1,227	29,515	8,035	355	8,390	27,210	11,916	39,126	67,743	13,557	81,283
(a) Held by Bhooh Chiefs in thana	7,000	...	7,000	21,296	104	21,400	5,199	...	5,199	10,000	4,397	14,397	42,104	4,411	46,515
(b) Held by Mian Sahib Sani (Rajapur and Halipur thanas).
(1) Jailer's income	1,055*	...	1,055	7,680†	...	7,680	9,384	...	9,384
(2) Kasars and mags	960	...	960	960	...	960
(c) Sufaid Tebi thana	180	...	180	140	...	140	235	...	235	40	...	40	505	...	505
(d) Zaildars fees	418	117	535	1,121	720	1,841	744	318	1,062	124	568	712	2,437	1,703	4,140
(e) Other assignments to individuals.	603	260	863	861	160	1,021	1,030	...	1,030	7,437	6,503	13,940	9,399	6,883	16,283
(f) Assignments to institutions	1,880	233	2,113	123	37	160	2,003	260	2,263

* The table is subject to modification, as the Government orders on the subject of assignments had not been received when this volume was written.

† Excluding military.

The greater part of the assigned land revenue forms the emoluments of the Biloch tumandars and is well repaid by the important administrative and magisterial functions they discharge. The *inam* enjoyed by each chief has been described in the account of the Biloch tribes given in Chapter III, Section D, of this work. The cash value of the assignment to each chief was fixed at the Regular Settlement of the district, with reference to his expectations and his responsibilities and to the amount of profit he had derived from the system previously in force, by which the chief collected revenue in kind and paid the cash assessment to Government. The power of collecting revenue in kind was not withdrawn but was limited to selected villages whose cash assessments made up the sanctioned amount of the chief's *inam*. The share of the produce to be taken by the chief was fixed so as not to exceed that portion of the produce which could be deemed fairly to represent the Government demand. All the grants were conditional on good and loyal service to be rendered by the tumandars on occasions of importance whenever called upon by the District Officer, and in connection with this condition it was stipulated that a certain number of sowars should be supplied by each chief for the watch and ward of the frontier. Any sowars required in addition to the number fixed in each case are paid by Government. The assignments were made for the term of settlement and subject to re-consideration on its expiry. The grants proved most effective in improving the condition of the chiefs and through them, of their tribes, which are generally in excellent control, and there was no question at the recent Revision of Settlement of discontinuing the allowances to the chiefs.

The working of the system by which they are allowed power to collect in kind was, however, considered very carefully with reference to the provision which had been made at the Regular Settlement that the power would be enjoyed only during the pleasure of Government and would be liable to be withdrawn should such a course be deemed expedient. The conclusion arrived at was that the system should be continued except in the Khosa tribe where, for the reasons given in the account of that tribe in Chapter III, Section D, the privilege was withdrawn from the chief. The continuance of collections in kind and the enhancement by Revision of Settlement of the cash assessments of the *inam* villages, necessitated a re-consideration of the cash valuations of the *inams*, but this matter had not been dealt with by Government when this work went to press.

The only other large assignment of land revenue in the district is the Rajaapur *jagir* which with the Hajipur *kasurs jagir* in the Jampur tahsil, is held by the head of the Kalhora or Serai family and has been described in Chapter III, Section F, of this work. From the revenue of the villages of the Rajaapur *jagir* a number of sub-assignments are released to individuals, some by orders of the successive holders of the *jagir*, others

Chapter V, C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.
Inams of Biloch
Chiefs.

Rajaapur

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.Sub-assignments
of jagir revenue.

granted by the rulers of the country. These were investigated at the Regular Settlement of the district but not reported for the orders of Government. They were again investigated at Revision of Settlement and were then reported for the orders of Government which had not been conveyed before this work went to the press. Those which were granted by the authority of a jagirdar only have in anticipation of sanction been resumed and included in the jagirdar revenue. But a large number of grants are held by leading men of the Drishak tribe and were granted by the rulers of the country to encourage cultivation and to secure protection from hill marauders for the people and date from a time prior to the grant of the *jagir* to the Kallora family. These have in anticipation of sanction been continued to the present holders, though as the holders are often numerous and the benefits derived by individuals are sometimes infinitesimally small, it is desirable that their shares should be resumed as they die until only one assignee, the chief representative of the family, is left in enjoyment of the grant. In a number of these sub-assignments the Drishak assignees have from time immemorial collected the land revenue in kind even during the ten years when the jagirdar collected his revenue in cash. In some such cases the Drishaks were the original owners of the land and had to sell the proprietary right and in many the proprietary rights have been transferred once or twice or more frequently and the only right that has been so transferred is the right to take the *lichh*. It is a question therefore whether the power to continue to collect in kind should be formally conferred under Frontier Regulation No. VII of 1874 on the Drishak assignees who have been proved to have uniformly received the revenue in that way, or whether cash assessments should be substituted.

Similar sub-assignments from the Drishak Chief's *inam*.

There are sub-assignments of the nature of those described in the last paragraph in the villages from which the Drishak Chief receives his *inam*. Some of those villages were originally in the Rajanpur *jagir* and for that reason the sub-assignments were not reported for orders at Regular Settlement. Such of them as are held by Drishaks other than those belonging to the chief's family have been treated in the same way as those in the Rajanpur *jagir*. Those held by members of the chief's family were originally granted to the chief of the tribe himself, but have been treated in respect of partition and inheritance in the same manner as land, and some are held by the chief and some by his kinsmen. Those held by the chief will probably merge either now or at some future time in his *inam*. The others have generally been recommended for continuance like those in the Rajanpur *jagir*. The revenue is collected in kind by the assignees and no special sanction appears to be required for this arrangement as the sanction to the chief's *inam* conveys authority to collect the whole of the revenue of these villages in kind.

In the Mazari tribe there are assignments or *kasurs** similar to the sub-assignments held by the Drishaks but of a much greater aggregate value, and the chief himself is a considerable holder of *kasur* which is partly included in and partly distinct from his emoluments as chief. These *kasurs*, which are nearly always one-half of the land revenue, date from the time when the tribe acknowledged the authority of the Amirs of Sind. Seventeen grants are very valuable and the Government order regarding these is that where the *kasur*-holders are the owners of the land of which the revenue is assigned the local officers have a discretion to recommend that the grant descend to all the sons in the same manner as the land. But in the case of land which does not belong to the *kasur*-holders the *kasur* is continued on the death of a grantee to the eldest or some one selected son. All are subject to good behaviour and service, and to confirmation from time to time when the district comes under settlement. The grants amount practically to a relinquishment of half the revenue of the Mazari country to the tribe, the other half being conferred on the chief *inam*. Besides the seventeen larger grants there were no less than 248 smaller grants of an aggregate value of Rs. 601 which had to be considered at the recent Revision of Settlement. Each of these grants were of value to the holders were continued in anticipation of sanction, and the remainder it has been proposed to resume but to re-grant in the form of eight *inams* to be held by leading men of the tribe.

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Kasurs in the Mazari tribe.

In two cases is the Jampur tahsil recommendations have been made in favour of the assignees being allowed to collect in kind. One of these is held by the Lishari Section of the Gurchani tribe near Drigri and the other by the Durkani Section of the same tribe in Garkana Waziri, and the circumstances of the two are similar. Both were made by Government as grants of waste land with a view to civilize marauding hill Bilochis, and in both the land was claimed by individuals between whom and the assignees a compromise was effected by which the *mahsul* government share was partitioned in one way and the *lichh* proprietary right in another. In two other cases, Makwalwah and Golewah in this tahsil, where the Lisharis were assigned the land revenue, they were allowed to collect it in whole or part in kind, but this permission was withdrawn at the recent settlement.

Assignments of revenue in kind in Jampur.

Other grants to individuals are not numerous or important. The largest is the assignment to Mehr Shah, the representative of an influential family of Saiyads in Sangarh, of two-thirds of the revenue of Panjgranw. The headmen of sections of certain Biloch tribes

Other assignments to individuals and institutions.

* The word *kasur* is the plural of the Arabic word *kasr*, fraction, and means, or meant originally, the assignment of a specified fraction of the land revenue.

Chapter V. C.

Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.

Other assignments to individuals and institutions.

receive specified amounts from the *inams* allowed to the chiefs of the tribes. Several respectable families in the Rajanpur tahsil enjoy assignments. There are few grants to institutions (shrines, mosques and temples) except in the Dera tahsil where they are numerous but not very valuable except that to the Sakhi Sarwar shrine to which the revenue of the village of that name is assigned along with a lump sum from the revenue of another. A cash assessment of Rs. 725 was put on the village of Sakhi Sarwar for the first time at the recent Settlement.

History of the
Indus Canals.

All the Indus Canals are now under Government management, both the older ones and also three which have been acquired by Government by purchase.

The following is a list of them :—

Tahsil.	Canal.	REMARKS.	
Sangarh	Massawah	} Acquired by purchase.	
Dera Ghazi Khan	Fazlwah-Dhori		
	Maska		
	Shori		
Dera Ghazi Khan and Jampur,	Kasturi		
Dera Ghazi Khan	Dhingana		
Dera Ghazi Khan and Jampur,	Chibri		} Old.
Jampur	Sahiban		
	Kiriya Gamu		
	Sohan		
	Nar	} Acquired in part by purchase.	
Jampur and Rajanpur	Dhundi		
Rajanpur	Katb	} Old.	
	Kadra		

The older canals date from the time of the Mirrani Governors, the Nawabs Ghazi Khan and Haji Khan, or their successors. The account of their origin given by Sir F. Fryer in his Settlement Report is that while canals were indispensable for cultivation in this arid district there were no village communities which could naturally unite to dig canals and it, therefore, fell to the governors of districts to collect the land owners and combine them for the excavation of canals. Each owner

of land within the area commanded by the proposed canal was required to dig a length of the canal proportionate to the size of his holding, and any land which had no owner was given to any person who undertook a share of the excavation in proportion to the area of such land. A landowner who refused to take a part in the work forfeited his land. The direction and supervision of the excavation rested with the governor who also sometimes, though not always, provided food for the labourers engaged on the work. Compensation for land taken up for canals was never either demanded or paid. The land occupied by the canal and its banks was, according to Sir F. Fryer, still held to belong to its original owners, the first interference with liberty of private action as to the banks being Diwan Sawan Mal's prohibition of the felling of *shisham* trees without a license. All such land was, however, recorded at the Regular Settlement of the district as the property of Government and wherever it has been abandoned for canal purposes, as for instance where the head portion of a canal has been eroded by the river and converted into *sailab* land, it has been retained by Government and rent has been taken for crops grown upon it. Similarly, land taken up for canal purposes after the Regular Settlement was acquired either under the Land Acquisition Act or by private bargain and has been paid for with the single exception of the gradual encroachment of spoil banks on the land adjoining the canal. Considerable areas have been acquired in this way and several of the canals have been remodelled. The Shori Canal has been fitted with a new supply channel 12 miles in length and its head is now much further up the river than it was formerly. The Kasturi head has been several times eroded and new heads and supply channels have been made. The Nur has been improved in a similar fashion to the Shori though to a less extent, and its banks have been raised. A new channel has been made for part of the length of the Dhundi where it was eroded by the river. Much land has also been acquired in connection with the two systems of embankments, one between the Manka and Shori heads, and the other near the heads of the Nur and Dhundi Canals, which protect the whole canal-irrigated portion of the district from destructive inundation. These systems came into existence under our rule before which no attempt was made to fight the river. In addition to the larger embankments a number of smaller ones devised by Mr. R. A. Molloy have been constructed during the last ten years with the object of re-claiming the foreshore, and have generally been successful in effecting this object.

The expenditure on embankments and improvements has been very great and the capital account of the Indus canals is put down at Rs. 7,07,635. The working expenses average Rs. 2,55,000. The average income to the Irrigation Department which, under the old system, consisted of a direct credit of the

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.History of the
Indus Canals.

- (3). The fixed assessment of *chahi* and *chahi nahri* and *nahri* land in the Dera and Jampur tahsils in the tract which but for the protective embankments would be liable to be swept by river flood, *i. e.*, the whole of the Sind Circle of Jampur and the *chahi nahri* Circle of Dera and small parts of the Danda and Pachad Circles of the latter tahsil.
- (4). The fixed assessment of *chahi nahri* and *nahri* land in the Rajanpur tahsil.
- (5). The income from the fluctuating assessment of crops grown on land which has been so re-claimed by the effect of constructing embankments as to be capable of yielding *sailaba* crops.
- (6). The fluctuating assessment on crops grown with mixed canal and river spill.

Chapter V, C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settlements.

The estimates of the income from the fluctuating sources of income are—

	Rs.
(1)	1,02,830
(5) and (6)	2,000
Total ...	<u>1,04,830</u>

And the fixed credits are—

	Rs.
(2). Well estates in Sangarh	1,700
(3). Fixed assessments in Dera Jampur and Rajanpur	1,58,650
Total ...	<u>1,60,350</u>

The total income to the Irrigation Department will therefore be—

	Rs.	Rs.
(a) Direct—Occupiers' rates	79,522	
Dhundi estate	22,000	
		<u>1,01,522</u>
(b) Indirect—Fluctuating	1,04,830	
Fixed	1,60,350	
		<u>2,65,180</u>
GRAND TOTAL ...		<u>3,66,702</u>

It is understood that the capital account of the canals will be thoroughly examined and the amount of capital expenditure accurately ascertained, that separate accounts will be kept for embankments and for canals of the money expended on

Apportionment of the income to the Irrigation Department.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

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- (4). The fixed assessment of *chahi nahri* and *nahri* land in the Rajaupur tahsil.
- (5). The income from the fluctuating assessment of crops grown on land which has been so re-claimed by the effect of constructing embankments as to be capable of yielding *sailaba* crops.
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Chapter V. C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Apportionment of the income to the Irrigation Department.

Scales of occupiers' rates.

them, and that the income will be credited in the following order:—

- (1). Working expenses of canals.
- (2). Expenditure on maintenance of embankments.
- (3). Profit on the combined capital accounts of expenditure on canals and embankments.

The scale of occupiers' rates sanctioned for the older canals with the exception of the Kutb and Kadra was a full rate of 9 annas per acre of crops matured by kharif flow irrigation, half-rates for kharif lift and rabi flow and quarter rates for rabi lift irrigation. For the Kutb and Kadra the proportions charged for the various kinds of irrigation are the same, but the full rate is only six annas an acre pending the improvement of those canals. On the Massawah the occupiers' rate is eight annas per acre of crops matured by flow and four annas per acre matured by lift irrigation in either harvest. On the Fazlwah-Dhori the rate is also the same in both harvests but is one rupee per acre of crops matured by flow irrigation and 12 annas per acre matured by lift.

Extension of clearance operations by the Irrigation Department.

Acquisition of land for spoil banks.

It was decided in connection with the Revision of Settlement that the Irrigation Department should increase the extent to which it clears canal distributaries. Even branches of canals were not, by the system in force when the district came under Settlement, cleared at Government expense for their entire length and the portions left to the zamindars to clear were often much too long. It was also decided that the land required for spoil banks, the only land which had not up till then been regularly acquired and paid for, should be taken up and paid for in the same way as other land.

Registers of rights to irrigation from canals dispensed with.

These of the Regular Settlement obsolete.

Registers of rights to irrigation from canals were prepared at the Regular Settlement of the district showing the right of each irrigator to water and the extent to which the irrigators were responsible for the clearance of branches and distributaries. These were useful as a record of what was customary in 1874, but they are now out of date. The entries are quite inapplicable in cases where canals have been enlarged or extended or altered since the time when the registers were made, and though they may have been suitable when the imposition of a fixed assessment on a field guaranteed in a way its supply of water for the term of settlement they cannot be regarded as in any way binding now that the water-rates and a great part of the land revenue are both charged on the area irrigated only. The distribution of water is governed by Act VIII of 1873 and the rules under it. The old registers are obsolete and no registers are prescribed by the Land Revenue Act now in force, Act XVII of 1887, except in the case of villages to which irrigation has been newly extended. No such villages were found at

the recent Revision of Settlement and no registers were consequently prepared.

Another series of registers, those of rights to irrigation from hill-torrents, which was prepared at Regular Settlement was left untouched at Revision of Settlement but for a different reason. These registers have not become obsolete and are not likely to become so for another twenty years, and they are in excellent order. Their revision is certain when undertaken to revive old disputes and to give rise to new ones. It must be effected some time but it was decided at the Revision of Settlement that the time had not yet come. The registers whatever may be their legal value are most useful for the prevention and the settlement of disputes about hill-torrents which are a fertile source of riots and bloodshed among the Biloch tribesmen of the Pachtad.

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Registers of rights to irrigation from hill torrents.

Table No. XVII shows the area and

Table.	Number	Total area.
Sangarh	11	31,565
Dera Ghazi Khan	24	70,529
Jampur	5	22,761
Rajapur	38	99,008
Total	81	223,874

income of Government estates, while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. The forests have already been notice-

Government lands, forests, &c.

ed in Chapter IV, Section A. The *rakhs* of the district are distributed in the manner shown in the margin.

A rough demarcation of *rakhs* was made in A. D. 1865, but it was not till A. D. 1869 that the work was taken in hand in earnest in connection with the Regular Settlement. Great care was taken not to infringe established rights and to show consideration to the just claims of the people, and at the recent Revision of Settlement few claims were advanced to proprietary right in *rakh* land and none with any foundation. During the progress of the Regular Settlement an area of 12,549 acres was released from the *rakhs* in favour of villages. Both then and at the Revision of Settlement as much as possible of this area was included in the areas of the villages to which its owners belonged and was excluded from the *rakhs* and their records, but this could not always be done nor is it of much importance now to do so for grants and leases of land have been given freely from the *rakhs* for cultivation, so that there is not much difference between the constitution of a *rakh* under district management and that of a village. Of the total area of 217,317 acres of land demarcated as *rakhs* at the Regular Settlement an area of 36,129 acres in the Sangarh, Dera, and Rajapur tahsils was handed over to the Forest Department for strict conservancy, but all this with the exception of 16,000 acres in the Rajapur tahsil was subsequently transferred to district management. This was later considered insufficient for the wants of the Forest

History of the *rakhs*.

Chapter V. C.
Land and Land
Revenue Settle-
ments.

History of the
rakh.

Department and as the result of arrangements made in 1893 and 1895, the area under the control of the Forest Officer stationed at Multan is 32,844 acres, 28,053 in Rajanpur, and 4,791 in Jampur.

This does not include the area of the *rakhs* in the Mazari country, of which Nawab Sir Imam Bakhsli Khan is supposed to be the Honorary Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, but which are for the most part under cultivation.

Treatment of
rakh at Revision
of Settlement.

At the Revision of Settlement the land revenue assessment of the land in the *rakhs* which had been granted in proprietary right or which had been purchased by lessees in accordance with the purchase clauses of their leases was revised in the same manner and on the same principles as the land revenue of other land. The rents of land leased for cultivation from the *rakhs* were also revised and for this purpose a land revenue assessment was framed in the same way that it would have been had the land been held in proprietary right, and to this was added a certain percentage on the same to represent the proprietary dues of the State or *malikana*. The rents on which the land had originally been let were very low and consequently high rates of *malikana* were not proposed, the highest being eight annas and the lowest two annas per rupee of land revenue. The area and rent of the land dealt with in this way are shown in the subjoined table.

Tahsil.	Total area of rakh in acres.	Area leased in acres.	Fixed rent.	Balance of income from fluctuating rents.	Total rent fixed and fluctuating.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Saugarh	31,585	1,931	205	464	669
Dera Ghazi Khan	70,520	10,346	2,435	4,476	6,911
Jampur	22,761	2,030	220	72	292
Rajanpur	99,008	17,258	391	5,690	6,081
District Total	223,874	31,574	3,251	10,702	13,953

Government pro-
prietary right.

During the measurements of the Regular Settlement it was discovered that Government was recorded as a co-sharer in many wells, and that, beyond the land revenue to which it was entitled under any circumstances, Government derived no possible advantage from its proprietary rights. The method in which the Government rights were acquired is somewhat vari-

ous. In the Rajanpur tahsil the Government was heir to Nawab Mahmud Khan, Gujar, who owned the lands through which the Kadra Canal passed, and granted half of them to the excavators of that canal, retaining half. In many cases the Government rights were acquired from revenue defaulters and in some cases by forfeiture under former Governments. In *mauza* Ranja, Tahsil Dera Ghazi Khan, half the village belonged to Government, and was confiscated in the time of the Nawabs of Bahawalpur for some offence for which the former proprietors, Makhbúl Muhammad and Nur Muhammad, Koreshis, who were in the service of the Nawab, were put to death. The Government owned half of *mauza* Kabiri, Tahsil Rajanpur. The method in which this half village was acquired is not known. The Settlement Officer reported fully upon the individual cases, and was directed to abandon rights which had long been in abeyance, either wholly, or on payment of a *nazrana*; and to sell the remainder except where the occupant was too poor to pay a fair price, in which case a rent was to be levied. All cases of long possession were dealt with liberally; and where the occupant had sunk a well, or made any material improvement, half the land was abandoned to him in accordance with the *adhlati* custom. On the whole, 225 plots, comprising 2,783 acres, were dealt with; the sum of Rs. 17,356 was realised by sale; and a rent at low rates, generally 6¼ per cent. on the revenue, was imposed upon shares in 97 wells comprising 2,783 acres, more as a nominal payment to keep alive the rights of Government than as true rent. The annual rental so fixed amounted to Rs. 790-10-0. At Revision of Settlement the rents were slightly enhanced and in some cases sale was recommended by the Settlement Officer.

Government is also recorded as owner of extensive areas of waste land within village boundaries in the Pachád, generally sand hills or other unculturable waste which, if ever it was considered to belong to individuals; must have been abandoned by them from fear of having to pay revenue on it. The land is valueless, but it is well to retain it as the property of the State because such portions of it as are culturable could only be brought under cultivation with the aid of torrent water which can only be obtained by diverting it from other land which is better entitled to it and has been assessed to revenue accordingly. There are several *rakhs* in the Sangarh tahsil of which the proprietary right is retained by Government for this reason.

The beds of hill-torrents were, at the Regular Settlement, recorded as the property of Government. These beds are liable to change just as the bed of the Indus is, and like it they have generally at some time or other been cultivated land appropriated by individuals. But it would have been a difficult matter to ascertain who the original owners were and an attempt to do so would have occasioned many disputes. For this reason and also because it was necessary to maintain the right of Govern-

Chapter V, C.

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

Government proprietary right.

three tahsils. The new revenue was then distributed and was entered in the records of rights and the settlement field establishment had finished its work by the beginning of October 1897, after which it only remained for the head-quarters establishment to incorporate the new demand in the rent roll, to complete the registers of assignments, and to prepare sundry English records including the Settlement Report, in which more detailed information regarding the work done will be found than can be given here, and a volume on the Customary law of the district.

Chapter V. C

Land and Land Revenue Settlements.

History of the operations connected with the Revision of Settlement, 1893-1897.

The new record of rights consists of the field map and a bound volume of each estate containing the following information :—

Contents of the record of rights.

- (1). The authority under which it was prepared and the date of commencement and completion.
- (2). The genealogical tree of the proprietors.
- (3). The area for the year.
- (4). The revenue account for the year.
- (5). A list of assignments of land revenue.
- (6). A statement of rights in wells.
- (7). The orders regarding the new assessment and its distribution.
- (8). A statement of the rights and liabilities of the proprietors (*Wajib-ul-arz*).
- (9). The rent roll or *jamabandi* showing in detail the manner in which the land was held during the year by the proprietors and by the tenants and the rent and revenue of each holding.

A supplementary volume contains mutation forms on which changes ascertained at Revision were first entered and passed by competent authority before they were incorporated in the new record of rights. The field map, which is on the scale of 40 *karms* (220 feet) to the inch, is on sheets of the standard pattern.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES, AND CANTONMENTS.

Chapter VI.
Towns,
Municipalities,
and Cantonments
General statistics of
towns.

At the Census of 1891 all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all head-quarters of districts and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule the following places were returned as the towns of the Dera Ghazi Khan District:—

Tahsil.	Town.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Dera Ghazi Khan ...	Dera Ghazi Khan...	27,886	16,518	11,368
Jampur	Jampur	5,815	3,124	2,691
	Dajal	6,085	3,245	2,840
Rajampur	Rajampur	4,973	3,002	1,971
	Mithaukot	3,624	1,935	1,689

All five are municipalities of the 2nd class. The members are nominated.

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Tables Nos. III and IV. The remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions and public buildings; and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

It will be noticed that Table No. V shows seven places as containing more than 5,000 inhabitants, while only three are classed as towns in the above detail. The reason is that the four villages of Choti, Rojhan, Batil, and Taunsa were excluded from the list of towns, as though the total population included within the boundaries of each exceeds 5,000 souls, yet the inhabitants are scattered over a large area in numerous hamlets lying at considerable distances from each other, no one of which contains a population sufficiently large to warrant its being classed as a town.

Town of Dera
Ghazi Khan. De-
scription.

The town of Dera Ghazi Khan lies in north latitude 30°4' and longitude 70°49' and contains 27,886 souls. It is situated close to the right bank of the river Indus, and 41 miles west of

Multan. The Kasturi Canal flows between the town and the river, which is now fenced off by protective works which are described below. The town is surrounded by groves of palm trees, and numerous gardens of mango and other fruit trees adjoin it. The Kasturi Canal is lined with bathing *ghāts* which are thronged all through the hot weather, especially during the months of July and August, when a fair is held at the canal every Sunday. The cantonments and civil lines are situated about a mile to the west of the town.

The most crowded *bazar* is a narrow street running from north to south. The new *bazar*, which runs at right angles to this one from the middle of the town to the west gate, although very much finer, is not nearly so popular with the natives. This *bazar* and gate were built by Sir Robert Sandeman when Deputy Commissioner of the district. The main streets are well paved. The sanitary arrangements are fair, the drains mostly being carried out of the town in all directions from the centre, which is situated on higher ground than the outskirts of the town. Good drinking water is readily obtained from wells at a depth from six to seven feet. The near approach of the river in 1895 and the following years has, as Dr. Jukes' description of its condition in Chapter I, Section A, of this work shows, made the town a most insanitary one, but it may be hoped that this is only temporary.

The principal buildings are Ghazi Khan's mosque, which is said to have cost Rs. 50,000; Abdul Jabar's mosque, which was built in 1235 A. H., by Abdul Jabar, who was Governor of Dera Ghazi Khan, and cost Rs. 32,000. It was turned by the Sikhs into a *dharmshala*. There is one well held revenue-free in support of this mosque. The Chutawala mosque was built by Chuta Khan, Gujar, in 1265 A. H. The Sikhs made this also into a *dharmshala*. Haji Muhammad Sadozai's mosque; it was built very long ago with red mortar. This too was converted by the Sikhs into a *dharmshala*. There are two wells held revenue-free by this mosque. The Gulalewala mosque, built by Muhammad Khan, Gujar, and repaired by a dyer called Ghulam. There are two tombs—Shah Kamal and Naurang Shah—and three Hindu temples—Gopinath, Naunit Praya, and Nar Singh. The present *katcheri* is on the site of Ghazi Khan's garden called the Naulukha.

The site now occupied by Dera Ghazi Khan is said once to have formed part of the bed of the river. It was founded some 400 years ago by Ghazi Khan, Mirrani, who was a great cattle-owner, and was attracted by the plentiful supply of grass. It has ever since been the head-quarters of the governors of the surrounding district, and its history is contained in that of the district which is given in Chapter II of this work. It has always been liable to damage from the Jalpa flood on the north

Chapter VI.
—
Towns
Municipalities,
and Cantonments.
Town of Dera Ghazi
Khan. Description.

History.

Chapter VI.
Towns,
Municipalities,
and Cantonments.
Town of Dera Ghazi
Khan. Description.

and west, and has for long been protected, in these directions by an earthen embankment.

The old cantonment and civil lines were east of the town, and were completely washed away by the river in 1656 A. D. The town was not harmed in that year. New cavalry lines were built about a mile to the north of the town; but as this was not considered a suitable position for cantonments, it was abandoned, and the present cantonment, which is to the west of the town, was occupied in 1862 A. D. The cantonment like the town was protected by an embankment on the north, west and south sides.

In 1878 A. D. the whole city was threatened with destruction by a very high flood, but the cantonment embankment gave way, and the flood turned aside from the city and swept the cantonments, flooding the houses and sepoy's lines. The residents took refuge in the Deputy Commissioner's house and in the *katcheri*, which are raised above the level of the surrounding country. The city embankment was strengthened in time to save the town. The cantonments have since been re-built on the same site. The town and cantonments were again threatened in 1882 A. D. The river was cutting away its banks at the rate of 100 feet a day at one time. A fresh embankment $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and ten feet high, was, however, constructed within the short space of ten days, and the danger was for the time averted. Between 1882 and 1890 the gradual advance westward of the river was combatted with tree-spurs and boat-spurs costing Rs. 1,80,000. A stone embankment was constructed to the east of the town in the cold weathers of 1889-90 and 1890-91 at a cost estimated originally at seven lakhs of rupees, of which the Government of India, Provincial Government, and the Municipality each contributed one-third. The Municipality's third was raised by a loan payable with interest in annual instalments which are raised in part by a house-tax and a tax on land within municipal limits. In 1895 A. D. the river cut a bay out of its right bank immediately above the stone embankment and breached the Kasturi Canal, but fortunately without flooding the town. It was then decided to extend the protective works northwards, at first for a mile only, but further afterwards if necessary. This was done in 1895-96 and 1896-97 at a further cost estimated originally at $6\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, which sum, however, has not yet entirely been expended. This was contributed in the same manner as the original seven lakhs.

The following description of the protective works has been contributed by Mr. Wallis, Superintending Engineer :—

- (1) The city and cantonments of Dera Ghazi Khan are situated on the Kadir land formed by the River Indus.
- (2) The ground has no stability whatever; it is simply a sand bank, over which many years of flood water have left a deposit of earth, which varies from 6" to 2' in depth.

Chapter VI.

Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments
Town of Dera Ghazi
Khan. Description.

(3) The Indus river evidently ran (probably some hundreds of years ago) to the west of Dera Ghazi Khan and then with the usual vagaries of an Indian river it left its former bed, and wandered eastward.

(4) The city of Dera Ghazi Khan gradually sprang up on the fertile land left by the eastward course of the river, and for many years it remained apparently unaffected by the river as regards erosion.

(5) For the last 15 years or so, the Indus has been cutting its way westwards in the vicinity of Dera Ghazi Khan, and so threatening was its action that defensive operations were commenced.

(6) These defensive measures consisted in putting down tree-spurs, which proved unsuccessful, so in the year 1889 and 1890 measures were taken to protect the city by a stone bund which will be described further on.

(7) Dera Ghazi Khan city and cantonments are threatened with three serious dangers as follows:—

(i). Avulsion, i.e., the spill of flood water.

(ii). Erosion, i.e., the current of the Indus cutting away its western bank.

(iii). The rise of subsoil water.

(8) To prevent (i) large earthen bunds (shown on Sketch No. 1*) were constructed many years ago.

These have served the purpose for which they were constructed, and as long as they hold, there is no danger to either the city or cantonments from avulsion.

(9) To prevent (ii) the stone bund referred to in para. 7 of this note, was constructed. The bund is called a "Bell's bund," the principle of the same being, that the apron of stones, where undermined by the current should fall in and form a revetment, which prevents further erosive action of the river.

(10) The section of the bund is shown in Sketch No. 3.

(11) The stone was brought from the following places:—

(a) From Sukkar,

(b) " Warcha,

(c) " Yaru,

from (a) and (b) the stone was brought by train to Ghazi Ghat and from there by means of a siding to the bank of the Indus, from which locality it was boated across the Indus and there laid in position by hand.

(12) The bund is one mile in length. Its position is shown in Sketch No. 2.

(13) The total cost of this stone bund was Rs. 5,20,500.†

(14) At the rear of the stone apron is stacked a reserve of stone, and behind this is an earthen bund on which a tram line is laid down to be used for the conveyance of stone from one place to another when necessary.

(15) The object of the earthen bund is to prevent flood water from spilling to the rear of the defence works which is one of the principles of this sort of training.

(16) The bund has acted well, but unfortunately its effect is not final as the river cut in above the same in the year 1895, and carried away about 450 cubic feet of its head and seriously threatened the future stability of the bund.

* See Appendix to this work.

† The figures quoted as cost include cost of earthworks, tram lines, &c.

Chapter VI.

Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments.

Town of Dera
Ghazi Khan. De-
scription.

(17) Accordingly, in December 1895 a committee was convened to assemble at Dera Ghazi Khan, to consider the best means of protecting the head of the bund.

(18) Mr. Oliver, Superintending Engineer (on special duty), proposed to protect the head by means of a curved retired bund (vide arrangements carried out for training the Chenab river at Sher Shah River Bridge).

(19) This proposal was not approved of by the committee, and so it was determined to carry out the following works:—

(i) To put a new head to the old stone bund;

(ii) To construct 2 stone heads on the Narora training works principle on another alignment from that of the old stone bund (vide sketch map in Appendix).

(20) The principle of these T headed stone protective works is as follows (see Sketch No. 5):—

(21) The stone heads are constructed on the principle of the Bell's bund examples of which are given in Sketch No. 3).

(22) The works consist of a retired earthen bund, A. B. and connecting bunds a, b, c, c. These are all raised to about three feet above H. F. L., and prevent any spill water from going to the rear of the training works.

(23) The stone heads are all connected with the main stone bund by means of tram lines laid on the retired and connecting bunds.

(24) When the river strikes against a stone head it assumes the direction of the curved line shown in Sketch No. 5, and cannot cut further back than half the distance apart of the stone heads.*

(25) Stone heads Nos. 1 and 2 and a new upstream end to the old stone bund were constructed during the spring and summer of 1896 at a cost of Rs. 5,02,138.

(26) The stone was brought from Warcha and Yaru.

(27) From the former place the stone was brought to Ghazi Ghât by means of the train and was boated across to the site of the works.

(28) From Yaru, the stone was brought by means of camels.

(29) The actual total cost of the works, including Departmental charges, was Rs. 5,02,138.

(30) The head of the old stone bund came into heavy action during the floods of 1896-97.

(31) Stone head No. 1 came into slight action for a part of its length, and so far has acted fairly well.

(32) During the summer floods of 1896 the Indus changed its direction very considerably, and cut away a great portion of the shore at a place called "Steamer Point."

(33) Proposals for protecting stone head No. 2 were called for, and Mr. Wallis, Superintending Engineer, proposed to extend the present alignment of stone heads Nos. 1 and 2 backwards,† and to construct 5 more stone heads eventually, so as to keep the furthest stone head out of danger of being outflanked.

(34) Colonel Marshall, R.E., Chief Engineer, in consultation with the Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, directed that two more stone heads should be constructed of the same dimensions as stone heads Nos. 1 and 2, but half-a-mile apart instead of a quarter of a mile apart as stone heads Nos. 1 and 2 were constructed. He

* This has been found to be the case at the Narora training works.

† This is shown by the alignment of stone heads marked A. B. on Sketch No. 5.

also selected another alignment (*vide* Sketch No. 2)* so as to bring the stone heads more parallel to the axis of the river.

(35) These stone heads were constructed during the spring of 1897 at a cost of Rs. 1,34,504, and have not come into action as yet.†

(36) The Indus made a most detrimental, but not unforeseen, attack on its western shore during the flood season of 1897, so measures had to be considered for protecting stone head No. 4 which is in an advanced position and liable to be outflanked.

(37) These measures are now under consideration and it has been determined that any further extension of the line of stone heads up the river is not advisable.

(38) In its present position, the Indus is threatening to outflank stone head No. 4, and its protection is a matter of urgent necessity.

(39) The Indus has further threatened the stability of the tail end of the main stone bund, and has cut away a quantity of valuable land to the rear of the same, and so further protective works to the south of the main barrier have to be considered during the current year.

(40) Regarding the rise of subsoil water referred to in para. 7 of this note this is a most serious matter, and the Punjab Government has ordered close investigations to be made into the cause and proposals to be brought forward for lowering the water by a drainage cut.

(41) The rise in the subsoil water is apparently caused by—

(i). The near proximity of the Indus.

(ii). The heavy irrigation of crops in the vicinity of the city.

(42) This rise of the subsoil water has seriously affected the stability of many houses and wells in the vicinity of the city, and has caused stagnant pools to accumulate, and as far as can be seen must produce a very detrimental effect both on the health of the people inhabiting the city and cantonments, and also on the foundations of buildings and the sullage water drainage.

(43) The cost of all the above works is shared equally by—

(a) The Imperial Government.

(b) „ Provincial Government.

(c) „ Municipal Committee.

(44) The Imperial Government has given a provisional sanction to ten lakhs being expended on the protective works.

The income of the Municipality is shown in Table No. XLV, and is chiefly derived from an octroi tax levied on almost all articles brought into the town and varies from 1½ per cent. on articles of common consumption and necessaries of life to 3½ per cent. in the case of luxuries. Owing to the debt incurred by the Municipality for the River Protective Works and its repayment, the tax, under sanction of Government, has been raised 25 per cent. over and above the rates current during the years preceding 1891, and in addition to this a house and land tax on immovable property situated within municipal limits has been imposed. The Dera Ghazi Khan municipality was

Trade, taxation, &c.

* This alignment is shown by the letters B. E. on Sketch No. 2.

† The reason why stone heads Nos. 3 and 4 were constructed at so moderate a cost was because a large quantity of the reserve stone from the main stone bund, has been used in their construction, and the balance of the stone was brought from the Sori Nalla near Yaru by camels.

Chapter VI.
Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments.
Population and
vital statistics.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891. The annual birth and death-rates per *mille* of population since 1882 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent census.

YEAR.	BIRTH-RATES.			DEATH-RATES.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1889	23.1	12.8	10.3	10.8	11.2	9.6
1890	23.2	12.1	11.1	10.6	11.3	10.2
1891	28.6	12.5	16.1	28.3	27.3	29.4
1892	35.7	19.6	16.1	47.4	45.2	53.0
1893	27.6	15.6	12.0	25.8	24.2	27.8
1894	34.6	18.8	15.8	32.4	32.5	34.1
1895	36.9	20.8	16.1	32.6	32.5	32.5
1896	36.0	18.7	17.3	25.1	25.5	24.6
1897	36.9	18.9	18.0	46.2	43.5	52.5

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Mithankot town.

The town of Mithankot contains 3,624 inhabitants, and is situated on the right bank of the Indus, some miles below the point of confluence of the Panj-Nand with the Indus. It formerly commanded a large trade, but the town was destroyed by the river in 1862 A. D., up to which time the Assistant Commissioner in charge of the Rajanpur Sub-Division had been stationed there. A new town was then laid out five miles inland from the river of that time. The Indus has since then worked its way westward and is now only half-a-mile from the town which has not, however, been seriously threatened up till now and has benefited from its nearer proximity to the river traffic.

There is a fine wide *bazar* running north and south, with an avenue of trees. In the centre of the town there is a grain market, and there are several side-streets and cross-streets, parallel to or at right angles to one another. There is a very fine shrine belonging to Akil Muhammad. There is a district bungalow, a *thana*, *sarai*, school-house and committee house. There are two or three gardens with some very fine mango trees outside the town.

The Municipal Committee consists of three official and six non-official members, the latter appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years. It is derived from an octroi tax of $1\frac{2}{15}$ per cent. on all articles brought within the municipality. Some few articles pay a duty of $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent.

The export trade consists of grain and oil which is sent to Sukkur. Gram is imported from Ferozepore. Mithankot used to be the centre of the river trade of the district, *gur*, indigo, and grain being exported to Sukkur and Bombay; but the destruction of the old town by the river already alluded to has greatly decreased its commercial importance. The town is protected

from floods by a low embankment which completely surrounds it.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, 1881 and 1891, is shown in the margin.

Limits of enumeration.	Years of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town	1868	4,447	2,304	2,143
	1881	3,353	1,800	1,553
	1891	3,624	1,935	1,689
	1868	3,659
Municipal limits	1875	3,347
	1881	3,353
	1891	3,624	1,935	1,689
	1868	3,659

tions of 1868, 1875, 1881 and 1891, is shown in the margin.

Town or suburb.	POPULATION.		
	1868.	1881.	1891.
Mithankot	4,447	2,607	2,736
Basti Mubib Ali		674	578
Kotla Hussain		182	312

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868

and 1875 were taken; but the details in the margin, which give the population of suburbs, throw some light on the matter. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868, are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. In 1881, the following boundaries were adopted: on the north the police-station; on the east, the external limits of Basti Mubib Ali; on the south the river; on the west the road round the town.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

The town of Rajanpur is situated at a distance of eight or nine miles from the right bank of the river Indus, on the high road which runs from Edwardesabad and Dera Ismail Khan through Dera Ghazi Khan to Jacobabad. It contains 4,973 inhabitants. It is said to have been founded by Makh-dum Shekh Rajan in 1145 A. H.= 1732-1733 A. D. Rajanpur

Rajanpur town.

Chapter VI.
Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments.
Rajanpur town.

was a small unimportant village until 1862 A. D., when the town of Mithankot was carried away by the river, and the headquarters of the Assistant Commissioner in charge of the Rajanpur Sub-Division were changed from Mithankot to Rajanpur. Rajanpur has also since that time attracted a certain amount of the export grain trade which was formerly monopolised by Mithankot. There is a centre bazar running from north to south, with a gate at either end. The most important buildings in the town are Muhammad Hassan's mosque and the Municipal Committee house. The Assistant Commissioner's Court-house, the tahsil and police thana and the lock-up are all situated on the north side of the town, within a quarter of a mile of the north gate. There is a post office, a telegraph office, a church, a dāk bungalow, and a middle school. There are also public gardens, in which there is a swimming bath built by the garrison in the time when Rajanpur was occupied as a cantonment and subsequently acquired for the district. The cantonment lay to the north-east of the town. It was abandoned in A. D. 1896 and presents a melancholy appearance, but its avenues of trees afford welcome shade. The town is protected by an embankment from hill-torrent floods which in 1882 did much damage.

There is a considerable export trade of grain and cotton to Sukkur, and of opium and indigo to Mooltan and Amritsar.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868,

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons	Male.	Female.
Whole town	1868	4,849	2,965	1,884
	1881	4,032	2,964	1,068
	1891	4,073	3,002	1,071
Municipal limits	1868	3,774
	1875	3,648
	1881	3,927
	1891	4,064	2,150	1,874

1875, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin.

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits

within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken.

Town or suburb.	POPULATION.		
	1868.	1881.	1891.
Rajanpur town	3,774	3,927	4,064
Cantonments	1,075	1,035	909
Total	4,849	4,932	4,973

The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the

time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The boundaries adopted in 1881 were, on the north the road running east and west past the Jail; on the east the road from cantonments to the city gate; on the south and west the city embankment. The figures in the margin give details for the town proper and cantonment.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

The Municipal Committee consists of three *ex-officio* members—the Deputy Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioner, and the tahsildar; and eight non-official members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. The income of the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV. It is derived from octroi levied upon almost all articles that are brought within municipal limits. The tax varies with the class of article, but is in most cases levied at a rate of $1\frac{9}{10}$ per cent. on the value of the article.

Dajal is situated in the Pachad, about 15 or 16 miles west of Jampur and about the same distance east of Harrand, at the mouth of the Chachar Pass. There was at one time a considerable amount of trade through the Chachar Pass, and Dajal was a flourishing town; but it has now much decayed. It contains 6,085 inhabitants. Dajal is said to have been founded by Daud, a Nuhr grazier. He camped under a *jal tree*, whence came the name of the town, Daud Jal or Dajal. Dajal at one time belonged to the Nahrs, from whom it was taken by Ghazi Khan, and it afterwards formed part of the Harrand-Dajal *ilaka*, which was subject to the Khanate of Kelat.

The well water of Dajal is not drinkable, and the supply is from the Kaha stream, which runs into a tank. In dry seasons and when the Kaha is taken up for irrigation purposes, there is great scarcity of water; there is a local saying to the effect that lack of shade and lack of water are the chief characteristics of Dajal. There are a *thana*, dak bungalow, school-house, *sarai* and Municipal Committee house.

A large quantity of *jowar* and oilseed (*assu* and *sarson*) is exported to Sukkur and Mooltan via Mithankot. There are a large number of oil presses and oil also is exported. The pottery of Dajal is famous and is sent to all parts of the district, but no fancy articles are made. A large quantity of fish is brought to it from the Indus in the cold weather for the consumption of the inhabitants.

The population at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin.

Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	5,693	3,063	2,630
1881	5,352	3,200	2,152
1891	6,085	3,245	2,840

taken. In 1881 the road round the town was taken as its boundary.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of

Chapter VI

Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments.
Rajapur Town.

Dajal Municipality.

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumeration of 1868 was

Chapter IV.
Towns,
Municipalities
and Cantonments.

The Municipal Committee consists of 10 members nominated by the Deputy Commissioner, of whom two are official and eight non-official. The income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV and is derived from a tax of $1\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. on almost all articles brought within the town.

Jámpur Town.

The town of Jámpur is said to have been founded about 600 years by one Jam, a Manik Jat. According to other accounts Jam was a Chughatta who escaped from Delhi after the rest of his clan had been slain in battle. The Jukkars, who were for some time the most influential tribe in Jámpur, claim descent from him. Jámpur contains a population of 6,085 inhabitants, and is situated 32 miles from Dera Gházi Khan on the high road to Rájanpur and Jacobabad. The town was nearly carried away by a flood in A. D. 1878 when a number of houses, including the dispensary and central distillery, were destroyed. There is a single bazar, a tahsil and thana, dák bangalow, school-house, dispensary, *sarai*, central distillery, Municipal Committee house and an Anglo-Vernacular school named after Mr. Dames, who was for long Deputy Commissioner of the district. The bazar is paved and has drains on either side. A large quantity of indigo is annually exported to Mooltan and Sukkur. Opium is also exported to Mooltan and Amritsar. Wood-turning is the employment most followed in Jámpur, which is celebrated for its small wooden boxes and toys.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868,

Limits of enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town	1855	7,796	4,210	3,587
	1851	4,607	2,557	2,050
	1891	6,815	3,124	2,691
Municipal limits	1868	7,796
	1875	4,209
	1891	4,607
	1891	5,815	3,124	2,691

1875, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin.

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which

the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. It would appear from information supplied by the Deputy Commissioner that the figures of 1868 afford no real basis for comparison, as a number of outlying hamlets were then included in the town which have since been omitted. In 1881 the road round the town was taken as its boundary.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

The Municipal Committee consists of the Deputy Commissioner and Tahsildar as *ex-officio* members, and nine non-official members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. Its income, which is shown in Table XLV, is derived from a tax of $1\frac{2}{3}$ per