A STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.
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A Statistical Account of Bengal

W W Hunter

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A Statistical Account of Bengal

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One of the Council of the Royal Asiatic Society; Honorary or Foreign Member of the
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Volume VII.
Districts of Maldah, Rangpur, and Dinajpur.

Trübner & Co., London 1876.
PREFACE

TO VOLUME VII. OF

THE STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.

This volume treats of the rich alluvial tract lying between
the main channels of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra. Its
most westerly District, Maldah, formed the focus of early
civilisation in Lower Bengal, and contains the ruins of
Gaur, the ancient capital. Its most easterly District, Rang-
pur, supplies the connecting link between the Gangetic
Provinces and the once famous kingdom of Kâmrûp, the
outpost of the Sanskrit-speaking stock in Eastern India.
The tract still exhibits the landmarks of race-conflicts and
dynastic changes, and of those fluvial revolutions during
which the rivers seamed the face of the country with the
traces of their work of destruction and reconstruction. Side
by side with these ancient landmarks are springing up the
signs of a new state of things. In the west, tillage is now
encroaching on the long silent swamps around the ruins of
Gaur; in the north and east, the enforced order of British
rule has cleared the jungles of the bandit settlements which were for so many years the scourge of Bengal.

The three Districts dealt with in this volume contained, in 1872, a population of 4,328,322 souls, and an area, as estimated for the Census of that year, of 9415 square miles. I beg to express my great obligations to my friend Mr. James S. Cotton, late Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, for his help in compiling the Account of Maldah; and to Mr. Charles A. Dollman for his assistance in the Districts of Rangpur and Dinajpur.

1876.

W. W. H.
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WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The local weights and measures are given in detail at pp. 78, 268-72, and 397-98. In some instances in the following volume, these weights and measures have been converted into their English equivalents, and the native names have not been added. In such cases the reconversion from the English equivalents may be effected with sufficient accuracy in accordance with the following tables:

**MONEY.**

1 pie (\(\frac{1}{12}\) of an ánná) = \(\frac{1}{2}\) farthing.
1 pice (\(\frac{1}{2}\) of an ánná) = 1\(\frac{1}{4}\) farthings.
1 ánná (\(\frac{1}{10}\) of a rupee) = 1\(\frac{1}{5}\) pence.

The rupee is worth, according to the rate of exchange, from 1s. 8d. to 2s.; but for conventional conversions it is taken at 2s.

**WEIGHTS.**

The unit of weight is the ser (seer), which varies in different Districts from about 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) lbs. to 2.205 lbs. This latter is the standard ser as fixed by Government, and corresponds to the metrical kilogramme. For local calculations in Lower Bengal, the recognised ser may be taken at 2 lbs. The conversion of Indian into English weights would then be as follows:

1 chhaták (\(\frac{1}{10}\) of a ser) = 2 oz.
1 ser (\(\frac{1}{4}\) of a maund) = 2 lbs.
1 man or maund (say) = 82 lbs.

**LAND MEASURE.**

The unit of land measure is the bighá, which varies from \(\frac{1}{9}\) of an acre to almost 1 acre. The Government standard bighá is 14,400 square feet, or say \(\frac{1}{3}\) of an acre; and this bighá has been uniformly adopted throughout the following volume.
ERRATUM.

Page 21, line 4, *for 'so full' read 'are so full.'*

I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which occur to the reader. They may be addressed to me, care of the Secretary to the Bengal Government, Calcutta.
STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF MALDAH.

THE District of Maldah lies in the west of the Rájsháhi Division. It is situated between 24° 29' 50" and 25° 22' 30" north latitude, and 87° 48' 0" and 88° 33' 30" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, of 1806.64 square miles, exclusive of river area, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in September 1874; and a population of 676,426 persons, as ascertained by the Census of 1872. For the pur-

poses of the Census, the area of the District was taken at 1813 square miles, and for the sake of uniformity that number has been taken as the basis of all average calculations regarding the area. The Civil Station and Administrative Headquarters are at English Bázár, which is also the principal town in the District, situated on the west bank of the Mahánandá river, in 25° 0' 14" north latitude and 88° 11' 20" east longitude.

**Boundaries.**—Maldah is bounded on the north by the Districts of Purniah and Dinájpur, on the east by the Districts of Dinájpur and Rájsháhi, on the south by the Districts of Rájsháhi and Murshidábád, and on the west by the Districts of Murshidábád, the Santál Parganás, and Purniah. The river Ganges forms the boundary of the District along the western and south-western frontier.

**Jurisdiction.**—The District of Maldah has grown by degrees and at the expense of the neighbouring Districts. It would be difficult to fix the precise date at which it may be said to have attained to administrative independence. As early as 1770 the town of English Bázár was the site of an important Commercial Residency; and the fortified structure, which was then necessary for the protection of the Resident, still affords a house for the Collector, and the building which contains the court and its records. Up to the early part of this century, and at the time when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton compiled his ms. description of this part of Bengal, the greater part of the area now comprised within Maldah was divided pretty equally between the Collectorates of Dinájpur and Purniah, the river Mahánandá then forming the boundary between those two Districts. In February 1813 the Superintendent of the Police of the Lower Provinces laid before Government an unfavourable report on the state of crime in this tract of country. He stated that the number of burglaries was very great in the following thánás, viz. in Sibganj, Káliáchak, Bholáhát, and Gárgáribá, which were then included within Purniah District, and in Maldah and Bámangolá within Dinájpur, and in Rohanpur and Chapái within Rájsháhi. This condition of things he attributed to the extreme distance at which those thánás were situated from the Magistrate's headquarters at Purniah and Dinájpur,—Káliáchak, for instance, being more than 100 miles from Purniah. These representations seem to have at once produced their effect; for in March 1813 the thánás which correspond to the present District of Maldah were placed under the charge of a Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Col-
lector. A Registrar was also appointed. The powers of the Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Collector were of an anomalous character, and hence originated the confusion which for a long time overhung the criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions of Maldah. This officer seems at first to have been to a certain extent under the control of the two Collectors of Purniah and Dinajpur, all communications from the Board of Revenue being transmitted to him through one or the other of their treasuries. In his capacity, however, of Joint-Magistrate he was practically independent. Certain thanás had been carved out of the Districts of Purniah and Dinajpur and placed under his charge, but he was not controlled in any way by the Magistrates of those Districts. In 1832 a treasury was for the first time established at Maldah; and from that year the independence of the District is usually dated. It was not, however, till 1859 that the title of Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Collector was changed into that of Magistrate and Collector, and Maldah was placed in all respects on an equality with its neighbours. Up to the present date a Judge has never been appointed to the District. The sessions are held by the Judge of Dinajpur, who comes into the District quarterly for that purpose; to him also all criminal appeals lie. The mere appointment of independent officers was not sufficient to create simplicity of jurisdiction. In 1870, the Collector reported that there was much intermingling and confusion between the criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions. Some portions of the District lay within the civil jurisdiction of Dinajpur, Purniah, or Murshidabad, while for criminal and revenue purposes they belonged to Maldah. In other portions, only the criminal jurisdiction rested with Maldah, and both the revenue and civil jurisdictions were with one or other of the three above-mentioned Districts. The Collector added that these anomalies were shortly to be amended; and, according to the latest accounts, the old boundaries of Maldah have now (1875) been greatly simplified. The Ganges has been used throughout as a main-boundary to the westward, and the detached portions on each side of that river have been assigned to their proper Districts. The river Mahánandá has also been made to form the boundary to a certain extent on the extreme north-east. As the result of these various transfers, it would seem that the total area of the District has been augmented by almost one-third, as compared with its estimated extent thirty years ago.
GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DISTRICT.—The District is naturally divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Mahánandá, which flows almost due north and south. This boundary-line corresponds, according to the local account, to the well-known division of Bengal between the Bándra and Ráhir Bráhmans, the Bándra zamín lying to the east of this river, and the Ráhir zamín to the west. The whole country is no doubt alluvial in origin, but the tract that lies to the west of the Mahánandá and in the direction of the Ganges is low-lying, and to a great extent still subject to the effects of fluvial action. The soil is sandy, but enriched each year by the deposits of mud that are left by the inundations of the Ganges. In this part of the District are situated the chars and various other alluvial accretions, which the Ganges has created during that important change in its channel which has taken place since it washed the walls of the ancient city of Gaur. The lands are very fertile, and admirably adapted for the cultivation of rice, mulberry, indigo, and the mango tree, which form the staple crops of the District. This agricultural prosperity centres on the banks of the Mahánandá in the neighbourhood of the Civil Station, where the villages cluster very thickly, and a succession of magnificent mango orchards line the river side, interspersed with mulberry plots. The mode of cultivation which is required by the mulberry gives a curious aspect to this part of the country. The plants would be entirely destroyed if their growth, like that of the rice, was overtopped by the annual floods, and consequently the land has to be artificially embanked to the height of eight or ten feet above the ordinary level. This is effected by the digging of deep, broad dykes, and the throwing of the earth thus obtained upon the little plots of ground that are destined for the mulberry. The plant itself is pleasing in colour, and the soil is carefully and repeatedly hoed, so that land under mulberry cultivation wears the appearance of a series of well cared-for gardens. The general result produced, when regarded from above, has been described as like a great chess-board, or an old-fashioned heavy door, with small, thick panels in high relief. The general fertility of this half of the District is interrupted by the ruins of Gaur. Between these ruins and the Mahánandá lie extensive, undrained, and uncultivated swamps; the site of the city itself is at the present day a wilderness of pestilential jungle, and the home of wild beasts. Of late years cultivation has somewhat extended in this direction; and the soil
is not unfertile, being largely impregnated with brickdust, the
detritus of the ruined buildings of the ancient capital of Bengal.
The jungle, however, is so dense and stocked with tigers, and the
exhalations from the soil and the lakes so full of malaria, that it is
still difficult to persuade the cultivators to spend the night near
their clearings, and there are no villages in the immediate neigh-
bourhood. The half of the District which lies to the east of the
Mahánandá presents an entire contrast to the western portion, being
in all respects less thickly cultivated and less civilised. The ground
is for the most part elevated and overgrown with low jungle. The
soil is composed of hard red clay, but in the river basins it is
sandy, with an admixture of clay and loam. It is intersected by
two considerable rivers, the Tángan and the Purnabhábá, which both
flow in a south-westerly direction from the neighbouring District of
Dínájpur. Their ordinary level is some 50 or 100 feet below the
high lands which make up this part of the country; and in the rains
they rise at least 30 feet, entirely filling the broad and sloping basins
through which they flow, and spreading out into lake-like sheets of
water. At other seasons, these low lands are covered with grass
jungle, and produce little more than an abundance of small game.
In some places crops of boro rice are raised, and are irrigated directly
from the river by means of the common country jánt. On the higher
ground, which gradually slopes away from the rivers to the jungle of
the interior, crops of rabi or transplanted winter rice are grown, and
some efforts are being made to reclaim the borders of the jungle.
But little progress, however, has been made, for the ravages of wild
beasts of all kinds cause great devastation, and the population is both
scanty and unprogressive. The remainder of this tract of country,
down to the borders of the low-lying land along the rivers, is entirely
occupied with thorny tree jungle, called kátál. There are no large
forests, but a continuous spread of jungly swamp, broken in upon by
narrow, steep nálás, and very thinly inhabited. The whole of this tract
is generally known as the kátál, and it extends from the Civil Station
to the north-east and the south-east as far as the borders of Dínájpur.
It shows traces of having been at one time occupied by a consider-
able population. Many tanks are to be seen, some of them of grand
proportions, scattered over a wide area. The ruins of the magnificent
Muhammadan city of Panduah or Peruah are situated in the very
wildest and most dangerous portion of this jungle; and the Collector
states that there were probably many villages in former times on
these high lands, secure from all fear of inundation. 'But at the present day,' he continues, 'there are now merely a few miserable huts, not worthy to be called villages, inhabited mostly by aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes.' It has also been remarked that the members of all the most respected Hindu castes are to be found in the western portion of the District. The south-eastern part, however, which borders on Rájsháhí, is of a less forbidding character. Cultivation is more widely spread, the villages are more numerous, and the large mango orchards and mulberry plots recall the appearance presented by the land on the western bank of the Mahánándá. The extreme north and north-west corner of the District, which lies between the Mahánándá, the Kálindi, and the Ganges, has again a character peculiar to itself. It is covered with jungle, and much cut up by náldás, which are only open during the height of the rainy season. These channels are apparently old beds of the Kálindi, or perhaps of the Kusi river, now silted up. The soil is extremely poor,—short grass, which affords pasturage to a considerable number of cattle, being the only produce that it yields.

Elevated Lands, Hills, etc.—There are no mountains or even hills in the District; but the whole country to the east of the Mahánándá, called the kátál, lies at an elevation of about 50 to 100 feet, and, being intersected with frequent deep náldás, gives the appearance of being broken into small hills.

River System.—The four following rivers are navigable throughout the year for boats of upwards of 100 maunds, or say four tons burden,—the Ganges, the Mahánándá, the Kálindi, and the Purnábábá. Four others, namely, the Tángan, the Páglá, the Sonákhálí, and the Suarmásá, are also navigable, but only during the rainy season, and for boats of under 50 maunds, or say two tons burden.

The river system of Maldah is mainly constituted by the Ganges, with its numerous old beds and branch channels, and the Mahánándá, with its three considerable tributaries. The main stream of the Ganges, before its volume of water has been diminished by the first of its deltaic offshoots, runs along the entire west and south-west border of the District. It first touches on the District at the north-west corner, just after it has received the tributary waters of the Kusi, exactly opposite the hills of Rájmahal. At this point it immediately takes a wide curve, and proceeds for some 15 miles in a southerly direction. It then flows onwards in a course which, despite many bold windings, is on the whole towards the south-
east; and finally leaves the District at its extreme southern corner, at the point where it is joined by the Mahánandá, just above the police station of Godágári in the adjoining District of Rájsháhi. Its stream thus affords the most admirable means of water communication for this portion of the District; but there are few large seats of river traffic upon the Maldah bank of the river, nor, with the exception of the Mahánandá and a few nameless nálás, does it receive any increase of water from its left side. It is, however, in the District of Maldah that more important changes of channel have taken place than in any other portion of the course of the true Ganges, and it is here that the river is still most active in cutting down portions of its banks and forming new charas. It is tolerably certain that in the times of the Hindu kings of Bengal the main stream of the Ganges flowed in a channel still called the Bhágirathi, and washed the western walls of the city of Gaur, which are now nearly ten miles distant from its present course. In 1810, it was believed by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton that the general set of the current was away from the plains on the Maldah side, and against the hills on the opposite bank. The map compiled by Mr. Pemberton, the Revenue Surveyor, in 1848, represents the town of Rájmahal as actually on the main stream of the river. The current has now set in the opposite direction. Rájmahal has been deserted by the Ganges, which now threatens to find its way through the middle of the District of Maldah. The Collector stated in 1870 that the Ganges was then quite close to Háiátpur, which two or three years before was several miles distant from it; and that there was some likelihood of its cutting into the Kálindrí near Gárgáribá, in which case there would be heavy floods in the District. It would seem that in this neighbourhood there has always been a navigable junction between the Ganges and the Kálindrí. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, indeed, describes the lower part of the Kálindrí, between this point and the town of Maldah, as a mere branch of the Ganges. He does not, however, appear to mean that any considerable volume of Ganges water passed down this way, but merely that at Gárgáribá there was an important navigable connection between the Kálindrí and an old branch of the Ganges called the Burigángá. About fifteen miles farther down its course, at the salient angle of a great bend in its channel, the Ganges sends off what is now a little branch, only navigable during the rains, and almost dry in the hot weather, called the Chhotá Bhágirathi. This is presumably the old bed of the great river itself,
and is still revered as at least equal in holiness to any other part of the sacred stream. This stream runs first towards the east, and then generally in a southerly direction, bordering for thirteen miles the ruins of the city of Gaur. A little way farther down, the Ganges sends off, also to the east, a larger branch, the Páglá or Págli, into which the Chhotá Bhágirathí ultimately flows, and which before it regains the Ganges encloses a large island about sixteen miles long. During the rainy season the Páglá is navigable for boats of considerable size; but at other times, though it has many deep pools, it retains no current. Somewhat above the point where it finally leaves the District, the Ganges sends off southwards toward Nadiyá a branch which retains the name of the Bhágirathí, while the great river thenceforth loses the larger part of its sanctity. Alluvion and diluvion are perpetually taking place all down the Maldah bank, which is itself a comparatively modern creation of the river, but it is impossible to specify particular instances. The bed of the river is sandy, and the banks on the Maldah side are rather abrupt, except in the localities where new chārs and sandbanks adjoining the land, which are known as diārds, are in course of formation. The banks are well cultivated throughout. The Ganges is not fordable at any season of the year, and there is only one important ferry, opposite the town of Rájmahal.

The Mahananda, flowing from Purniah, first touches the District of Maldah at its extreme north. For about twenty-five miles it skirts the District, forming its north-east boundary, and receiving as its sole tributary the Nágar from the east. It then enters the District, and for the remainder of its course, in a direction that is almost due south, divides it, as has been already mentioned, into two equal portions, and finally falls into the Ganges at the southernmost corner of the District, just above the police station of Godágári in Rájsháhí. Its entire course within the District would be about ninety miles in a straight line, but its numerous windings add largely to that distance. Its most important tributaries are, on the left bank the Táŋgán and the Purnabhábá, and on the right bank the Kálindri. A full account of these rivers will be given later. The Mahánándá forms a most important channel of communication between Lower Bengal and the upper Districts. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in the early part of the present century, found that boats of 500 maunds, or say 17 tons burden, could make their way up this river as far as the confluence of the Táŋgan at all times of the year. Boats of more than
200 maunds, or say 7 tons burden, were prevented by sandbanks from passing above Maldah during the dry season. The town of Maldah, which is situated at the confluence of the Kálindrí with the Mahánándá, is an important mart for local trade, as it gets the traffic from both rivers. The channel of the Mahánándá is very deep, and varies in breadth from about 400 to 800 yards. At certain seasons of the year, the melting of the snows in the mountains, combined with the local rainfall, causes the river to rise as much as thirty feet. An embankment has been constructed just above the Civil Station of English Bázár, to ward off the dangers of an inundation. The banks of the river are abrupt and very steep, and have confined the river in pretty much the same channel which it occupied a hundred years ago. Alluvion and diluvion, therefore, are not taking place to any considerable extent. One important change, however, has occurred of late years in the course of the Mahánándá, a short distance below the police station of Chapái. The Collector stated in 1870, that three years earlier the river used to flow with a bold sweep to the east, round by the village of Hoglá, a circuit of some three miles, but that it had then made for itself a short cut due south, on to the Government khás mahal of char Mirzápur. The banks are highly cultivated throughout the greater part of its course in this District. During the rainy season it is nowhere fordable.

The Kálindrí or Kalindi enters the District from Purniah about six miles north of the trading mart of Haiátpur, near which place a natural connection has been effected between this river and a side stream of the Ganges. The main body of its waters, however, comes down from the mountains of Sikkim, being really one of the offshoots of the Kusi, and only assumes the name of the Kálindrí shortly before its entrance into this District. From Haiátpur it runs in a south-easterly direction and with a very winding course for about twenty miles, to join the Mahánándá at the town of Maldah. It receives no tributaries of any importance, the neighbouring country draining into it by means of nálís, which only during the rains contain any volume of water. The river is not wide, but it flows in a very deep channel between high banks of hard red clay. The banks are generally cultivated, and the bed of the river itself is sandy. As with the Mahánándá, so with the Kálindrí, the rise of water in the rainy season is very considerable, and at that time of the year it is nowhere fordable. The Collector states that in the vicinity of Haiátpur and Gárgáribá there are to be seen numerous
old river beds now entirely silted up, which may have been former channels of this river, but that the present condition of the channel of the Kâlindri leads him to think that these changes date from many centuries back. This spot, it must also be recollected, is near the junction of the great Kusi with the Ganges, and has even in late years been the scene of much fluvial activity on the part of both these rivers.

Proceeding down the Mahánandá, the Tángan on the left bank is the next important tributary. This river flows from Dinaúpur into the north-east corner of the District, and, after a southerly course of nearly thirty miles, empties itself into the Mahánandá at Muchiá, a small mart for rice and grain. A small stream called the Khási joins it from the west at Bámangolá. The Tángan brings down with it a large quantity of silt, and has of late years suffered considerable changes of course. In 1807, when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton compiled his ms., this river effected its junction with the Mahánandá at a place called Ahorganj, about seven miles lower down than at present, and a little above the Bangabári factory. There was then a small náld connecting Muchiá with the Tángan, into which the main body of the stream has now turned, entirely abandoning its old bed, which is still traceable in a southern direction by Kenduá. The Collector states that the Tángan has also apparently altered its course in the neighbourhood of the village of Ráníganj. There was here situated a hunting lodge or country seat belonging to one of the kings of Gaur, and connected with that city by a high embanked road. On this road, and close to the old house, there are still to be seen the remains of a stone bridge, which evidently spanned the former channel of the river at this place. The banks are distinct and well marked, but the river now flows at a distance of about two miles from this bridge. The channel of the Tángan is in many places becoming choked by the sand and mud brought down from the hills, to such an extent as to seriously impede navigation during the hot weather. This silting up of the bed is especially observable near Bámangolá. The general description of this river will also apply with sufficient accuracy to the Purnábhaba, the remaining tributary of the Mahánandá on its left bank. This river likewise flows from the District of Dinaúpur in a south-westerly direction, and joins the Mahánandá at Mákrampur, about a mile below the busy grain mart of Rohanpur. Both these rivers penetrate the dense
kátál jungle which occupies the eastern portion of the District of Maldah. They flow through a soil of hard red clay, and their banks are consequently high and abrupt. Their beds are sandy, and for the most part not liable to change; and no alluvion or diluvion in the ordinary sense seems to take place in them. The high land of the kátál rises above the river banks at a distance of from half a mile to two and a half miles, and the valleys are occupied by heavy grass jungle. It is only in a few places in the neighbourhood of the thinly-scattered villages that the jungle has been cleared, for the cultivation of patches of boro rice. During the rains the whole of the basins of these rivers which are enclosed by the kátál are entirely filled by the flood of waters which comes down from above. At this season, therefore, both the Tángan and the Purnabhabá may be said to expand into large lakes.

Marshes, Artificial Water-Courses, etc.—There are no important lakes or canals in the District. The following is a list of the larger bils or swamps, arranged according to the police circles in which they are situated:—(1) In Gajol—Bámangolá bill, Jagdal bill, Rániganj bill, and Bhaiár bill. (2) In Kharbá—Cháchar bill. (3) In Gárgáribá—Saulmári bill, and Dagun bill. (4) In Káliáchak—Kowá Khôn bill, and Sabdalpur bill. (5) In Síbganj—Mirzápur Karun Khálí bill, Sukur Bári bill, and Báraghariá bill. (6) In Nawáganganj—Haripur bill, Kámmár bill, Nádáhi bill, and Sarjon Mallakpur bill. (7) In Gumáshápur—Chaná Parasan bill. (8) In old Maldah—Dhájórá bill, and Mádháipur bill. (9) In English Bázár—Gondáil bill, and Bháttíá bill.

The only navigable water-course, besides the rivers already described, is a khál called Jaharpur Dánrá, which connects the Páglá, an offshoot of the Ganges, with the Mahánandá near Kánsát. This khál appears to be a natural channel, artificially deepened so as to admit of the passage of, large boats in the rainy season. The Collector, however, could not ascertain at what time or by whom it had been thus altered.

There are also to be found in the District of Maldah some ancient tanks of vast dimensions, which will be described in connection with the ruins of Gaur and Pandua.

The total loss of life from drowning during the five years ending 1870 is stated to have amounted to 454, or nearly 91 persons each year.

River Traffic.—There are no towns of which the inhabitants
can be said to live solely from river traffic. English Bázár, Maldah, and Rohanpur, the three most populous places in the District, conduct a considerable trade in grain and other products, which chiefly passes in boats up and down the Mahánandá. Many rice and grain merchants live at these towns, especially at the two latter of them, who of course receive their stores by water. It is down the Mahánandá and its tributaries that the surplus stock of Dinájpur and Maldah rice, amounting annually to about two million maunds or 73,214 tons, is exported on its way towards Behar and the North-Western Provinces. A vast quantity of traffic is also consigned down the Mahánandá to Calcutta, consisting chiefly of rice, tobacco, gunny-bags, and oil-seeds. The up traffic is mostly salt and cotton from Calcutta. A considerable river trade is also carried on in khar grass for thatching, and nal reeds for making charcoal. The reeds are usually purchased by blacksmiths, who use the charcoal largely in their trade. In former days, timber-rafts in great numbers used to be floated down the Mahánandá and its tributaries from the mountains of Nepál; but the Collector states that now, from reasons external to the District, this traffic is much diminished, though not yet entirely extinct. The principal river mart on the Ganges is Háitápur, whose prosperity depends upon the junction which the Ganges has here established between itself and the Kálindrá. About seven years ago the site of this town was several miles distant from the river, but now (1875), owing to a favourable change in the set of the current, Háitápur has become the most important seat of river trade in the District.

Utilization of the Water Supply.—There are no rivers or streams in Maldah used as motive power for turning machinery, nor, in the opinion of the Collector, is it probable that any could be profitably applied to such a purpose. The waters of the rivers and marshes are, in the eastern portion of the District, extensively used for irrigation. A considerable quantity of boro rice is here sown along the banks of the rivers, or round the borders of the swamps. This crop requires to be plentifully irrigated, which is effected, as has been mentioned already, by means of the common country jánt. This machine is precisely the same in construction and use as when it was described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, and doubtless it has remained unchanged for many centuries. It consists merely of a trough, which is lowered and raised by means of a pedal. Some three or four will perhaps be worked in one spot,
pouring the water from the river or swamp into the channel which conducts it over the rice fields.

**Fisheries and Fishing Communities.**—The District of Maldah has always been celebrated for its fisheries. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton remarked that the fishermen of the Ganges and of the lower reaches of the Mahánándá were more expert in their art than any he had seen elsewhere. The greater portion of the fisheries are in the hands of the zamindárs, who either let them out to farmers, or receive directly from the fishermen a certain share of the produce. The great fishery, however, in the Ganges opposite Rájmahal is the immediate property of Government. It extends over some twenty miles of water, and is annually leased out to a contractor. The Collector reports that the rent of this fishery used to average about £800 per annum, but that of late years, owing to some legal dispute, it has fallen to £500. The Government contractor sublets the fishery in convenient lots to under-tenants, who in their turn employ the men of the local fishing castes, receiving from them a certain proportion of the amount caught. The Government contractor has also a privilege called pání-charái, or the right of levying a toll on each boat laden with fish that passes on the river. The remaining fisheries in the District the Collector estimates at about 300 in number. Of these, five in the Mahánándá, as many more in the Páglá, and one each in the Kálindrí and Bhágirathi, making twelve in all, he ranks as principal, being worth about £100 per annum a-piece. The rest he regards as of minor importance, and of the average value of between £20 and £100 a year. As regards the aggregate value of all the fisheries in the District, he is of opinion that the sum realized as rent by the superior landlords may be fairly put at £14,000 per annum. Adding to this the profits of the middle-men and the support of the persons actually engaged in fishing, he thinks that a sum of from £30,000 to £40,000 represents the total value of the fish annually captured in the waters of the District. He gives the following list of twelve classes of people who live by fishing:—(1) Bind; (2) Málo; (3) Jáluá; (4) Tior; (5) Guri; (6) Keut; (7) Surui; (8) Kárál; (9) Ráfr; (10) Namsúdra; (11) Málá; (12) Gángat. The total number of these twelve classes he roughly places at somewhat over 24,000 souls, including men, women, and children. This estimate is probably below the mark. The Census of 1872 returned the numbers of the Hindu fishing and boating castes at 24,476. The Census list contains
names not mentioned by the Collector, and to it must be added the number of fishermen who are Muhammadans; and for this purpose it must be recollected that the Hindus form only 51% of the total District population. On the other hand, there must be deducted from the total reached by these means the numbers of these classes who may be regarded as boatmen more properly than fishermen, together with those who do not follow their hereditary occupation. On this topic it may be mentioned that Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, writing about the fishermen of these parts, states that 'many of them are really boatmen, who only fish when they cannot procure a voyage; and several also catch ducks, or have other avocations that interfere with their hereditary calling.'

The number of persons who earn their living on the rivers, exclusive of the fishermen, is not very large. The crews of the trading boats which carry grain to and from the various marts are mostly composed of men of other Districts, chiefly coming from Behar and the north-west. There are very few indigenous boatmen, shipwrights, etc.; and the Collector thinks that their total number may be safely put at less than one thousand men. This estimate, however, is probably too low.

**Fishes and Modes of Fishing.**—The fish in all the Maldah rivers are of the finest description, and are exported in large quantities to Murshidabad. The mullets caught in the Mahanand are said to be the finest of their species in the world. The Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives the following list of the chief kinds of fish:—Ruki, hilsa, katli, tengra, mhu, kai, mullet, pabda, chalti, kenkr or crab, chingri or prawn, sili, and baim or eel. From the same source I borrow a description of the modes of fishing most commonly adopted. Apart from the use of nets of all kinds, angling with a baited hook and spearing fish at night by torchlight are common in the District. 'Line fishing is much resorted to in the vicinity of Maldah and English Bazar, and with considerable success. Several hooks are attached to one line from fifty to sixty yards long, which has a stone or piece of lead fastened to the end, for the purpose of permitting the line to be thrown into the stream to its full extent. Spearing by torchlight is common on all the rivers, and is especially practised at the junction of the Mahanand and Kambil. A boat is paddled into the middle of the stream, and a masdi or torch is then placed over the stern, so that its full glare falls on the surface of the water. The fish are attracted thereby,
and rise close to the flame without the least timidity. The larger sorts are instantly speared by the fishermen, and the smaller ones caught in landing nets. Ruhi and hilsa of enormous size are sometimes taken in this way. The following more complete list of the fish found in Maldah District is taken from a report on the subject by the Commissioner of Rájsháhí Division, dated September 1872:

- River fishes—(1) air; (2) báchá; (3) bágghár; (4) baltá; (5) baus; (6) bátkiá; (7) bhangú; (8) bhedá; (9) boáil; (10) chándá; (11) chelá; (12) chingri or boro ichá; (13) chitál; (14) dairí; (15) dhaus; (16) gáyar; (17) hilsá; (18) ichá or boro chingri; (19) kártí; (20) kátiá; (21) kharolá; (22) khayrá; (23) mirgal; (24) pábá; (25) pangá; (26) phausá; (27) punthí; (28) ramuch; (29) rítá; (30) ruhi; (31) sankoch or sankar; (32) sheron or shelón; (33) tengrá.

Tank fishes—(1) bámí; (2) bhedá; (3) boáil; (4) chingri; (5) gárai; (6) gati; (7) ichá; (8) jial or singí; (9) kánklai; (10) khalísá; (11) kai; (12) mágur; (13) mirgal; (14) pábá; (15) phaulu; (16) punthí; (17) ruhi; (18) saul; (19) tengrá.

**EMBANKMENTS.**—The rivers and marshes have nowhere been embanked with the object of extending cultivation. There are, however, a countless number of old embankments in the neighbourhood of the ruins of Gaur, but these were constructed with the object of protecting this once populous city from the inundations of the Mahánándá. An embankment of the height of from fifteen to twenty feet is still maintained for a similar purpose close to the Civil Station of English Bázár. There are also in the same part of the District one or more elevated causeways, which look much like embankments, and apparently lead to former country seats of the old kings of Gaur. The Mahánándá river, with its tributaries, receives the entire drainage of the District. In the rainy season, in addition to the local rainfall, the rivers are swollen with the rain and snow of the hills. At this time of the year they sometimes rise as much as thirty feet, so that it is evident that no ordinary embankment could restrain them within their banks. The numerous marshes or biś that are found in the District are the result of the inundations of these rivers, and of course can never be reclaimed so long as the rivers are permitted annually to overflow. To embark all the Mahánándá river system would be a task entirely beyond the powers of the local zamindárs; nor does the Collector think that it could by any means be turned into a profitable enterprise.

The most important **MARSH or JUNGLE PRODUCT** is the naí or
narkat, a tall, cane-like reed, growing to the height of fifteen or twenty feet, which is found in profusion on the banks of the rivers and in the marshes. In the dry season it is cut, and is sold chiefly to the blacksmiths for the making of charcoal.

The Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives the following account of the uses to which the cane, reed, and grass jungle is applied in Shikarpur pargana, where the zamindars gain a large proportion of their rents from this source:—'The grass jungle is cut in immense quantities, and carried to the mouths of the large rivers, whither whole fleets of boats of all sizes come to renew the chappars or roofs over their decks. The large reed grass is disposed of to the blacksmiths of Maldah and its vicinity, and to those of Nawabganj and Gumastapur. It is stated that the charcoal prepared from it emits a much more fervent heat than what is made from wood. The reeds are cut down when the stems assume a bright yellow colour and the tops have withered. They are then tied in bundles, as large as a man can carry, and floated off by the purchaser to his abode on the river side. When required for use, the bundles are first steeped in the river until the reeds become in some measure decomposed, and next taken out and placed in an upright position for the water to drain off. When they have become nearly dry, they are half-burnt, and in this state used as charcoal.'

Both soldi and lime may in some sense be called marsh products. Their uses are thus described by the Revenue Surveyor:—'Soldi or pith is found in great abundance on the marshy plains, varying in diameter from 1 to 2½ inches. It is used for making hats, toys, artificial flowers, floats for fishing nets, and in various other ways. I have seen the panels of a palanquin made from it. Lime made from shells is very common. A few families gain their livelihood by collecting shells, mostly of the species called Ampularis, Paludina, Unio, and Cyrene, which are to be found in large numbers as the waters dry up from the jhils. The finest stucco is made from this lime; and when carefully applied to pillars, etc., it gives a very pretty polish.'

Long-stemmed rice is cultivated to a certain extent in all portions of the District, but nowhere very extensively; nor is the very long-stemmed sort often met with which grows in the deltaic Districts of Lower Bengal. It has not been ascertained whether the stem has lengthened of late years, so as to be able to grow in deeper water than formerly.
THE LINE OF DRAINAGE in Maldah is of a simple character, being mainly determined by the course of the Mahânandá river, which bisects the District. The entire portion to the east drains into that river, either directly or through its affluents, the Tângan and the Purnabhabá. The greater part of the country to the west also drains into the same river, with the exception of the low-lying land which borders the Ganges. The general slope of the District is thus almost due south, and the surface water for the most part runs away rapidly. There is, however, to the south of English Bázár and along the right bank of the Mahânandá, a chain of large marshes, caused by the overflow of the river during the rains. They lie between the Mahânandá and the raised tract of ground on which is situated the ruined city of Gaur, and contain a considerable quantity of stagnant water all the year through. The Collector believes that they would drain off westwards towards the Ganges, if it were not for the high embankments with which Gaur has been artificially protected. At any rate their existence is sufficient to explain the traditional unhealthiness of that city.

MINES, MINERALS, ETC.—There are no mineral productions of any sort in the District, nor any natural phenomena of a kind to attract attention.

JUNGLE PRODUCTS.—There are no important or revenue-yielding forests in Maldah. The kitsá or thorny jungle, which covers to a large extent the eastern portion of the District, produces no timber trees. It is chiefly composed of thorny bush jungle, mixed with abundance of cotton trees (simal), pipal, bar or bat, and pakor trees, and nípal bamboos. No profit, therefore, is to be gained from the felling of timber. The banks of the rivers and the low land in the river valleys are to a great extent overgrown with wide strips of grass jungle, into which the cattle at certain seasons of the year are turned out to graze. This can only be done after the jungle has been sufficiently burned, say in the months of February, March, April, and May. The Collector thinks that the extent of these jungle pasturages must amount in the aggregate to some hundreds of square miles, and that their annual value to the zamindárs is very considerable. The usual charge per head for the cattle turned in is from 4 to 8 dinás, or from 6d. to 1s. Tásar silk cannot be regarded as a forest product in this District, nor is any appreciable quantity of beeswax now collected in the jungle. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that in his time the collection of wax in some of the jungles
of this neighbourhood was rented by a Mr. Fernandez. There is, however, no trade at the present day in this article. The zamindārs do indeed farm out the combs on their estates, but the farmers appear to care only for the honey, and neglect the wax. The bees do not seem to select the kāṭāl for their combs, but occupy any large-sized tree, wherever situated, being especially partial to the hijal tree, which is common in marshes.

The Palis and Kochs, two semi-aboriginal castes, who are very numerous in Maldah, live in the more open parts of the kāṭāl, but they do not earn their livelihood by dealing in jungle products. They cultivate the land to a small extent, but substantially support themselves by hunting and fishing, eating the game they catch. They seem to avoid as much as possible approaching any place of public resort, and are averse to trade or barter. They prefer to gain a bare subsistence directly out of the natural products of the soil.

Ferae Naturæ.—The following is a list of the more important wild animals:—Tiger, leopard, tiger cat, civet cat, mongoose, otter, hyæna (very rare), wolf (rare), jackal, and ox, rhinoceros (very rare), wild hog, wild buffalo, large swamp deer or gous, hog deer, and spotted deer. Among smaller game are found,—florican, black partridge, kyah partridge, quail, jungle-fowl, peafowl, snipe, hares, green pigeon, plover (golden and grey), lapwing, wild geese (grey and barred-headed), demoiselle crane, wild duck (not very numerous), pintail duck, black pink-headed duck, spotted-bill duck, red-headed pochard, crested pochard, and other ducks and teal.

Maldah has always been celebrated for the unusual quantity of large game which it affords, and especially for its tiger-hunting. The ruins of Gaur and Panduah, each of which extends over several square miles, are the favourite haunt not only of tigers, but of every other beast, bird, and reptile which frequents the isolated jungles of Bengal. The kāṭāl, also, which is estimated to cover about 150 square miles in this District, particularly that portion between the Tāngan and Purnabhabā rivers, is almost entirely given up to wild animals. Cultivation is hardly spreading at all in this direction. The jungle is too dense in many cases to admit even the passage of an elephant, and consequently the larger beasts of prey breed almost undisturbed, and their number is not on the decrease. Comparatively few are destroyed by the native shikāris;
but the Collector thinks that from thirty to forty tigers are annually killed by sportsmen, who do not claim the reward. So long as these animals refrain from the habit of attacking men, their presence is desired rather than dreaded by the cultivators. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton expresses the opinion, when writing of this very region, 'that a few tigers in any part of the country that is overgrown with jungle or long grass are extremely useful, in keeping down the number of wild hogs and deer, which are infinitely more mischievous than themselves.' Mr. Pemberton, the Revenue Surveyor in 1848, also states that 'the inhabitants of Gaur are rather partial than otherwise to the tigers, and are unwilling to point out their lairs to sportsmen. They call them their chankidars, as being useful to them in destroying the deer and wild hog, with which the place abounds, and which make sad havoc of their crops.' The other side to the picture may be learned from the story of the notorious man-eater of 1863. This animal had its favourite haunt in the ruins of Panduah, but infested the whole of the high road between Maldah and Dinajpur. It is reported, on the authority of the gentleman who was at that time Magistrate of Maldah, that 'this mischievous and cunning beast killed no less than 110 persons before it was finally shot.'

With reference to the cost annually incurred in keeping down wild beasts, the Collector reports that between 1832 (when the District was first constituted) and 1870, a total of Rs. 2127. 5. 4, or £212, 14s. 8d., had been paid out of the treasury under this head. This would give an average of nearly £6 per year, but of course the amount has varied very considerably. For example, in 1847, no less than £24, 10s. od. was paid in one lump for the destruction of 196 hyænas; but since the date of that memorable battue these animals have hardly ever been seen in the District. The annual police reports return the number of deaths from wild beasts for the 8 years ending 1860 at 40, which would give an average of 5 for each year. The number of deaths from snake-bite in the same period is returned at 447, or an annual average of 51. No rewards appear to have been ever offered for snake-killing. There is no trade in wild-beast skins, nor, apart from the fisheries, do the ferae naturæ contribute in any way to the wealth of the District, though it is stated that the porpoises by their oil and the otters by their skins might become most profitable sources of trade.
STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF MALDAH.

Population.—Prior to the general Census of 1872, no trustworthy information existed with regard to the total number of inhabitants in the District. The only attempts at enumeration were what were called khána sumáris, or house numberings, which were invariably conducted through the local police. The following was the method adopted on these occasions. The number of houses in each thána or police circle was first ascertained as correctly as might be, and then the police proceeded to make inquiries, to the best of their ability, into the number of persons in each house. To a great extent they derived their information from the village chaukidárs; but a good deal of the result was mere guess-work, especially as regards the female portion of the population. For the year 1869 the Collector has furnished me with a table which contains the population arranged according to thanás and houses. I print it with some hesitation, for though most of the figures approximate to those disclosed by the authentic Census of 1872, some will be at once seen to be wildly incorrect. With reference to the District total, and also the totals of some of the outlying thanás, it should be borne in mind that the area of the District has been largely increased since the date of this enumeration, whereas the number of the thanás has not been altered.

**Police Estimate of the Population of Malda District in 1869.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police Circles.</th>
<th>No. of Houses.</th>
<th>No. of Persons.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English Bázár,</td>
<td>16,959</td>
<td>72,532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maldah,</td>
<td>9,100</td>
<td>44,332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Káliáchak,</td>
<td>68,607</td>
<td>112,552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Silgani,</td>
<td>22,118</td>
<td>110,870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Nawábganj,</td>
<td>2,860</td>
<td>19,480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gárgáribá,</td>
<td>13,183</td>
<td>92,277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Kharbá,</td>
<td>6,635</td>
<td>34,263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Gumáshápur,</td>
<td>3,502</td>
<td>17,576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Gájol,</td>
<td>7,259</td>
<td>40,927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150,223</strong></td>
<td><strong>550,809</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Census of 1872 was taken in the District of Malda on the night of the 15th January. The method adopted was much the same as elsewhere, the persons employed being generally the man-
dāls and gumáshtās of the several villages. Where none of the residents could read or write, an educated man from an adjoining village was appointed. The total number of enumerators employed in the work was 2067. The aid of the zamindārs was also enlisted, to test the village registers and to select the enumerators. The Collector was of opinion that 'the Census was successfully and accurately taken.'

The total population of the District was ascertained to be 676,426 souls, living in 2100 villages or townships, and in 129,579 houses. The area was approximately taken at 1813 square miles, which gives the average density of the population at 373 persons per square mile. The table on next page gives the results according to thānās, the averages being those given in the Census Report. The Subdivisional system has not yet been extended to the District of Maldah.

Population classified according to Sex, Religion, and Age.—The total population of Maldah District consisted in 1872 of 676,426 souls, viz. 331,087 males, and 345,339 females. The proportion of males in the total population was 48'9 per cent., and the average density of the population 373 persons per square mile. Classifying the population according to religion and age, the Census returns yield the following results:—Hindus—under twelve years of age, males, 63,103; and females, 52,924: total, 116,027. Above twelve years of age, males, 114,200; and females, 126,071: total, 240,271. Total of Hindus of all ages, males, 177,303; and females, 178,995: grand total, 356,298, or 52'7 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Hindu population, 49'8 per cent. Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males, 62,608; and females, 52,572: total, 115,180. Above twelve years of age, males, 86,571; and females, 109,139: total, 195,710. Total of Muhammadans of all ages, males, 149,179; and females, 161,711: grand total, 310,890, or 46'0 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 48'0 per cent. Christians—under twelve years of age, males, 4; and females, 3: total, 7. Above twelve years, males, 21; and females, 15: total, 36. Total of Christians of all ages, males, 25; and females, 18: grand total, 43. Proportion of males in Christian population, 58'1 per cent. Other denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal races and hill tribes—under twelve years of age, males, 1623; and

[Sentence continued on page 39.]
### Abstract of the Population, Area, etc., in Each Police Circle (Thana) in the District of Maldah, 1872.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police Circle</th>
<th>Area in Square Miles</th>
<th>Number of Villages or Townships</th>
<th>Number of Houses</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Averages calculated by the Census Officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Bazar</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>17,626</td>
<td>85,702</td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maldah</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>10,084</td>
<td>50,563</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gargariha</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>13,683</td>
<td>65,548</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kharla</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>17,948</td>
<td>92,011</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gajol</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>9,583</td>
<td>55,316</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalidehak</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>21,168</td>
<td>119,375</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gumashtapur</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>9,198</td>
<td>48,999</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shibganj</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>20,079</td>
<td>105,717</td>
<td>649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nawalganj</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>10,210</td>
<td>53,195</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>District Total</strong></td>
<td>1813</td>
<td>2100</td>
<td>129,579</td>
<td>676,426</td>
<td><strong>373</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
females, 1360: total, 2983. Above twelve years, males, 2957; and females, 3255: total, 6212. Total 'others' of all ages, males, 4580; and females, 4615: grand total, 9195, or 1·3 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total 'others,' 49·8 per cent. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males, 127,338; and females, 106,859: total, 234,197. Above twelve years, males, 203,749; and females, 238,480: total, 442,229. Total population of all ages, males, 331,087; and females, 345,339: grand total, 676,426. Proportion of males in total District population, 48·9 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population, of different religions, is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Hindus—proportion of male children, 17·7 per cent.; and of female children, 14·9 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 32·6 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans—proportion of male children, 20·1 per cent.; and of female children, 16·9 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 37·0 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Christians—proportion of male children, 9·3 per cent.; and of female children, 7·0 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 16·3 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other denominations—proportion of male children, 17·6 per cent.; and of female children, 14·8 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 32·4 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions—proportion of male children, 18·8 per cent.; and of female children, 15·8 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 34·6 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, is probably due to the fact that natives consider that girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood.

The number and proportion of insanees and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Maldah District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanees—males, 128; and females, 34: total, 162, or '0239 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males, 25; and females, 8: total, 33, or '0049 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males, 129; and females, 48: total, 177, or '0262 per cent. of the population. Blind—males, 394; and females, 213: total, 607, or '0897 per cent. of the population. Lepers—males,
290; and females, 65: total, 355, or '0525 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirns amounted to 966, or '2917 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirns, 368, or '1065 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirns of both sexes was 1334, or '1972 per cent. of the total District population.

Population According to Occupation.—The details under this heading in the District Census compilation have been omitted, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

Ethnical Division of the People.—Maldah presents ethnologically the aspect of a border District. Most of the inhabitants understand the Hindustání as well as the Bengáli language, and, according to the Collector, use the former language with an accent which is purer even than the Urdu spoken in Purnia. In these respects Maldah suggests points of resemblance to the Province of Behar, on which it abuts along its north-western boundary. It is, however, reclaimed for Bengal by the large number of Muhammadans in the population, whose presence is no doubt to be referred to the ancient capitals of Gaur and Panduah. Bengáli also is recognised as the language of the courts.

A noteworthy feature in the Census returns is the large proportion of the semi-Hinduized population formed by the Kochs, Pallís, and Rájbanís. It is generally admitted that these three names merely represent a single race, which, from its connection with the ancient kingdom of Kuch Behar, it is most convenient to term collectively the Kochs. Rájbaní is a much less definite appellation; and the name of Pallí, though commonly used in the District of Maldah, is hardly one which the Kochs themselves adopt. With regard to their origin, there is much difference of opinion. The Collector, judging from their facial characteristics, and from the circumstance that they are most numerous in the immediate neighbourhood of the Himálayas, thinks that they are of the Mongolian family, and closely connected with the Nepális. Colonel Dalton, on the other hand, chiefly on the ground of their very dark colour, refers them to a southern type. 'The Koch appear to be quite out of their element amongst the Lohitic tribes. It seems more likely that they originally belonged to the dark people, whom they resemble, who were driven out of the Gangetic provinces when the kingdoms of Mithila and Magadhá were established, rather than to the northern Turanian or Indo-Chinese family, to whom they are
so unlike. In short, I consider that they belong to the Dravidian stock, and are probably a branch of the great Bhuiyá family. They can readily be distinguished from all other Bengalls by their broad faces, flat noses, and projecting cheek-bones, as well as by their appearance and different style of dress. In religion they profess to be Hindus; but they do not mix or intermarry with other Hindus, and they practise certain peculiar ceremonies and customs of their own. In this District they are entirely confined to the left bank of the Mahánándá. Their mode of agriculture is very rude, but a manifest improvement is shown in their cultivation when in the vicinity of a genuine Hindu community. They earn their living to a great extent by hunting and fishing, and prefer the freedom of their forest life to working as coolies or day-labourers. Their number in Maldah is about 64,000.

EMISSION AND IMMIGRATION.—The only immigrants into this District are a few hill-men from Chutiá Nágpur. These are mostly Dhángars, but there are also some Kols and Santáls. The Dhángars come in search of work, mostly at the indigo factories. Near some factories may be found small villages solely inhabited by these immigrants and their descendants. In some cases the families settle down permanently, and gradually become assimilated to their Hindu neighbours both in customs and in general appearance. Their numbers are occasionally recruited by fresh arrivals from Central India; but immigration has lately much fallen off, owing to the decay of indigo planting. There is no emigration from the District; and the Collector is of opinion that the prosperity of the cultivators, owing to the remunerative nature of their mulberry crops, is such as to cause no desire to leave home. The District, also, is at the present but sparsely peopled.

The following table, taken from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Maldah, enumerates the inhabitants of the District according to an ethnical classification. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, arranged in a different order, according to the rank which they hold in social esteem:—
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I.—NON-ASIATICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>II.—MIXED RACES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European—</td>
<td></td>
<td>Eurasian</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotch</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swiss</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, 26</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total, 135,562</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III.—ASIATICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natives of India and Burmah.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Aboriginal Tribes</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhar</td>
<td>140</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhumij</td>
<td>38</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhânger</td>
<td>3,165</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kharwär</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kol</td>
<td>1,990</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pahâriyâ</td>
<td>164</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Santâl</td>
<td>215</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, 11,717</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bâgul</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bâhelîâ</td>
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<td>Bûrîî</td>
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<td>Badiyâ</td>
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<td>Bhuiyâ</td>
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<td>Bind</td>
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<td>Châmâr and Muchi</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chandâl</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dom</td>
<td>1,227</td>
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<td>Dosodî</td>
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<td>Gângauntâ</td>
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<td>Hârîâ</td>
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<td>Kâorâ</td>
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<td>Karângâ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pâli</td>
<td>24,320</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Râjibansî</td>
<td>24,724</td>
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<td><strong>Total, 5,156</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>(ii.) Intermediate Castes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kâyasth</td>
<td>4,601</td>
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<td>Bhat</td>
<td>152</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baidia</td>
<td>403</td>
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<td><strong>Total, 5,156</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(iii.) Trading Castes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agarwâlā and Marwârî</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khatri</td>
<td>388</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Oswal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bakkal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Baniâ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subârmanabaniâ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gandhibanik</td>
<td>649</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total, 3,036</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(iv.) Pastoral Castes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Goâlîâ</td>
<td>13,728</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gârei</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, 13,793</strong></td>
<td></td>
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ETHNIC CLASSIFICATION OF THE INHABITANTS OF MALDAH DISTRICT.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number.</th>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number.</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Gánárá,</td>
<td>1,195</td>
<td>(ix.) Weaver Castes— continued.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Madak,</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>Ganesh,</td>
<td>11,559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>1,823</td>
<td>Kapálí,</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dhuníyá,</td>
<td>1,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>18,442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi.) Agricultural Castes.</td>
<td></td>
<td>(x.) Labouring Castes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaibartta,</td>
<td>24,902</td>
<td>Beldár,</td>
<td>866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agúri,</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Chunári,</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Báráli,</td>
<td>1,581</td>
<td>Nálík,</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Támíli,</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>Nuniyá,</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadgop,</td>
<td>1,385</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>1,304</td>
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<tr>
<td>Máli,</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>(xi.) Castes engaged in selling Fish and Vegetables.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Koérí,</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>Pundíári,</td>
<td>11,102</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kurmí,</td>
<td>1,592</td>
<td>Kandálí,</td>
<td>794</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nagar,</td>
<td>19,228</td>
<td>Turáhá,</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>50,480</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>12,306</td>
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<tr>
<td>(vii.) Castes engaged chiefly in Personal Service.</td>
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<td>(xii.) Boating and Fishing Castes.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhopá,</td>
<td>3,507</td>
<td>Jállá,</td>
<td>2,014</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hajjám,</td>
<td>6,357</td>
<td>Málá,</td>
<td>1,656</td>
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<td>Belár-a and Dúliyá,</td>
<td>1,206</td>
<td>Macháu,</td>
<td>172</td>
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<tr>
<td>Káhár,</td>
<td>2,741</td>
<td>Tión,</td>
<td>13,717</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dhánuk,</td>
<td>7,805</td>
<td>Pátni,</td>
<td>1,126</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>21,616</td>
<td>Pod,</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gonrái,</td>
<td>2,404</td>
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<tr>
<td>(viii.) Artisan Castes.</td>
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<td>Baúpári,</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kámár (blacksmith),</td>
<td>4,312</td>
<td>Bathúá,</td>
<td>150</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kánsári (brazier),</td>
<td>1,172</td>
<td>Keut,</td>
<td>656</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sonár (goldsmith),</td>
<td>2,032</td>
<td>Muriyári,</td>
<td>518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sutradhá (carpenter),</td>
<td>2,162</td>
<td>Suráliyá,</td>
<td>1,903</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kumár (potter),</td>
<td>3,804</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>24,476</td>
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<tr>
<td>Láherí (læ-worker),</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>(xiii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sánkhári (shell-cutter),</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Bááti,</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suníri (distiller),</td>
<td>4,654</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Telí (oíman),</td>
<td>16,972</td>
<td>(xiv.) Persons enumerated by Nationality only.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kalú (ditto),</td>
<td>977</td>
<td>None,</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>36,282</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</td>
<td>Number.</td>
<td>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</td>
<td>Number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xv.) PERSONS OF UNKNOWN OR UNSPECIFIED CASTES,</td>
<td>10,880</td>
<td>5. MUHAMMADANS.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julahá</td>
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<td>Mughal</td>
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<td>Pathán</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1,441</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sayyid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaikh</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2,917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>306,111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total of Hindus.</strong></td>
<td>211,552</td>
<td><strong>Total.</strong></td>
<td>310,890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. PERSONS OF HINDU ORIGIN NOT RECOGNISING CASTE.

| | Number. | TOTAL OF NATIVES OF INDIA. | 676,389 |
| Vaishnav | 5,849 | ||
| Gosain | 843 | ||
| Native Christians | 6 | ||
| **Total.** | 6,698 | **Total of Asiatics.** | 676,389 |
| **Grand Total.** | 676,426 |

HINDU CASTES.—The subjoined list of castes, arranged according to their position in the social scale, and showing the occupations, etc., of each, has been furnished by the Collector. I print it without modification, retaining the local spelling; but it will be observed that the rank assigned to certain castes is most unusual. The numbers, wherever possible, have been taken from the Census Report of 1872:—(1) Bráhman; members of the priesthood; many are also landholders or merchants, or are employed in offices under Government. They are for the most part in good circumstances. There are ten recognised classes of Bráhmans in Maldah,—the Ráhí, the Uttar Bándra, the Bárendra, the Vaidik, the Kányakubjá, the Maithilí, the Gauriya, the Bhunhár, the Barua Sankar, and the Achájya. Of these, the first six are highly esteemed, but, with the exception of the Maithilí Bráhmans, who are numerous in this District, their collective numbers are small. The Gauriyas are few, and not held in equal esteem. The Bhunhárs rank with the six first mentioned. The Barua Sankars, who act as priests to the lower castes, and the Achájyas, who earn their living by astrology, are even more despised by pure Bráhmans than are the castes with whom they associate. The numbers of these separate classes cannot be ascertained; but the total of Bráhmans in Maldah, as returned by the Census of 1872, was 8287. (2) Gir Gosain; traders, few in number, but rich and esteemed. (3) Baidya; physicians by hereditary profession, but now employed in any honourable and lucrative way; 403
in number. (4) Khatri or Kshatriya; variously employed, and poor; 308. (5) Káyasth; chiefly occupied as clerks, and in good circumstances. The Collector states that they are divided into the three following classes:—Uttar Rárhí, Dakhin Rárhí, and Lálá; and the Census gives the total number as 4601. (6) Rájput; variously employed, and generally poor; 3207. (7) Sadgop; not exclusively cultivators in this District, but variously employed, and poor; 1385. (8) Tili; traders, and rich. (9) Karmákár; blacksmiths; 4312. (10) Kánsabanik; braziers, and rich; 1172. (11) Kumbhakár; potters; 3804. (12) Nápit; barbers; called in the Census Report Hajjám; 6357. (13) Hálía Kaibartta; mostly agriculturalists. (14) Málákár; workers in solá or pith, hat-makers, and makers of toys. (15) Goálá; dealers in milk; 13,728. (16) Tantubáya; weavers, traders, etc., well to do; 4791. (17) Swarmákár; gold-smiths; few and poor. (18) Ghandabanik; traders, and rich; 649. (19) Sankhabananik; (20) Hálui; (21) Mayra; all returned as dealers in conch shells; few and poor. The Census Report gives the total of the Sánkhárfis at 34. (22) Khyán; cultivators. (23) Báirágí; mostly cultivators, but some religious mendicants. The Census Report gives the number of Vaishnavs, the name by which this class is commonly known, as 5849; and the number of Gosáins, who are their religious teachers, as 843. (24) Subarnabanik; traders, and rich; 440. (25) Bangadesí-sáhá; and (26) Gauradesí-sáhá; traders, merchants, etc.; numerous and rich. (27) Telí; oil-pressers by caste occupation, but many have now taken to trade and are well off. The Census Report, including also (8) Tili, gives the total number as 16,972. (28) Támli; shopkeepers and cultivators; 675. (29) Pundari; mulberry cultivators, and in good circumstances; 11,102. (30) Suträdhar; carpenters; 2162. (31) Guri; boatmen and fishermen; 2464. (32) Sunri; dealers in country spirits; 4654. (33) Chain;1 cultivators; the most numerous caste in the District; 30,082. (34) Ganesa; cultivators, weavers, etc.; 11,559. (35) Bárui; sellers of betel; 1581. (36) Chunía; lime-sellers; 72. (37) Jáliá Kaibartta; fishermen and boatmen. The Census Report, including them with (13) Hálía Kaibarttas, gives the total number

1 Chain.—This caste is more largely represented in Máládh than in any other District of Bengal. Its home is properly in Behar. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes of that Province, states that the Chains are chiefly boatmen and fishermen, like the Binds, and that, in his opinion, they do not deserve the bad name which attaches to them.
at 24,902, the second most numerous caste in the District. (38) Dhubá; washermen; 3507. (39) Nágár; cultivators; 19,228. (40) Dhubá; cultivators; 7805. (41) Naluá; dealers in reeds. (42) Betuá; cane basket makers. (43) Dùngár; labourers for hire; 3165. (44) Behárá; palanquin bearers. In the Census Report, this caste, together with the Duliyá, is returned as numbering 1206. (45) Khátí; (46) Rangí; (47) Dálíhárá; all described as merchants, and rich. (48) Soraiyá; boatmen; 1903. (49) Koch; (50) Palia Rájbanáí; cultivators. These are returned in the Census Report under the three separate headings of Koch, Palí, and Rájbanáí, their collective numbers amounting to 62,952. (51) Gángat; fishermen. (52) Jólá; weavers. (53) Tíor; boatmen and fishermen; 13,717. (54) Bin; cultivators; 6002. (55) Káráí; fishermen. (56) Chandál; labourers; 1236. (57) Gáhíndár; boat-repairers. (58) Pátáí; boatmen; 1126. (59) Keot; fishermen; 656. (60) Kol; fishermen. (61) Banprá; basket-makers; 34. (62) Kurál; drummers. (63) Byádha; birdcatchers. (64) Badiá; gipsies; 194. (65) Chámráí; shoemakers; included in the Census Report with Muchí; total, 4829. (66) Hári; musicians, etc.; 11,675. (67) Dosáí; rural policemen, etc.; 1402. (68) Mehtáí; sweepers; 283. (69) Dom; bamboo basket makers and carriers of dead bodies; 1227. (70) Bágdí; palanquin-bearers and labourers; 708.

The Collector is of opinion that no material change has of late taken place either in the numbers or position of any of these castes. There are no predatory castes in the District, for the Badiás of Maldah are very different in character from those of the same name in Eastern Bengal.

Religious Division of the People.—The population of

1 Gángat.—Thus spelt and described by the Collector. This caste is probably to be identified with the Gángauntás of the Census, 2891 in number. They are not found in any other District of Bengal. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes in the Province of Behar, remarks as follows:—'Gangaunta or Gangain are a tribe who live on dîárás and chârs, which they bring into cultivation as the sand becomes covered with mud. They are apparently confined to the Bhágálpur Division, and I have not been able to ascertain any further particulars of them.' In his District Compilation for Maldah, Mr. Magrath has so far varied from the Census Report as to transfer them from the agricultural castes to the class headed 'semi-Hinduized aboriginals.'

2 This caste is more numerous in Maldah than in any other District of Bengal. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes in the Province of Behar, the original home of the Bins, doubts whether Bin and Bind should be ranked together.
Maldah comprises Hindus, Muhammadans, aboriginals, Vaishnavs, members of the Brâhma Samâj, and Christians. The total number of the Christians is returned by the Census at 43, of whom 37 are either Europeans or Eurasians. The remaining 6 represent the native Christians. There is no important mission in the District.

The Hindus in 1872 numbered 356,298 souls, or 52.7 per cent. of the entire population. This estimate includes the semi-Hinduized aboriginals, who amount to 135,562, or just one-third of the total, and whose acceptance of the Hindu religion is somewhat loose; and also the Vaishnavs and the Samâj. The Vaishnavs in 1872 were found to number 5849; and the Gosâins, who are their religious teachers, were 843 more. A full description of this sect, whose leading characteristics are to repudiate caste and accept the teachings of Chaitanya, will be found in the Statistical Accounts of Nadiyâ and the 24 Parganâs. The Brâhma Samâj has taken no hold upon the District. In 1870 the number of its members was estimated by the Collector at 6, and of these none were natives of the District. The town of English Bâzâr is the only place where the Samâj has obtained a footing. It was first established in 1861, and has since been maintained, with only one short break, mainly by the native Government officials from Lower Bengal who are stationed there. There is no regular place of worship.

The Muhammadans were found by the Census of 1872 to number 310,890, or 46 per cent. of the District population. They are for the most part an active and energetic race,—a fact which may be due to their being largely descended from the conquerors of Gaur and Panduah. They attract more than their share of administrative attention, as is curiously shown by the circumstance that their number until the Census was always supposed to be double that of the Hindus. A great many of them belong to the Farâizî and Wahâbî sects; and in 1869 several prosecutions for abetment of waging war against the Queen were instituted in this District. The Collector is of opinion that the proselytizing powers of Islâm have now ceased, and that the number of Musalmâns is not proportionately increasing.

The aboriginals, who have been already referred to, are those who are included in the Census Report under the heading of 'others.' They number 9195 persons, or 1.3 per cent. of the population; and immigrants from the hills of Chutiá Nâgpur make up the greater portion of this total. Though they still retain for the most part the
simplicity of their indigenous faiths, Hindu ceremonies and modes of worship are gradually making way amongst them, especially with those who have been for more than one generation settled in the District. There are no Jains or Buddhists in Maldah.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—It is true of Maldah, if of any District in Bengal, that the population is solely agricultural. There are only two collections of houses that have any pretence to be called towns, and the number of very small villages is unusually great. The District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages according to their population:—Less than 200 inhabitants, 1909; between 200 and 500, 776; between 500 and 1000, 225; between 1000 and 2000, 67; between 2000 and 3000, 14; between 3000 and 4000, 4; between 4000 and 5000, 3; between 5000 and 6000, 1; between 10,000 and 15,000, 1. The Collector states that there is not the slightest tendency on the part of the people to betake themselves to town life; but that, on the other hand, they seek as far as possible to place their houses outside municipal limits. He does not think that the towns occupy more than their proportionate share in the work of the administration. Whatever excess there may be, he would attribute rather to the proximity of the courts than to any exceptional conduct on the part of the people.

Towns and Places of Historical Importance.—Only two towns in Maldah have been formed into municipalities, English Bázár and Maldah.

English Bazar, or Angrazábád, the headquarters of the District, is situated on the right bank of the Mahánandá, in 25° 6' 14" north latitude and 88° 11' 20" east longitude. This town consists of a series of trading villages which line the bank of the river for a considerable distance. Being situated in a mulberry-growing country, it was chosen at an early date as the site of one of the Company's factories. Stewart, in his History of Bengal (ed. 1847, p. 199), states that there was an English factory at Maldah as early as 1686, in which year all the English factories in Bengal were confiscated by order of the Nawáb Shaistá Kháán. The Government records of 1748 embody a complaint from the merchant gumásháds of the Company at Maldah, that they were ill-treated by the people of the Nawáb. In 1770 English Bázár was fixed upon for a commercial residency, and continued to be a place of importance until the discontinuance of the Company's private trade. In the early part of the century,
when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the District, he was much pleased with the appearance of the place. ‘There are several excellent roads, both passing through the town and in the vicinity; and in particular, there is one street, laid out by Mr. Henchman, a former resident, which is wide, straight, and regular. The whole town contains many good houses, which are more closely built than usual, and rather resemble a city of Europe than most of the country towns of Bengal.’ This compliment to the town would hardly be true at the present day. The largest edifice is the Magistrate’s house, which was originally built for a factory of the East India Company, in days when such buildings were intended, if need should arise, to withstand a siege. It is regularly fortified, being surrounded by a high and strong wall, with a bastion and embrasures at each of the four corners. In this wall lie all the public offices of the District, as well as the private residence of the Collector.

No estimate of the population is on record prior to 1872, but the Census of that year yielded the following results:—Hindus—males, 3930; females, 3675; total, 7605. Muhammadans—males, 2506; females, 2712; total, 5218. Christians—males, 7; females, 3; total, 10. ‘Others’—males, 17; females, 9; total, 26. Total of all religions—males, 6460; females, 6399; grand total, 12,859.

The municipal union of English Bázár covers 1500 acres. In the year 1869-70 the number of houses was 1462. The revenue was £328, 18s. od.; and the expenditure was—police charges, £214, 6s. od.; establishment, £36; roads, conservancy, and contingencies, £78, 12s. od.; total, £328, 18s. od. For 1872, the year of the Census, the District Compilation gives the following statistics:—Gross municipal income, £388, 2s. od.; gross municipal expenditure, £406, 4s. od.; rate of taxation per head, 4 annás 9 pies, or 7½d.

Maldah, or Old Maldah, which has given its name to the District, though it was never an English station, is situated at the confluence of the Kálindí with the Mahánandá, in north latitude 25° 2' 30" and east longitude 88° 10' 51". It has an admirable position for river traffic, and probably rose to prosperity as the port of the Muhammadan capital of Panduah. During the last century it was the seat of thriving cotton and silk manufactures, and both the French and Dutch had factories here. The English factory, however, was always at English Bázár, lower down the Mahánandá, and on the opposite side of the river; though by some unfortunate confusion,
which is very widely spread, and has even found its way into official maps, the common name of Maldah is sometimes applied indis- criminate ly to both places. When Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the town, about 1810, it was already beginning to lose its prosperity, though yet populous, and inhabited almost entirely by traders and weavers. Many of the houses are built of brick, which is readily obtainable from the neighbouring ruins, but in other respects the place shows the signs of poverty and decay. In 1872 the population was thus returned:—Hindus—males, 1824; females, 1732: total, 3556. Muhammadans—males, 702; females, 976: total, 1678. Christians, none. ‘Others’—males, 14; females, 14: total, 28. Total of all religions—males, 2540; females, 2722: grand total, 5262. The area was returned at 1000 acres. In the year 1869-70 the number of houses was 925 (Dr. Buchanan Hamilton had estimated them in 1810 at no fewer than 3000); the revenue was £120; and the expenditure—on police charges, £68, 4s. od.; on establishment, £30; on roads, conservancy, and contingencies, £21, 16s. od.—total, £120. For 1872 the District Census Compilation gives the figures thus:—Gross municipal income, £186, 12s. od.; gross municipal expenditure, £169; rate of taxation per head of the inhabitants, 5 annas 8 pies, or 8½d.

Besides the two towns already mentioned, there are none in the District containing a population of more than 5000, so as to be individually mentioned in the Census Report. The following are merely marts for river traffic, and are in no other way remarkable. Rohanpur on the Purnabhabá, a short distance above its junction with the Mahánandá, is a considerable depot for the grain that passes between Dinájpur and the western Districts of Behar. Háiátpur, which may be regarded as forming one town with Gárgáribá, occupies a most important situation at the spot where the waters of the Ganges have formed a connection with the Kálindri. It lost a good deal of its trade when the main stream of the Ganges ceased to flow near it; but now that the river has returned to its old bed, its commerce has revived. In 1875 it was described as the principal river mart in Maldah. Kálíáchak, north latitude 21° 51' 15" and east longitude 88° 3' 1", and Sibganj, north latitude 24° 40' 45" and east longitude 88° 12' 1", are police stations situated on the Ganges, but neither of them possess such a share in the traffic of that river as their position might suggest. Náwábganj (not the police station of that name in the extreme south of the
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District) may be practically regarded as a suburb of Maldah. Nawabganj police station, north latitude 24° 35' 4" and east longitude 88° 10' 1", lies on the Mahánandá, a little way above its junction with the Ganges, and is chiefly known for its manufacture of brass ware. Kharbá, in north latitude 25° 44' 20" and east longitude 88° 7' 30", is the most northerly police station in the District, lying in the tract of country recently transferred from Purniah. Gájol, situated in north latitude 25° 13' 8" and east longitude 88° 14' 20", is a police station in the north-east, on the main road from Maldah to Dinápur. Gumáshátpur, or Chapái Gumáshátpur, north latitude 24° 46' 47" and east longitude 88° 10' 11", is a police station in the south-east on the Mahánandá.

THE RUINS OF GAUR AND PANDUAH.—The District of Maldah owes all its historical importance and much of its modern interest to the circumstance that it contains the sites of two successive capitals of Bengal, Gaur and Panduah. Both these cities are now almost level with the ground, and are overgrown with dense jungle; but the ruins that remain, though difficult and indeed dangerous of access, reveal sufficient traces of their former magnificence.

Gaur was the earlier of the two capitals, and in historical associations and in size by far the more important. The time of its foundation is involved in utter obscurity, and the whole course of its history down to the day when it was deserted is only vaguely to be conjectured. With regard to its origin, it is only known that it was the metropolis of Bengal under its Hindu kings. Local traditions connect some of its ruins with the oft-recurring names of Adisúr, Ballál Sen, and Lakshman. The most ancient name for the city itself would seem to be Lakshmanáwatí, a Sanskrit form which is usually corrupted into Laknautí. On the other hand, the name of Gaur is of primeval antiquity, as is shown by the existence and traditional dignity of the Gáuriyá Bráhmans; but it is probable that the name was more strictly applicable to the kingdom than to the city. There are not wanting authorities to identify Gaur with places mentioned by Ptolemy and Strabo, but after all our best evidence for its antiquity is the Hindu character of the ruins, and the sanctity of its site on the holy river. Its ascertained history begins with its conquest in 1204 A.D. by the Muhammadán, who retained it as the chief seat of their power in Bengal for more than three centuries. This was the period during which were erected the numerous mosques and other Musálmán buildings, which yet remain
in a tolerable state of preservation. When the Afghan kings of Bengal established their independence, they transferred the seat of government to Pandua, beyond the Mahananda, and to build the public structures of their new capital, plundered Gaur of every public monument that could be removed. Hence it is, that while the ruins of Pandua are covered with stones bearing Hindu sculptures, scarcely a single relic has been found on the site of Gaur that could be definitely referred to a Hindu building.

Pandua in its turn was shortly deserted, and the royal residence was re-transferred to Gaur, which about this time seems to have acquired the court appellation of Janatabad, or terrestrial paradise, by which name it is mentioned in the Ain-i-Akbari. Gaur continued the capital of Bengal so long as its kings retained their independence of Dehli. During the later years of the Afghan dynasty, the seat of government was again temporarily removed to Tândán or Tángra, a few miles to the north, but Gaur preserved the wealth and populousness of a metropolis until it finally disappeared from history, at the time when Akbar’s generals reconquered Bengal. During these last years of its greatness, it suffered many vicissitudes. It was plundered by its own kings, repeatedly besieged, and more than once taken by storm. At this time, also, it would seem that the Ganges had ceased to flow along its walls, and that the general insalubrity had commenced which was destined soon to culminate in the great pestilence. Dáíd Khan was the last of the Afghan dynasty. His refusal to pay homage to the Mughul emperor at Dehli led to the final subjugation of Bengal. Mana ’im Khan was chosen by Akbar to lead the invading army, which was victorious in the field, and occupied for the rainy season the already decaying city of Gaur. ‘Very soon a pestilence broke out amongst the troops and the inhabitants. Thousands died every day; and the living, tired with burying the dead, threw them into the river without distinction of Hindu and Muhammadan.’

Mana ’im Khan himself, who had resolved to maintain Gaur as the seat of government, and to restore its former magnificence, fell a victim to the common contagion. From henceforth the name of Gaur is scarcely to be found in the Muhammadan annals, and it is supposed that the city was never re-occupied after this depopulation. The date of the catastrophe, to which it would be hard to find a parallel in the history of civilisation, was 1575 A.D. This is the received account of the

1 Stewart’s History of Bengal, ed. 1847, p. 103.
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desertion of Gaur; but it may be mentioned that Dr. Buchanan Hamilton totally discredits the story of the pestilence. He states that the Mughul viceroys of Bengal used occasionally to reside at Gaur; and that as late as 1639, Sujá Sháh, the brother of Aurangzeb, added buildings to the city. This prince made Rájmahal the capital of Bengal, and from this time, according to Dr. B. Hamilton, dates the desolation of Gaur. He thinks that 'the city then went to instant ruin, not from any great or uncommon calamity, but merely from the removal of the seat of government.'

The ruins have been a quarry not only for the brick houses of the neighbouring towns and villages, but also for the palaces of Murshídábád. It is said that the commercial residency at English Bázár was constructed with bricks from Gaur. But little care has been taken even of the numerous mosques, which even when in ruins are in most parts of India sufficiently supported out of their ancient endowments. Slabs of black marble have been carried off from the tombs of Afghán kings to adorn modern monuments in Murshídábád and Calcutta. The memory of the great pestilence, which-some writers have identified with the first outbreak of cholera in India, more than the actual unhealthiness of the neighbourhood, has kept back the advance of cultivation. The jungle still reigns supreme over the half-obliterated ruins of walls, forts, and palaces; and tigers, rock pythons, and pelicans are stated to be now the chief inhabitants of Gaur. Within the last few years, indeed, the neighbouring villagers have availed themselves of the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and it has been discovered that a top-dressing of brickdust makes first-rate arable land.

The first person who devoted any attention to the ruins of Gaur was Mr. H. Creighton, a gentleman engaged in the manufacture of indigo in the neighbourhood, as agent for Mr. Charles Grant. He thoroughly explored the entire site, and made an accurate survey of the locality in 1801, as well as drawings of a number of the public buildings. He also formed a collection of all loose stones that contained sculptures or inscriptions. The survey and the drawings were published by Mr. Moffat of Calcutta, but it does not appear that any letterpress accompanied the work. This survey by Mr. Creighton was republished in the Revenue Surveyor's Report of Maldah, dated 1854. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the spot about 1810, and has left an elaborate description of the ruins as they then appeared, from which the following account
is mainly condensed. It must be remembered, however, that
dilapidation, partly by natural causes, but still more from the hand
of man, has rapidly advanced since that time. Dr. B. Hamilton
states that the ruins were in a far more perfect state when Mr.
Creighton made his drawings, only ten years before, than when he
saw them; and there is every reason to believe that the mischief
has continued to go on since that time with at least equal speed.
The city with its suburbs covered an area variously estimated at
from twenty to thirty square miles. The situation is somewhat
elevated, and the soil is clay, well suited to preserve the houses from
inundations. The dimensions of the city proper, i.e. the part within
the great continuous embankment, are a length of about 7½ miles from
north to south, and a breadth varying from one to two miles, which
would give an area of nearly thirteen square miles. The west face
of the city was throughout washed by the main stream of the Ganges,
for we are certainly justified in assuming that what is now the
channel of the little Bhágirathi was formerly occupied by the entire
waters of the great river. The eastern side was protected partly
by the Mahánandá, and yet more effectually by the perennial
swamps which intervene between that river and the embankments
of Gaur. But little protection was needed to the south, for the
junction a little lower down of the Mahánandá with the Ganges
would always have prevented an invader from choosing such a
circumscribed base of operations. On the north, which was the
most accessible quarter, an artificial bulwark was required. A line
of fortification about six miles in length extends in an irregular
curve from the old channel of the Bhágirathi at Sonátalá to near
the Mahánandá at Bholahát. This rampart is about 100 feet wide
at its base, and is said to be mainly composed of brick. At each
end, where it touches on the rivers, it is cut off by a ditch 120 feet
in width. At the north-east part of this curve is a gate, protected by
a strong projecting outwork in the form of a quadrant, through which
a high embanked road passes north and south. This outwork
contains several tanks and the monument of a Muhammadan saint.
It seems to have been the station of the police officer who had
charge of this part of the city. The parganá or Fiscal Division
which extends over this portion of the ruins is still called Kotwálí.
Near the north-east corner of the outwork, at the confluence of
the Kálindrí with the Mahánandá, stands a minár or tower, said
to have been erected by a merchant in the days of old. It has
now fallen to ruin, but yet presents a striking object as viewed from the ferry of Nimásaráí. To the north of the rampart, and therefore entirely apart from the city, are two isolated ruins, which are connected with the names of Adisúr and Ballál Sen, early Hindu kings of Bengal. The first has been levelled with the ground, and the plough has passed over it; but Dr. B. Hamilton observed that a considerable field was covered with fragments of bricks, and on the surface he found a block of carved granite, which seemed to have formed part of an entablature. Close by are the ruins of the palace where Ballál Sen, the successor of Adisúr, is said to have resided. It consisted, like the palace near Dacca, of a square of about 400 yards, surrounded by a ditch. Behind the rampart, which has been already described, lay the northern suburb of the city. It is of vast extent, and is likened by Dr. B. Hamilton to the quadrant of a circle with a radius of 6000 yards. It does not appear to have been at any time thickly inhabited. The eastern portion is now occupied with marshes; but the western portion near the Bhágirathí is enclosed by earthworks, and contains several public works. It is here that is situated the large Ságár Díghí, the most celebrated artificial piece of water in Bengal. Its dimensions are almost 1600 yards from north to south, and more than 800 from east to west. The banks are built of brick, and the water remains pure and sweet to the present day. This was no doubt a Hindu structure; and in the neighbourhood are the two most frequented places of Hindu devotion in the District. The banks, however, are now occupied with Muhammadan buildings, of which the most conspicuous is the tomb of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál, a saint who is related to have possessed great influence during the reigns of the early Musalmán kings of Bengal. Near this tomb is a small mosque. Both these buildings are supported by an endowment, and tolerably well cared for. On the side of the Bhágirathí, opposite this suburb, at a market-place now called Sádullápur, is the chief descent (ghátr) to the holy stream. To this spot the dead bodies of Hindus are still brought from great distances to be burned.

Immediately to the south lies the city itself, which towards each suburb and along the Ganges has been defended by a strong rampart and ditch. On the side that faces the Mahánandá the rampart has been double, and in most parts there have been two immense ditches, and in some parts three. No doubt these works were designed as much for embankments and drains as for fortifications.
In the *Ain-i-Akbari* they are called dams, and are said to have been sometimes breached by the inundations, when the city would be laid under water. The base of the outer embankment was in one place measured by Mr. Creighton, and found to be 150 feet thick. By far the greater portion of the thirteen square miles thus enclosed appears to have been thickly inhabited. Small tanks, such as are found in Bengali towns, are everywhere to be seen, as well as many foundations of houses, and the remains of small places of worship. In the southern part there have been numerous roads, raised very high, and so wide that in many places small buildings of brick were erected on their sides. These were probably chapels or other places of public resort; while the dwelling-houses were huddled together along the sides of the tanks. There have been many bridges, but all small and clumsy. Somewhat to the south, on the bank of the Bhágirathi, the citadel or *kila* was placed. It extends about a mile in length from north to south, and is from 600 to 800 yards broad. The rampart which encircles this area has been very strongly built of brick, with many flanking angles and round bastions at the corners. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton had no doubt that it was a work of the Muhammadan period. Outside the northern entrance have been several gates, which he concluded must have been intended for triumphal arches, for they did not appear to be connected with the remains of any walls. The palace, in the southeast corner of the citadel, was surrounded by a wall of brick, about forty feet high and eight feet thick, with an ornamented cornice. In the interior the remains of several cross walls are visible, but the arrangement of the apartments can no longer be ascertained. Indeed, almost the whole site is now under cultivation. A little to the north of the palace are the royal tombs, where Husáin Sháh and other independent kings of Bengal lie buried. The building has been almost entirely destroyed, but it had evidently considerable pretensions to elegance. The floor was paved with stone, and the graves were covered with slabs of polished hornblende, the substitute in Bengal for black marble. Not one of these stones, however, now remains. The area of the citadel also contains two mosques, the larger of which has fallen into ruins. The smaller, which was built by Husáin Sháh, is in good preservation, being supported by an adequate endowment. This is the mosque known as Kadam Rásúl, which Mr. Creighton in his survey describes as containing the print of a foot in stone; but Dr. B. Hamilton merely states
that it was erected in honour of the feet of the Prophet. Stewart, however, in his *History of Bengal* (ed. 1847, p. 76), states that this mosque was built by Sultán Nazrat Sháh, the son and successor of Husáín Sháh. He adds that the inscription, which is perfect, fixes the date at A.H. 939, or A.D. 1542. Just outside the east wall of the citadel stands a lofty tower of brick, up the centre of which runs a winding stair leading to a chamber with four windows at the summit. It is known as Pir Asa Munara, but no object is assigned for its erection by the natives. Dr. B. Hamilton, who likens it to the Monument of London on a small scale, conjectures from the name that it may have been the abode of a hermit of the Simeon Stylites type. The Revenue Surveyor briefly terms it a telegraph tower. Mr. Fergusson, in his *History of Architecture*, gives a woodcut of it, after a photograph by Mr. J. H. Ravenshaw, C.S., and appends the following description:—‘One of the most interesting of the antiquities of the place is a *minár*, standing in (?) the fort. For two-thirds of the height it is a polygon of twelve sides; above that circular, until it attains the height of 84 feet. The door is at some distance from the ground; and altogether it looks more like an Irish round tower than any other example known, though it is most improbable that there should be any connection between the two forms. It is evidently a pillar of victory, a Jaya Stambha, such as the Kútab Minár at Dehli. There is, or was, an inscription on this monument, which ascribed its erection to Fíroz Sháh.’ About a mile and a half due north of the citadel is a space of 600 square yards, bounded by a rampart and ditch, known as the flower-garden. South-east of this, and not quite a mile north-east from the citadel, is the Pijáswári, or the abode of thirst, a tank of considerable dimensions, but containing very bad, brackish water. With this name is connected the tradition that condemned criminals were allowed nothing to drink but the water of this tank, and thus perished of thirst. In the *Ain-i-Akbari*, the court historian takes credit to his master Akbar for having abolished this inhuman practice. There are many other large tanks within the city walls, some of which contain tame crocodiles, which are fed by the resident *fakirs*. Of these the finest is the Chhotá Ságar Díghi, which only in size is inferior to the tank of the same name in the north suburb. Between the Pijáswári and the citadel is situated the Great Golden Mosque, which is generally reckoned

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as the grandest building in Gaur. Dr. B. Hamilton, however, thought that its mean proportions made it very unsightly. It is about 180 feet from north to south, 60 feet from east to west, and 20 feet high to the top of the cornice. It is a perfect parallelepiped without projection or recess, except that it was formerly covered with thirty-three domes. The only other structure of interest is the fine central gate in the south wall of the city. It is called the Kotwáli Darwázá, presumably from the circumstance that the superintendent of the police was stationed there. This gate is described as being still in good preservation.

Southwards from this gate stretches an immense suburb as far as Pukhariyá, a distance of about seven miles. Its width is comparatively small, but it bears abundant traces of having been at one time densely occupied. Dr. B. Hamilton thought that it had resembled the straggling line of villages which generally fringe the main roads issuing out of a large town, and that in its eastern part there had been many gardens and country houses belonging to the wealthier citizens. Its name was Firozipur, so called from Firoz Sháh, the second of the two kings of Bengal who bore that name. Towards the east and south there was an embankment and ditch, probably designed to ward off the floods, which have now created large marshes in that direction. This southern suburb contains a good number of public buildings. The most prominent among these are the Lesser Golden Mosque, which Dr. B. Hamilton describes as ‘one of the neatest pieces of architecture in the whole place,’ and the tomb of Niámat-ullá Wáli. This person was the Pir or spiritual guide of Sujá Sháh, and his monument, which is small and clumsy, is to this day carefully tended by his descendants. They own a considerable estate, which was granted as an endowment, and spend a great part of the income therefrom in promiscuous charity.

There are in Gaur many Arabic inscriptions written in the Taghra character. Unfortunately Dr. B. Hamilton could find no person who was able to decipher them. It is evident that they might afford the means of settling many doubtful points in the chronology of the kings of Bengal.

Such are the principal features of the ruins of Gaur, which has clearly been a great city. No doubt many of the accounts of its vast population are merely Oriental exaggerations. But even according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who places the inhabited area
at twenty square miles, only two-thirds of Major Rennell's estimate, it would have contained over six or seven hundred thousand souls.

Pandua, or Peruah, as it is commonly but less correctly called, is in all respects less noteworthy than Gaur, though it contains some remarkable specimens of early Muhammadan architecture. Its comparatively small historical importance has given rise to more than one error. The maps scarcely mark the place at all, and uniformly give some one of the corrupt modes of spelling the name. Hence, when a mention of the place is found in history, it is often confused with the better known but much less important place of the same name in Húgli District. To avoid this difficulty, General Cunningham has proposed that it should be known as Hazrat Pandua. The proximity of Gaur has also overshadowed Pandua, so that the antiquities of the latter place have been sometimes attributed in their entirety to the former.

Pandua is situated about twenty miles from Gaur, and six from Maldah, in a north-easterly direction from both. It is near no river, and does not possess any apparent advantages of site. Its first appearance in history is in the year 1353 A.D., when Iliás Khwajah Sultán, the first independent king of Bengal, is said to have transferred his capital from Gaur to Pandua. It has been supposed that this king and his successors, who with difficulty repelled the Dehli emperor, were influenced in their desertion of Gaur by strategic reasons. Pandua was not accessible by water, and was probably then as now protected by almost impenetrable jungles. It is not probable that the vast Hindu community of traders and artisans also left their homes at Gaur, but merely that the court was removed. This would explain both the smaller number of ruined dwelling-houses at Pandua, as well as the superior sanctity in which this place is held by the Muhammadans. The court name for Pandua was Firozábád, which during this period regularly makes its appearance on the coins, whereas that of Lakhnautí (Gaur) disappears. The seat of Government remained here during the reigns of five successive monarchs, when it was permanently re-transferred to Gaur. It is probable, however, that Pandua, though its name is not again mentioned in history, maintained its splendour for some time, and was a favourite country resort for royalty.

The history of Pandua is short, and the topography, so far as it has been explored, is equally simple. No survey has ever been taken of the site; and even Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found himself
unable to penetrate through the dense jungle beyond the beaten track. The following description is condensed from his account of the place, contained in his ms. notes on the District of Dinájpur, which in his time included this part of Maldah, whereas Gaur was then within the District of Purniah.

A road paved with brick, from twelve to fifteen feet wide, and not very straight (the present high road from Maldah to Dinájpur), seems to have passed through the entire length of the town. It stretches nearly north and south, and is about six miles in length. From the heaps of bricks on both sides, it would appear to have been a regular street, lined with brick houses, of which the foundations and the tanks can still be traced in many places. Almost all the surviving monuments are on the borders of this road. Near the middle is a bridge of three arches, partly constructed of stone, which has been thrown over a rivulet. It is rudely built, and of no great size; and, as is the case with all the other monuments in Pandua, the materials have manifestly come from the Hindu temples of Gaur, as they still show sculptured figures of men and animals. At the northern end of the street are evident traces of a rampart, and the passage through is called Garhdwár, or the gate of the fortress. At the south end are many foundations, which have also probably belonged to a gate, but the forest is so impenetrable that the wall cannot be traced. Dr. B. Hamilton was of opinion that in general the town extended only a little way either east or west from the 'main street, but that a scattered suburb reached in a southerly direction as far as Maldah.

On approaching the ruins from the south, the first two objects that attract attention are the monuments of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál and his grandson Kútab Sháh, who were the two most distinguished religious personages under the early Muhammadan kings of Bengal. Numerous pilgrims repair hither at all seasons and from all parts of Bengal, especially with the object of laying their own bones near these holy men. The monument of Mukhdam is chiefly frequented at one great annual melá, and that of Kútab at four smaller meetings (urtles); but all religious mendicants (fakirs), at whatever time they come, are entertained for three days. Both are supported by considerable endowments, out of which the buildings are kept in repair, and a numerous establishment of servants is maintained, who form the present population of Pandua. The lands in this District which belong to Mukhdam are known as Bais-hazári, or twenty-two thousand, from containing that number of bighás, and have
THE RUINS OF PANDUAH.

always been managed by a person appointed by Government. The lands of Kūtab are under the management of his descendants, and are called Chháí-hazáí, as containing 6000 bighás. The monument of Mukhdam is reached first. The entrance is pointed out by a plain door of brick and stone. Some distance behind lies a village composed of about 100 huts, which are occupied by the attendants; and next come some rude sheds, in which pilgrims find shelter. The monument itself consists of a small square area, entered at the south-east corner. To the right of the door is a little chamber, in which the saint used to perform his devotions. On the west is a small plain mosque, and the two remaining sides are occupied by a refectory and a tank. The buildings are kept in fair order, and the materials have evidently been taken from Gaur. From three different inscriptions, it would appear that the buildings were erected or repaired in A.H. 1075 or A.D. 1664, A.H. 1084 or A.D. 1673, and A.H. 1093 or A.D. 1682. The tomb of the saint is not here, but at Gaur, as has been mentioned in the description of that city; but this is the spot where his memory is most honoured. About a quarter of a mile farther is the village belonging to the attendants of Kūtab, who are fully as numerous as those of Mukhdam, while the accommodation for strangers is greater. The monument occupies a large space on the west of the road. In the centre are the remains of Kūtab’s dwelling-house, now in ruins. Their great extent, however, fully bears out the tradition of the natives, that the saint was as great a man as the temporal king. Some of the apartments are lined with tiles, which yet retain their enamel of various bright colours. South of the house is an irregular quadrangle, enclosed by a brick wall about 100 yards in diameter. On one side is a square tank, edged with cut stone, and on another a ruinous mosque; while at the south-west corner are the tombs of Kūtab himself and his father, who was also a saint of great repute. Dr. B. Hamilton did not think it proper to examine the tombs closely, as they were draped with a canopy of white cotton cloth. On a small brick building near is an inscription, bearing date A.H. 886 or A.D. 1481. To the north of the house stands a small mosque, called the Golden, an epithet which may be derived from its sanctity. It is surrounded by a brick wall, in the east side of which is a gate faced with hewn granite. The walls of the mosque are also of granite; but the roof, which consists of ten domes, is made of brick. The pulpit (mambir) is rudely hewn out of stone. The whole, however,
was described in 1808 as rapidly hastening to ruin, for no pains were taken to remove the pipal and banian trees that have sprung up in every crevice. An inscription records that the mosque and gateway were erected in honour of Kútáb Sháh in A.H. 993 or A.D. 1585. This date is remarkable as being just ten years after the date assigned for the desolation of Gaur. It proves that this mosque, though, like all the other buildings at Panduah, constructed from the fragments of Hindu temples, was not erected in the interval of time when Panduah superseded Gaur as the capital of Bengal, but at a period subsequent to the Mughal conquest of the Afghán dynasty. Immediately north of this mosque, and on the same side of the street, is another mosque, commonly known as Ek lákhí, from having been constructed at a cost of a läkh of rupees, or £10,000. Though the materials are chiefly brick, it was, in Dr. B. Hamilton’s opinion, the handsomest building in the place. It forms a square, with a frontage of 80 feet, roofed by one dome, with a small turret at each corner. The walls outwardly have been ornamented with carved tiles, and the dome within has been neatly plastered. It is lighted by three small doors, one in each side, and internally forms an octagon. It is evidently intended as the mausoleum of the three personages whose tombs occupy the middle of the floor. There is no inscription to serve as a guide, but tradition relates that they are the graves of Ghias-ud-dín II., the third Muhammadan king of Bengal, and his two sons.

About two miles beyond the monument of Ghias-ud-dín is the tomb of his father Sikandrá (Secunder), the greatest of the monarchs who made Panduah their capital. The tomb forms a part of the great mosque called Adinah Masjid, which is by far the most celebrated building in this part of India. It stands on the east side of the main street, between the street and a large tank now choked up with weeds. Though partly in ruins, it is yet the most remarkable example which exists of Pathán architecture, and as such has been noticed in Mr. Fergusson’s History of Architecture. Dr. B. Hamilton has devoted no less than ten pages to a minute description of the building, which would be unintelligible apart from the plans and drawings which were intended to illustrate it. The following account of this elaborate and highly-ornamented structure must therefore be very brief. It is a quadrangular building, consisting chiefly of cloisters, which surround a central area of the same form. It extends nearly 500 feet from north to south,
and 300 feet from east to west. According to Mr. Fergusson, the ground plan and the dimensions are exactly similar to those of the great mosque at Damascus. The east side, through which the building is entered by an insignificant door, is 500 feet long and 38 feet wide between the walls. This space is subdivided by means of transverse brick walls and stone pillars into no less than 127 squares, each of which is covered by a small dome. The northern and southern sides are constructed on the same pattern, but, being shorter, contain only 39 domes each. The height of all three is about twenty feet, including a broad ornamented cornice; towards the quadrangle they open inwards with arches, which correspond to the squares. On the outside are many small windows, highly decorated with carved tiles disposed in arches. The western side of the building, that which faces towards Mecca, is composed of a central apartment, the mosque proper, and two wings. The mosque is 64 feet from east to west, 32 feet from north to south, and 62 feet in height from the floor to the centre of the dome by which it is covered. It contains the usual niches on the western wall, towards which the worshippers turned their faces, and a pulpit. These are polished and highly carved. The southern wing is similar in design to the other sides of the building, and contains 90 domes. Its west front, however, is closed by a blank wall, in which are niches corresponding to the fifteen rows of arches which here terminate the cloisters. In this wing the common people worshipped. The northern wing only differs in so far as it contains a raised platform for the royal worshippers. This platform, called the Bādšāh-ka-takht, is supported upon thick columns, and elevated about eight feet from the floor. It is 40 feet wide and 80 feet long, and covered by domes of no greater height than those over the rest of the building. The adjacent wall contains four niches and two doors, which are minutely carved and ornamented with passages from the Kurān. These doors, through which is the only entrance to the platform, communicate directly with the chamber in which is the tomb of Sikandra, on the same level with the platform. This chamber is 38 feet square, and has been covered by nine domes, of an even height with all the others. The grave is in the centre, composed of brick, and without ornament; but it now lies empty, having been opened in search of treasure. The outer front of this west side, though rendered irregular by the projection of the tomb, is the most entire portion of the building, and has been the most highly orna-
mented. It bears an inscription which fixes the date for the erection of the building by Sikandra at A.H. 707, or 1307 A.D. (This is the date given by Dr. B. Hamilton, but Stewart's *History of Bengal* places the reign of this monarch between 1358 and 1367 A.D.) The stone-work, which reaches 11 feet high, is quite plain. The brick-work surmounting it, which raises the entire height to 23 feet 5 inches, is subdivided into minute portions, and most elaborately carved. The doors and windows on this side, which are of stone, are the parts of the whole which, in the opinion of Dr. B. Hamilton, have been executed in the best taste. They are of very different styles, having apparently been taken from different Hindu buildings. The carvings of the human figure upon the materials have been carefully obliterated by the Muhammadan mason, but yet traces of them can everywhere be detected on a close inspection. There is no calcareous marble anywhere in the building. The rougher parts are of granite, out of a single block of which some of the pillars supporting the domes are hewn. The more polished parts are made of indurated potstone impregnated with hornblende. The total number of domes is variously given by different authorities, but cannot be much less than 400. It is the great number of small domes which forms the peculiar feature of the Pathán architecture of this period.

The only other ruin of note in Panduah is the Satásgarh or 'Sixty Towers, which is said to have been the palace of the king. It lies about a mile to the eastward of the main street, opposite the Adinah Mosque, altogether enveloped in the most dense jungle. About half-way are the remains of an earthen rampart, which from the position of the ditch on the western side was probably a fortification to protect the palace. At the Satásgarh itself little is to be seen beyond a large tank, on the banks of which are numerous small buildings, connected with each other, which have evidently been used as baths. The dimensions of the tank are longest from north to south,—a circumstance which, combined with local tradition, points to the conclusion that it is a Hindu structure. This leads Dr. B. Hamilton to quote with apparent approval the tradition which connects the original foundation of the town with a mythical Pandu Rájá, who gave his name to the place.

Tandán, Tondah, or Tángrá, the capital of Bengal after the decadence of Gaur, was also situated within the present District of Maldah. The history of this city is obscure, and its very site has
not been accurately determined. According to Stewart (History of Bengal, ed. 1847, p. 95), Sulaimán Sháh Karáni, the last but one of the Afghán kings of Bengal, moved the seat of government to Tándán A.H. 972 or A.D. 1564, eleven years before the final depopulation of Gaur. Though never a populous city, Tándán seems to have continued a favourite residence for the Mughul governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In the year A.D. 1660, the rebel Sujá Sháh, when hard pressed by Mír Jumlá, the general of Aurangzeb, retreated from Rájmahal to Tándán, and restored the fortifications of the latter city. In its neighbourhood was fought the decisive battle in which Sujá Sháh was finally defeated. After this date Tándán is not mentioned in history, for the course of events henceforth drew the Mughul governors towards Dacca. It is certain that Tándán was in the immediate neighbourhood of Gaur, and indeed was originally little more than a new palace or country residence for the king; but no ruins now remain to mark the precise site. It lay to the west of Gaur, beyond the Bhágirathi. Major Rennel states that it was situated on the road leading to Rájmahal, some few miles farther up the Ganges than Gaur; Dr. Buchanan Hamilton places it in thand Káliáchak, to the south-west of the ruins of Gaur, following the survey of Gaur made by Mr. Creighton. Neither the Revenue Surveyor nor the modern maps make any mention of the place. There can be little doubt that when Gaur was rendered defenceless by the great change in the channel of the Ganges, it was found necessary to move the royal residence to the new bank of the river. Hence the origin of Tándán, which was naturally deserted when the seat of government was transferred to the extreme east of Bengal, and perhaps swept away by subsequent changes in the course of the Ganges.

VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—In connection with the indigenous agency employed in taking the Census of 1872, a report was called for by Government upon the present condition of the old village officials. The following paragraphs on the subject are taken almost verbatim from the information furnished on that occasion by the Magistrate of Maldah, dated January 1873:

MANDALS.—'The system of mandals and sátmuns has existed in this District from the time of the Muhammadan conquest. A sátmun is a head rayat. At the present day every village has a mandal, and in large villages there are two or three sátmuns under him. The mandal is appointed by the zamindár, with the concurrence of the
Rayats. He usually retains his office for life, but is liable to be dismissed at the pleasure of the zamindar. The office is not strictly hereditary, but a preference is usually given to a relative of the late mandal, if he be otherwise eligible. The mandal still occupies an important position in the village, but in the more civilised portion of the District his influence is now much less than it used to be, and his area of authority more circumscribed. The villages in these parts have become independent of his control, and his position has been undermined by the increasingly centralized powers of the zamindars, and the growing accessibility of the courts of justice. In the more remote and less populous parts of the District, such as the Barendra samin to the east of the Mahanand, the mandals continue to hold their former position. This is especially the case among the Palis in thnda Gajol, with whom the headmen or sardars occupy to the present day an acknowledged place in the village community.

Panchayat.—"There is no established village institution such as the panchayat. A gathering, however, analogous to the panchayat is convened both among Hindus and Muhammadans, whenever occasion arises, e.g. to settle a disputed question of caste. The members of such a gathering are selected by the parties interested, entirely out of their own castes."

Patwaris.—"Patwarris or village accountants are not to be found as part of an existing system. They have long since given way to the zamindari servants, the gumdsht and the tahsildar. Since 1851 the zamindars have discontinued the practice of filing returns of patwaris. The term patwari, however, is still known and recognised throughout the District. It has become synonymous with tahsildar, and in the north of Maldah is applied to the person whose duty it is to collect the rents for the zamindar. The same person is usually called tahsildar in the southern parts, and gumdsht in the central parts of the District. He is solely a servant of the zamindar, and is liable to be dismissed at pleasure. The office is not hereditary, and a monthly salary is usually attached to it. The duties are simply to collect the rent from the rayats, and to make it over to the ndib. These patwaris do not belong to any particular class or caste."

Bakhshis.—"No traces of phridars, faujdars, or bakhshis as village officials are to be found in Maldah, but it is stated that the name "bakhshi" was in use until a few years ago. It was applied to
the officer who collected the town chaukidári or police rates, and who performed, under the title of sadr bakhshi, certain police duties now entrusted to the town head constable.'

Fairs or Religious Gatherings.—The following is a list of the chief fairs or melás held in the District. Minor articles, such as brass ware, furniture, toys, and various eatables, are sold at each of them, but in all the religious element predominates. (1) Rámkail melá is held within the precincts of old Gaur, in the immediate neighbourhood of the great Ságar Díghi, on the last day of Jaisthá, corresponding to the month of June, in every year. Pilgrims come hither from all parts of Maldah, and also from the neighbouring Districts. They are mostly Hindus of the Vaishnav sect, and it is estimated that their number may amount to as many as 30,000. The ceremonies consist of performing worship and giving feasts in honour of Krishná. Advantage is also taken of this occasion by the Vaishnavs to get married in strict accordance with the rites prescribed by Chaitanya. The gathering continues for five days, but cholera and fever rarely break out at this place. It has been suggested that this exemption from disease may be due to the existence of the large tanks near, which to this day contain abundance of wholesome water. (2) Kuris melá is held at Gárgáribá, on the bank of the Ganges, twelve days after the dol jatrá, or swinging festival, in the month of Phálgun, corresponding to February or March. The assemblage, which lasts for five days, consists of about twelve or fourteen thousand persons, mostly Hindus, who come for the sole purpose of bathing in the Ganges. (3) Kánsát melá is held at the same time as the above, and for the same purpose, at the village of Kánsát, on the Ganges, in the south-west of the District. It is attended by from eight to ten thousand Hindus, and lasts for two days. In 1868 cholera broke out severely at this gathering, and was thence widely disseminated throughout the District. (4) Tulsi Bihár melá is held in Jangal-Tútá, a place enveloped in jungle, as its name imports, some ten miles to the south of English Bázár. The date is the last day of Baisákha, corresponding to April, and the attendance is from three to four thousand, consisting entirely of Vaishnavs. The ceremonies performed are connected with the earliest legends of Hinduism, and are of a singular nature. The place is inhabited by a small colony of Bráhmans called Thákuránjís, who dress themselves in women's clothes and observe celibacy. They consider themselves to be gopinis or milkmaids, and in that
character worship Krishná as their incarnate lover. They celebrate their marriage with Krishná once every year, which gives occasion to the melá. Fever cases often occur here; and in 1869 a good many lives were lost from cholera. (5) Panduah or Perua is the scene of a Muhammadan melá, which takes place in the last week of Kártik, corresponding to November; but after every three years the melá day retrogrades one month. It is frequented by about five or six thousand persons, almost all Musalmáns. The ceremonies here performed consist of the offering of fítikás, or prayers for defunct persons, combined with the distribution of alms and food to the fakirs who assemble on the occasion. The gathering lasts for five days. In 1868, when cholera was raging in the District, it received a fresh impetus at this melá, and was thence directly conveyed into the Maldah jail. (6) Powál melá is held at Bámangolá, in the north-east of the District, in the month of Chaitra, corresponding to March. Its institution is of recent origin, and the ceremonies performed are the same as at Panduah. It lasts for three days, and is attended by about 2000 Muhammadans. There are also smaller fairs held at Sádullápur, a celebrated burial ghát on the Bhágiirthí, in March, and at Rathbári in May.

The Material Condition of the People is described by the Collector as varying very much in the different portions of the District. To the westward of the Mahánandá, and along both banks of that river, the cultivators are very prosperous. The cultivation of the mulberry is extremely profitable; and the mango orchards also, which abound in this part, help considerably towards paying the rent. On the eastern side of the Mahánandá, and especially towards the north, the population is chiefly composed of semi-Hinduized aboriginals, Palis and Kochs. Their houses are built of grass mat, and are rarely thick enough together to constitute a village. There is little doubt that such wants as they have are abundantly satisfied in the jungle, and they are a contented-looking race. To the south-east of the District, on the borders of Rájsháhi, the villages become larger, and the cultivation is better, but the level of comfort is not equal to that in the tract first described.

The Ordinary Dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of (1) a dhuti and (2) a chádár, both composed of cotton or coarse silk, (3) a giláph or coarse wrapper for cold weather, (4) a pirán, a cloth of native pattern, or shirt, (5) a gámchá or towel, (6) jútá or a pair of shoes, and (7) an umbrella. This is the outdoor costume; but
indoors nothing is worn but the dhuti and a mālā or set of wooden beads, confined to Hindus. The dress of a well-to-do cultivator is similar to the above, but throughout of a cheaper description. He has not got the pirān, the shoes, or the umbrella, but in addition he wears a pagri or coarse cotton head-dress. The dress of the women is uniformly the sāri, a cotton or silk robe with a red or black border. The use of gold and silver ornaments is much on the increase; and in the more prosperous part of the District it has now become rare to see a brass ornament on the person of a middle-class woman, which was not the case some few years ago.

Dwellings.—The building materials used depend upon the facility with which bricks can be obtained from the ruins of Gaur. For example, in the towns of English Bāzār or Maldah, the house of a well-to-do shopkeeper will usually be built of brick. It will contain two or three rooms, and in addition a cooking hut, walled with mats and roofed with thatch, the whole surrounded with a screen of matting. The area of such a structure would not altogether be more than 20 feet square. In other parts of the District the house of such a person would be entirely constructed of grass mats; the number of rooms being the same, but each independent of the other. The dwelling of a respectable cultivator is the same as in the last case, except that he has rarely more than two rooms or ghara, together with a cooking shed and a shed for cattle, often without walls. The materials used for making the mats and screens and for sewing them together are khar grass, bamboos, reeds, jute and hempen string. The mats for the outer screen are of bamboo framework, with grass interwoven. The inside house mats are woven on split bamboo. The fineness of the work and texture entirely depend upon the taste of the occupant. The roofs are thatched with grass. Earth is but little used for building; and houses with mud walls are rarely to be found anywhere in the District.

The Furniture in the house of a well-to-do shopkeeper or of a peasant does not differ materially from that which has been already described in other volumes; most fully in the Account of Dacca, pp. 77, 78.

The Food of the people consists mainly of rice, varied with various kinds of pulses and other country vegetables, fish, spices, etc. Milk is not much consumed in the poorer families, even
where a cow is kept, but is usually sold. The children get various sweetened preparations of rice. There is no difference between the description of food consumed by a shopkeeper and that consumed by a peasant, but the food of the latter is coarser in quality, and, excepting rice, less in quantity: The average monthly living expenses of a well-to-do household consisting of five persons, three adults and two children, which follow, are estimated on the supposition that everything is bought in the bazaar, but of course the cultivators obtain almost all the articles by their own labour. Rice, 2 maunds or 164 lbs., Rs. 5 or 10s.; dal or pulse, 12 sers or 24 lbs., R. 1 or 2s.; salt, 2 sers or 4 lbs., 4 annas or 6d.; oil, 6 sers or 12 lbs., Rs. 2 or 4s.; vegetables, R. 1 or 2s.; fish, R. 1 or 2s.; spices, 4 annas or 6d.; pān and betel-nut, 8 annas or 1s.; tobacco, 8 annas or 1s.; fuel, Rs. 1/8 or 3s.; extras, Rs. 2 or 4s.—total average monthly expenses, excluding clothes, Rs. 15/8 or £1, 11s. 6d.

Agriculture: Rice.—The staple crop here as elsewhere in Bengal is rice, of which the following are the four chief varieties:—

(1) Boro, sown in November and December, and reaped in April and May. It is grown on low-lying and marshy lands, and requires to be transplanted two or three times before coming to perfection. The grain is coarse, and chiefly used by the cultivators themselves.

(2) Bhadai, sown in April and May, and reaped in August and September. It is sown broadcast on high lands and on the banks of rivers. It requires no irrigation, nor is it transplanted, but it must be weeded when about five inches high. This crop, which is identical with the ānus of Eastern Bengal, is largely grown in all parts of the District. The grain is coarse, and consumed by the poorer classes.

(3) Aman, sown in June and July, and reaped in November and December. It is sown in low-lying lands which go under water during the rains, and does not require transplanting. It is extensively cultivated throughout the District, and together with the haimantik forms the main harvest on which depends the food supply of the year. It may probably be identified not so much with the āman as with the kārtik sīl of Eastern Bengal.

(4) Haimantik. This crop requires transplanting, and more resembles the ordinary āman. It is sown in June or July, transplanted in July or August, and harvested in November and December.

The quality of the rice grown does not appear to have improved of late years, nor has any encouragement in this direction been offered on the part of the landlords. A great extension, however,
of the area under rice has of late taken place, and this not at the expense of other cultivation. Much of harganá Shersháhábád, in the neighbourhood of Gaur, which was nothing but jungle twenty years ago, now produces good rice crops. The same may be said of many other parts of the District, notably in thánás Gumáshátpur and Nawábganj, to the south-west.

The names for rice in its various stages, from the seed until cooked, are—bíhan, the seed; phúl, plants about a foot high, ready for transplanting; gambhar, when the plants are sufficiently advanced to throw out ears, but the ears have not quite come; phúlan, when the ears have appeared, but there is no grain or milk within them; dudhi-khotan, when milk grows in the ears; dhán or paddy, when the grain is ripening; pakká dhán, when the grain is ready for reaping. It is then cut and brought to the threshing-floor, over which it is scattered, and threshed out by oxen. The paddy, or grain with the husk on it, is next dried, boiled twice, and husked in the dhenki, or common rice-cleaning machine. This cleaned rice is again boiled before being eaten, when it is known as bhút. There is another process preliminary to husking sometimes adopted, by which, instead of being boiled, the paddy is soaked for a day and a night before being husked in the dhenki. It is then called árodá.

The various sorts of cooked preparations made from rice are—Chírá. The paddy is first soaked in water for twenty-four hours, or boiled. When taken out of the water, it is partially parched, and then flattened out by being pounded in the dhenki. This latter process also frees the grain from husk, which is winnowed and sifted away at the same time. The chírá is usually rendered soft before being eaten by another soaking in water, but it can be eaten without being soaked. A ser or two pounds of chírá costs about one áná, or three-halfpence. Muri is also made from paddy by first soaking it in water and boiling it, before the drying and husking takes place. When dried in hot sand, the grains are puffed out to four times their ordinary size. It is very light, and is eaten between the regular meals as a sort of confection. Khái is made of light paddy from the áman and haimantik crops. The grain is simply parched in heated sand, and the husks come off of themselves. It swells to two or three times the size of muri, and is consequently even lighter than that preparation. It is eaten in the same way. The price of either is 3 pías a ser, or 3d. for two pounds.
There are, besides, several sorts of cakes (pishtak) made from rice flour, but these are not sold in the bāzār. The liquid preparations made from rice are—Dhānimad, or country spirits. Under the present system of excise, no spirit is distilled from rice alone. Rice, or perhaps chîrâ, is mixed up together with molasses (gur) and bākhar, and kept for several days until fermentation has ceased. The spirit is then distilled, and is forthwith ready for use. A quart bottle will cost from 10 to 12 ánnâs, or from fifteen to eighteen pence. Pachwâdi, or rice beer. Rice half cooked is soaked in water for ten or fifteen days, till the grain is almost dissolved. The liquid is then drained off, and drunk as it is. The consumption is entirely confined to the semi-aboriginal tribes. A quart bottle costs from ¾ to 1 ánnâ, or a little more than one penny. Paramanna may also be regarded as a liquid preparation made from rice. The grain is boiled with milk, sugar, ghî, and spices, and the result is something like a pudding. It has no market price.

Cereal Crops other than rice are not much cultivated in the District. Wheat and barley, with which latter oats are occasionally mingled, are grown on high lands which during the rains go under water. They are sown in September and October, and reaped in February and March. Indian corn is sown on high lands in June and July, and reaped in August and September. Sainâ, kôdâ, and chind are grown in small quantities on char or alluvial lands, and are used by the cultivators only. They are sown in June and July, and reaped in September and October, at the same seasons as just mentioned for Indian corn.

Green Crops.—These are mostly cold-weather crops. Musîri, peas, gram, khêsdrî, and linseed are sown on char lands in October and November, and reaped in February and March. Mûg, kâhî, and mustard are sown in September and October and reaped in December and January. Of arhar, two sorts are grown in the District, the one sown and reaped together with mûg, and the other sown in October and reaped in March and April.

Fibres comprise jute and hemp, but neither of them are cultivated to any considerable extent. They grow well in marshy land, requiring very little attention. They are both sown in April and May, and reaped in July and August.

Miscellaneous Crops.—Sugar-cane is not sufficiently cultivated in Maldah to deserve notice. It is planted in January and February on high lands, and is cut down for use after an interval of fully eleven
months. Indigo is extensively grown both by European planters and several rich natives. The mode of cultivation does not differ from that followed in other Districts. It is sown in the low-lying char lands along all the rivers of the District in the months of September and October, and the crop is gathered in June and July. Pán gardens are to be seen here and there in the District, but are not sufficient for the local consumption. The creeper is planted on high lands in April and May, and if properly cared for can be continually utilized for some two or three years. Mulberry shrubs for the feeding of silk-worms are cultivated by nearly three-fourths of the peasants of Maldah. The rice they also grow feeds them; but with the mulberry they pay their rent. The shrub only grows on high land above the reach of inundation, and the soil must be very fertile. This double object is attained by taking fields which are not naturally of a very high elevation, dividing them into manageable plots, and artificially raising each plot, by means of the earth dug out of deep trenches, to the height of six or eight feet. On the top of those compartments the mulberry is planted in September and October, and continues to yield a fair return of leaves for at least three years. Crops of leaves for the successive crops of the silk-worms are cut three or four times in the year. The cultivators take great pains to have the fields carefully fenced, and the soil well manured with cow-dung and suit, the refuse of the indigo plant. Tobacco is sometimes raised in homestead lands round the houses of the cultivators, but only for their own use. Cotton is not cultivated anywhere in the District. The mango tree, like the mulberry plant, is a source of wealth to the cultivators who live in the more favoured parts of the District. Mango orchards line the banks of the Mahánandá in the neighbourhood of English Bázár. The mangos of Maldah are celebrated all over Bengal, and when in season, the fruit is exported largely to Murshídábád, and even more distant towns.

**Area, Out-turn of Crops, etc.—** The definite area of the District was returned in September 1874 by the Boundary Commissioner at 1806.64 square miles. In the year 1869-1870, before recent transfers, the area was estimated at 824,521 acres, or 1288.31 square miles. Of this total, somewhat more than one-half, 426,583 acres, or 666.54 square miles, was under tillage. Of the remainder, 244,130 acres, or 381.45 square miles, were returned as capable of being brought under tillage, and 153,808 acres, or 240.32 square
miles, as absolutely uncultivable. No statistics approaching to accuracy exist which would show the comparative cultivation of each kind of crop; but the Collector has taken the pains to draw up the following estimate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Acres.</th>
<th>Brought forward,</th>
<th>Acres.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice,</td>
<td>250,000</td>
<td>Tobacco,</td>
<td>343,583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat,</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>Vegetables,</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other food grains,</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>Pulses in ordinary use,</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil-seeds,</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>Mulberry,</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indigo,</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fibres</td>
<td>3,583</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carry forward,</td>
<td>343,583</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand total, 426,583

The highest rent paid for rice land is from Rs. 1.4. 0 to Rs. 1.8. 0 per bighá, or from 7s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. The yield of paddy or unhusked rice from such land would be from 10 to 12 maunds per bighá, or from 22 to 26 hundredweights an acre, the price of which would be from Rs. 15 to 18 per bighá, or from £4, 10s. od. to £5, 8s. od. per acre. Inferior rice land, rented at a proportionately lower rate according to its quality, yields from 7 to 10 maunds per bighá, or from 15 to 22 hundredweights an acre; in which case the produce would be worth from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per bighá, or from £3 to £4, 10s. od. an acre. The land on which the bhadai or rice crop is sown is also suited for winter crops, such as mustard, peas, etc. These yield from 5 to 7 maunds per bighá, or from 11 to 15 hundredweights an acre, of the value of from Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 per bighá, or from £2, 2s. od. to £3 an acre. In short, a bighá of land adapted for both paddy and winter crops gives a fair return of from 16 to 20 maunds, worth from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25. The acre would thus yield from 35 to 44 hundredweights, worth from £6 to £7, 10s. od. This is the estimate returned by the Collector; but it ought to be accepted with caution, as taking the maund of paddy at too high a value, and disclosing a profit to the cultivator much above the average.

Position of the Cultivators.—The size of the holdings varies from 2 to 1000 bighás, or from two-thirds of an acre to more than 300 acres; but anything beyond 800 bighás, or 270 acres, would be considered as a very large farm, and anything below 25 bighás, or 8 acres, as a very small farm, in this District. About 30 to 50 bighás, or 10 to 17 acres, may be regarded as a fair-sized, comfortable hold-
ing, which would enable its tenant to live as well as a respectable shopkeeper. A pair of oxen might possibly be able to cultivate as much as 15 bighās, or 5 acres of land; but so small a holding would only permit the cultivator to live according to the standard of a labourer with Rs. 8 or 16s. a month. The usual practice in Maldah is for several cultivators to club together, and to have two or three ploughs in work at once, passing in turn from one holding to another. The condition of the cultivators is described as being on the whole good; and, as a class, they are not permanently in debt. The great majority of them are mere tenants at will, the proportion of those with occupancy rights being only about 15 per cent., and those not liable to enhancement of rent about 8 per cent. About 300 are known to have established their right of occupancy, and about 50 to have been acknowledged to possess their holdings at their present rent in perpetuity, under the clauses of Act x. of 1859. The monthly sum with which a cultivator could support comfortably a middling-sized household of five persons is set down at from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12, or £1 to £1, 4s. od. There is no class in the District of small proprietors who own, occupy, and cultivate their own hereditary lands, without either a landlord above them or a labourer of any sort below.

The Domestic Animals of the District include buffaloes and bullocks, used only for agricultural purposes; elephants, horses, cows, sheep, goats, pigs, fowls, geese, and ducks, kept for food and purposes of trade; and dogs and cats. A cow costs from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15, or from £1, 4s. od. to £1, 10s. od.; a pair of oxen, from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60, or from £3 to £6; a score of sheep, from Rs. 40 to Rs. 45, or from £4 to £4, 10s. od.; a score of kids six months old, about Rs. 15, or £1, 10s. od.; and a score of full-grown pigs, from Rs. 60 to Rs. 100, or from £6 to £7. The following return for Maldah, under the heading of 'stock,' is given among the Returns of the Board of Revenue, No. 41 B, for the year 1868-1869:—Cows and bullocks, 100,000; horses, 200; ponies, 4000; sheep and goats, 5000; pigs, number not ascertained; but very considerable; carts, 5000; ploughs, 700; boats, 1900. These figures, however, are the result of mere guess-work, and cannot be trusted.

The Agricultural Implements in use are—a nángal or plough, a bidda or harrow, a mūli or clod-crusher, a dauli or hoe for weeding, a kōdāli or spade for digging, another kind of spade for
digging small holes, a kásté or reaping sickle, and an instrument for separating the ears of rice at threshing. In addition, four bullocks would be required for the cultivation of what is known as a plough of land, amounting to eight or nine acres. The cost of these implements and cattle involves an outlay of not less than Rs. 60 or 70, or £6 or £7.

Wages.—The demand for labour in the District is greater than the supply, and the rates of wages have of late risen considerably, especially since the famine year of 1865. The daily wages of the labouring classes about twenty years ago are thus returned by the Collector:—Coolies, 2 ánnás, or 3d.; agricultural day-labourers, 1 ánná 6 pie, or 2¼d.; smiths, 3 to 6 ánnás, or 4½d. to 9d.; bricklayers, 3 ánnás, or 4½d.; carpenters, 3 to 4 ánnás, or 4½d. to 6d. In 1870 the corresponding rates of wages were:—Coolies, 3 to 3½ ánnás, or 4½d. to 5¼d.; agricultural day-labourers, 2 ánnás, or 3d., with a midday meal, or payment in kind at the rate of 4 bundles of paddy for every 20 bundles cut; smiths, 5 to 8 ánnás, or 7½d. to 1 sh.; bricklayers, 4 to 4½ ánnás, or 6d. to 6½d.; carpenters, 6 to 8 ánnás, or 9d. to 1 sh.

Prices of Agricultural Produce.—The price of food-stuffs has also gone up considerably within the last twenty years, but apparently not in such a proportion as the rate of wages. The table on next page shows the prices of the chief kinds of agricultural produce, both according to Indian standards and their English equivalents, in the year 1853-1854, the earliest for which materials are available, in the famine year 1865-1866, in 1870, and in 1873.

It will be seen that prices have gradually lowered since 1866, but that they have not returned to what was considered to be the ordinary level before the famine year. The prices of some other agricultural products in 1870 were:—Indigo, not sold in the District, but despatched for sale to Calcutta, Rs. 250 to Rs. 325 a maund, or £34 to £43 per hundredweight; sugar-cane, R. 1. 4. 0 to R. 1. 8. 0 a maund, or 35. 5d. to 45. 1d. per hundredweight; gram, Rs. 2 a maund, or 55. 5d. per hundredweight; arhar, R. 1. 10. 0 a maund, or 45. 5d. per hundredweight; peas, R. 1. 4. 0 a maund, or 35. 5d. per hundredweight; míg, Rs. 3. 5. 0 a maund, or 9s. per hundredweight; kaldi, R. 1. 6. 0 a maund, or 35. 9d. per hundredweight; khesári, R. 1. 7. 0 a maund, or 35. 11d. per hundredweight; mustard seed, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight; linseed, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Produce Description</th>
<th>1853-54</th>
<th>1865-66</th>
<th>1870</th>
<th>1873</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>per m.</td>
<td>per cwt.</td>
<td>per m.</td>
<td>per cwt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best cleaned rice</td>
<td>1 4-1 6</td>
<td>3 5-3 9</td>
<td>3 12-4 0</td>
<td>10 2-10 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common rice</td>
<td>1 0-1 2</td>
<td>2 8-3 1</td>
<td>3 0-3 4</td>
<td>8 2-8 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best paddy or unshelled rice</td>
<td>0 12-0 14</td>
<td>2 0-2 4</td>
<td>2 0-2 4</td>
<td>5 5-6 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common paddy</td>
<td>0 10-0 12</td>
<td>1 8-2 0</td>
<td>1 12-2 0</td>
<td>4 9-5 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unshelled barley</td>
<td>0 15-1 0</td>
<td>2 6-2 8</td>
<td>3 12-4 0</td>
<td>10 2-10 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian corn</td>
<td>0 8-0 9</td>
<td>1 4-1 6</td>
<td>0 12-0 13</td>
<td>2 0-2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>2 8</td>
<td>3 10-3 12</td>
<td>9 10-10 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar-cane grs, or molasses</td>
<td>3 0</td>
<td>8 2</td>
<td>5 0</td>
<td>13 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Weights and Measures.—The unit of weight is everywhere the ser (ser), divided into the following denominations:—4 kânchdâs = 1 chhatak; 4 chhataks = 1 poyâ; 4 poyâs = 1 ser; 40 ser = 1 man or maund. The standard ser of 80 tolâs, weight has been uniformly adopted for the calculations in this Account; but ser of a different weight are widely current throughout the District, though the component parts of the ser always remain constant. The standard ser of 80 tolâs is in use at English Bâzár; at Gârgâribâ, Kharbâ, and Gâjol a ser of 96 tolâs is used; at Maldah, a ser of 100 tolâs; at Sibganj, of 82 tolâs; while at Rohanpur, Gumâshátpur, and Nawâbganj, the ser contains only 60 tolâs. The subdivisions of the ser and also the maund vary proportionately. The measure of distance is the kos, which is equivalent to 2 English miles. It is subdivided as follows:—
1 dâlû kos = 1 mile; 1 poyâ kos = 1/2 mile; 1 dâlû poyâ kos = 1/3 mile or 2 furlongs. The unit of time is the pal, equivalent to about 24 seconds. The tables runs thus:—60 pâls = 1 dandâ; 8 dandâs = 1 prahar, or 3 hours; 8 prahars = a day and night. The unit of square measure is the lattâ, 20 of which make up the bighâ. The standard bighâ is 1600 square yards, or 14,400 square feet, so that the lattâ should be 4 square yards, and exactly equal to 4 standard hôths, of which 80 make up the standard bighâ. The lattâ, however, varies all over the District, and is of different dimensions not only in different parganîs, but also in various parts of the same parganâ. The report of the Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives a list of 11 bighâs locally used in the District, varying from 1600 square yards to 4225 square yards; which he thus arranges according to the varying dimensions of the lattâ, as estimated in terms of hôths or cubits of 18 inches:—

1 lattâ = 4 cubits 0 inches, making 1 bighâ = 1,600 square yards.

Landless Labouring Classes.—The Collector reports that in the neighbourhood of the larger towns, such as English Bâzár and
TENURES OF LAND.

Maldah, there is a distinct class of day-labourers who do not possess any land of their own. In the eastern parts, also, and especially in the north-eastern parts of the District, labourers are regularly required for harvest purposes, and flock thither in considerable numbers both from other parts of Maldah and from the western Districts. Those living near the towns do not constitute an increasing class. They are chiefly employed in the cultivation of the mulberry, and are paid daily wages in cash. With reference to the general question of field labour, the Collector remarks that, except at harvest time, it is rare to find any but adult males working in the fields. At that season, however, the Hindus occasionally employ their women, and the Muhammadans their children, but not vice versa.

SPARE LAND.—As has already been stated, a large quantity of the land in the District has not yet been brought under tillage. Cultivation, however, is rapidly extending, but there will always remain a good deal of intractable and hilly jungle. There are no peculiar tenures in the District which aim directly at the reclamation of waste land, but on the whole the cultivating tenures generally are favourable to the extension of tillage.

TENURES OF LAND.—The following account of the different varieties of land tenure met with in the District of Maldah is mainly taken from a report on the subject drawn up in 1873 by Babu Sitakant Mukharji, supplemented by a report furnished at the same time by Mr. H. R. Reily, manager under the Court of Wards of the Chânchâl estates. The tenures are divided into four classes,—(1) estates paying rent direct to Government; (2) intermediate tenures; (3) cultivating and miscellaneous tenures; (4) rent-free tenures.

ESTATES PAYING REVENUE DIRECT TO GOVERNMENT. — The number of these estates in 1873 was 560. Of these, 219 were held by zamindars paying more than Rs. 100 or £10 per annum, and 290 by zamindars paying a land tax below that amount. The remainder comprised 18 estates in the Court of Wards, and 33 with no other proprietor than Government itself. These Government estates are all of small extent,—26 of them are let out to farm, and 7 are directly managed by Government officials. Of the total number of 560 estates, 244, with an assessment of £31,544, 8s. od., date from the Permanent Settlement. The remaining 316 have been added to the rent-roll since that time, being for the most part either resumed rent-free tenures or alluvial accretions.
Intermediate Tenures.—This class includes all those rights which interpose between the superior zamindár and the actual cultivator. Sub-tenures created before the Permanent Settlement, such as istimrári or mukarrári táluká, do not exist in this District. The number of patnis is considerable. The peculiarity of this tenure, which is of modern origin, is that, though it is held at a fixed rent, and descends to the heirs of the tenant, it is liable at any moment to be destroyed by the sale of the superior estate on default of the zamindár in satisfying the Government demand. The patnidár may create any number of subordinate tenures under himself with similar rights to his own, but they all must fall in with his own estate. In Maldah there is only one such dar-patni. Next comes the ijáré or farm, which is a terminable lease. Dar ijárás or sub-leases are not known in the District. Of ijárás, the most common kind is that called mūdī. This lease is for a term of years, varying from one to fifty, and is commonly offered by the larger zamindárs and by absentee landholders to save them the expense and trouble of making the collections themselves. The properties of indigo planters are often held by the same form of lease for years, which is locally termed thök. Another kind of ijáré is daísudi, which is substantially a mortgage of the land to the tenant, who retains it until the rent shall have satisfied the capital and interest of the loan. Dáisudis are of rare occurrence in Maldah. Istimrári jots, or permanent, hereditary, and transferable leases, are also found; but these tenures, which are mostly situated in the north-west of the District, do not collectively cover more than 1000 acres, and are not created at the present day. Mukarrári or mushákhzáí jots are in their conditions of a similar nature to the above, but are much more common in this District. The Deputy-Collector estimates their total number at not less than 1000, occupying an area of about 17,000 acres.

Cultivating and Miscellaneous Tenures.—Jot, or rayati jot, is the name for the common tenures of the cultivators, either with or without a right of occupancy. The terms are a subject of annual arrangement, and, together with the area of the holding, are embodied in a pattá or lease given to the cultivator, and a kabúliyat or counterpart kept by the landlord. The rights thus created are of a transferable character, and confer on the tenant a right of occupancy after twelve years' continuous occupation. Thiká, or summary or mūdī jot, is a similar tenure, granted for a term of years, and is more a
TENURES OF LAND.

subject of contract and less a matter of usage than the former. It also is transferable, and is common in the more fertile parts of the District. Hāl hāsīlā is an extremely common form of holding, chiefly in the less advanced tracts in the north, and in the diārā mahals in the west and south of the District. Of the three extensive parganās which compose the Cháñchál estates, now managed by the Court of Wards, two are ascertained to be entirely occupied with these holdings. The following account is derived from the report of Mr. Reily, the manager of those estates. The peculiarity of the tenure is, that the cultivator only pays rent for such lands as he may have cultivated during the year, and the rate is proportioned to the kinds of crop that he has raised. There is no written agreement, but the tenant is recognised to have a sort of claim to continuance. The lands actually occupied and the rent payable vary each year, and of course no right of occupancy can arise. The source of this tenure, however, is not to be found in the grasping disposition of the zamīndārs, but in the vitality of the old Hindu village system. It is, in fact, a relic of the days when the entire lands of the village were annually divided afresh among all the villagers. Even at present, it is usually the head-man of the village and not each individual peasant with whom the annual agreement and partition is made by the zamīndār. 'The entire village, under the authority of the head-man, acts in concert. The land to the east of the village is cultivated for one or two seasons, while the land to the west lies fallow, and is used as grazing ground for cattle. After the lapse of the two years, the land to the west is brought under cultivation, while that to the east lies fallow; and so on alternately.' This is the simplest form of the hāl hāsīlā tenure; but for the proper working of such a system, it is manifest that two requisites are necessary. The village community must retain its traditional influence over its members, and there must be abundance of spare land. In parganā Gaurhand this is apparently the case, for there Mr. Reily states that the greater part of each holding is exchanged every year. In parganā Hátandá, however, where the pressure of the population is greater, it would appear that a new variety of hāl hāsīlā is springing up. 'The yearly exchange of land cannot be indulged in so freely as of old, for the peasant is in no way certain that his relinquished plot will not be occupied by an interloper before the year is out.' This difficulty is met in the following way. 'In each new assessment on the part of the zamīn-
dār, the lands are so rated that the tenant is enabled to hold an extra quantity of land at a nominal rent, so that he may allow a certain portion of his holding to remain fallow each year, answering the double purpose both of recruiting its powers and of acting as a grazing ground for his cattle. The hāl hāsilā tenure, therefore, is losing its primitive character as an integral part of the customs of the village, and is tending to become a mere matter of contract between landlord and tenant, in which case it will before long merge in the ordinary jot. Khámār and nīj-jot are two forms of holding which resemble each other in the circumstances that they are both regarded as in a special sense the private property of the zamīndār, and that neither of them were assessed before the Decennial Settlement. Both of them are common in this District. Khámār is properly applied to lands which were originally waste but have been reclaimed. They are then either retained by the zamīndārs, or let out at a grain rent; from this latter practice the name is derived. The khāmār lands belonging to the Chāncchāl estates comprise an area of 130 or 170 acres. Nīj-jot, which must be carefully distinguished from what is elsewhere called nīj-tāluk, is the name for the home farms of the zamīndārs, cultivated by themselves and for their own benefit. Their average area may amount to from 40 to 300 bighās, or from 13 to 100 acres. Chākrān, or service tenures, are held by various servants, such as the washerman, the barber, the gardener, etc., in part payment of their services. These tenures also had their place at one time in the village system, when these persons were the common servants of the villagers; but at the present day they are created by all the various superior tenure-holders in the District in favour of their own personal attendants. The chākrān lands are thus rent-free in the sense that their occupiers do not pay rent, but they are no longer excluded from the Government assessment. The report of Mr. Reily on the tenures of the Chāncchāl estates shows that the service lands in parganā Hātāndā amount to 2912 acres, or 3.62 per cent. of the whole area; and in parganā Gaurhand to 441 acres, or 1.55 of the whole. Adhī, trikūṭī (tikūṭī), and pharanī are the names of sub-tenures created by cultivators themselves, who for various reasons wish a certain portion of their holding to be taken off their hands. They all partake somewhat of the metayer character, and prevail largely all over the District. In the adhī, as is implied by the name, the produce is shared in
TENURES OF LAND.

equal moiety between the two parties; whilst the usual agreement with reference to cultivation is, that the petty landlord shall find the seed and all other expenses, and the husbandman merely supply his labour, which includes the entire cultivation as well as the reaping. The *trikáti* does not differ from the *dáhi*, except that two-thirds of the crop are assigned to the petty landlord, and only one-third (from which the name is derived) to the husbandman. In the *pharánti*, the husbandman agrees to pay to his landlord a definite number of *maunds* for each *bighá*, quite independently of the actual produce which he may reap, and thus takes all the risks of the season.

*Jalkár* is a lease of a fishery. In this District a considerable proportion of the revenue of the *saimindárs* is derived from this source.

*Banjar* is a lease of land that has been suffered to run to waste, for the cutting of trees and underwood for fuel. There are four large *banjars* in this District, which on an average cover an area of 15,000 *bighás* or 5000 acres a-piece. *Phalkár* is a lease of garden ground. This tenure, under the Muhammadan rule, was of more importance than it is now. At the present time, orchards and gardens are usually included in the ordinary *jot* of the cultivators, and *phalkárs* have become very rare in the District.

Rent-Free Tenures.—*Lákhiráj*, or rent-free tenures, may be divided, according to their origin, into (i.) those created by the paramount authority of the country, (ii.) those created by a subordinate government, and (iii.) those created by Muhammadan and Hindu landholders. Of class i. there are two examples in this District, one of a Dehli emperor, and the other of the English. *Taraf Pitigpur*, near Gaur, in *parganá* Shersháhábád, with an area of more than 15,000 *bighás* or 5000 acres, and now divided into 27 separate estates, was conferred by the Emperor Aurangzeb on his priest Sayyid Niámát-ullah for charitable uses. This is known as a *bádsháhi altamghá*, or an imperial grant under a red or purple seal. The other case is a plot of ground in *mausá* Mahanpur, within *parganá* Shikárpur, containing about 3380 *bighás* or 1127 acres, which was assigned in the time of Lord Cornwallis for the support of an invalid sepoy establishment. The lands were thus apportioned:—1 *jamádár*, 200 *bighás*; 2 *hawálidárs*, at 120 *bighás*; 3 *náiks*, at 120 *bighás*; 33 sepoys, at 80 *bighás*. This is called a *jǘgir*, or rent-free grant for special services. The lands are now in the possession of a native merchant of English Bázár. Class ii. comprises 3 estates in this District, which were created at different times by the Nawáb
Názims of Bengal, and are all of considerable extent. Parganá Báishazári, already alluded to, was conferred in 1709 A.D. on the great-grandfather of its present possessor. He was the hereditary manager of the monument of Pir Mukdam Sháh, and the revenues of the estate are still devoted to the maintenance of that monument, which has been described in connection with Panduah. Parganá Shashazári was granted in 1648 in a similar way, for the support of persons studying religious books and for aims to the poor. These tenures are called ausat madatmásh, or subordinate grants for charitable purposes. The third of this class is a jágir in the north-west of the District, which is said to have been granted by Mír Jáfár to a fakir who betrayed the Nawáb Siraj-ud Daulá after his escape from the battle of Plassey. Class III. comprehends the remaining lákhiráj tenures in the District, which in their origin and destination are similar to those in the rest of Bengal. Two hundred and forty-seven have been acknowledged by Government as rent-free in perpetuity, and entered on the register of the Collectorate, which is now finally closed. They chiefly prevail in parganá Shersháhábád, in the south-west of the District. Besides these, there are many other rent-free tenures in the District of old standing. The 247 are thus classified:—Below 10 bighás, Muhammadan grants 62, Hindu grants 79; above 10 and below 25 bighás, Muhammadan grants none, Hindu grants 11; above 25 and below 50 bighás, Muhammadan grants 5, Hindu grants 22; above 50 and below 100 bighás, Muhammadan grants 2, Hindu grants 13; from 100 bighás upwards, Muhammadan grants 6, Hindu grants 47. The names of the rent-free grants which are most common in Maldah are pírán, fakírán, kaburgáh, and khírat for Muhammadan uses; and deboottar, bráhmottar, and sivottar for Hindu objects.

Mr. Reily furnishes the following statistics for the rent-free tenures existing in two large parganás belonging to the Chánchál estates. In parganá Hátındá, 5226 acres, or 6.49 per cent. of the whole area, are held by lákhirájddárs, thus classified:—

1. Deboottar (for the service of the deities), ........................................... 1318
2. Bráhmottar (for the support of Bráhmnans), ......................................... 2726
3. Bhádottar (for the support of bhádis, or heralds), ................................. 50
4. Víshnottar (for the service of Víshnu), .............................................. 77
5. Gánakottar (for the support of astrologers), ......................................... 138
6. Jógidsan (for the seats of devotees), .................................................... 1
7. Brádhyöttar (for the support of physicians), ......................................... 26
8. Inläuft (given for rewards), .................................................................. 12

Acres.
RATES OF RENT.

9. *Mandallán* (for the support of head-men), 2
10. *Mahdtrán* (given to men of rank), 319
11. *Aimá* (for the subsistence of Musalmáns), 160
12. *Firán* (for preserving the memory of Muhammadan saints), 374
13. *Fakhrán* (for the support of Muhammadan religious mendicants), 23

Total, 5226

In *pargáná* Gaurhand the *lákhiráj* tenures amount to 1789 acres or 6.31 per cent. of the total area. They are thus arranged:

1. *Deottar*, 398
2. *Bráhmottar*, 1219
3. *Vishnottar*, 3
4. *Ganakottar*, 3
5. *Mandallán*, 79
6. *Aimá*, 10
7. *Pirán*, 57
8. *Fakhrán*, 20

Total, 1789

The Collector is of opinion that the greater part of the land in the District has passed out of the hands of the *sadr zamín dáir* into those of intermediate holders.

Rates of Rent.—The appended statement, showing the prevailing rates of rent per standard *bighá* of 80 *háths*, and per acre, for the different descriptions of lands and crops, is taken almost *verbatim* from a report of the Collector, dated August 1872:—There is no Subdivision in Maldah, and consequently five Divisions were arbitrarily chosen, according to the general character of their soil and the description of their crops. The source of information was mainly the *zamín dárs*; and the Collector believes that the figures are accurate. The several descriptions of land producing the ordinary crops have been classified according as they produce one, two, or three crops a year, this being the criterion which mainly regulates the rate of rent. Lands producing special crops have been separately entered. Sugar-cane and Indian corn are grown to such a trifling extent that no separate rates for them are necessary. In the remarks after each Division, the distinguishing characteristics of soil, crops, etc., have been noted. It will be observed that the rates of rent are highest in the central portion of the District, the
western portions ranging next, and the lowest rates being in the east. This difference is determined primarily by the quality of the land itself, and in the second place, by the pressure of the population and consequent demand for land, which may be caused by other circumstances than its fertility.

Division I. North-west and western portion of the District, including part of the tract of country between the Ganges and the Mahánandá, and situated principally in tháná Gárgáribá. Land producing three crops a year, such as bhadái or early rice, kaláí, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Land producing two crops, such as bhadái rice and khesári: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly áman or late rice: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. 9d. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 8 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. Indigo: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Hemp and tobacco: rate per bighá, 3 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. 9d. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 12 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 6s. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, 10 ánnás to R. 1, 8, 0; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 9s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1, 8, 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The lands in this Division are principally what is termed dorás díaárá, or light alluvial soil, on which the early rice (bhádái) and cold-weather crops of all sorts are grown. Indigo is also cultivated, but little or no mulberry.

Division II. South-west and western portion of the District, including part of the tract of country between the Ganges and the Mahánandá, and situated principally in thámás Silganj and Káliá-chak. Land producing three crops, such as bhadái or early rice, kaláí, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1, 4, 0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhadái rice and khesári: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Land producing one crop, chiefly áman or late rice: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. 9d.
Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighá, 12 annás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 annás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Indigo: rate per bighá, 4 to 10 annás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. 9d. Tobacco: rate per bighá, 8 annás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 12 annás to R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 annás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 annás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The lands in this division are very similar to those in the first, but towards the eastward and away from the Ganges a heavier soil is met with. The crops principally grown are bhadai or early rice, cold-weather crops of all kinds, and indigo and mulberry. Boro rice is also to be seen, but hemp is very little cultivated.

Division III. North and north-east portion of the District, including chiefly the tract of country on both sides of the Mahánandá, situated in thánás Kharbá and Gájol. Land producing three crops, such as bhadai or early rice, kaltí, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesárí: rate per bighá, 6 to 10 annás; rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 3s. 9d. Land producing one crop, chiefly áman or late rice: rate per bighá, 2 to 8 annás; rate per acre, 9d. to 3s. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 annás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 6 annás; rate per acre, 1s. 1d. to 2s. 3d. Hemp and tobacco: rate per bighá, 4 to 10 annás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. 9d. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 8 to 10 annás; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. 9d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, 6 to 8 annás; rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 3s. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, 10 annás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 6s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 annás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The soil of this division is chiefly of the quality known as matiár, a rich clay soil mixed with a small proportion of sand. Both the early (bhadai) and late (áman) rice crops are extensively grown; and boro rice is also sown on the edges of the bils. Cold-weather crops and hemp and tobacco are cultivated to a small extent, but there is very little either of mulberry or indigo.

Division IV. South-east and east portion of the District, including the tract of country to the east of the Mahánandá, situated in
thānās Gumāshāpur and Nawābganj. Land producing three crops, such as bhādai or early rice, kālāi, and peas: rate per bighā, R. 1.4.0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhādai rice and khesārī: rate per bighā, 8 to 12 ānnās; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly ḍāman or late rice: rate per bighā, 2 to 8 ānnās; rate per acre, 9d. to 3s. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighā, 8 ānnās to R. 1.4.0; rate per acre, 3s. to 7s. 6d. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighā, 3 to 8 ānnās; rate per acre, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighā, 12 ānnās to R. 1.8.0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighā, 8 to 12 ānnās; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Vegetables: rate per bighā, 8 to 10 ānnās; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. 9d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighā, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Mango gardens: rate per bighā, 8 ānnās to R. 1.8.0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighā, 8 ānnās to R. 1.8.0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The lands in this Division have a similar soil to those of the last. A remarkable feature is the undulating mātiār land, which is here called burin. The slopes and ravines are extensively cultivated with the late rice crop, called haimantīk, from the time when it is reaped. The boro rice crop is also much grown on the edges of the jhils. Mulberry and cold-weather crops are cultivated on the higher lands near the Mahānandā; but there is no tobacco or hemp, and little indigo.

DIVISION V. Central portion of the District, including chiefly the tract of country on both sides of the Mahānandā, situated in thānās English Bāzār and Maldah. Land producing three crops, such as bhādai or early rice, kālāi, and peas: rate per bighā, R. 1.4.0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhādai rice and khesārī: rate per bighā, 6 to 12 ānnās; rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly ḍāman or late rice: rate per bighā, 4 to 8 ānnās; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighā, 8 ānnās to Rs. 3; rate per acre, 3s. to 18s. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighā, 5 to 10 ānnās; rate per acre, 1s. 10½d. to 3s. 9d. Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighā, R. 1 to R. 1.8.0; rate per acre, 6s. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighā, 8 ānnās to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Indigo: rate per bighā, 4 to 6 ānnās; rate per acre, 1s. 6d.
to 2s. 3d. Tobacco: rate per bighá, 8 ánndás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 12 ánndás to R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, 10 ánndás to Rs. 2; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 12s. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, 12 ánndás to Rs. 3; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 18s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánndás to Rs. 2; rate per acre, 3s. to 12s. The lands in this Division are of good quality, partly matiá or partly alluvial. The mulberry is very extensively cultivated, as also are all the rice crops. The mango gardens are excellent and numerous. Hemp is hardly grown at all.

Mr. Reily, the manager of the Châncchál estates under the Court of Wards, thus returns the average rates of rent paid by the cultivators in the two following pargáns:—Hátandá: average rent per holding, 17s. 3d.; average rent per acre, 4s. 6d. Gaurhand: average rent per holding, 13s. 4d.; average rent per acre, 4s. 0½d.

As the District of Maldah is of recent formation, it has been found impossible to ascertain the rates of rent about the time of the Permanent Settlement. The Collector, however, has furnished the following list of the average rates of rent prevailing in the District in the year 1842,—the earliest date to which the Records in the Collectorate go back. Bástu or homestead land, R. 1 per bighá or 6s. an acre; udbástu or land surrounding the homestead, R. 1 per bighá or 6s. an acre; ordinary rice land, 3 ánndás per bighá or 1s. 1½d. an acre; baisákhi or lands suited for cold-weather crops, 4 ánndás per bighá or 1s. 6d. an acre; indigo lands, 4 ánndás per bighá or 1s. 6d. an acre.

**Enhancement of Rent.**—Rates of rent have undoubtedly risen within the last thirty years. The Rent Law, however, has not directly contributed much to this rise. Its operation has been variable, according to the disposition of the zamindárs and the demand for land among the cultivators. In pargána Shersháhábád it has been felt to a greater extent than elsewhere, and there the Collector imagines that the rents of about one-third of the peasants have been enhanced. Considering the overwhelming proportion which the mere tenants-at-will bear to those who have a right to hold without enhancement of rent, the zamindárs could no doubt, if they chose, apply the Act to their own great advantage. That they have not generally done so is probably due to the fact that there is in the District a scarcity of labour rather than of land, and an abundance of waste ground to be brought under tillage.
Manure is only used on mulberry lands, and there given in the form of cow-dung and sutí or indigo refuse. From 8 to 15 maunds per bighá, or from 17 to 32 hundredweights per acre, once a year, is considered to be a liberal allowance. The annual expense of this quantity of manure would amount to from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 18s. to £1, 4s. od. per acre.

Irrigation is not necessary in this District, except for the boro rice crop, inasmuch as almost the whole of the cultivated fields go entirely under water during the rains. For the irrigation of the boro rice no tanks or wells are required. It is always planted along the edges of marshes and lakes, or on the banks of rivers, so that the common jānt is all that is wanted to throw the water over it. The cost of this may reach to Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 per bighá on an average, which gives from £1, 4s. od. to £1, 10s. od. per acre.

Fallow; Rotation of Crops, etc.—When fields are situated above the level of the annual floods, they are reserved for the growth of wheat and other cold-weather crops; and to restore their powers, they are often left fallow for a year or two at a time. In some parts of the District, especially in parganá Gaurhand, as has been already mentioned in connection with the hál hásilá land tenure, the custom of leaving fallow some considerable portion of the village lands in alternate years extensively prevails. Rotation of crops is nowhere practised, nor can it be said to be required, as by far the greater part of the arable land is each year refreshed with a new deposit of river mud.

Natural Calamities.—Blight are of comparatively rare occurrence in the District, and when they do occur, are so partial in their incidence as never to affect seriously the general harvest. Their visitation is in the form of insects, which destroy the rice, peas, etc. In 1869, for example, the peas suffered a great deal from insects eating the pods as soon as they formed; but the mischief was confined to tháná Káliáchak. No remedial measures are known.

Floods of a destructive character are of frequent occurrence. Between 1850 and 1870 there were three several inundations, which caused great distress in all parts of the District, especially in the low lands along the rivers. These floods resulted not so much from rain on the spot, as from an abnormal rise in the rivers due to the rainfall higher up. Most of the rivers and streams in Maldah
NATURAL CALAMITIES: DROUGHTS.

take their rise in the Himalaya mountains, and therefore are peculiarly liable to sudden freshets, caused by the melting of snow or by excessive rainfall in the mountains. The autumn of 1871 was signalized in Maldah, in common with the neighbouring Districts, by an inundation more severe than had been known for fifty years. The Ganges encroached upon the town of Haidpur, and washed away the Government buildings, police station, and distillery. The Mahánandá also flooded the town and station of English Bázár, but, except the houses of a few poor families, no material damage was done. Generally, too, notwithstanding the unusual height and duration of the floods, the crops suffered very little. The only rice in the ground at the time was the bhadai, which is far from being the staple crop of the District. The mulberries were a good deal injured, which chiefly affected the wealthier class of cultivators. Many cattle were drowned, and many more perished, as is usual, from the diseases generated from the soaked fields. When the water at last subsided, epidemics broke out among the people: fever and cholera were rife throughout the District, and small-pox caused several deaths in the town of Maldah. To avert such disasters there are no modern embankments in the District, except two small structures erected to save English Bázár and Maldah new road. The magnificent ramparts or dams of Gaur do nothing at the present day but attract wonder. It is probable that an elaborate system of river embankments, with a number of sluices at short intervals to permit of the natural irrigation, would be an immense benefit to the District. Such works would be most useful along the banks of the Mahánandá, the Tángan, and the Purnabhabá. The cost, however, of carrying out this scheme would be enormous, and utterly disproportionate to the advantages conferred.

DROUGHTS of a serious nature are not common in the District. The rivers rarely fail to rise to their usual height, which is sufficient to cover the greater part of the cultivated land, and the amount of local rainfall is of secondary importance. The existence also of numerous marshes contributes in the same direction. Slight droughts do occasionally occur through a deficiency of rain, but such mischief as they cause is confined to very limited areas. No drought (prior to that of 1873-74) has been known, within the present generation, so severe as to affect the general prosperity of the District. No means, therefore, are anywhere adopted to
guard against drought, nor is there any demand for canals or other artificial modes of irrigation.

Compensating Influences in Event of Flood or Drought exist to a certain extent. If inundations were to destroy all the crops in the low lands, no compensation would result from increased fertility in the higher tracts, for of these about two-thirds are occupied with kätāl jungle, and are hopelessly sterile. But, on the other hand, if a drought were to destroy the crops on the high lands, the increased fertility of the marshes and river valleys would go far towards supplying the local deficiency of grain.

Famines.—In the famine year of 1865-66, the highest prices that were touched were—for cleaned rice, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight; for paddy, or unhusked rice, Rs. 2. 8. 0 a maund, or 6s. 10d. per hundredweight. These rates continued for but a very short time; and generally during that year the prices of food stuffs never rose to such an extent as to require Government relief. Prices have not yet entirely returned to what were considered the normal rates before the famine. The scarcity of 1873-74 was severely felt in Maldah. It was found necessary to import a large quantity of grain on Government account, and relief operations were undertaken on a grand scale.

Famine Prospects.—Rice forms the staple food of the District; and it is considered that famine prices are reached when this commodity sells in the bāzārs at 10 sers for the rupee, which is Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight, and other grains at a corresponding increase above their usual rate. If rice were to become yet dearer than this, the Collector is of opinion that the interference of Government would then be required to save the people at large from actual starvation. The poorer classes are not sufficiently well off to afford to pay for what is necessary for their daily consumption at such prices. The áman or late rice crop forms the main food supply of the District. If this were from any cause to fail, there would follow a great rise in prices in January and February,—a sure precursor of famine. The dus crop would by no means compensate for the total loss of the áman, or enable the people to live through the year. In importing an adequate supply of food in the event of famine, no difficulty would be experienced. River communication in the District is abundant at all seasons of the year, especially in its most populous portions. This natural advantage, together with the contiguity of the railway
at Rájmahal, just across the Ganges, would enable the Government to introduce the required amount of grain into any famine-stricken corner of the District. The only recommendations that the Collector has to offer on this topic are, that a good metalled road should be made to connect English Bázár and other towns with the ferry that crosses the Ganges opposite Rájmahal; and further, that a similar road should be run to meet the new line of rail to Dárjiling. The proposed route of this railway will nowhere intersect this District, but pass close to the south-eastern border. A road to that point from English Bázár might be so laid out as to pass through the grain mart of Rohanpur.

**FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE LANDLORDS.**—There are only 7 European landholders registered on the rent-roll of the District. The number of Musalmán landholders is 165, who pay a Government revenue of Rs. 32,545, or £3254, 10s. od. A great part, amounting probably to as much as five-eighths of the whole, is owned by absentee landlords.

**ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.**—There are no roads in the District maintained and managed by the Public Works Department. The following is a list of the roads under local management, with their length and annual cost:—Metalled roads in the Civil Station of English Bázár: 3 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 300, or £30. Unmetalled roads in the Civil Station: 5 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Bridges on the above roads: annual cost, Rs. 660, or £66. Road from Umriti to Nimásaráí: 7 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 140, or £14. Rájmahal road: 18 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 360, or £36. Dinájpur road, from Maldah Ghát to Sankrol: 25 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 500, or £50. Clearing jungle along 21 miles of the above road: annual cost, Rs. 300, or £30. Road from English Bázár to Nimásaráí: 4 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 40, or £4. Tarātipur road: 26 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 520, or £52. Road from Tarātipur to Báraghariá: 10 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Road from Simultálá to Sádullápúr: 3 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 36, or £3, 12s. od. Road from Sastánitalá to Kálliáchak: 11 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 165, or £16, 10s. od. Road from Rohanpur to Párbatipúr: 12 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Rohanpur road: 20 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 252, or £25, 4s. od. Síbghanj road: 2 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 15, or £1, 10s. od.
Kânsât road: 10 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Number of roads, 14; total length, 177 miles; total cost, including bridges and jungle clearing, Rs. 3688, or £368, 16s. od. These figures were returned in 1870, but since that date an important reform has been effected. In accordance with the new regulations of Government, the entire sum collected in the District from toolls and ferries will in the future be expended on the roads and other communications. This sum amounts on an average to Rs. 18,000, or £1800, or nearly five times more than what was expended in 1870. The floods of 1871 caused serious damage to these roads, especially to those in the western portion of the District, near the Ganges. The bridges, however, stood very well, though in many cases the waters cut away the road, and left only the masonry abutments standing. The ferries are reported to be in good order, and they pay very well, especially the one across the Ganges to Râjmahal, and the one at Nimásarâi across the Mahánândâ to Maldah. No large markets have lately sprung up along the principal routes of traffic. There are no canals in the District, nor railways. The railway, however, to Râjmahal is near enough to have an appreciable influence upon the intercourse of the District; and the railway to Dârjiling, now in course of construction, will pass close to the south-eastern border.

Manufactures: Silk.—The most important manufactures are silk and indigo. Silk, indeed, may be called the one staple produce of the District. Its manufacture may be regarded under two heads,—the reeling off of the raw silk from the cocoons, which is then exported in that state, and the weaving of silk goods, of or mixed silk and cotton cloth. The former industry continues to flourish, but the latter, which was a specialty of Maldah, is in a very decayed state.

The following short history of silk manufacture in the District is furnished by the Collector from local sources of information. There can be no doubt that there was silk in these parts during the reign of the last Hindu dynasty at Gaur. It appears that patta bastra silk cloths were then exported to the important cities of Dacca, Sonârgâon, and Saptâgrâm. The Muhammedan conquest is traditionally reported to have caused the manufacture to dwindle away, owing to some religious prohibitions against the wearing of silk. Soon after the desertion of Gaur the industry revived, or, as the native account puts it, silk-worms were brought back to the Mahá-
MANUFACTURES: SILK.

nandá by one Sitá Basani of Jalálpur. It is also recorded that about three hundred years ago one Shaikh Bhik, who used to trade in Maldehi cloths, such as kítár and musrí, set sail for Russia with three ships laden with silk cloths, and that two of his ships were wrecked somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Persian Gulf. In those days the number of patterns was very much smaller than now. (The earliest mention in history of an English factory at Maldah is in the year 1686, as has been already mentioned in connection with the town of English Bázár.) A great impetus was given to the raising of silk-worms and the manufacture of silk, by the arrival of a French gentleman in those parts about the year 1760. His name is not preserved, but no doubt he was the precursor of the French factory which was soon afterwards established in the town of Maldah. The first silk filature of any importance was built in 1750 by Mr. Adney (?) at Singátalá, and exists to the present day. The Residency house of the East India Company at English Bázár was not founded until 1770, by Mr. Thomas Henchman, whose name is still remembered. This building, which is now the official residence of the Collector, was originally erected as a manufactory of sindédá, or lacework on cloth, which was subsequently turned into an ordinary silk manufactory. The local historians say that the years between 1760 and 1790 were a period of great prosperity; and that the rearing of silk-worms and the manufacture of silk fabrics became the general occupation of nearly all classes of the people on both banks of the Mahánandá in the neighbourhood of Maldah. This prosperity, however, was of short duration; and when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the place about 1810, the manufacture had already fallen into decay. The Company’s factory was abolished, in common with all the other Commercial Residencies, in 1836, when the monopoly of the Indian and Chinese trade was withdrawn.

The Manufacture of Silk Fabrics, known as Maldehi cloths, was always confined to native capital, and carried on by native artisans. These fabrics are very numerous both in colour and pattern, some being made of silk alone, and others of silk and cotton mixed. The principal sorts are called by the following characteristic names:—(1) Maschiar, or ripples of the river; (2) bulbulchasm, or nightingales’ eyes; (3) kalintarakshi, or pigeons’ eyes; (4) chind tári, or moon and stars. These patterns differ somewhat from those known as peacock’s neck and sunshade, made in Mur-
shidabadd, but the process of manufacture is the same. The thread is dyed before being woven, and different-coloured threads are crossed in the loom, such as green on a red ground, or red on a blue ground. The cloths are bought up by the mahdijans on the spot, and find a sale in Calcutta and Benares. The industry is in a very languishing state, and the annual value of the manufacture is estimated by the Collector at not more than Rs. 5000 to Rs. 6000, or £500 to £600.

The Manufacture of Raw Silk or silk thread is, on the other hand, in a flourishing condition. It is largely carried on both with European and native capital. The European working concerns are seven in number, and the majority belong to Messrs. Watson & Co. of Rajshahi. A French firm from Lyons, MM. Louis Poyen & Cie., have lately established themselves in Maldah; and to their manager, Mr. S. J. Andrews, is due the first introduction of steam power into a filature in the District. These concerns turn out on an average about 620 maunds or about 454 hundredweights of raw silk per annum, of which the value is estimated by the Collector at about Rs. 620,000, or £62,000. The filatures or silk reels under native management may perhaps number about 3000, turning out some 1500 maunds or about 1100 hundredweights of raw silk in the year, valued at Rs. 900,000, or £90,000. The total annual produce of silk thread spun in the District and exported in that state would thus amount to 2120 maunds or about 1554 hundredweights, of the value of Rs. 1,520,000, or £152,000. It is estimated that 1 maund of cocoons produces on an average from 2 sers 4 chhataks to 2 sers 6 chhataks of reeled silk, which is at the proportion of a little over 5 per cent. No less than 35,000 maunds or 25,000 hundredweights of cocoons would therefore be required on an average to produce the above quantity of raw silk. To find the total out-turn of cocoons in the District, there must be added to this about 25,000 maunds or 18,300 hundredweights of cocoons, which are exported in that condition to Jangipur in Murshidabad and elsewhere. This would give a total of 60,000 maunds or 43,300 hundredweights of cocoons as the annual produce of the District. The lowest value that can be put upon this is Rs. 1,800,000, or £180,000; and almost the whole of this sum finds its way into the hands of the silk-worm rearers. To rear this quantity of cocoons, the Collector estimates that from 50,000 to 60,000 bighas or nearly 20,000 acres of land must annually be under mul-
bbery cultivation. This is his lowest estimate; and in a favourable year he is of opinion that these figures are largely exceeded. The silk reeled off in the European factories is exported almost entirely to Europe. That wound under native management, which is of less even quality, is principally bought up by local mahajans, and sold in Calcutta, Benares, and other large towns.

The Processes of Silk Manufacture Sixty Years Ago.—The following description is condensed from the elaborate account given by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who carefully inspected the factories in the Mahanandá valley in the year 1810, and recorded his researches in his ms. volumes which deal with Dinajpur and Purniah. The manufacture was even then in a decaying condition, and is now still less active, but there seems no reason to suppose that the processes then in use have undergone any important change. The manufacture of cloth made from silk alone and of silk mixed with cotton is conducted in precisely the same way. The thread is always dyed before being woven, and the process of dyeing is performed by the weavers themselves or the female members of their families. The silk is first bleached, which is done by steeping it in boiling water with soap, and drying it in the sun. In this operation one quarter of the weight of the silk is lost. The dyes used are very numerous, and include the following:—Turmeric, which gives a bright but perishable yellow; the wood of the jack tree (Artocarpus integrifolia), which also gives a good yellow, less bright but more permanent; safflower (Carthamus tinctorius) gives two beautiful colours, known as gūhibi and kusum, both a kind of rose-red; manjit (Rubia munjista) gives a fixed red colour, and when applied after jackwood produces a golden colour called sonala, resembling that of new copper; a preparation called maski, of which iron is the chief ingredient, combined with wheat flour, molasses, and butter, yields a variety of colours, all more or less dark, as the name implies. There are three shades of colour called udá, which is a dark red, like Russian leather. The first is produced by haritaki (Terminalia Chebula), the second by chamallati (a species of Cæsalpinia), and the third by alum; but for the satisfactory production of all three, the silk must have been previously dyed with lac, and should be afterwards steeped in maski. A dye called labang, karnaphuli, or clove colour, is a fixed brown. It is produced by soaking the silk successively in alum, a decoction of jackwood, alum again, manjit, chamallati, and finally maski. Panduki, a well-fixed lilac,
from the name of a flower, is also produced from a combination of the various simple dyes already mentioned. These are the dyes for the silk thread. The cotton thread is always dyed one of the three following colours:—(1) Sílu, a well-fixed light pomegranate colour; (2) uddi, a dark red of various shades, developed out of No. 1; and (3) kusum, a beautiful light red, but not well fixed. These cotton dyes are all formed out of a combination of those before described. The materials of these dyes are mostly grown in the immediate neighbourhood, and the weavers require no apparatus beyond a few earthen pots. For weaving they use a loom of extremely imperfect structure, and a few sticks for warping. The preliminary process of warping is performed by the women, who take a spindle in each hand, and lay two threads of the length required round some sticks placed upright in the ground, repeating this by two threads at a time until the warp is completed. The Maldehi cloth consists of a silk warp and cotton woof woven very thin, the warp being generally disposed in stripes of various colours, but the woof is all of the same dye. The fabric is of two sorts,—the one called iláchi, in which both sides of the material are alike, as in taffeta; and the other called musri, in which one side differs from the other, as with satin. Of each sort there is an immense variety of patterns, which may be roughly ranged under the two following classes:—

1st, When one stripe is very narrow, and the other very broad, the cloth is called golíbadan; 2d, when the spots and stripes are waved, the cloth is called kátár. Kátár cloth is slightly the more expensive of the two. These are the names primarily applicable to the mixed cloth, but they have been transferred indiscriminately to the cloth made entirely of silk, the manufacture of which is said to have been first introduced by Mr. Henchman, the Commercial Resident at English Bázár. Dr. B. Hamilton was of opinion that in the taste exhibited in these patterns, and in other respects also, the weavers of Maldah were much inferior to those of Bangalore. He thought that both these manufactures were probably introduced from the north-west by the Muhammadans. The total value of Maldehi cloth exported annually was estimated by Dr. B. Hamilton at Rs. 250,000, or £25,000; it has now, as previously stated, fallen to Rs. 6000, or £600.

Indigo also forms a not unimportant production of the District. In 1873 the Collector reported that there were upwards of twenty factories at work, belonging to some seven different concerns, and
that the out-turn of the previous season had been about 4000 mauuds, or nearly 3000 hundredweights. The value of this, at the average selling prices then prevailing, would amount to about Rs. 800,000, or £80,000. To produce this quantity of indigo, not less than from 70,000 to 80,000 bighás, or from 23,000 to 26,000 acres, must have been grown with the plant. As in other parts of Bengal, the greater part of the indigo is grown and manufactured by European capital and under European supervision, but in Maldah there are a few wealthy natives owning indigo factories. The Collector has furnished the following statistics for the year 1870 for some of the concerns in the District:—

**AVERAGE AREA, ANNUAL OUTFAY, AND OUT-TURN OF FOUR INDIGO CONCERNS IN MALDAH DISTRICT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bighás</td>
<td>acres.</td>
<td>rupees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Káliachak,</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>9333</td>
<td>160,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matrapur,</td>
<td>13,000</td>
<td>4333</td>
<td>75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tartipur,</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singatálá,</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>1666</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of labourers in the Káliachak concern was thus returned by the manager, Mr. J. Brown:—*Rayats* cultivating indigo, and their servants, 5663; *kámats* ploughing coolies, 10; boatmen, 2052; manufacturing coolies, 2189; carters, 635; servants paid monthly, 444; miscellaneous, 99; total, 11,092. The number of labourers employed in the Matrapur concern was thus returned by the manager, Mr. Cumming:—*Rayats* cultivating indigo, and their regular servants, 4200; *kámats* ploughing coolies, 1150; boatmen, 400; manufacturing coolies, 975; carters, 400; servants paid monthly, 114; miscellaneous, 450; total, 7689. The mode of cultivation and the processes used in the manufacture are the same in this District as in other indigo-growing tracts of Bengal. The only remaining specialty in the manufactures of Maldah is work in brass metal, which is carried on with considerable skill by the *kánsírs* of Nawábganj, in the south of the District.

**THE CONDITION OF THE MANUFACTURING CLASSES** is most favourable. They are described by the Collector as being far...
better off than any other class of people in the District. Their average wages vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 a month, or from £6 to £9, 12s. od. a year. The great majority of them are small capitalists, who manufacture in their own houses and on their own account. The distinction between capital and labour is strongly marked only in the case of the indigo factories and the larger silk filatures. The usual system of advances is adopted in both these cases. It is not known that any ancient manufactures or processes of workmanship formerly used in the District have now become extinct.

The following table shows the number of skilled workers, mechanics, and artisans, arranged under their respective trades, according to the District Compilation based upon the Census of 1872:

### MANUFACTURING CLASSES AND ARTISANS OF MALDAH DISTRICT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No. of Male Adults</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No. of Male Adults</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No. of Male Adults</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indigo manufacturers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Jewellers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Makers of looms</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fat-worker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Watchmaker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton-carders</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silk manufacturers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Potters</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>Cotton-spinners</td>
<td>1,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brick-masons (rijmistra)</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>Cabinetmakers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Weavers of cotton</td>
<td>4654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brick-makers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Makers of mats</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Weavers of silk</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sawyers</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Maker of fans</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Dyers</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>865</td>
<td>Makers of baskets</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Tailors</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thatchers</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>Makers of beds</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Cap-makers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carriage-builders</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Makers of toys</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Gold lace maker</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cart-builders</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Makers of musical instruments</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ornament-makers</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boat-builders</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>Makers of lacquered ware</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Umbrella-makers</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacksmiths</td>
<td>765</td>
<td>Makers of garlands</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Gunny-bag makers</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutters</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Turners</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Embroiderers</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braziers</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>Sheff-carvers</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>Jute-spinners</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tinmen</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cane-workers</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Silk-spinners</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cage-makers</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>Workers in pith</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Engravers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldsmiths</td>
<td>1125</td>
<td>(rola)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Paper-maker</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold-washers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total:** 13,366

### COMMERCE AND TRADE.—The principal articles of export from the District are—raw silk and cocoons, silk cloths, indigo, brass metal work, rice and other kinds of grain, pulses, and fruits, especially mango. The chief silk mart is Amāniganj-hāt, whither buyers come from the neighbouring Districts of Murshidābād and Rajshāhī to make their purchases. Tuesday is the usual hāt day, and on that day silk is often sold, according to the Collector's estimate, to the
COMMERCE AND TRADE.

value of from Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 50,000, or £2000 to £5000. Minor silk markets are also held at Bholdhát and Kásimpur. The cocoons and the raw silk from the native filatures are chiefly exported to Murshídábád, while the European wound silk goes straight to Calcutta on its way to France. The woven silk cloths find purchasers mostly at Calcutta and Benares. Indigo is exported direct to Calcutta. The trade in brass metal work is mainly carried on at Nawábganj, the place of manufacture. The most important seats of commerce in the District, where trade is extensively carried on in food stuffs, are English Bázár, Maldah, Rohanpur, Nawábganj, and Haiátpur. The principal fairs or religious gatherings are at Rákmail, held in June; Kánsát, Sádullápur, and Kúnrá, in March; Rathbári, in May; Panduah, in October and November; and Powál in March. Only petty traffic, however, is carried on at these fairs, in which the religious element predominates. The real trade of the District is conducted at the market towns above mentioned, and also at various recognised landing-places along the bank of the Ganges. The winter crop (áman haimantik) of rice is that alone which yields a surplus for exportation; and in favourable years it is largely despatched up the Ganges towards the north-west. There are no means of ascertaining accurately what this quantity may be, but, taking into consideration the number of the large markets and the number of sales at each during the season, the Collector conjectures that the annual export amounts to not less than 250,000 maunds of rice, or 183,000 hundredweights, of the average value of Rs. 500,000, or £50,000. Of the cold-weather crops, peas and mustard are also exported, but to what extent it is impossible to say. The general practice on the Ganges is for the boats to moor wherever they find in the vicinity an arát or place for weighing and selling the grain, which has been previously entrusted to the aratdár by the cultivators themselves, or by bádrí or betel-nuts, paper, ghlí or melted butter, oil, sád wood, gram, camphor, salt, gur or molasses, sugar, sulphur, copper and pewter, kásti, ginger, haridrá or turmeric, spices of all kinds, and pepper. The exports, however, as comprising almost the entire manufactures of the District and a considerable proportion of the agricultural produce, largely exceed the imports in quantity and in value. A steady accumulation of
coin must therefore be going on within the District, at least in the hands of the small traders in silk and cocoons. The large manufacturers are Europeans, and many of the baniás and mahájans are natives of the North-West Provinces or Behar, so that the profits of these classes are ultimately remitted away from the District. Concerning the channels along which trade passes, the Collector thus remarks:—‘The District possesses so great advantages of water communication, that the grain and commercial traffic is carried on entirely by boats. It is not probable that this river traffic will be interfered with until there is a railroad through the District; and the new line to Dárjiling will not make any material difference.’

**RIVER TRADE STATISTICS.**—Since the preceding paragraphs were printed, elaborate figures illustrating the boat traffic of Bengal have been issued in the form of a Government Resolution, dated 18th October 1875. The following statistics, taken from this Resolution, give accurate details of the great trade which is conducted at the various river marts of Maldah, or is carried along the rivers of the District.

The traffic that passes up and down the Ganges is registered at Sáhibganj, and the goods consigned to and from Calcutta are registered at Nadiya for the Jalangi route, which almost monopolizes the trade from Maldah in this direction. In the returns thus obtained, it has been found impossible to separate the actual produce of Maldah from that which is really grown in other Districts, especially in Dinájpúr, and only consigned from Maldah marts. This confusion, however, is of the less importance for the present purpose, as under any circumstances the whole of the traffic thus ascertained must pass along the Mahánandá and its tributaries, which are essentially Maldah rivers.

The Sáhibganj register gives the total quantity of rice despatched up the Ganges from both Maldah and Dinájpúr as 1,628,794 maunds or 59,625 tons in 1872, and as 1,538,898 maunds or 56,334 tons in 1873. In 1874, the failure of the áman harvest caused the total exportation from these two Districts to dwindle to no more than 53,275 maunds or 1950 tons; and from the same cause there is recorded in that year an extraordinary importation of 160,000 maunds or 5857 tons of Government rice down-stream from Sáhibganj into Háiátpur in Maldah, which was at that time a distressed District. The above totals for 1872 and 1873 represent the great
bulk of all the rice that is sent up-country from Bengal. About one-half of it is consigned to the North-Western Provinces; Patna takes the larger portion of the remainder, and then Sáran. By far the greater proportion is referred in the Sáhibganj returns to Maldah, according to the place of export; but as a matter of fact, it is indubitable that almost the whole of it is grown within the limits of Dinájpur. The detailed returns show that Rohanpur on the Purnabhabá has the most extensive traffic in up-country rice of all the Maldah towns. In 1873 its export reached 407,489 maunds or 14,917 tons.

The Sáhibganj returns also show that the total quantity of consignments of all sorts despatched up the Ganges from the various marts of Maldah District alone amounted in 1872 to 1,143,464 maunds or 41,858 tons; in 1873 to 782,800 maunds or 28,656 tons; and in 1874 to only 95,407 maunds or 3492 tons. By far the larger portion of these exports has already been included with theGangesborne exports of rice. Of the various marts, Rohanpur, on an average, takes the lead, then come Maldah town, Háiátpur, and Muchidá, in the order given. The same returns show that the total consignments down the Ganges to the marts of Maldah amounted in 1872 to 242,018 maunds or 8859 tons; in 1873 to 213,551 maunds or 7817 tons; and in 1874 to 297,748 maunds or 10,899 tons. The total for the latter year is unduly swollen by the exceptional importation of rice on Government account from the Santál Parganás. Concerning the character of these imports and their places of shipment no information is afforded, except that from 100,000 to 150,000 maunds or from 3660 to 5491 tons of sugar are annually imported into Maldah from the North-Western Provinces. As it is known that the Rájsháhi Division, for the most part, exports sugar, it has been conjectured that this large item may partly be explained by a re-exportation of the article.

The Calcutta trade of Maldah consists chiefly of the export of rice and the import of salt. In 1873, 53,000 maunds or 1940 tons of rice were registered at Nadiyá as consigned from Maldah to the metropolis, along the Jalangi route. In 1874 this traffic absolutely ceased. The total amount of salt imported into Maldah by the three Nadiyá rivers amounted in 1874 to 110,082 maunds or 4029 tons, of which total almost all came up the Jalangi. It has not been found possible to estimate with any accuracy the amount of cotton piece-goods which are yearly imported through Calcutta into Maldah. It must be remembered that the above figures
stand for only a small portion of the entire traffic which is carried southwards from Maldah. To represent fairly the busy scene of commerce which is displayed on the Mahánandá and its tributaries, there should be added the rice of Dinájpur, the tobacco of Purniah and Jálpaiguri, and the gunny-bags from the great mart of Dulálganj, in Purniah; for all these must pass through the heart of Maldah District on their way to their final destinations.

**Capital and Interest.**—The profits acquired by commerce are not hoarded, but are either employed as capital in the extension of trade and manufacture, or are invested in ornaments for the females. Even when capital is accumulated by the cultivators, it is seldom or never hoarded at the present day, but is employed in bringing further tracts of land under cultivation. The current rate of interest, when the borrower pledges some article of personal use, is from 3 to 6 *pie* per rupee a month, equivalent to from $18\frac{1}{4}$ to $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum, but in these loans it is held essential that the value of the article pawned should be double the amount advanced. In large transactions, when the lender is secured by a lien on moveable property, the rate of interest varies from 12 to 24 per cent. per annum. In similar transactions, when a mortgage is given upon houses or lands, the rate of interest would not be more than 18 per cent. or less than 12 per cent. per annum. In the case of petty advances to cultivators, whether the lender has only the personal security of the borrower, or takes in addition a lien upon the crops, the rate of interest is about the same, viz. from 6 *pie* to 1 *anná* on the rupee per month, or from $37\frac{1}{2}$ to 75 per cent. per annum. Advances of this kind, however, are usually made only until the coming harvest; the advance is made in the shape of seed-grain, and the capital with the interest is also repaid in kind. A fair return on capital expended in the purchase of a landed estate is reckoned to be about 12 per cent. There are two banking establishments in the District,—one at Maldah, belonging to Dáí Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur and Lakshimapat Sinh, and the other at English Bázár, belonging to Pares Náth Sháh & Brothers. The business of money-lending, however, is chiefly conducted by the shopkeepers in every village, who combine their special trade with the advancing of petty loans.

European capital is solely employed in the indigo and silk manufacture, and there only in the larger concerns. The Collector is of opinion that the amount thus invested is somewhere between
10 and 15 lakhs of rupees, or between £100,000 and £150,000, and that the profits on this capital may average between 12 and 15 per cent. Of native capital he estimates that about 30 or 35 lakhs of rupees, or from £300,000 to £350,000, are employed in the various manufactures; which makes the total capital of the District devoted to manufacture amount to £400,000 or £500,000.

Institutions, etc.—There are no important societies or institutions in the District apart from a charitable dispensary, which will be described on a later page. No newspaper is published in the District, nor does any printing press exist.

Incomes and Income Tax.—The Collector returns the estimated income of the District, for the purposes of the Income Tax of 1870, as follows:—Incomes between £50 and £75 per annum, total, £218,400; incomes between £75 and £100, total, £24,600; incomes between £100 and £150, total, £17,250; incomes between £150 and £200, total, £13,000; incomes over £200, total, £29,300: grand total of all the incomes in the District above £50, £302,550. The income tax of that year was at the rate of 3½ per cent., which on the above estimated total would give £9454, 14s. 9d. The actual net amount yielded that year was only £4644, 10s. od., which sufficiently shows that the total of the estimate is not to be trusted. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the income tax was reduced to 1⅛ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum. The net amount realized in that year was £1341, 8s. od.

Revenue and Expenditure.—It is impossible to present a comparative view which should represent in a trustworthy form the changes that have taken place in the finances of the District. Tables are subjoined of the receipts and expenditure for the years 1832-33 (the year when the District was created), 1850-51, and 1870-71, but their accuracy must be regarded with caution. The trilling amount of the land revenue in the first of these years shows that the entire collections had not been at once transferred to the new treasury. For this year and for 1850-51, various items appear on each side of the balance sheet which are transfers or mere matters of accounts, and which must be eliminated in order to find the net receipts and expenditure, as has been done in a foot-note to the tables. On the other hand, it is evident that various items, such as jails and police, which figure largely in the present accounts of the District, have been omitted from these early tables;
but no materials exist to furnish the necessary means of correction. For the year 1870-71 the figures come from various sources. As far as possible the reports of the various Departments for that year have been made use of, but many of the items have come from the budget estimates of the year, and are therefore of doubtful accuracy. The general conclusions yielded by these tables may be thus summed up:—In the year 1832-33, when the District was first constituted, the net receipts were £5785, 12s. od.; in 1850-51 they amounted to £36,185; and in 1870-71 they had reached £59,492, 19s. 3d. In the year 1832-33 the net expenditure was £2549, 18s. od.; in 1850-51 it became £8605, 6s. od.; and in 1870-71 it had risen to £15,290, 14s. 1d. As far as regards the apparent enormous increase in both totals since 1832-33, no safe conclusions can be drawn, for the reasons already mentioned. A better conception of the real increase in the revenue and in the cost of administration may be gained by comparing the totals for the shorter interval of 20 years from 1850-51 to 1870-71, which may be regarded as sufficiently accurate for this purpose. In that period the receipts increased by £23,307, 19s. 3d., or nearly 64 per cent., and the expenditure was augmented by £6685, 8s. 1d., or more than 77 per cent.

Land Revenue.—The most important source of revenue has always been derived from the land tax, which still furnishes considerably more than half of the total receipts. In 1850-51 the land tax yielded £27,045, 14s. od., and in 1870-71, £32,323, 16s. od., an increase of £5278, 2s. od., or 18 per cent.

In the year 1832-33, when the District was created, the total number of estates on the rent-roll of the District was 95; the number of registered proprietors or coparceners paying rent direct to Government was 99; the total land revenue paid was £3956, 16s. od., the average for each estate being £41, 12s. od., and for each proprietor, £40. In 1850-51 the number of estates was 489, and of proprietors or coparceners, 794; and the total land revenue paid amounted to £25,821; 10s. od., the average per estate being £52, 18s. od., and the average per proprietor, £32, 10s. od. In 1870-71 the number of estates was 536; the number of proprietors, 1031; the amount of land revenue, £32,079, 10s. od.; the average per estate, £59, 16s. od.; and the average per proprietor, £31, 2s. od. The figures for the first year are of no value for comparison, as the
# Gross Balance Sheet of Maldah District for 1832-33.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land revenue,</td>
<td>£3,707 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Accise or Excise revenue,</td>
<td>1,302 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Profit and loss,</td>
<td>59 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Remittances of the revenue department,</td>
<td>95 18 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Civil fund, etc.,</td>
<td>68 14 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Military orphan fund,</td>
<td>2 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Postmaster-General,</td>
<td>36 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Opium department,</td>
<td>21 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Stamp duties,</td>
<td>719 6 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total gross revenue,</strong></td>
<td><strong>£6,011 6 0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Remittance of the Revenue department,</td>
<td>£1,145 16 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Commercial department,</td>
<td>287 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Postmaster-General,</td>
<td>1 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Judicial charges,</td>
<td>1,868 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Revenue charges,</td>
<td>616 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Charges for stamp duties,</td>
<td>7 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Commissioner of Revenue, share of establishment charges,</td>
<td>56 16 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total gross expenditure,</strong></td>
<td><strong>£3,982 16 0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To obtain the net revenue, items Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 6 must be deducted from the revenue side as matters of deposit or account. To obtain the net outlay, items Nos. 1 and 2 must be deducted from the expenditure side. The net revenue for 1832-33, therefore, would be £5785, 12s. od.; the net expenditure, £2549, 18s. od.
GROSS BALANCE SHEET OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR 1850-51.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REVENUE</th>
<th>EXPENDITURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land revenue,</td>
<td>1. Revenue remittance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£27,045 14 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adbiri or Excise remittance,</td>
<td>2. Judicial remittance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,063 14 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Police thandiri land,</td>
<td>3. Post Office remittance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Profit and loss,</td>
<td>4. Judicial charges general,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Post Office remittance,</td>
<td>5. Revenue charges general,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>304 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Judicial remittance,</td>
<td>6. Adbiri remittance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,053 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Civil fund, etc.,</td>
<td>7. Superintendent of Stamps,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>217 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Military orphan fund,</td>
<td>8. Military orphan fund,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Judicial charges general,</td>
<td>9. Education,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Revenue charges general,</td>
<td>10. Charges general of the General department,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Uncovered grant family pension fund,</td>
<td>11. Charges of khas mahal collections,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Zaminudiri rasim or fees,</td>
<td>12. Interest,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Commercial department,</td>
<td>13. Land purchased,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>137 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Charges of khas mahal collection,</td>
<td>14. Law charges,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Superintendent of Stamps,</td>
<td>15. Zaminudiri rasim or fees,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,957 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Civil suits,</td>
<td>16. Profit and loss,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Law charges,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Interest,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Loan at 5 per cent.,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Revenue remittance,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>169 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total gross revenue,</td>
<td>Total gross expenditure,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£21,420 6 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To obtain the net revenue, items Nos. 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 18, 19, and 20 must be deducted from the revenue side as matters of deposit or account. To obtain the net outlay, items Nos. 1, 8, and 16 must be deducted from the expenditure side. The net revenue for 1850-51, therefore, would be £36,185; the net expenditure, £8605, 6s. 0d.
**Balance Sheet of Maldah District for 1870-71.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land revenue,</td>
<td>1. Land revenue,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Abbári or Excise,</td>
<td>2. Abbári or Excise,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Registration,</td>
<td>3. Salaries of covenanted District officers,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Amalgamated district road fund,</td>
<td>4. District share of salary of Commissioner of the Division,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ferry fund, local,</td>
<td>5. Jail establishment and maintenance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. District road toll fund,</td>
<td>6. Post Office,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Pound fund,</td>
<td>7. Regular police,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Staging bungalow fund,</td>
<td>8. Medical,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Law and justice,</td>
<td>9. Education,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Stamp duties,</td>
<td>10. Criminal court establishment,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Income tax,</td>
<td>11. Civil and sessions courts,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Post Office,</td>
<td>12. Rewards for killing wild beasts, etc.,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Profit from jail manufactures,</td>
<td>13. Local fund,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Miscellaneous,</td>
<td>14. Pound fund,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Ḥadith and ḥizār,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. Staging bungalow fund,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. Stamp revenue,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. Income tax,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19. Registration,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total revenue,</td>
<td>Total expenditure,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£32,323 16 0</td>
<td>£2,473 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,381 14 0</td>
<td>584 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>299 9 1</td>
<td>2,400 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 0 0</td>
<td>544 13 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>829 12 8</td>
<td>370 18 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213 16 4</td>
<td>826 0 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>758 9 0</td>
<td>5,254 10 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 2 6</td>
<td>484 17 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>915 4 5</td>
<td>613 15 9</td>
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<tr>
<td>4,524 11 0</td>
<td>396 6 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>4,644 10 0</td>
<td>24 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>763 7 3</td>
<td>12 12 0</td>
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<td>31 9 0</td>
<td>506 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,384 18 0</td>
<td>180 10 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>143 5 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>325 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>128 6 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£15,290 14 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this table all matters of account, etc., have been excluded, and therefore it exhibits the actual net revenue and expenditure. The figures opposite items Nos. 11, 12, and 13 on the receipt side, and items Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 on the expenditure side, have been obtained from the various departments to which they belong. The remaining figures are furnished by the Collector. The table does not include any municipal taxation, nor the cost of the rural police, nor that portion of the expenses of education which is not paid by Government.
District had not then been fully constituted; but the figures for the two latter periods show that while the number of estates is on the increase, the number of proprietors and coparceners is increasing at a much more rapid rate. It will be observed that in each case the total of the land revenue differs from that given in the preceding tables, which is probably to be explained by the circumstance that in one case the 'current demand,' and in the other case only the amount actually realized, has been furnished by the Collector.

In 1873 the total number of estates was returned at 560. Of these, 51 were either under direct Government management or under the Court of Wards; the remaining 509 were thus subdivided according to the amount of revenue paid:—Under £10 per annum, 290, yielding a total revenue of £566, 16s. od.; over £10 per annum, 219, yielding £27,036, 10s. od.

Rent Cases instituted under Act X. of 1859.—It has been already stated that the operation of this Act in enhancing rents has been irregular in this District. That application to its provisions is not uniformly on the increase, is shown by the following statement of rent cases instituted under Act X., or under laws based upon that Act. In 1861-62 the number of original suits was 562, and of miscellaneous cases 46; in 1862-63 the original suits were 703, the miscellaneous cases 147; in 1866-67 the original suits were 416, the miscellaneous cases 169; in 1868-69 the original suits were 489, the miscellaneous cases 171.

Protection to Person and Property.—In 1813, the first year of which records remain, there were within the District 1 magisterial court and 1 civil and revenue court; in 1850 there were 2 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts; in 1860-61 there were 5 magisterial, 2 civil, and 5 revenue courts; in 1870-71 there were 5 magisterial, 2 civil, and 5 revenue courts. The number of covenanted civil servants stationed in the District was 1 in 1813, 2 in 1850, 2 in 1860-61, and 2 in 1870-71.

Police Statistics.—The police machinery for the protection of the District has of late years been rendered far more efficient than of old. At the present day Maldah is divided into the following nine police circles or thanas:—(1) English Bázár; (2) Maldah; (3) Gárgáribá (now moved to Pránpur); (4) Kharbá; (5) Gájol; (6) Káliáchák; (7) Gumáshtápur; (8) Síbganj; (9) Nawábganj. The present police force of Maldah District consists of three distinct
bodies, namely, the regular or District police, a municipal police for the protection of the towns, and a village watch or rural police. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies are as follows:—

The Regular Police consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—1 superior European officer or District Superintendent of Police, maintained at a salary of Rs. 500 a month, or £600 a year; 3 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, and 40 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 1580 per month, or £1896 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 36. 11. 10 a month, or £44, 1s. 9d. a year, for each subordinate officer; and 230 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 1546 a month, or £1855, 4s. od. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 11. 6 a month, or £8, 1s. 3d. a year for each man. The other expenses connected with the District police are a sum of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent; Rs. 175. 10. 8 a month, or £210, 16s. od. a year, for pay and travelling allowances for his establishment; and Rs. 607. 12. 0 a month, or £729, 6s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses,—bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Maldah District in 1872 to Rs. 4509. 6. 8 a month, or £5411, 6s. od. a year, and a total strength of 274 officers and men of all ranks. The area of Maldah District for the purposes of the Census was taken at 1813 square miles; and the total population in 1872 was found to be 676,426 souls. According to these figures, the total strength of the regular police is one man to every 6·61 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 2468 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 29. 13. 6 or £2, 19s. 8½d. per square mile of area, or 1 anna 3 pies or 1½d. per head of the population.

The Municipal Police at the end of 1872 consisted of a force of 2 officers and 36 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 235. 5. 4 a month, or £282, 8s. od. a year. The Census Report returned the following two municipalities, containing a population of upwards of 5000 souls, namely, English Bazar 12,859, and Maldah 5262, total 18,121; giving an average of one policeman to every 476 of the population. The annual cost of the municipal police, as compared with the population protected, amounted in 1872 to 2 annas 5 pies or 3½d. per head of the population.

The Rural Police or village watch consisted in 1872 of 1892 men,
maintained by the villagers at an estimated total cost for the year of Rs. 52,854 or £5285, 8s. od., equal to an annual charge of Rs. 29. 2. 5 or £2, 18s. 3½d. per square mile of area, or to 1 anna 3 pies or 1½d. per head of the population; the strength of the force is equal to one man to every 0.95 of a square mile of area, or one man to every 357 of the population. Each village watchman has on an average the charge of 60 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 2. 4. 9 a month, or £2, 15s. 1½d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Maldah District consisted at the end of 1872 of a total force of 2204 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 0.82 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 306 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining this force in 1872 amounted to Rs. 9149. 4. 0 a month, or £10,979, 2s. od. a year, equal to an annual charge of Rs. 60. 8. 11 or £6, 15s. 1½d. per square mile of area, or 2 annas 7 pies or 3½d. per head of the population.

Working of the Police.—During the year 1872, 1016 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 209 were discovered to be false, and 150 cases were not inquired into under section 117 of the Criminal Procedure Code, leaving a balance of 657 charges treated as 'true.' Convictions were obtained in 332 cases, or 50.53 per cent. of the 'true' cases, the proportion of 'true' cases being one to every 1029 of the population, and the proportion of cases convicted being one to every 2037 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 632 were instituted, in which process issued against 727 persons, of whom 389, or 53.50 per cent., were convicted; the proportion of persons convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences being one to every 1738 of the population.

The following details of the cases and convictions for different crimes and offences in 1872 are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases reported to the police were as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice—Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 4 persons tried, 4 convicted; offences against public justice, 5 cases, 4 convictions, 4 persons tried, 4 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 10 cases, 6 convictions, 61 persons tried, 45 convicted;
personating public servant or soldier, 1 case from a previous year, 1 person tried, none convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Murder by poison, 1 case, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 1 convicted; other murders, 5 cases, 3 convictions, 13 persons tried, 6 convicted; attempts at murder, 1 case, 2 persons tried, none convicted; culpable homicide, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried and 1 convicted; rape, 12 cases, 3 convictions, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; unnatural offences, 3 cases, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried, 1 convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, 1 case, no convictions, 2 persons tried; attempt at and abetment of suicide, 5 cases, 2 convictions, 3 persons tried, 2 convicted; grievous hurt, 2 cases, no conviction; hurt by dangerous weapons, 8 cases, 2 convictions, 6 persons tried, 4 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 1 case, no conviction; wrongful confinement or restraint in secret, or for purposes of extortion, 7 cases, 1 conviction, 17 persons tried, 4 convicted; criminal force to public servant or woman, or in attempt to commit theft or wrongfully confine, 5 cases, 3 convictions, 19 persons tried, 14 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, 1 case, no conviction. Class III. Serious offences against person and property—Dakāti, 11 cases, 6 convictions, 58 persons tried, 28 convicted; common robberies, 4 cases, 3 convictions, 5 persons tried, 4 finally convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 7 cases, 3 convictions, 6 persons tried, 6 convicted; lurking house-trespass or housebreaking with intent to commit an offence, 209 cases, 16 convictions, 34 persons tried, 23 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; receiving stolen property by dakāti or habitually, 1 case, no convictions. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Wrongful restraint and confinement, 51 cases, 14 convictions, 61 persons tried, 32 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Lurking house-trespass or housebreaking, 68 cases, 8 convictions, 14 persons tried, 9 convicted; cattle theft, 36 cases, 26 convictions, 26 persons tried, 20 finally convicted; ordinary theft, 316 cases, 75 convictions, 179 persons tried, 101 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 14 cases, 3 convictions, 9 persons tried, 4 finally convicted; receiving stolen property, 23 cases, 14 convictions, 31 persons tried, 18 finally convicted; criminal or house-trespass, 53 cases, 9 convictions, 46 persons tried, 15 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Vagrancy and bad character, 12 cases, 2 conv.
victions, 14 persons tried, 4 convicted; cognisable offences under the Gambling Act, 1 case, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and all convicted; Excise laws, 28 cases, 20 convictions, 30 persons tried, 20 finally convicted; public and local nuisances, 170 cases, 100 convictions, 145 persons tried, 129 convicted. Total, 1016 cases, and 332 cases resulting in convictions. Percentage of convictions to total 'cognisable' cases, 32.69; 814 persons tried, and 508 convicted; percentage of persons convicted to persons tried, 62.40.

The number of cases instituted and of persons convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc.—Offences against public justice, 39 cases, 52 persons tried, 36 convicted; false evidence, false complaints, and claims, 34 cases, 37 persons tried, 12 convicted; offences by public servants, 7 cases, 4 persons tried, 1 convicted; forgery or fraudulently using forged documents, 4 cases, 8 persons tried, 4 convicted; offences relating to weighing and measuring, 5 cases, 5 persons tried, 4 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, 3 cases, 13 persons tried, 13 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Causing miscarriage, 5 cases, 6 persons tried, 4 convicted. Class III. Serious offences against property—Extortion, 13 cases, 13 persons tried, none convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Hurt, 35 cases, 40 persons tried, 30 convicted; criminal force, 266 cases, 376 persons tried, 147 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Cheating, 13 cases, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; criminal mis-appropriation of property, 12 cases, 14 persons tried, 13 convicted; simple mischief, 48 cases, 45 persons tried, 16 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Offences relating to marriage, 13 cases, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; offences against religion, 1 case, no person tried; defamation, 14 cases, 7 persons tried, 3 convicted; intimidation and insult, 26 cases, 12 persons tried, 7 convicted; public and local nuisances, 1 case, no person tried; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii. of the Criminal Procedure Code, 41 cases, 56 persons tried, 43 convicted; neglect of duty by police officers, 14 cases, 14 men tried, 12 convicted; cattle trespass, 22 cases, 32 persons tried, 22 convicted; breach of Jail Code, 14 cases, 14 persons tried, 14 convicted; breach of Ferry Law, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; breach of Post Office Law, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Total, 632 cases;
670 persons tried, and 389 convicted. Proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 58.06 per cent.

Excluding 'false cases,' the total number of 'cognizable' and 'non-cognizable' cases investigated in Maldah District in 1872 was 1307, in which 897 persons were convicted, or one person convicted of an offence to every 754 of the District population.

Jail Statistics.—There is only one jail in Maldah District, at the Civil Station of English Bázár. The following are the statistics relating to it for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. They have been supplied by the Inspector-General of Jails, who states that for the two earlier years the figures must be received with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness. Owing to defects in the forms of the returns from which those figures were collated, which cannot now be remedied, in some cases the prisoners are counted twice over. Under-trial prisoners at the end of a previous year, who were subsequently convicted during the year to which the figures refer, appear to be returned under both heads. Since 1870, however, an improved method of preparing the returns has been introduced, and the statistics for that year may be accepted as correct.

In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the average daily number of prisoners in the jail was 57, and the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year was 218. The total number of discharges was 265, thus classified:—Transferred, 65; released, 198; escaped, i; and died, 1. For 1860-61 the returns show a daily average number of 53 prisoners, the total number admitted during the year being 326. The discharges were—transferred, 47; released, 278; died, 4; executed, 1; total, 330. In 1870 the average daily jail population was 59, and the number of admissions was 404. The discharges numbered in all 432, of which 77 were transfers, 351 releases, 1 escape, 1 death, and 2 executions. In 1857-58 the proportion of prisoners admitted into the jail hospital was 263.15 per cent., and the proportion of deaths was 1.75 of the mean jail population. In 1860-61 the proportion of admissions into hospital fell to 169.81, but the proportion of deaths rose to 7.54. In 1870, the proportion of admissions into hospital rose again to 272.88, and the proportion of deaths fell to 1.69, about what each had been in the first of these three years.

The average cost of maintaining each prisoner, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all
other charges except that of the prison police guard, is thus returned for various periods by the Inspector-General of Jails:—
In 1854-55 the average gross cost of maintenance per prisoner amounted to Rs. 45, or £4, 10s. od.; in 1857-58, to Rs. 83, 8, 9, or £8, 7s. 1d.; in 1860-61, to Rs. 55, 13, 10, or £5, 11s. 8d.; and in 1870, to Rs. 46, 7, 10, or £4, 12s. 11d. The cost of the prison police guard in 1870 was Rs. 33, 1o, 11 or £3, 7s. 4d. per prisoner, making a total cost to Government for that year of Rs. 80, 2, 9 or £8, 10s. 4d. per head. The Inspector-General of Jails, in his report for 1870, returns the total cost of the jail, inclusive of the jail guard, but excluding the cost of alterations and repairs, at Rs. 5193, 8, 1, or £519. Excluding the cost of the jail guard, which is included in the general police budget of the District, the cost of the jail in 1870 amounted to Rs. 3709, 1, 2, or £370, 18s. 1d.

Jail manufactures and other remunerative industries are carried on to a small extent in Maldah jail, and the profits hence derived contribute in some degree towards the maintenance of the jail. In 1854-55 the gross receipts arising from jail manufactures amounted to £88, 19s. od., and the charges incurred therewith to £46, 14s. 6d., which leaves an excess of receipts over charges or profit of £42, 4s. 6d.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed on manufactures amounting to £1, 18s. 5d. In 1857-58 the receipts from manufactures were £9, 5s. od., the charges £4, 6s. 2d., and the profit £4, 18s. 10d.; making the average earnings of each manufacturing prisoner £1, 13s. od. In 1860-61 the receipts were £22, 1s. od., the charges £12, 2s. 9d., and the profits £9, 18s. 3d.; the average earnings being £1, 10s. 6d. In 1870 the total credits amounted to £231, 4s. 3d., the total debits amounted to £199, 15s. 3d., leaving a surplus or profit of £31, 9s. od.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed in manufactures was £2, 12s. 5d. Deducing the profits derived from prison labour from the total charges of the jail (and excluding the cost of the police guard), the net cost to Government of the Maldah jail in 1870 amounted to £339, 9s. 1d.

The statistics of Maldah jail in 1872 are as follow:—Average daily number of civil prisoners, 5,47; under-trial prisoners, 28,44; labouring convicts, 46,07; non-labouring convicts, 1,93,—making a total of 81,91, of whom 5,60 were females. According to the results of the Census of 1872, these figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 8258 of the total District population; one male
prisoner to every 4338 of the male population, and one female prisoner to every 61,666 of the female population. The total cost of the jail, excluding public works and the manufacturing department, amounted to £619, 11s. 8½d., or an average cost per head of £7, 1os. 7½d. The financial results of the jail manufactures during the year were as follow:—The total credits, including stocks remaining on hand at the close of the year, amounted to £164, 1s. od., and the total debits to £171, 3s. 11½d.; leaving an excess of debits over credits, or loss, £7, 2s. 11½d. The actual money cost of the manufacturing department during the year was £141, 11s. 8½d., and the cash remitted to the treasury on account of manufactures was £84, 18s. 2½d.; leaving an actual money loss of £56, 13s. 6d. Out of the 46 labouring convicts, 23'52 were employed in manufactures and in gardening; the remainder were either employed in jail duties and public works, or were in hospital, or weak and old and unable to work. The prisoners actually engaged in profitable industries were thus distributed:—Gunny weaving, 10; gardening, 2'70; cloth weaving, 0'04; brick manufacturing, 3'91; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 0'61; oil pressing, 1'73; string manufacturing, 8'78; flour grinding, 4'37; paper making, 0'29; miscellaneous, 9'9; total, 23'52.

The Inspector-General of Jails, in his annual report for 1872, speaks thus of the Maldah jail:—'It is a small, brick-walled, tiled building, with cooksheds and worksheds attached, in a square enclosure surrounded by a wall only 8½ feet high. The hospital is outside. The total accommodation is not greater than in many lock-ups, and is totally inadequate for the criminal wants of the District, as shown by the experience of the past year. The number of under-trial prisoners repeatedly rose beyond the whole capacity of the jail according to rule. These prisoners, of course, cannot be removed, but the convicts were frequently transferred to the jails in Rajsháhi and other neighbouring Districts.' Since this date measures have been approved by Government for making additions to the building, and for rendering it more secure. 'In spite of considerable overcrowding, there was but little sickness, and only 4 deaths. One prisoner died from cholera, which appears to have been only sporadic; the others died from diseases contracted before they entered the jail, two being actually brought in in a moribund condition.' With regard to the origin, etc. of the prisoners, it is stated that 'the Muhammadans, though below the
Hindus in the actual population of the District, exceed them in criminality. Of the Hindu criminals a large part belong to the low semi-aboriginal tribes, who abound in the District. The Chains and Tiors especially are noted thieves. No Tior girl will accept a husband who has not distinguished himself by dexterity in thieving; yet jail is considered a disgrace to these castes, and they are not received into society after imprisonment without penance and expense.

Educational Statistics.—The following tables illustrate the progress of education in the District of Maldah for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71. Since that date the new system of primary instruction originated by Sir George Campbell has come into operation, and has produced important results, which will be explained in detail on a subsequent page. The figures for the earlier years must be received with caution, and are only approximately correct. They have been compiled from the appendices to the Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction; but, as is explained at length in the Account of Râjshâhí District, it is now impossible to correct the manifest discrepancies therein contained. The total number of schools is right, but in the number of the pupils and the amount of the expenditure there is an unavoidable source of error. Subject to this explanation, the following tables show that in 1856-57 there were only 2 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by a total of 117 scholars. In 1860-61 the number of schools was still 2, and the number of pupils was 169. By 1870-71 the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 18, and the number of pupils to 986. The greatest portion of this increase was in the aided vernacular schools, of which there were none in 1856-57, and 11 in 1870-71, with an attendance of 556 scholars. The cost to Government rose from £35, 5s. 1d. in 1856-57, to £237, 1s. 8d. in 1860-61, and to £613, 15s. 9d. in 1870-71. The amount derived from schooling fees, subscriptions, and other private sources was £16, 5s. 3d. in 1856-57, £110, 4s. 4d. in 1860-61, and £619, 13s. 4d. in 1870-71. The total expenditure, therefore, on Government and aided schools in Maldah District increased from £51, 10s. 4d. in 1856-57, to £347, 6s. od. in 1860-61, and to £1229, 13s. 9d. in 1870-71. A striking feature in the table is the comparatively small number of the Muhammadan pupils; but in Maldah as elsewhere the proportion is steadily on the increase. The Musalmâns number 46 per cent. of the District population; but in 1870-71 they formed scarcely 20 per cent. of the total number of
EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

scholars, while in previous years the proportion was yet more unfavourable. It must be remembered that these tables only give the schools which were in receipt of Government money and subject to Government inspection; there were, in addition, a large number of unaided and uninspected schools. The statistics of these private schools it is impossible to ascertain; but in 1872-73, after a great many of this class had been absorbed into the new Government system, it was estimated that there still existed 107 unaided páthśalās and maktabs, with an attendance of 1593 pupils.

The comparative tables for 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71, are given on pages 120 and 121.

Schools in 1871-72 and 1872-73.—Under Sir George Campbell's improved system of primary education, which came into operation in 1872, a large number of indigenous village schools (páthśalās), which had hitherto been neglected by the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Educational Department furnished statistics of 23 Government and aided schools and of 42 private schools, making a total of 65 schools, attended on the 31st March 1872 by 1893 pupils; average daily attendance throughout the year, 687. In 1872-73 the number of Government and aided schools was 71, and the number of private schools 108, making a total of 179, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 4207 pupils; average daily attendance throughout the year, 1841. The total number of schools, therefore, increased by 114, or nearly threefold; and the number of pupils was more than doubled during the first year of the new system. The increase in the number of the private schools is to be attributed not only to the circumstance that the existence of these institutions is now more accurately ascertained than formerly, but also to the stimulus offered to the teacher class by the prospect of obtaining the Government grant, which causes new schools to be opened on all sides. It is also noteworthy that this great increase has been effected without in any way augmenting the total cost of education to Government. Indeed, in 1872-73 the Government contribution was actually less by £43, 2s. 9½d. than it had been in the previous year.

The table on page 122 exhibits the number, attendance, cost, etc., of each class of schools in Maldah District in 1871-72 and 1872-73.

The following paragraphs are taken almost verbatim from the [Sentence continued on page 123.]
### Return of Government and Aided Schools in Malda District for the Years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Government Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Government Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aided English Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Aided Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindus</td>
<td>1856-57</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1860-61</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1870-71</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mohammedans</td>
<td>1856-57</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1860-61</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1870-71</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1856-57</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1860-61</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1870-71</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1856-57: 1856-57; 1860-61; 1866-61; 1870-71.
## RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN MALDAH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>1856-57</th>
<th>1860-61</th>
<th>1870-71</th>
<th>1856-57</th>
<th>1860-61</th>
<th>1870-71</th>
<th>1856-57</th>
<th>1860-61</th>
<th>1870-71</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Government English Schools</td>
<td>L 5 s. 1 d.</td>
<td>208 7 11</td>
<td>258 19 2</td>
<td>L 5 s. 1 d.</td>
<td>95 11 0</td>
<td>120 17 3</td>
<td>L 5 s. 1 d.</td>
<td>303 18 11</td>
<td>379 16 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Government Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>35 5 1</td>
<td>28 13 9</td>
<td>67 0 8</td>
<td>16 5 3</td>
<td>14 13 4</td>
<td>40 4 8</td>
<td>51 10 4</td>
<td>43 7 1</td>
<td>107 5 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aided English Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>113 16 4</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>154 10 11</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>260 17 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Aided Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>173 19 7</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>304 0 6</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>481 14 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35 5 1</td>
<td>237 1 8</td>
<td>613 15 9</td>
<td>16 5 3</td>
<td>110 4 4</td>
<td>619 13 4</td>
<td>51 10 4</td>
<td>347 6 0</td>
<td>1,229 13 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Educational Statistics of Maldah District for the Years 1871-72 and 1872-73.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils on 31st March</th>
<th>Average Attendance</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher Schools—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government, . . .</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Schools—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government, . . .</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided, . . . .</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaided, . . .</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total, . . . .</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Schools—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided, . . . .</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>1613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaided, . . .</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>1593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total, . . . .</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>3206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total, . . .</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>1893</td>
<td>4207</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Expenditure

- **Government:**
  - 1871-72: £257 8s 9d
  - 1872-73: £192 10s 0d
- **Other Sources:**
  - 1871-72: £129 13s 9d
  - 1872-73: £108 2s 7d

### Total

- 1871-72: £386 15s 11d
- 1872-73: £263 10s 6d
EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

Sentence continued from page 119.]


'HIGHER-CLASS SCHOOL.—The Government District School, which is the only higher school in Maldah, had on its rolls on March 31st 1873, 111 students, which is an increase of 10 over the numbers of the preceding year. Owing to frequent changes during the year in the teaching staff, the school did badly in the examinations. The library of the school is reported to be in good order, and much resorted to by both masters and boys. The school building requires enlargement, and the addition to it of a boarding house (says the head-master) is likely to increase the number of pupils from the interior of the District.

'MIDDLE SCHOOLS.—Of the 15 middle schools, 3 teach English. They are yet young, and not sufficiently advanced to send up candidates for the minor scholarship examination. From what the Inspector knows of them and of the growing desire for advanced education among those classes who support them, he entertains strong hopes of their ultimate success. Of the 12 middle vernacular schools, 3 are entirely supported by Government, and are all doing well, especially the one at the Civil Station. The remaining 9 are also progressing steadily, with the exception of 2, which have suffered from the action of the river on the villages in which they are situated. The secretaries of these schools are reported to be taking a lively interest in their welfare, and year by year a larger number of candidates are sent to the vernacular scholarship examination.

'PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—The primary schools in the District are now 55 in number, of which 6 are old pāthsālās, and 49 belong to the class of new pāthsālās which were started under the orders of July and September 1872. The old pāthsālās, conducted by certificated gurus, and with local committees of the villagers to watch over them, continue to improve in the number of their pupils and in general efficiency. The average number of pupils has increased from 30 to 49; the total is now 299, of whom 194 are Hindus, mostly of the lower castes, and 105 are Musalmāns. The gurus, who are all Hindus, receive an average income from fees and subscriptions of Rs. 11 a month, or £13, 4s. od. a year. With respect to the 42 new pāthsālās, the Deputy-Inspector reports the number of pupils to be 1046. Of these, 431 are Musalmāns, and the remaining 615 are Hindus, thus arranged according to caste:—247 belong to
the superior castes, 357 to the intermediate castes, and only 11 to the lowest rank of society, the semi-Hinduized aboriginals. The average attendance at these páthṣádáś is 24. Of the gurus, 32 are Hindus, and 10 are Muhammādans; their average income is, from local sources Rs. 2. 14. 0, and from the Government grants Rs. 3. 12. 0, making a total of Rs. 6. 10. 0 per month, or £8, 2s. 0d. a year. The sum of Rs. 1500 or £150 has been set aside out of the Chānchāl estate, now under the Court of Wards, for the furtherance of education, being at the rate of about 1 per cent. on the gross rentals. Nine new páthṣádáś have already been opened in different parts of this estate, and others will be opened shortly. Four new páthṣádáś have also been established in that portion of the Tāherpur estate which lies within this District, and an application for funds has been made to the Collector of Rájsháhí.

NORMAL SCHOOL.—There was no normal school in this District last year, nor is there, properly speaking, one now. From the savings of the recent grant for primary schools a training class has been instituted, in which 9 gurus or would-be gurus are receiving instruction in certain specified subjects, including the art of teaching. Concerning this experiment the Magistrate remarks as follows:—

"I look upon this class with much interest, and hope that it will supply a want much felt here; for in a backward District like Maldah it is hopeless to expect that our exertions to extend education will be successful without efficient teachers. The arrangement made is that each pupil while studying in the class will receive Rs. 5 or 10s. per mensem from educational funds. At the end of three months he will undergo an examination, and if he fails to satisfy the condition on which salaries are awarded, he will be liable to refund the sum advanced."

GIRLS' SCHOOLS.—There are no girls' schools in Maldah, nor as yet have any girls' classes been attached to the few old páthṣádáś that were already at work in the District.

INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.—The Deputy-Inspector has received returns from 107 schools of this class, which are said to be attended by 1593 pupils. Nine of this number are makhlabès, attended by 48 pupils, who there learn to read the Kurán and Persian books. The remaining 98 are páthṣádáś, attended by 1545 pupils, of whom 1161 are Hindus and 384 are Musalmáns.

POSTAL STATISTICS.—There has been a considerable increase in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62,
the earliest year for which trustworthy statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books received at the Maldah post office has increased by 86 per cent. In 1861-62 the number was 63,560, which diminished to 48,024 in 1865-66, and increased to 109,220 in 1870-71. In 1861-62 the total number of letters, etc., despatched was 55,790, and in 1865-66, 43,799. The corresponding number for 1870-71 has not yet been ascertained. In 1861-62 the total postal receipts amounted to £406, 11s. 1½d., in 1865-66 to £452, 6s. 6½d., and in 1870-71 to £763, 7s. 3d. The amount for this last year is exclusive of the sum derived from sales of stamps for official correspondence, which in previous years was included with the general receipts. In 1870-71 this item was £6, 10s. 3d., making the total receipts for that year amount to £769, 17s. 6d. On the expenditure side of the account, the charges of the post office have increased from £485, 3s. 10½d. in 1861-62, to £422, 13s. 0½d. in 1865-66, and to £826, os. 9d. in 1870-71. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, etc., received at and despatched from the Maldah post office, together with the postal receipts and expenditure, for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices:

**Postal Statistics of Maldah District for the Years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1861-62</th>
<th>1865-66</th>
<th>1870-71</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Letters</td>
<td>58,194</td>
<td>42,481</td>
<td>102,653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>3,820</td>
<td>4,427</td>
<td>4,849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parcels</td>
<td>1,546</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>63,560</td>
<td>48,024</td>
<td>109,220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1861-62</th>
<th>1865-66</th>
<th>1870-71</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received.</td>
<td>£190 18 9</td>
<td>£219 13 0½</td>
<td>£362 10 7½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Despatched.</td>
<td>£218 12 4½</td>
<td>£232 13 5½</td>
<td>£400 16 7½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Receipts.</td>
<td>£466 11 1½</td>
<td>£452 6 6½</td>
<td>£763 7 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Expenditure.</td>
<td>£485 3 10½</td>
<td>£422 13 0½</td>
<td>£826 0 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excluding of £6, 10s. 3d., the receipts from the sale of stamps for official correspondence, which were first introduced in 1866.
The Subdivisional System of administration has not yet been extended to Maldah District. The police circles or thanas remain the administrative units. They are nine in number,—(1) English Bazar; (2) Maldah; (3) Gargribab; (4) Kharba; (5) Gajol; (6) Kalialchak; (7) Gumashatpur; (8) Sibganj; (9) Nawabganj. These are the names of the police stations as given in the Census of 1872, and used throughout this Statistical Account. It seems probable, however, judging from an official map of the District, dated November 1874, that the name of thana Gargribab has since 1872 been changed to that of Pranpur, and that the police station has been moved from the immediate neighbourhood of the Ganges, where it was exposed to annual inundations, to the village called Pranpur, which is situated on the Kailindri river, about half-way between Haidpur and Maldah. The number of villages, as ascertained by the Revenue Survey in 1852, was 2336; in 1870 it was estimated to be 2822; and the Census of 1872 has finally fixed the number at 2100. The explanation of these discrepancies must be sought for in the circumstance that the definition of a Bengal village cannot be accurately determined.

Fiscal Divisions.—The following list of Fiscal Divisions or parganas is based upon an alphabetical catalogue furnished to me by the Collector in 1870. The statistical details and other information are taken from the Geographical and Statistical Report of the Revenue Surveyor, Mr. J. J. Pemberton, dated October 1852, and from the Board of Revenue returns. At the time of the Revenue Survey the District of Maldah comprised only two-thirds of its present area. The list of parganas drawn up at that time is therefore necessarily defective; and the statistics must be taken as referring to that period (1852).

(1) Ajhor: a compact pargana in the north-east of the District, containing an area of 31,620 acres, or 49.40 square miles. The number of estates is 8, and the total land revenue £1486, 18s. od. The total area was thus classified by the Revenue Surveyor:—Barren or otherwise unassessed land, 9212 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,408; actually under cultivation, 14,038 acres. The average revenue per acre was—on the total area, 11½d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 4d.; on the cultivated land, 1s. 10½d. The principal town is Bahgahdala, which was estimated by the Revenue Surveyor to contain about 1500 inhabitants. There is a very good bazar in this town, with a market on Thursday. Much trade is also carried on in the several hats throughout the pargana, chiefly at
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Bamangola on the Tángan river, which is an important seat of traffic in rice, etc. The various soils are matúr, dorás, and bálu, which are very rich, and produce abundance of the ordinary crops. The climate is damp, but not so unhealthy as in the neighbouring parganás.

(2) Akbarabad: area, 9204 acres, or 14.38 square miles; number of estates, 3; land revenue according to the Revenue Surveyor, which includes that of parganá Sujánagar, £2363, 14s. od.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2357, 18s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 589 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 8615; cultivated, 7000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 34d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 4d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 8d. This is a highly cultivated country, and the crops are abundant. There are no towns, but the villages are for the most part large and flourishing. The climate is healthy.

(3) Akbarpur: this parganá is in the extreme north-west of the District, and contains an area of 94,129 acres, or 147.07 square miles. The number of estates is 25; and the total land revenue is given as £850, 14s. 4d. by the Revenue Surveyor. The Board of Revenue returns give a revenue on the same acreage of £1862, 25. od. The total area was thus classified by the Revenue Surveyor:—Barren or otherwise unassessed land, 9176 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 84,953; cultivated, 42,476; the average revenue per acre on total area, 21/2d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, 22/4d.; on the cultivated land, 43/4d. This parganá is well watered, being bordered in parts by both the Ganges and the Kálindré, and intersected by the Kankar, the Góbá, Gardiáyá, the Dharamdaulá, the Kalkás, and the Káp, which are all tributaries of the Kálindré. The capital is Háiápur; and weekly markets are held at the towns of Sultánangj, Harichandrapur, Bhégál, Bhalukaráí, Khidarganj, Debipur, and Kamalpur. The condition of the people is generally prosperous; but the climate is very damp and insalubrious, and fever is always prevalent in the months of August, September, and October.

(4) Akbarnagar: area, 1559 acres, or 2.43 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £28, 10s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 487 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 1071; cultivated, 1000; average revenue per acre on total area, 41/2d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 5d.; on cultivated land, 63/4d. The lands of this parganá are much interlaced with those of parganá Kánkjol.
(5) Akbarshahi, or Dihat Akbarshahi: not mentioned by the Revenue Surveyor; area, 1173 acres, or 2.77 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £80, 12s. od.

(6) Amirabad: not described by the Revenue Surveyor, but mentioned by the Collector, and included in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 6 acres, or 0.09 square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £4, 8s. od.

(7) Amgachhi: not mentioned by the Collector, nor included in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 57 acres, or 0.9 square mile; land revenue included with that of Kankjol; barren or otherwise unassessed land, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 57 acres; cultivated, 50. This parganá is composed of two isolated villages, each of which abut upon detached portions of parganá Kankjol.

(8) Bahadurpur: area, 4352 acres, or 6.80 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue according to the Revenue Surveyor, £574, 7s. 5½d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns (which apparently exclude a jalkar mahal, or fishing lease), £439, 10s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 854 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 3498; cultivated, 3100; average revenue per acre on total area, 3s. 8½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 3s. 3½d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 8½d. This parganá is situated on the Ganges, opposite to a parganá of the same name in the District of Bhágulpur. The towns are, Allinagar Trimohani, and Káliáchak, of which the last is a police station, and in its neighbourhood is the indigo factory of the same name. The Págál river winds through the southern part of the parganá, but its floods do more harm than good, as they only deposit sand. The soil is very fertile, and produces abundant crops, including indigo and fine mulberry.

(9) Bais-hazari: not mentioned in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 14,673 acres, or 22.93 square miles; land revenue, £20; barren land, or otherwise unassessed, 250 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 14,424; cultivated, 14,000. The average revenue per acre amounts to about one farthing, whether the total area or only the cultivated land be taken. This low rate of assessment is to be attributed to the fact that almost the whole of the parganá is rent-free or lákhiráj. As has been already mentioned in connection with Pandua, and in the description of the land tenures of the District, it forms the ancient endowment out of which the monument of Pir Mukdam Sháh and the charities connected therewith are maintained at Panduah.
(10) **Bangaon**: mentioned as a separate *parganā* by the Collector, but not included in the other two returns.

(11) **Bansdol Paltapur**: area, 31,605 acres, or 49.35 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £440, 3s. 0d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £437, 18s. 0d.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 11,106 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 20,499; cultivated, 10,000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 2½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 5d.; on cultivated land, 10½d. This *parganā* lies to the south-east of the District, and its lands are much interlaced with those of *parganās* Wázírpur and Paltápur. The following general description is applicable to all three. The soils are *matiār*, *dórās*, and *bālu*, of which the two former produce rich crops of rice, etc. The whole surface of the land undulates considerably, and the population is very sparse, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the Mahánándá. The small number of inhabitants is attributed by the people themselves to a fearful visitation of cholera about the year 1816, which swept away the whole population of many villages. The Revenue Surveyor in 1852 was inclined to believe this tradition, judging from the number of half-inhabited villages and ruined huts which he saw in all parts. There are several very extensive swamps, covering altogether in the three *parganās* an area of about 4000 acres. That adjoining the Purnabhabá, called Jelborá *bīl*, is the largest, and is much utilized for fishing and the cultivation of *boro* rice. The amount of jungle in the three *parganās* is estimated at about 22,500 acres. Large herds of cattle almost untended graze in these wastes, and *godālās* are frequently seen with buffaloes, which appear to thrive better here than ordinary cattle. Wherever possible, *boro* rice is sown broadcast without tillage in the jungle, and produces excellent crops. Wild beasts, however, swarm in this tract, and the cultivators are contented if they can save from the wild hogs one-half of their crops. Tigers also are very common, and the beautiful *sambar* deer is sometimes found. The deer and hog are so numerous that the tigers seldom attack men; but two cases of man-eaters were known while the Revenue Surveyor had his camp in the neighbourhood. Two or three small beds of *kankar* limestone have been observed in this tract. The chief town in *parganā* Bansdol Paltapur is Rohanpur Máganj, situated a short distance above the junction of the Purnabhabá with the Mahánándá. This is the most cele-
brated rice mart in this part of the country. Boats come hither for supplies from as far west as Cawnpur on the Ganges and Agará on the Jamná. The river is navigable up to this point at nearly all seasons of the year for boats of the largest size. Mahípur is also a flourishing town, but it is detached from the rest of the parganá, being situated much lower down the Mahánandá.

(12) BANSGARÁ: mentioned as a separate parganá by the Collector, but not included in the other two returns.

(13) BEGAMABAD: area, 1,684 acres, or 2ёр63 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £158; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 351 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 1,333; cultivated, 1,200; average revenue per acre, on total area, Is. 10½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 2s. 4½d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 7½d. This is a small but very fertile parganá, immediately to the north of the Civil Station, on the right bank of the Mahánandá. It produces the usual crops, as well as mulberry, in great abundance. Much of the land is occupied by mango lôpas, which are deservedly famous for their delicious fruit. During the mango season, it is (1852) not at all unusual to find a guard of sepoys sent by the Nawáb of Murchídábád to guard certain trees of especial celebrity, the produce of which he has purchased from the proprietors. The great ferry of Nimásaráí, directly opposite to Old Maldah, is situated in this parganá; and it is traversed by the main road from English Bázár to Dinájpur, which crosses the Mahánandá by this ferry. There are no towns, but the bank of the river is lined by large villages, which contain many brick houses, and look very picturesque from the water. Another striking object, when viewed from a boat, is an old minádr or tower in the neighbourhood of the ferry. It is now in a very ruined state, but is still from 35 to 40 feet high. The climate of the parganá is considered very healthy, and the inhabitants appear to be industrious and well to do.

BHALASURI.—See (42) SHAH-HAZARI.

(14) BHATTIA GOPALPUR: area, 51,325 acres, or 80ёр19 square miles; 117 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £2598, 15s. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2708, 6s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 6209 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 45,115; cultivated, 34,070; average revenue per acre, on total area, Is.; on total cultivated and cultivable, Is. 1½d.; on cultivated land, Is. 6d. This parganá is
of very irregular shape, and is much interlaced with the neighbouring parganás. Its more compact portion lies between the Mahánandá and the Bhágirathi, extending over a portion of the ruins of Gaur, and comprising also the Civil Station of English Bázár or Angrazábád. Besides this town, which has been described on a previous page, there are the following populous villages, all in the vicinity of the Mahánandá:—Mahespur, Gopálpur, Ráipur, Boyáliyá, Jaliyá Chaudalá, Tántípárá, Gailábarí, Kismat Gopináthpur, and Mukhdampur. The roads about the Station are numerous and good. They are raised several feet above the level of the country, running along the old causeways constructed by the kings of Gaur, and consequently they are passable within an hour after the heaviest rain. There are many extensive jhils in this parganá. The largest is that known as Jalkar Kallak Sujá, covering 6276 acres, which is situated between the embankments of Gaur and the Mahánandá. On its borders and in its shallower portions, very large quantities of boro rice are cultivated in the dry season. There is also a Government fishery in its waters, which is annually leased to a farmer. From the nature of the country, the climate must be damp. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Mahánandá the people look robust and active, but on the western side of the parganá they have a very squalid and sickly appearance.

(15) Chakla Dianapur or Deotapur: area, 1650 acres, or 2:58 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £143, 14s. lid.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £142, 8s. 6d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 182 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 1468; cultivated, 1400; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 9d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 11¾d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 6¾d. This is a small parganá, to the south-west of the ruins of Gaur. The river Páglá winds through its northern portion, and on its banks is situated the town of Ragunáthpur, which is thickly populated, and appears to be prosperous.

(16) Chandlái: area, 81,841 acres, or 127:87 square miles; 37 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £2421, 8s. 5d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2434, 18s. 6d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 11,043 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 70,797; cultivated, 30,397; average revenue per acre, on total area, 7d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 8d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 7d. This parganá is so
much intermixed with the neighbouring parganás of Nizámpur, Lashkarpur, Hijrápur, and Sherpur-hijrápur, that one description will suffice for the five. This tract of country lies between the Mahánandá river and Rájsháhi District, immediately to the south of the circle of parganás which has been described under Bánisdol Páltápur. There are no rivers except the Mahánandá, which forms the western boundary. On its banks there are several thriving and densely-populated villages, but towards the interior the villages become rare and small. The general appearance of the country is undulating, especially to the eastward; and occasionally beds or kankar limestone are to be seen. Rice is the sole crop grown, except in the vicinity of the river, where other cereals and green crops are also cultivated to a considerable extent. The climate is somewhat better than in the circle of pargands to the north, for the jungle, though equally extensive, is not so much intermixed with swamps. In pargánd Chandlá there are (1852) about 28,000 acres of jungle, high grass, and bushes, intermixed with forest trees. This large area is not so unprofitable as might be imagined, for boro rice is cultivated in every available spot, and the grass is much used for making the walls and roofs of houses.

(17) Darsákh Gangahár: area, 11,067 acres, or 17'29 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £156, 17s. 10d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £208, 4s. od. (this discrepancy may perhaps be explained by the existence of a jalkar mahal or fishing lease connected with the pargánd); barren land or otherwise unassessed, 472 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 10,595; cultivated, 6028; average revenue per acre, on total area, 3½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 3½d.; on cultivated land, 6d. This is a very irregularly shaped pargánd, lying for the most part to the south of the ruins of Gaur. There are no rivers, but an immense number of tanks (the relics of the southern suburb of Gaur), jhils, néllás, and swamps exist, which render this part of the District unhealthy. Fevers attended with ague fits are common, being most prevalent from the end of August to the middle of November. The soil is fertile, and produces large quantities of rice, as well as wheat, barley, mustard, and mulberry. Sulimábdá, a detached mauzúd on the Ganges, contains the only town deserving notice. There are two or three other villages of large size, but thinly inhabited.

(18) Deharpur: not mentioned in the Board of Revenue re-
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turns; area, 275 acres, or 0.42 of a square mile; land revenue, nil; barren land, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 275 acres; cultivated land, 200. This parganā, which is entirely lākhīrāj or rent-free, and very productive, consists of two villages on the left or northern bank of the Kálindri river.

Dihat Akbarshahi.—See (5) Akbarshahi.

(19) Dogachhi: area, 1262 acres, or 1.97 square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £30, 17s. 8½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 1262 acres; cultivated, 100; average revenue per acre, on total area and on total cultivated and cultivable, 5½d.; on cultivated land, 6½d. This parganā, which is (1852) situated on the right or Bhágalpur bank of the Ganges, is composed of only one village. The soil, which is watered by three large dhārs of that river, is exceedingly productive, and yields fine and luxuriant crops of all sorts.

(20) Farrakahabad: mentioned as a separate parganā by the Collector, but not included in either of the other returns. It is situated on the eastern bank of the Ganges, but was formerly comprised within the District of Murshídábád.

(21) Gangapath Islampur: area, 464 acres, or 0.72 of a square mile; 2 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £15, 9s. 11d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £1199, 16s. od. (this latter sum, which is returned upon the same acreage as the former, must be erroneous); barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 463 acres; cultivated, 350; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, 8d.; on cultivated land, 10½d. This parganā, which is composed of detached portions entirely surrounded by neighbouring parganās, is highly cultivated with the usual crops.

(22) Gaurhand: area, 24,916 acres, or 38.93 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £928, 16s. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £933, 12s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 8788 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 16,127 acres; total cultivated, 10,684; average revenue per acre, on total area, 9d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 1¾d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 3½d. This parganā, which is situated in the north-west of the District, now forms part of the Chánchál estates, having been purchased by the late Rájá in 1848, for the sum of £9100, from the samjndārs of Táki in the 24 Parganās. Mr. Reily, the manager of the Chánchál estates under
the Court of Wards, in a report dated November 1873, furnished
the following statistics:—The total area is now 28,342 acres,
or 44'28 square miles, of which 17,269 acres are barren, 1789
are lákhiríj or rent-free, 441 have been assigned as service lands,
and 8843 are held by ordinary rent-paying cultivators. With
the exception of two permanent holdings, created many years ago,
the tenure called hål hasílã prevails over the whole of the pargán,
and is much encouraged by the large proportion of waste land.
The total number of cultivating tenants is 2795, of whom 1839
are Hindus, 956 Muhammadans. The average size of the culti-
vators' holdings is 8 bighâs and 6 kathâs, or somewhat under 3
acres, and the average rent per holding is 13s. 4d.

(23) Hatanda: area, 3239 acres, or 5'06 square miles; 5
estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £106,
11s. 2½d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £109,
18s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1001 acres; total
cultivated and cultivable, 2238; cultivated, 2200; average revenue
per acre, on total area, 8d.; on total cultivated and cultivable,
11½d.; on cultivated land, 1s. od. This pargán, situated in
the north-west of the District, is highly cultivated, and produces
rice in great abundance. The chief village is Daulatpur, where
there are several shops. Since the date of the Revenue Survey
(1852), the area included within this pargán has been augmented
by the transfer of another pargán, of the same name, from the
District of Purniah to the revenue jurisdiction of Maldah. The
reunited pargán forms part of the Châñchâl estates, which are
at present under the Court of Wards, and managed by Mr. Reily.
The report by this gentleman on the land tenures of the Châñchâl
estates in 1873 gives the following statistics concerning this tract.
The total area is now 80,471 acres, or 125'73 square miles, of which
31,145 acres are barren, 5226 are lákhiríj or rent-free, 2912 have
been assigned away as service lands, and 41,188 are occupied by
ordinary rent-paying cultivators. The number of cultivating tenants
is 9202, of which total 4853 are Hindus, and 4399 are Muhamma-
dans. There is only one permanent tenure in the pargán, the
remainder being held under what is known as the hål hasílã system,
which has already been fully described under the title of Land
Tenures. The average size of the cultivators' holdings is 11 bighâs
and 2 kathâs, or somewhat under 4 acres, and the average rent
per holding is 17s. 3d.
(24) Havili Tara: area, 14,959 acres, or 23.37 square miles; 73 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £1033, 8s. 1d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £1016, 6s. od.; barren land and otherwise unassessed, 2137 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 12,822; cultivated, 9548; average revenue per acre, on total area, rs. 4½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, rs. 7d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 2d. This parganā is situated to the south-west of the District. Its lands are very productive, the principal crops being barley, wheat, rice, indigo, pulse, mustard-seed, mulberry, gram, and flax. The mulberry grown here is said to be the finest in Maldah. Alipur is the only town, but there are also several large villages, which seem to be in a prosperous state. The Páglá river flows through this parganā, and during the rains its channel is much used by the boats sailing up stream, in order to avoid the long and rapid sweep of the Ganges.

(25) Híjrapur: area, 5804 acres, or 9.07 square miles; 16 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £283, 15s. 5d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £228, 6s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 85 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 5719; cultivated, 4500; average revenue per acre, on total area, 11½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, rs.; on cultivated land, rs. 3d. A description of this parganā has been included in that given for (16) Chandláí.

(26) KAMLABARI: area, 701 acres, or 1.09 square mile; 2 estates; land revenue, £57, 13s. 3d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 701 acres; cultivated, 500; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, rs. 7½d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 3½d. This parganā consists of 7 villages, which are situated within the vast area of ground covered by the ruins of Gaur. Three of these, in the vicinity of the celebrated tank called Ságar Díghi, are covered with dense jungle; but the remainder, which are situated about two miles farther south, are highly cultivated, and yield exceedingly fine crops.

(27) KANKJOL: area, 38,657 acres, or 60.40 square miles, with a land revenue of £1487, 18s. 1d., according to the Revenue Surveyor, which includes also the revenue from parganā Amgáchhi; but the Board of Revenue returns give an area of 24,289 acres or 37.95 square miles, 29 estates, and a land revenue of £1222,
16s. od. The calculations of the Revenue Surveyor show barren land or otherwise unassessed, 15,099 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 23,558; cultivated, 15,704; average revenue per acre, on total area, 9d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 3d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 10½d. This parganā is composed of four compact portions, which lie, each separated from one another, in the north-west of the District; and of twelve villages detached in parganā Shikārpur, the most distant of which is twenty-six miles from the eastern compact portion. In the northern portion are the Kālindri and Kusī rivers; the middle abuts on the Ganges; and the southern is well watered by dhārs of the Ganges, which are replenished yearly when the inundation takes place. The eastern portion is contained within Shershāhābād parganā, and has no rivers or places of importance, but is very fertile. The same may be said also of the middle portion bordering the Ganges. In the northern portion are situated the thānā or police station of Gārgāribā, and the towns of Bāzidpur, Rasulpur, and Bālupur. The small town of Enāitpur is in the southern portion. The climate is very good, as is at once shown by the healthy appearance of the people, who are much more robust, active, and intelligent than those who reside on the eastern side of the Mahānandā. Fogs are excessively frequent during the months of November, December, and January, but the people do not seem to suffer from them as in the neighbouring District of Purnia.

(28) Kardā: mentioned as a separate parganā by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns.

(29) Kasimnagar: area, 6514 acres, or 10.18 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £306, 7s. 4½d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £299, 12s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 862 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 5652 acres; cultivated, 3400; average revenue per acre, on total area, 11½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 1d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 9½d. This is a very intermingled parganā, and in addition it has suffered greatly from the varying course of the Ganges. In 1852 its condition was thus described:—It used to contain 27 villages, but two of these have been cut away by the Ganges. Of the remainder, 9 villages are distributed among three tolerably compact portions of the parganā, and 5 are much interlaced with other pargans. These 14 are all on the Maldah side of the Ganges, but the 11 others are situated
on the farther side of that river, and are involved with the parganá of the same name in the District of Murshidábád. The towns are Kutabpur, Mánganpur, which contains a large bázár, and Lachi-rámpur. The lands are very fertile, though but little more than half are under cultivation.

(30) Kasimpur: mentioned as a separate parganá by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns.

(31) Kotwali: area, 23,698 acres, or 37'03 square miles; 29 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £1000, 3s. 3d., according to the Board of Revenue returns, £929, 14s. 6d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1406 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,292; cultivated, 22,100; average revenue per acre, on each of the above areas, 10s. 4d. This parganá stretches along the north of the northern suburb of Gaur, and apparently derives its name from the administrative officer stationed at the city gate. The Kálindri river forms for a certain distance the northern boundary, and the Bhágirathi also waters part of its area. The whole is in a very prosperous state; cultivation is universally and highly carried out. The soil yields not only the common crops, but also all the more valuable products, while, in the opinion of the Revenue Surveyor, the cultivators are industrious and the landlords improving. The chief town is called Kotwálí, and there are also numerous large villages, of which the most important are Phulwáriá, Jot Narsinh, Jot Gopálí, Sonátalá, Sultánpur, Satánandpúr, Jot Gharíb, Sádípur, Sháh Jalálpur, and Umárpúr. One large jhil exists in the northern part of the parganá, which has no special name, but is indiscriminately called after the adjoining villages. It is plentifully supplied with water by several fine springs, and is drained by a small stream flowing into the Bhágirathi. During the rains, when the Kálindri overflows its banks, its waters are also carried off through this jhil by the same stream, which is called the Amírthí. Irrigation is extensively practised from the numerous smaller jhils. The climate is considered good, except in the months of September and October, when numbers suffer from fever. The villagers seem robust and healthy, and there is an appearance of wealth and comfort about them not to be met with on the eastern side of the Mahánándá.

(32) Lashkarpur: area, 831 acres, or 1'29 square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £21, 6s. 6d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £36, 18s. 6d.;
barren land or otherwise unassessed, 145 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 685; cultivated, 590; average revenue per acre, on total area, 6d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7½d.; on cultivated land, 8½d. A description of this parganā has been included in that given for (16) Chandlái.

(33) Mahinagar: mentioned as a separate parganā by the Collector, and included in the Board of Revenue returns, but with no particulars beyond that it is a jalkar mahal or fishing lease. It would appear to have been formerly comprised in the Districts of Purniah and Dinápur.

(34) Makrín: area, 40,787 acres, or 63'73 square miles; 22 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £807, 17s. 0d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £833; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 14,519 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 26,268; cultivated, 13,134; average revenue per acre, on total area, 4½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 6d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 2½d. This parganā, which lies towards the north-west of the District, naturally divides into two portions. The one part, which is bounded to the east by the Mahánandá and an old channel of the same river called the murá Mahánandá, is low, unhealthy, and sparsely inhabited, being overgrown with grass jungle, which affords grazing ground for large herds of cattle. The other part, where the villages cluster round both banks of the Kálindri, towards the south of the parganā, is densely populated, and the soil is fertile and highly cultivated. The murá Mahánandá is called murá or dead, not because the stream has dried up, but because boats have ceased to frequent this channel, in preference for the wider and less tortuous course of the modern river. The ancient stream is still very deep, and abounds with fish of many kinds, which are caught with the line and with the net, and very frequently at night by torchlight. Nijgán is considered the chief town in the parganā, but Pránpur and Arhídángá are also places of some importance. Pránpur, which is on the Kálindri, has lately (1874) been chosen as the site of the new police station (tháná) to supersede Gárgáribá. The people of the north-eastern portion of the parganá have a very sickly appearance, and are much afflicted with splenitis. Those residing near the Kálindri are more robust and healthy.

(35) Nizampur: area, 4740 acres, or 7'40 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £197, 5s. 2½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed,
178 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 4561; cultivated, 3560; average revenue per acre, on total area, 10d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 10½d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 1½d. A description of this parganā has been included in that already given for (16) Chandlái.

(36) Paltapur: area, 9393 acres, or 14'66 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £224, 10s. 3½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1915 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 7477; cultivated, 5210; average revenue per acre, on total area, 5½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7d.; on cultivated land, 10d. A description of this parganā has been included in that already given for (11) Bándsdol Paltapur.

(37) Pardiá: area, 2263 acres, or 3'53 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £130, 18s. 8½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 109 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 2154; cultivated, 2000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 2d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 2½d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 7d. This parganā is situated between the Ganges and the ruins of Gaur. It is highly cultivated, and yields luxuriant crops of all kinds. There are no towns, but the villages are mostly large and populous, and the inhabitants appear to be comfortable and happy.

(38) Radhaballabhpur: mentioned as a separate parganā by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns. It would seem to have been formerly comprised in the District of Dinájpur.

(39) Rajnagar: area, 39,504 acres, or 61'72 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £841, 9s. 3½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 10,311 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 29,192; cultivated, 14,600; average revenue per acre, on total area, 5d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 1½d. This parganā is situated in the north-east of the District, and is divided into two distinct portions by the intervening parganā of Kásimnmagar. The northern portion is the more healthy and prosperous of the two, and contains the town and police station of Gájol. The southern portion, which is bounded on the south and east by the river Tángān, is mostly occupied with jungle. Its chief place is Kishanpur, a populous market village. The soil is principally matiárd, which yields abundant rice crops; but the cold-weather crops are unimportant. The climate is exceedingly damp, and far from healthy. The jungle portion of the parganā is almost
deadly at certain seasons,—from December to January, and again
when the waters of the jhils begin to stagnate, between the end of
March and the end of May. The inhabitants, especially in the
southern portion, have a weak and sickly appearance.

(40) ROKANPUR: area, 40,853 acres, or 63·83 square miles, with
a land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, of £1379,
16s. 10½d. According to the Board of Revenue returns, the area is
48,853 acres, or 76·33 square miles, and the land revenue is £3032,
8s. od. The number of estates is 15. According to the calculations
of the Revenue Surveyor, the barren or otherwise unassessed land is
18,828 acres; the total cultivated and cultivable, 22,025; the culti-
vated, 11,000; the average revenue per acre is, on the total area,
8d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, rs. 3d.; on the cultivated
land, 2s. 6d. This parganá lies to the east of the town of Old
Maldah, the Mahánandá forming the western and the Tángan
the, south-eastern boundary. It is exceedingly intermixed with a
parganá of the same name belonging to the District of Dináipur.
It was found necessary to survey the two together, a circumstance
which may perhaps account for the discrepancies in the area and
land revenue shown above. The soil in the neighbourhood of
the Mahánandá is of a loose and sandy nature, and produces ex-
cellent and abundant crops both of rice and the more valuable
products. In the middle of the parganá and towards the Tángan
the lands are so moist as to be unfit for anything but boro rice. Half
the whole surface is covered with impenetrable jungle, the haunt of
all manner of wild beasts. There are several considerable jhils or
swamps; the largest is called the Jalkar Bathán, which swarms with
fish, and is let out by the proprietor to fishermen. It is connected
with the Tángan by two nálás, and was formerly joined in a similar
way to the Mahánandá. Besides the town of Old Maldah, of which
a description has already been given, the remaining places of some
importance are Mangalbári and Mabárikpur. The climate is ex-
cessively damp and unhealthy. It is positively fatal to strangers
immediately after the rains, and between the months of April and
June. This parganá now forms part of the Chándchál estates, having
been purchased by the late Rájá in 1850, in the name of his wife,
when put up at public auction for arrears of revenue. For the first
five years the purchaser appears to have failed to collect even the
Government revenue. He then attempted to raise the rents of the
cultivators, which involved him in greater difficulties; and he was
ultimately obliged to resort to the alternative of letting the whole parganā out to farm. The farmer has ever since continued in possession; and consequently Mr. Reily, the manager of the Chánchál estates under the Court of Wards, from whose report the above facts are drawn, was unable to furnish any accurate statistics concerning the present condition of this parganā.

(41) SAMBALPUR: mentioned as a separate parganā by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns. Apparently it was formerly situated in the District of Purniah, but being entirely surrounded by parganās belonging to Maldah, has now been transferred to the latter District.

(42) SHAS-HAZARI or BHALASARI: not included in the Board of Revenue returns; area, 26,071 acres, or 40.73 square miles; land revenue, nil; barren land, 4000 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,071; cultivated, 11,000. This parganā is entirely lākhīrdāj or rent-free. Some account of the origin of the grant has been given in the course of describing the land tenures of the District. The river Mahānandā forms the natural western boundary of the whole of the compact portion of the parganā. The only towns of any note are situated in fragments detached from this central portion. Sháhpur is in parganā Rokanpur, some three miles south of Old Maldah, on the Mahánandā. Pakhariá is in parganā Sambalpur, and the same mauzā also contains the large town of Pīrganj, on the western bank of the Mahánandā. All these towns are plentifully supplied with shops, and a few háts or markets are held in some of the villages of the compact portion of the parganā. The main road from Maldah to Dinájpur cuts across the south-eastern corner, and for about six miles of its length is fringed with the scattered ruins and monuments of Panduah or Peruah, which have already been described. The lands are low, and never require irrigation. They produce rice and mustard-seed abundantly, and a little mulberry. The people are puny, weak, and miserable in appearance, especially in the parts away from the Mahánandā. The principal diseases are intermittent fever, accompanied by ague, dropsy, and splenitis. Vast numbers must be carried off by fever every year, but still there appears to be no want of population, except in the jungly tracts. The apathy of all classes during the sickly season is astonishing. They think and speak of sickness and death as a matter of course, and when attacked will often pertinaciously refuse any kind of remedy.
(43) Sherpur Fathi Khana: area, 4660 acres, or 7.28 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £180, 3s. 5½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 347 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 4313; cultivated, 4073; average revenue per acre, on total area, 9½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 10d.; on cultivated land, 10½d. This pargana, which is tolerably compact, is situated between the Ganges and the ruins of Gaur. It is very highly cultivated, and produces all manner of crops. The towns are Náráinpur, Sherpur, Dabipur, and Chandpur; and there are besides many flourishing villages. The people appear robust and active, from which it may be inferred that the climate is not unhealthy.

(44) Sherpur Hijrapur: area, 478 acres, or 0.74 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £17, 3s. 7¼d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 478 acres; cultivated, 400; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, 8¼d.; on cultivated land, 10½d. A description of this pargana has been included in that already given for (16) Chandláí.

(45) Shershahabad: area, 106,568 acres, or 166.50 square miles; 15 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £3423, 16s. 5½d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £4502, 12s. 0d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 12,570 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 93,998; cultivated, 68,666; average revenue per acre, on total area, 7½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 8¾d.; on cultivated land, 15. This pargana, which is the most extensive in the District, is very irregularly shaped, and has many detached fragments. One of these fragments is situated on the farther side of the Ganges, within the District of Murshídábád, and another on the eastern bank of the Mahánándá; but the central portion lies between these two rivers, and surrounds the ruins of Gaur. The Páglá is the only river which intersects it in any part; but there are besides several large nálás flowing from the numerous jhils. The towns are Ráníháthí, Sibríganj (a thaná or police station), Daulátpur, and Kánsát. The two last are marts of very old standing for all sorts of native produce. There is a large indigo concern at Tartipur, and a silk filature, belonging to Messrs. Watson & Co., at Bárú Gharía. The soil produces all manner of crops without irrigation, and does not require much tillage, owing to its loose nature.

(46) Shikarpur: area, 20,826 acres, or 32.54 square miles; 9
FISCAL DIVISIONS OR PARGANAS.

Estates; land revenue, £405, 15s. 8½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 8414 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 12,412; cultivated, 6000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 4½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7½d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 4d. This parganá is very much intermixed with another parganá of the same name in the District of Dinajpur. It occupies that portion of Malda District which is enclosed between the Tán gan and Purnabhabá rivers. Parganá Ajhor forms a sharp boundary to the north, on the cast comes the District of Dinajpur, and the Mahánandá closes the western corner. The only town is Bangábári, in this western corner. Two-thirds are covered by jungle, which is almost impenetrable, and affords one of the most celebrated hunting grounds in Bengal. The landowners make a considerable profit from the sale of the cane, reed, and grass jungle. The grass is carried down the rivers in immense quantities, and is used for repairing the chappars or roofs of the native trading boats, which frequently put into the mouth of the Mahánandá for this purpose. The reeds are made into charcoal by the village blacksmiths. Tillage is not much practised. The seed is simply sown broadcast, and then harrowed; but even the harrow is not always used. Boro rice is very extensively cultivated, being sown in the dampest parts. When the crop is ripe, there is very often a foot or two of water over the roots; and in such a case the cultivators come in canoes and cut off the ears of grain, leaving the straw to rot in the water. The climate is excessively damp and unhealthy. The Revenue Surveyor reports that his own establishment suffered very severely from fever in this parganá. He remarked that when an easterly or south-easterly wind prevailed, sickness invariably followed, and that a wind from the west drove the sickness away.

(47) Sujainagar: not mentioned by the Collector, nor included in the Board of Revenue returns; area, 27,968 acres, or 43.70 square miles; land revenue included in the amount given for parganá (2) Akbarábád; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 489 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 27,480; cultivated, 21,327. This parganá is described by the Revenue Surveyor as being completely separated from the rest of the District by intervening portions of Purniah, and apparently, judging from its omission in the other catalogues, it must now have been annexed to the latter District.

(48) Sultanganj: area, 16,331 acres, or 25.52 square miles; 35 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor,
£318, 16s. 4d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns,
£802, 12s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 2319 acres;
total cultivated and cultivable, 14,012; cultivated, 9138; average
revenue per acre, on total area, rs.; on total cultivated and cul-
tivable, rs. 2d.; on cultivated land, rs. 9½d. This parganā is
situated in the west of the District. Its lands extend to both
banks of the Ganges, and it has also several detached fragments
in other parganās to the south of its central part. These detached
portions are very highly cultivated; but the soil in the neigh-
bourhood of the Ganges is of inferior quality, being always liable to
excessive deposits of sand from the river. In two places the
Ganges has (1852) broken through the parganā, and each suc-
cessive year its course suffers some change. A newly formed char
has scarcely time to become valuable before it is swept away and
another formed, perhaps on the farther side of the river. Disputes
concerning the property in these alluvial accretions, and the right
of fishing in the numerous dhārs, which are created in a similar
way, are of perpetual occurrence; but the unceasing activity of
the river rarely allows them to reach a final settlement. The
Páglá river flows through the south-eastern corner of the parganā,
and has thrown off a large dhār near the village of Jot Paran, which
in a great measure protects this tract from the incursions of the
Ganges. The chief towns are Lakhípur and Sultánganj.

(49) WazírPur: area, 27,987 acres, or 43'73 square miles; 1
estate; land revenue, £400, 10s. 3½d.; barren land or otherwise
unassessed, 355; total cultivated and cultivable, 27,631; cultivated,
20,000; average revenue per acre, on total area and on total cul-
tivated and cultivable, 3½d.; on cultivated land, 4½d. A general
description of this parganā has been included in that already given
for (11) Bánsdol Paltapur. It contains the flourishing village and
police station of Gumáshátpur, which possesses a large básár and
also a market (hát) held twice a week. The market extends into
the village, but the principal business appears to be transacted under
the shade of a celebrated banian tree in the immediate vicinity of
the básár. The stems of this tree are about twenty in number,
and average from 90 to 100 feet in height. Many blacksmiths
have located themselves here, and work under two immense
chappars or grass-roofed sheds. The Revenue Surveyor states that
he has seen no less than forty pairs of bellows at work at the same
time, but the workmanship is very indifferent.
The catalogue of $\textit{pargan\=ds}$ given above yields the following totals, which must be received with caution, as they differ from one another, and do not refer to the same dates:—Total of $\textit{pargan\=ds}$, according to the Revenue Surveyor in 1852, 39; according to the Board of Revenue returns, year not given, but certainly posterior to the Revenue Survey, 37; according to the Collector in 1870, 47: grand total, arrived at by a collation of these three returns, 49. Number of estates according to the Board of Revenue returns, 501. Total area, according to the Revenue Surveyor, 824,520 acres, or 1288.31 square miles; according to the Board of Revenue returns (after a correction of manifest misprints), 740,982 acres, or 1157.78 square miles. Total land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £25,343, 16s. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £29,983, 18s. 0d. The remaining totals and averages come solely from the Revenue Surveyor. Total of land barren or otherwise unassessed, 153,808 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 670,713; total cultivated, 426,583. Average revenue per acre, on total area (exclusive of $\textit{lakhir\=a}$), 7½d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 9d.; on cultivated land, 9½d. The latest figures, in correction of the above totals, are as follow:—Area as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in September 1874, exclusive of the larger rivers, 1806.64 square miles; number of estates in 1873, 560, and land revenue in the same year, £37,625, 12s. 0d., as given by the Deputy-Collector in his report on the land tenures of that date.

**MEDICAL ASPECT AND METEOROLOGY.**—The District of Maldah is considered less unhealthy than the Districts of Purniah, Dinájpur, and Rajsháhí, which bound it on the north, east, and southeast. Its eastern portion, which is covered with jungles and swamps, and where the soil is a damp clay, is exposed to the same malarious fever which prevails in the neighbouring Districts; but the population of this region is comparatively small, and consequently the total amount of sickness is less than might be expected. The banks of the Mahánandá and the greater portion of the tract that lies between that river and the Ganges are favoured by more wholesome conditions of soil and climate, and are probably less obnoxious to disease than the average of Bengal.

The year is divided into the three usual seasons. The rainy season commences about the middle of June and continues well on into October. The greatest amount of rain usually falls between the second week of July and the second week of September. The
prevailing direction of the wind is S.E.; it often blows a strong gale, but never approaches the strength of a cyclone. Hail-storms at this time are not unfrequent. In 1865 there was a violent storm, which wrought great destruction among the crops, and rendered uninhabitable the grass-built huts of the poorer classes. Some of the stones which fell during this storm are said to have been from one to two pounds in weight. During the rainy season, persons of a rheumatic diathesis suffer most; and, as a rule, fever, cholera, and small-pox disappear. The cold season lasts from the third week of October to the middle of February. As the waters caused by the river floods begin to dry up, fever of a malarious nature breaks out in all parts of the District. Presently cholera makes its appearance, and last of all small-pox. The wind blows from N.W., the nights are cold and dewy, and the mornings generally foggy. The hot weather begins in February and lasts till June. During the last two months the heat becomes almost unbearable, and the atmosphere is, as it were, stagnant. The general direction of the wind is from S.E. to S.W.; but occasionally it will shift to N. or N.W., and blow violently for a short time, driving a few clouds, which fall in a shower of rain. Cholera and small-pox will often linger on during this season, but diarrhoea and dysentery are the most common disorders.

The average temperature for the five years ending 1869 is reported by the Civil Surgeon to be 76°·66. He returns the average rainfall for the same period at 55·26 inches. The Meteorological Department gives the following as the monthly rainfall for the year 1871, taken at the Civil Station of English Bázár, which is 160 feet above the sea-level—January, nil; February, o·02 of an inch; March, 1·61 inches; April, 1·72; May, 3·86; June, 9·63; July, 14·99; August, 6·12; September, 20·22; October, 4·52; November, nil; December, nil: total for the year, 62·69 inches. The same authority thus returns the monthly rainfall for 1872: January, o·09; February, 1·34; March, 0·02; April, 0·49; May, 2·81; June, 11·84; July, 14·43; August, 5·69; September, 7·72; October, 8·08; November, nil; December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 52·51 inches.

DISEASES.—There are no diseases in Maldah District of a strictly endemic type. Outbreaks of malarious fever, cholera, and small-pox recur with regularity at certain seasons of the year, but none of these continue with such persistence as to be properly classed with
endemics. Epidemic small-pox is comparatively rare; but the universal practice of inoculation produces an annual crop of outbreaks in the several villages. Epidemic fever of a distinctly malarious character always accompanies the cessation of the rains. The disorder is of an intermittent type, and amenable to medical treatment. Deaths from this cause, however, are very common, being partly caused by neglect and partly by the mismanagement of the kabirafs or native practitioners. The essential principle of their method is to enforce abstinence from all food for at least seven days from the first seizure, provided at least that their patient survives so long. The Civil Surgeon is of opinion that the only real preventive of this fever is to be found in the extension of cultivation, which would tend to remove its two main sources, the jungles and the swamps. Cholera, like the other epidemics, is regularly heard of first in the outlying parts of the District, and then extends to the central and more highly cultivated portions. There are two separate seasons for its appearance,—during October, November, and December, together with fever after the rains, and again during March, April, and May. Sometimes cholera will suddenly appear and carry off a few persons, and then disappear with equal suddenness. At other times it will drag on for months, until the next rains set in. During the actual rainy season cholera is of very rare occurrence. The commencement of an outbreak is marked by a few mild attacks; then will come the climax, when both the number of attacks and their virulence are greatest; and lastly it will die away, as if worn out. Its attacks sometimes alternate in a most perplexing way with malarious fever. It is of course impossible to give any statistical information showing the mortality caused by these epidemics among the general population of the District. The following figures, furnished by the Civil Surgeon, illustrate an outbreak of cholera which took place in the Maldah jail in 1868:—Average daily strength of the prison population, 87'68; number attacked by cholera, 12; percentage of attacks to total strength, 13'69; percentage of deaths to number attacked, 25; percentage of deaths to total strength, 3'42. The Civil Surgeon has also supplied two tables, showing the average rate of sickness and mortality in the Maldah jail for a period of forty-eight years. I am not sure that the figures are entirely accurate, especially in the earlier years, and it would be most hazardous to draw from them any general conclusions. I print them, however, in the form in which they were sent, merely
adding the columns of percentages. The first table, which covers the thirty-one years from 1822–52, gives the average daily strength of the prisoners, the total number of admissions into hospital, and the number of deaths in each year. The second table, which extends over a later period, from 1852–69, also classifies the diseases of the sick prisoners:

**Table I., showing the Average Daily Strength and the Number of Admissions into Hospital and Deaths among the Prisoners in the Maldah Jail from 1822 to 1852.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Average daily strength of prisoners in jail</th>
<th>Total number of admissions into hospital</th>
<th>Number of deaths</th>
<th>Proportion of deaths to daily average strength</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1822</td>
<td>126'05</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8'72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1823</td>
<td>104'</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9'01</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>5'35</td>
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<td>71</td>
<td>38'00</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>9'43</td>
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<td>120'9</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5'78</td>
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<td>146</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1837</td>
<td>185'3</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8'63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>153'</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9'15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1839</td>
<td>152'2</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6'50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>171'</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11'11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1841</td>
<td>165'</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6'66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1842</td>
<td>183'</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8'19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1843</td>
<td>197'5</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1'01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1844</td>
<td>176'1</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3'97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1845</td>
<td>178'1</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11'78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1846</td>
<td>150'7</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5'30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1847</td>
<td>161'5</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5'57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1848</td>
<td>186'</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3'76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1849</td>
<td>180'6</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2'21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1850</td>
<td>163'6</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9'10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1851</td>
<td>191'3</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10'45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1852</td>
<td>131'11</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2'28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4902'78</td>
<td>7875</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of 31 years</td>
<td>158'75</td>
<td>254'03</td>
<td>14'32</td>
<td>9'05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE II., showing the Average Daily Strength and the Diseases from which Admissions into Hospital and Deaths occurred among the Prisoners in the Maldah Jail from 1853 to 1869.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Average daily strength</th>
<th>Admissions from</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FEVERS</td>
<td>Bowel complaints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>154'61</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1854</td>
<td>94'94</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1855</td>
<td>83'50</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1856</td>
<td>74'65</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1857</td>
<td>57'12</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1858</td>
<td>39'30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1859</td>
<td>47'79</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>52'85</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>38'68</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>53'35</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>69'40</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1864</td>
<td>72'93</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>55'60</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1866</td>
<td>61'15</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>57'53</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>87'68</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>93'05</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1194'13</td>
<td>1226</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average of 17 years: 70'24 72'11 53'0 3'05 23 24'94 6'70 162'11 3'82 5'44

No epidemic disease among the cattle has been observed of late years in Maldah District.

The mels and fairs, which are numerous and well attended, have a most mischievous influence in the propagation of disease, especially in the case of cholera. The outbreak of cholera of 1868 in the jail can be definitely traced to a prisoner who brought the disease with him from the great Muhammadan gathering in the ruins of Panduah. In the same year, cholera broke out very severely at the bathing festival at Kânsât; and as the pilgrims scattered, they
carried the infection all over Maldah, and into the neighbouring Districts.

**INDIGENOUS DRUGS.**—The following is a list of the more important vegetable medicines used in the District, as returned by the Civil Surgeon, upon whose accuracy I entirely depend for the botanical names:—(1) *Chireta* (Agathotes chirayta); an infusion of the stem is used as a febrifuge and a bitter tonic. (2) *Katkaranjá* (Cæsalpinia bonduc); the seed is used as a febrifuge. (3) *Kuchítá* (Nux vomica); the seed is used as a tonic for the nerves in paralysis, as an aphrodisiac, and a febrifuge. (4) *Khet paprá* (Oldenlandia biflora); the juice of the fresh leaves and the stem is used as a tonic and febrifuge. (5) *Gulanchá* (Cœculus cordifolius); the juice is used as a febrifuge and tonic. (6) *Bhárt* (Clerodendron viscosum); juice of the leaves used as a febrifuge and bitter tonic. (7) *Kulápnáth* (Andrographis paniculata); used as a tonic and febrifuge. (8) *Nim* (Azadiracta Indica); the bark is used as a tonic and febrifuge, and is boiled as an application to sores. (9) *Káladáná* (Pharbitis nil); the seed is used as a purgative. (10) *Karpur* (Camphora); used as a stimulant. (11) *Ghrítá-kumári*; used as a laxative and substitute for the aloe of our pharmacopoeia. (12) *Khadir* (Acacia catechu); used as an astringent tonic. This plant is not of indigenous growth, but has to be imported. (13) *Kurchá* (Wrightia antidysentería); a decoction of the bark is used in dysentery and diarrhoea. (14) *Thulkuri* and *thákuri* (Hydrocotyle Asiatica); the juice of the stem and leaves is given to children for dysentery and diarrhoea. (15) *Bel* (Ægle marmelos); the pulp of the fruit is administered as an astringent and demulcent in cases of dysentery. (16) *Amlí* or *tetúl* (Tamarindus Indica); a laxative and demulcent in dysentery. (17) *Jangá haritákí* (Terminalia Chebula); the seed is used as a stomachic laxative in dysentery and dyspepsia. (18) *Isághul* (Plantago ispagula); a demulcent in dysentery and diarrhoea.

**NATIVE PRACTITIONERS.**—The kabirájs, or native practitioners, arrange all diseases under certain definite classes, and for each class adopt a mode of treatment and a set of prescriptions which have been handed down from remote antiquity in the Sanskrit works on medicine. Idiopathic fevers, and all local internal inflammations manifested by febrile symptoms externally, are treated in the same way. Starvation for a period of at least a week is so universally ordered by the kabirájs, and so generally admitted by the unpro-
fessional public as the one natural plan, that any treatment without it is viewed with suspicion, and the cures are considered imperfect. No doubt this native method will often be of service in ephemeral or other slight attacks of fever, but it is most dangerous in severe and complicated cases. The pulse is the only guide followed in the diagnosis. Purgatives are rarely administered, through fear of inducing dysentery, which is considered to be a most serious complication. Dysentery is treated on the cooling plan, which must be admitted to be most successful in conquering acute attacks. The medicines used in these cases are mostly the juices of certain fresh vegetable drugs, which are demulcent and mildly laxative. These drugs are not always to be found in their medical treatises, and are kept as a secret. Some of them have been enumerated on the previous page. Purgatives are avoided, as being calculated to do more harm than good, on account of their irritating property. When dysentery becomes chronic, the kabinājs are much less able to deal with it; and they find a similar difficulty with diarrhoea. In these disorders, also, the pulse is their sole guide; they hardly ever examine the tongue, much less the evacuations. For the treatment of cholera there is no traditional method, nor is any mention of this disease to be found in the old Hindu books. As a rule, the kabinājs avoid having anything to do with this new form of pestilence, which thoroughly cowes the whole people. The few who do attempt to treat it depend entirely upon astringents and narcotics. The Civil Surgeon has furnished some of the favourite prescriptions of the kabinājs, from which I select the following, as of a certain interest to the professional reader:—(1) Mrītānādī, or death-conquering pill, for acute fever: aconite, 1 part; sulphuret of mercury, 2; borax burnt, 1; black pepper, 1; chili, or long pepper, 1,—to be mixed and made into pills of the size of a mug seed or small pea, and to be taken in ginger juice. (2) Lakshmi-bilās, or good-fortune-enjoying pill, for sub-acute fever: calx of t alc, 8 parts; sulphuret of mercury, 4; camphor, 1; nutmeg, 1; brihati seed, 1; daturā seed, 1; baricālā, 2; hijal, 3; bhāṅg (hemp) seed, 2; earth-gourd, 2; sātāmul (Asparagus sermentosus), 2; gakhuri (Tribulus lanuginosus), 2; gorakhchauiūd, 2,—to be mixed together with pān or betel-leaf juice, and made into pills of the size of a rati seed. (3) Sāth bhanjīt, or cold-expelling pill, for ague accompanied by distinct shivering or cold stages: sulphuret of mercury, 2 parts; opiment, 1; bluestone, 1; borax, 1,—to be
mixed together well with the juice of karatá (Momordica Charantia) for 24 hours, then pounded in a copper mortar for 24 hours, and finally dried in a sand-bath and powdered. Dose, 50 grains, to be taken with pám or with black pepper.

Charitable Dispensary.—There is only one dispensary in the District, situated at the Civil Station of English Bázár. It was established in 1861, and the entire hospital was rebuilt in 1872. The Government pays the salary of a resident native doctor, and furnishes without charge a supply of surgical instruments and European medicines. The current expenses are more than satisfied by private subscriptions. For 1871 the statistics are as follow:—In-door patients, total treated, 81; relieved or recovered, 32; not improved or ceased to attend, 19; died, 29; 1 remaining in hospital at the close of the year; daily average number of sick, 3'24. Out-door patients, total treated, 4436; average daily attendance, 37'11; number of important operations, 7; of minor operations, 13. The high rate of mortality is to be attributed to the sickness caused by the excessive rains and floods which occurred in this year. Cholera, small-pox, and fever were unusually prevalent. The statistics of 1872, which was a less exceptional year, show that 77 in-door patients in all were treated, of whom 50 were cured, 16 did not improve, 9 died, and 2 remained at the end of the year. The average daily attendance was 3'12. The out-door patients numbered 3760, and the average daily attendance was 33'66. The total number of operations was 108, of which 11 are classed as important, and 97 as minor. In 1871 the total income of the dispensary, including balance in hand, amounted to £198, 17s. 8½d., and the expenditure to £95, 14s. 8d.; the total cost to Government being £66, 6s. 5½d. In 1872 the income amounted to £165, 8s. od., of which sum Government contributed £70; and the expenditure was £236, 14s. od., of which £172, 12s. od. was absorbed by the building of the new hospital.

Vital Statistics.—A new system of registration was adopted in 1873, under which the accurate collection of births and deaths was confined only to a few selected areas. The urban area selected in Maldah is the town of English Bázár, in which the death-rate during 1873 was ascertained to be 30'32 per thousand. The rural area comprises Maldah town and eight adjoining villages, where the corresponding death-rate was 35'97.
STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

THE DISTRICT OF RANGPUR.
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DISTRICT OF RANGPUR.

RANGPUR, a District of the Rájsháhi Kuch-Beihar Commission-ship, is situated between 25° 2' 50" and 26° 19' 30" north latitude, and 88° 47' 0" and 89° 55' 30" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874, of 3411'54 square miles, exclusive of the larger rivers. The Census Report of 1872 disclosed a total population of 2,149,972 souls. For the pur-

poses of the Census, the total area of the District was taken at 3476 square miles; and for the sake of uniformity I have adopted this number as the basis of all calculations for population averages. The Civil Station and administrative head-quarters of the District is Rangpur town, situated in 25° 44' 55" north latitude and 89° 17' 40" east longitude. Within the same municipal limits is Mahiganj, the largest town in the District, which lies three or four miles to the south-east of the Civil Station.

**Boundaries.**—The District is bounded on the north by the District of Jalpaiguri and the semi-independent native state of Kuch Behar, on the east by the Brahmaputra river and the Districts of Goalpára and Maimansinh, on the south by Bográ District, and on the east by the Districts of Dinajpur and Jalpaiguri.

**Jurisdiction and Brief Historical Sketch.**—The tract comprised within the British District of Rangpur was formerly the western part of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. This realm appears to have attained its greatest prosperity under Rájá Nilámbar, who was treacherously overthrown, about the close of the fifteenth century, by Husáín Sháh, king of Bengal. On the conquest of the independent kingdom of Bengal by the Afghán general Sher Sháh, subsequently Emperor of Dehli, Rangpur was apparently incorporated with the empire. During the turbulent period which followed the death of Sher Sháh, it threw off allegiance to Dehli, and was ruled for about forty years by aboriginal princes of the Koch or Kuch Behar dynasty. In 1584 the district was re-annexed to the empire by Akbar, although it was not till 1660-61 that it was completely subjugated by the generals of Aurangzeb. Thereupon the district was re-named Fakírkundi. It formed, together with the parganá of Kundí in the sarkár of Bájuháya, and the chaklí of Gorághát, the Province of Rangpur as it was constituted when it passed under the rule of the East India Company, by the fardán of the Emperor Sháh Alam in 1765. Within the same jurisdiction was also comprised the extensive district of Rángámáti, which lay on both sides of the river Brahmaputra, and stretched eastwards to the then independent kingdom of Assam. In 1773 the adjacent state of Kuch Behar became dependent on British protection, and subject to the payment of a tribute of half its annual revenues into the Rangpur treasury.
RANGPUR INSURRECTION OF 1783

The records of the earlier years of our administration present a typical picture of the general condition of the country at the time of, and for many years subsequent to, the accession of the East India Company to the diwání or financial administration of Bengal.

The following account of an insurrection among the peasantry, caused by the tyranny and exactions of the native revenue farmer, and of the disturbed state of the Province, as set forth in the old records, is condensed from an excellent report on the District by the Collector, Mr. Glazier (1873):—

'The Districts of Rangpur, Dinajpur, and Idrakpur were let out in farm for the years 1781-83 to a Muhammadan, at a government rental considerably above the old assessment. The diwán (finance minister) of Dinajpur, Rájá Debi Sinh, became surety for the farmer, and in the end revealed himself as the real principal. Large balances accrued in 1781, owing to bad management; and in the following year the cultivators (aided by the landholders, who had been ousted from possession when their lands were let out in farm) enforced deductions of nearly four lâkhs of rupees (£40,000). In the end there was discovered a balance of about six lâkhs of rupees (£60,000); and to realize this deficit before the expiration of his lease, the farmer had recourse to every means that lay in his power.

'In January 1783 the Rangpur cultivators suddenly rose in rebellion, and drove out the revenue officers. They set forth their grievances in a statement submitted to the Collector of the District, who, on hearing of the rising, had made an attempt to appease them. They complained of the levy of a tax known as darivillá, the nature of which does not clearly appear, and also of the discount they had to pay for the exchange of local or naráyaní rupees into Arcot rupees, in which their rental was payable. The Collector agreed to revert to the previous revenue demand, and the cultivators expressed themselves satisfied, and apparently dispersed. This concession, however, did not dispose of the question of the large balances which had accumulated, and the malcontents soon again assembled in larger numbers than before. They forced the cultivators of Kuch Behar to join them, and sent parties into Dinajpur to raise the people there. The insurgents committed several murders, and issued a proclamation that they would pay no more revenue. One of the leaders assumed the title of Nawáb; and a
tax called *dingkarchá*, or sedition tax, was levied for the expenses of the insurrection.

'Matters now looked serious, and active measures were taken to put down the rising. Forces of *barkandás* were sent out in various directions, and several encounters took place. In an attempt to burn Mughulhát, the self-styled Nawáb's forces were defeated, and the Nawáb himself wounded and taken prisoner. A party of sepoys under Lieutenant Macdonald marched to the north against the principal body of insurgents. A decisive engagement was fought near Patgrám on the 22d February 1783. The sepoys disguised themselves by wearing white clothes over their uniform, and by that means got close to the rebels, who were utterly defeated; sixty were left dead on the field, and many others were wounded and taken prisoners.

'Two Commissions sat to inquire into this insurrection, and it was not till February 1789, in the time of Lord Cornwallis, that the final orders of Government were issued. The loss of the large outstanding balances fell principally, if not wholly, upon Rája Debi Sinh, but, with the exception of the loss of his money, he escaped scot free. Har Rám, a native of Rangpur, who had been the sub-farmer under Debi Sinh, and whose oppressions had brought about the rising, was sentenced to imprisonment for one year, and after its expiration to be banished from the Districts of Rangpur and Dinajpur. Five ringleaders of the insurgents were also banished.'

The general state of the District at the close of the last century is thus described in Mr. Glazier's Report:—'Rangpur, as a frontier District bordering on Nepál, Bhutan, Kuch Behar, and Assam, was peculiarly liable to be infested by banditti, who ravaged the country in armed bands numbering several hundreds. Bhitárbánd and Swaráppur, detached portions of Rájsháhí, offered great facilities for refuge. In 1784 a military force was despatched against several "herds of *dákaitis*," one of which infested the road between Dinajpur and Rangpur. The tract of country lying south of the stations of Dinajpur and Rangpur, and west of the present District of Bográ, towards the Ganges, was a favourite haunt of these banditti, being far removed from any central authority. In 1787, Lieutenant Brenan was employed in this quarter against a notorious leader of *dákaitis* (gang robbers), named Bhawáni Pathak. He despatched a native officer, with twenty-four sepoys, in search of the robbers, who surprised Pathak, with sixty
of his followers, in their boats. A fight took place, in which Pathak himself and three of his lieutenants were killed, and eight wounded, besides forty-two taken prisoners. Pathak was a native of Bajpur, and was in league with another noted dákáit, named Majnu Śháh, who made yearly raids from the southern side of the Ganges. We catch a glimpse from the Lieutenant’s report of a female dákáit, by name Debi Chaudhráni, also in league with Pathak. She lived in boats, had a large force of barkandázs in her pay, and committed dákáitís on her own account, besides receiving a share of the booty obtained by Pathak. Her title of Chaudhráni would imply that she was a zamindárs, probably a petty one, else she need not have lived in boats for fear of capture. Regarding the complicity of the landowners with the dákáitís, Lieutenant Brenan makes the following observations:—“The principal zamindárs in most parts of these Districts have always a banditti ready to let loose on such of their unfortunate neighbours as have any property worth seizing, and even the lives of the unhappy sufferers are seldom spared. The zamindárs commit these outrages with the most perfect security, as there is no reward offered for their detection, and, from the dependence of the dákáitís upon them, they cannot be detected without bribery.”

‘In 1789 we have an account of a large body of bandits who had occupied the Baikunthpur forest, which lies at the apex of the District, right under the hills, whence they issued on their predatory excursions. The forest was composed of tree-jungle interwoven with cane, and was impassable except by narrow winding paths, known only to the dákáitís. The Collector got together a force of two hundred barkandázs, and held all the entrances into this forest. Some months elapsed before any decisive result was obtained. Several skirmishes ensued. The robbers were at length starved out; some escaped into Nepál and Bhútán, but great numbers were captured, including their leader and several of his principal associates. Within twelve months, in this and other parts of the District, the Collector arrested and brought to trial 549 dákáitís.

‘Large bodies of Sanyásís traversed the District, levying contributions on the villagers. In 1782 we read of a body of seven hundred persons, consisting of Sanyásís and Musalmán jákirs, with horses, camels, elephants, and arms of all kinds. Lieutenant Macdonald was sent against them with 180 sepoys, and he brought in the leaders of the gang, but their followers escaped into the hills. Three years later, as many as 1500 crossed the Brahmaputra at Díwánganj; they had
rockets, *jinjal* pieces, and 110 horses. Besides these wandering thieves, there were numbers of Sanyásis who settled down in hermitages, which they fortified, and where they carried on their trade of money-lending, combined with *dakáiti*. A report to the Board of Revenue, dated 29th April 1789, makes mention of the seizure of two *dakáit* boats of 80 and 100 cubits in length, belonging to head Sanyásis, and gives a detailed account of the oppressions practised by these scourges, not only on the cultivators but on the *samíndárs* and their officers, whom they carried off and confined until their demands were satisfied.

'The sepoy officers had full occupation in dealing with local insurrections, gangs of *dakáits*, raids from Nepál, and troubles in Kuch Behar. The *barkandás* establishment employed in the District numbered three hundred men, afterwards reduced to half that strength after the successful operations of the Collector against the *dakáits*. In addition to this establishment, a native officer and twenty-five sepoys were stationed at Baikunthpur, and a like force at Dimlá. Boundary disputes between the *samíndárs* of adjoining Districts cropped up in abundance, sometimes resulting in riots and loss of life.'

Such was the state of Rangpur ninety years ago. At the present day it is a quiet Bengal District,—not a single soldier is stationed there, and such a thing as armed opposition to Government authority is unknown. Landed disputes, caused by the ever-changing currents of the Brahmaputra, are still numerous; but instead of being decided by club-law, as formerly, they are submitted to the peaceful arbitrament of the civil courts. By the close of the last century the improved administration which we had given to the people made itself felt. Order was firmly maintained; and since that time Rangpur has rapidly advanced in prosperity. Organized gang robberies and agrarian crimes have been repressed by the increased efficiency of the police. Education has been diffused among the people. The revenue has largely developed, while a very much greater sum is now spent on the civil government. The progress of the District will be fully dealt with in a subsequent section of this Account, when I come to treat of the Administrative Statistics.

**Changes in Jurisdiction.**—Numerous changes have taken place in the jurisdiction of Rangpur since it passed under British administration in 1765, in consequence of which the District area has been
much diminished. Rángámáti and Dhubró, which, under the name of North Rangpur, were formerly included in the District, have been erected into the new District of Godálpárá, now included in the adjacent Province of Assam. Govindganj Fiscal Division, formerly included in Rangpur, has been transferred to Bográ; and the following thirteen Fiscal Divisions transferred from Bográ to Rangpur:— Kábílpur, Baháman-Kundá, Khámár Mahal, Babanpur, Mukhtipur, Sultánpur, Kháś Táluk, Bájitpur, Palásbári, Sikshar, Barisákpála, Kunj Gorághát, and Maimunthpur. The three police circuits (thándás) of Fákírganj, Bodá, and Sányásíkatá were transferred to the newly-formed District of Jalpáigúr from the commencement of 1869. The thánda of Pátígrám was also separated from Rangpur and added to Jalpáigúr from the 1st April 1870. The criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions of Rangpur are not conterminous. Thus, the criminal jurisdiction comprises an area of 3411'54 square miles, after a deduction of 123'2 square miles for the basins of large navigable rivers; while the revenue area, after a similar deduction, amounts to 3720 square miles. The difference between the criminal and revenue jurisdictions arises from a portion of párgáná Pátíládáhá being borne on the rent-roll of Rangpur, while it lies within the criminal jurisdiction of thánda Diónánjan in Maimansinh District. The civil jurisdiction of Rangpur extends over the whole of the neighbouring District of Bográ.

Physical Aspects and Superficial Configuration.—The District is one vast plain, without natural elevations of any kind. The greater part of it, particularly towards the east, is of a low level; and the Collector estimates that upwards of a third of the total area is inundated during the rainy season. The general inclination of the surface is from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the flow of the great rivers, the Brahmaputra, Tístá, Karatóyá, and Dharlá. Besides these main channels, the whole District is intersected by a network of water-courses, forming cross lines of communication between the great rivers. The District contains, also, numerous jhils, or small stagnant sheets of water or marshes, found either in the deserted channels of streams, or formed by the overflowing of springs. The numbers and position of these jhils vary considerably at different times, the old ones either silting up, or becoming gradually obliterated by accumulations of decaying vegetation; while new ones are continually being formed by alterations in the courses of the rivers, or from other
causes. In 1871 the Collector reported that these marshes were becoming less numerous and smaller in size than formerly. They still form, however, a source of unhealthiness; and their reclamation, besides adding considerably to the cultivable area of the District, would be the greatest sanitary benefit that could be conferred upon the people. The northern portion of Rangpur (from the Civil Station northwards) abounds in large sandy plains, alternated with low loam and clay rice lands.

River System.—Although the District is traversed by a network of streams and water-courses in every direction, the only rivers navigable throughout the year by trading boats of a hundred maunds, or from three to four tons burden, are the Brahmaputra and the Tistá (Trisrotá); and the navigation of the latter river is dangerous in the cold season, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its point of junction with the Brahmaputra. All the rivers of Rangpur are navigable by boats of about fifty maunds (2 tons) burden in the rainy season. Owing to the number of the channels, their frequent changes of course, and the varying names for the same stream in different places, it would be hopeless to attempt a detailed description of all the rivers in the District.

Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in his ms. materials for Rangpur, written about the year 1809, thus describes the difficulty he experienced in properly tracing the rivers:—‘Since the survey was made by Major Rennell (about thirty years ago), the rivers of this District have undergone such changes that I find the utmost difficulty in tracing them. The soil is so light, and the rivers in descending from the mountains have acquired such force, that frequent and great changes are unavoidable. Old channels have been swept away, and new ones are constantly forming. The nomenclature is therefore exceedingly difficult. After tracing the name of a river for some distance, you all of a sudden lose it, and perhaps recover the same name at a distance of twenty miles, while many large rivers intervene, and no channel remains to assist in the discovery of the former connection. The old channels have not only lost their current of water, but have been entirely obliterated by cultivation, or by beds of sand thrown into them by newly-formed rivers. In some instances different portions of the same river remain, while others have been lost, and the intervals are filled up by new channels; so that apparently the same river has various names in different parts of its course. The confusion that has arisen from
these circumstances is so great, that Major Rennell seems to have been overpowered, or unwilling to waste time in the investigation, and, owing to the contradictory accounts given by the natives, to have altogether avoided giving names to many of the rivers.' The following is a brief description of the principal rivers of Rangpur, with their chief tributaries and offshoots.

The Brahmaputra flows along the eastern boundary of the District, separating it from Gálpárá and Maimansinh Districts. Many tracts of alluvial land, however, on the east bank of the Brahmaputra belong to Rangpur, owing to the shifting character of the channel of the river; some also on the western bank are included within the jurisdiction of Gálpárá. The Brahmaputra first touches the District in its north-east corner at Majhiáli, about eight miles south-west of Dhúibri, the headquarters of a Subdivision in the neighbouring District of Gálpárá. It then skirts the eastern boundary, flowing almost due south for about eighty miles, till it finally leaves Rangpur at a village called Nalchíá, in the extreme south-eastern corner of the District. The Brahmaputra is capable of floating native trading-boats of large burden throughout the year; and the light draught of the Assam steamers permits them to proceed up and down the river at all seasons. At times, however, the navigation is somewhat difficult. In the rainy months the current is remarkably strong; whilst in the dry season the large number of shoals and sandbanks which obstruct the channel renders the navigation difficult. The banks of the river are either abrupt or shelving, according as the current sets from one side of the stream or the other; the bed is sandy. The most noticeable features on this great river are the immense number of islands and sandbanks formed by its current, and the constant changes they undergo. On this subject I quote the following from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's ms. Statistical Survey of Rangpur (1809) — 'The islands of the Brahmaputra and its low banks are undergoing constant changes. Wherever its current is directed against their sandy sides, they are undermined and swept away. But as the force of the current is always confined to a small portion of the channel, the sand thus carried away is deposited the moment it happens to escape out of the most rapid parts of the stream; and this deposition increases rapidly whenever, from the accumulation of sand, the stream is more completely diverted to other parts. The sand is often so rapidly deposited that it rises almost level with the inundation, and
in such cases must always continue barren. In general, however, when the water over a newly-formed sand becomes entirely stagnant, the clay and earth that are held in suspension in the muddy stream immediately subside. This, however, does not often happen in the first year; at least the quantity of silt then deposited is usually small, and only enables tamarisks and reeds to take root, which they do with astonishing vigour, and give some degree of stability to the new land. The quantity of soil deposited in three or four years is usually sufficient to render the soil fit for cultivation, and to raise it to within a foot or two of the level of the floods. It is evident that a deposition from the river can never raise it higher, although the dust collected by wind around bushes raises some few spots a few inches above the high water-mark. The surface, however, of these islands and banks is by no means level, but undulating, so that some parts are nearly on a level with the surface of the water in the highest floods, while others are covered to a depth of twenty feet. Nor can this occasion wonder, if we consider the irregular manner in which the deposit must take place, owing to differences in the stillness of various parts of the water. Subsequent floods, if continued for ages, would no doubt bring the whole to a level, by gradually depositing much mud where the depth of water was great, and none where the soil had risen to the level of high water-mark. But time is, perhaps, nowhere allowed for such tedious operations, and there are probably very few spots in these inundated parts that have continued for a century without having been swept away. The changes noticed by Buchanan Hamilton upwards of half a century ago are still going on, and shiftings of the river channels are as frequent as ever. For some years past, the Brahmaputra has been steadily encroaching on its right or western bank. Mr. Collector Glazier, in his Report on the District in 1873, states: 'At Chilmári the police station has been twice removed farther inland within five years; and at Kálīganj a large brick house belonging to a Calcutta firm, which was situated more than a mile from the river bank, has been washed into the stream, which is still breaking away westwards.' The principal tributaries of the Brahmaputra on its western bank, within Rangpur District, are the Tístá, Dharlá, Sankos, and Dudhkmár.

The Tístá (Trisrotá) is the second river in importance. It enters Rangpur from Jalpágurí about six miles north of the village of Baruni, and runs across the District from north-west to south-
east, till it falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles to the south-west of Chilmári police station in Bhawaníganj Subdivision; its length is estimated at about a hundred and ten miles within Rangpur District. This river has a fine channel, from six to eight hundred yards wide, containing a large volume of water at all times of the year, and a rapid current. Although reported capable of floating large trading boats of a hundred maund, or between three and four tons burden, at all seasons, navigation is said to be difficult in the cold weather, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra. Several islands and sandbanks are formed by the current, but these are fewer in number and of much smaller size than those in the Brahmaputra. The bed of the river is of sand. The lower part of the Tistá, from Kapásiá to Nalgañj-hát, is also called the Paglá river. The Tistá is noted for frequent and violent changes in its course; and many old channels are found, such as the Chhotá Tistá, Burá Tistá, and Mará Tistá, each of which at one time must have formed the main channel of the river, but which are now deserted, and only navigable in the rainy season. At the time of Major Rennell’s Survey, the main stream of the Tistá flowed south instead of south-east as at present, joined the Atráí, river in Dináipur, and finally fell into the Padmá or Ganges. In the destructive floods of 1794 B.S., or 1787 A.D., which form an epoch in the history of Rangpur, the stream suddenly forsook its channel, and turned its waters into a small branch marking an ancient bed of the same river; running south-east into the Brahmaputra, it forced its way through the fields and over the country in every direction, and filled the Ghághát, Manás, and other rivers to overflowing. An account of this inundation, and its disastrous effects will be given on a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the natural calamities of the District. It is impossible to say when the Tistá had previously deserted its ancient channel, to which it reverted in 1787. Since the great change of that year, the river has made for itself another channel. The collector, Mr. Glazier, states: ‘In the early part of this century, it [the Tistá] forsook a westward bend of about forty miles in the upper part of its course, taking a less circuitous bend in the opposite direction. It has since adhered to the course then formed, but with alarming encroachments on its sandy banks in several places. A large mart, Gorámárá, on the western bank, has been pushed gradually backward, until not a vestige remains of the village from which it takes its name.’ The
confusion in the nomenclature of the rivers to the west of the District is mainly caused by these frequent changes in the course of the Tistá. The Tistá receives numerous small tributary streams from the north-west, and also throws off many offshoots of more or less importance. The largest of these is the Ghághát. The Manás is a branch of the Tistá, which again joins the parent stream after a winding course of about twenty-five miles.

The Dharlá, another tributary of the Brahmaputra, is a branch of the Torshá river, from which it bifurcates in Kuch Behar. It first touches on Rangpur at the village of Durgápur, where it receives the waters of the Jáládhákán river from Kuch Behar, the united stream running on as the Dharlá. For a few miles this river marks the boundary between Rangpur and Kuch Behar. It then turns south and enters the District. After a course of a few miles, it receives the waters of the Torshá, its parent stream, whence it flows in a tortuous south-easterly course till it falls into the Brahmaputra at Bagwá. The bed of this river is sandy, and the current rapid; and numerous shallows and shifting sands render navigation extremely difficult. The banks are low and shelving, and the river is liable to constant changes of course; length in its course through Rangpur District, 55 miles. The following description of this river is taken from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's ms. Report on Rangpur. It must be remembered, however, that it refers to a period of upwards of half a century ago, and many of the statements may, therefore, be inapplicable at the present time: 'Concerning the upper part of the course of the Dharlá, I received no intelligence on which I could depend. From [Kuch] Behar it enters the Company's territory of Pátgrám as a river with a large winding channel, which in the dry season contains a small clear stream, not generally navigable, but which during the floods is occasionally frequented by boats of two hundred manáts [about seven tons] burden. If, however, a few fair days occur, the boats are liable to be left dry. It passes through the Pátgrám Division for about fifteen miles, and then re-enters [Kuch] Behar, from whence it returns very much enlarged into the Division of Barábári. Soon after the time of Major Rennell's survey, it would seem to have received the greater part of the Torshá. For some miles it forms the boundary between Barábári and Behar, and here has on its right bank a considerable mart, named Mughul-hát. The river at this mart has for some years been diminishing, owing to part of the Torshá having been directed to other channels; but
boats of three hundred *maunds* [about ten tons] burden can still [1809] ascend the river thus far at all seasons. From the place where both banks of the Dharlá belong to the Company, the river passes for fourteen miles through the Division of Barábári, but winds exceedingly in its course.

'The banks of the rivers in this District are scarcely anywhere higher than the other parts of the country; on the contrary, they are in general very low. And the inundation, far from raising the ground by a deposit of sediment, seems gradually to be sinking the rivers deeper and deeper below the level of the plains, which, in a country so well supplied with rain, is a fortunate circumstance. In this part of the course of the Dharlá I had a satisfactory proof of this circumstance. I saw three different channels which the river has occupied successively, of which the oldest is the highest, and the most recent is the lowest. On this part of the course of the Dharlá is a large mart named Kulághát. Immediately above this, the Dharlá receives a small river, the Kotnayí. After having passed through Barábári, and having reached the boundary of the Nakeswari Division, the Dharlá receives a river that is wider than itself, but its stream is not so rapid. It is named the Nilkumár; but in some parts of its course it is called the Burá (old) Dharlá, which would imply that it had at one period been a channel of the Dharlá. There is no mart on its banks; and after it enters the Dharlá, that river proceeds by a very circuitous course to join the Brahmaputra, distant about fifteen miles. A few miles below its junction with the Nilkumár, the Dharlá divides into two channels, which after a short course re-unite, forming an island opposite Kuríganj. On this lower course of the Dharlá are five marts,—Bhadágá, Panchgáchhi, Mughulbachhá, Kuríganj, and Beguyá, from which goods are im- ported and exported at all seasons. The river does not increase in depth as it approaches the Brahmaputra, and has a bar across its mouth, which in the dry season prevents the entrance of large boats.'

The Sankos enters Rangpur District from Kuch Behar at a place called Tildí, flows a tortuous southerly course for about forty-eight running miles, and falls into the Brahmaputra near a little village called Chhotá Paikár. Another branch of the same river also falls into the Brahmaputra a mile or so higher up than the one first mentioned.

The Dudhkumar, the only other tributary of the Brahmaputra deserving of mention, enters Rangpur District at a place called
Musaldángá, and flows a general south-easterly course till it falls into the Brahmaputra at Nunkházáwá.

The Karatoyá is the most important river in the west of the District. It formed the boundary between the Bengal and Kámrúp kingdoms at the time of the Mahábhárat, and since that epoch has generally marked the eastern limit of the rule of the successive Bengal dynasties. The numerous changes in the course of the Tístá have left in the west of the District a maze of old water-courses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of the former rivers. In many parts of its course the Karatoyá is still known as the Burá or Old Tístá; and the broad sandy channel in many places indicates the route followed by the Tístá, before the great changes caused by the inundation in 1787. The present Karatoyá forms for some distance the boundary between Rangpur and Dinajpur, then crosses Gobindganj tháná and passes into Bográ District. In its course through Rangpur it receives two tributaries from the east, each of greater volume than itself, the Sarbamangálá and Jubáneswárí.

The Ghaghát flows through the centre of the District. It was formerly an important branch of the Tístá, and, previous to the change in the course of that river at the close of last century, was a main channel of communication. Its opening from the Tístá at Naháli, however, has now nearly silted up. It flows thence in a south-easterly direction, with a very winding channel and a sluggish stream, till it passes into Bográ District at Aguntári, after a course of about 114 running miles through Rangpur. In the lower parts of its course the Ghaghát receives the name first of the Aláí, and then of the Bengálí river.

The Manás, a branch of the Tístá, leaves the parent stream at Kállágáchhi, and empties itself into the same river again after running a course of about thirty miles. The beds of this and of the above-mentioned river are of sand; banks sloping, and not liable to any sudden or violent changes of course.

The Gujaria is a considerable channel which breaks off from the Tístá shortly before that river falls into the Brahmaputra. It flows in a southerly direction for about thirty miles, when it bifurcates, one branch falling into the Brahmaputra, the other, under the name of the Murá Manás, taking a south-westerly course, till it falls into the Bengálí river just south of the point where the latter stream passes from Rangpur into Bográ District.
The foregoing is a brief description of the principal rivers and streams; but the District is everywhere interlaced with innumerable small creeks and water-courses, all of which are navigable by native boats of fifty mounds, or say two tons burden, in the rainy season. None of the rivers are fordable in the rainy season; and the Brahmaputra and Tístá are nowhere fordable at any time of the year. The police returns show the loss of life in Rangpur from drowning for the three years ending 1869 as follows:—In 1867, 87; in 1868, 113; in 1869, 142: average for the three years, 114. These, however, are only the cases reported to the police; and the real loss of life from drowning is probably much greater than here set down. In the year 1871-72, 118 ferries were maintained on the different rivers in Rangpur District, and farmed out in that year for the sum of £2257.

River-side Towns.—Many large villages in Rangpur District, situated on the banks of the Brahmaputra, Tístá, Dharlá, and Sankos, are inhabited by communities maintained principally by river traffic. These villages serve as dépôts, where the produce of the District is collected and bought up by wealthy mahdjans or merchants, who ship it in country boats to Calcutta, Sirájganj, or elsewhere. A list of the principal of these river trading-marts will be found on page 309.

Lakes, Marshes, etc.—Rangpur District contains numerous broad sheets of stagnant water or marshes, called jhils or bils, principally formed by the numerous changes which have taken place in the channels of the larger rivers, particularly the Tístá. These marshes are gradually becoming shallower, and are diminishing both in size and number. Most of them are covered with a thick crust of decaying aquatic vegetation. The decay of these plants, together with the deposit of silt washed down from the high lands, causes the marshes gradually to fill up. The largest of these marshes in Rangpur are the following:—(1) Barábil, (2) Chaurddá Bhuban, (3) Nalagáchhí, (4) Chiklí, (5) Kukrul, and (6) Hatíár. There are no canals or artificial water-courses in the District.

Utilization of the Water Supply.—None of the rivers or streams are utilized as a motive power for turning machinery, nor have they sufficient fall to render it likely that they could be so applied, by the construction of dams or weirs. River water is scarcely if ever used for irrigation, the ordinary rainfall being in general amply sufficient for the purpose.
MARSH CULTIVATION AND RECLAMATION.—No rivers or marshes are embanked for the purpose of extending cultivation; and the Collector (1871) is of opinion that any interference with the general drainage of the country by the construction of such embankments would result in more harm than good. The river banks and marshes are nowhere utilized as reed or cane producing grounds, nor do they appear to possess any capabilities for such cultivation. The long-stemmed description of rice is cultivated in many of the Rangpur marshes and low lands. The seventeen principal varieties of this rice are as follow:—(1) Byat, (2) singriá, (3) kálámaná, (4) bagdázhul, (5) bagá, (6) dhepá, (7) barpání-sáií, (8) kháll-sáni-byát, (9) kásíhár, (10) dhulámaná, (11) dulái, (12) mágrí, (13) chánpághári, (14) bángál-dáriyá, (15) kándiswás, (16) bódpágrí, and (17) dal-kachu. Of the foregoing list, the eight first-named kinds thrive in from seven to eight feet of water, while the last nine grow in a depth of twelve feet of water without danger of being destroyed, provided that they are not entirely submerged for any length of time by a sudden rise of the flood.

FISHERIES.—There are no regular fishing towns in Rangpur District, although fishing is carried on to a large extent by many of the poorer cultivators all over the District, as well as by professional fishermen. The Collector in 1871 estimated the proportion of the inhabitants living by fishing to be about one-twentieth of the total population of the District. According to the Census of 1872, this would give a total fishing population of 107,498. The Collector's estimate seems to be much too low, for the Census returned the number of Hindu fishing and boating castes at 162,447, exclusive of the Muhammadans, who form a considerable majority, or 60 per cent., of the District population. The Collector has been unable to obtain any accurate information regarding the value of the fisheries. As regards the ordinary modes of catching fish followed by the cultivators and professional fishermen of Rangpur, I quote the following in a somewhat condensed form from Buchanan Hamilton's ms. Account of Rangpur before cited:—

'In every ditch where there is a considerable drain from a rice field, and in every small rivulet draining from the marshes, the cultivators construct a dam or fence of bamboo, sticks and reeds, or sometimes of earth, which not only prevents the passage of the fish, but also impedes in some degree the escape of the water until it rises to the level of the adjacent fields. They then dig three or
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four narrow semicircular trenches, which convey the water from the higher to the lower part of the channel. The fish must pass through these narrow channels in going from the higher part to the lower, as the water falls, and are caught in traps called *thorká*, placed at the lower ends of the semicircular canals. This trap is a conical basket gradually lengthened out to a point, so that the fish on reaching its far end cannot turn to escape. A smaller kind of cylindrical basket, called *dengru*, is often used instead of the *thorká*, the fish being prevented from escaping by a row of flexible split bamboos converging to a point within its mouth, as in a mouse-trap. In rivulets with a large or rapid current, *thorká* traps fourteen or fifteen feet in length are often used. A dam is made across the stream with a breach in it just sufficient to receive the mouth of the *thorká*, and the fish follow the stream until they are no longer able to turn within the trap.

The Rajbansis catch fish in shallow ditches and rivulets by a somewhat similar contrivance. A trap is placed in the stream, called a *dhangl*, constructed of split bamboos, and having a mouth six or eight feet in length and one and a half or two feet wide. It slopes to an edge behind from two to three feet broad. The fish that enter are prevented from returning by a row of split bamboos placed as in a mouse-trap. The fish are shaken out of the cage by a hole in one corner, which is plugged when the trap is set. Where there is any current, the fish enter of their own accord; but they are often collected from a whole marsh and driven towards the trap, by dragging through the water a rope made of plantain-tree leaves. The regular fishermen in the smaller rivers in the eastern part of the District trap fish in the following manner. A dam is thrown obliquely across the river, constructed of bamboos, sticks, and mats, so as not to retain all the water, but to raise it about a foot higher than the level below the dam. Near the lower end of this dam is left an opening about two feet wide, and below this is a channel about twenty feet long. The sides of this channel are secured by posts and mats; and the floor, which consists of closely-laid bamboo, is raised a little higher than the level of the river below, and a little lower than its level above the dam. All fish attempting to go down the river follow the current through the opening in the dam; by the time they reach the lower end of the channel they are left dry, and are taken out by the fishermen who are on the watch.

The method of catching fish by collecting them among the
branches of trees thrown into stagnant water is largely practised in Rangpur, and most of the fish taken in Chilmárl and other tracts near the Brahmaputra are captured in this manner. Large quantities of branches are thrown in until they reach the surface, and are held down by weights. After they have remained submerged for six or seven days, bamboo stakes are driven all round, and a net is fastened to them deep enough to reach from the surface to the bottom, and long enough to completely surround the stakes. The branches are then thrown out and the fish drawn on shore. At one water-course I saw eleven men at work in this manner. They seemed to draw one heap almost every day, and did no other work, the fish being bought from them on the spot. The chák is a net, the framework of which consists of a hoop to which four bamboos are fixed in the form of a cone. A conical net is fastened to the hoop, and its corner to the angle where the bamboos unite. When this net has been placed on the mud over a fish, the corner is dropped, which prevents the fish from moving, and it is at once caught. Large fish, such as boyall, chítál, dří, and mirgál are taken by this contrivance.

The simplest sort of net used by fishermen consists of a mesh stretched between two bamboos, which meet at an acute angle behind. This net, called phutí, is only used for catching small fish. The fisherman wades in shallow water, and pushes the net before him. The pahá is used for catching large fish, such as the ilis or hilsá, rítá, ruhí, kochá, and pangás. The net, which is stretched between two bamboos of eleven or twelve cubits in length, is worked from a boat, the fisherman lowering and raising it by his hands. The anghá is a net of the same size, and is used in the same manner as the foregoing, but the mesh is smaller. Both nets can be used at all seasons and in every part of the great rivers. The jantá is a net raised and lowered from a framework of bamboos. The net lasts for about two years; but the apparatus, which is more costly, must be renewed each fishing season, which usually lasts from the middle of August to the middle of December, that is, from the time when the inundations commence to subside, until the country is dry. The mouth of the net is placed so as to receive the water which drains from the fields into marshes or small streams.

Three varieties of casting nets are used: (1) A small net with a radius of six or seven feet, a small mesh, and iron sinkers. In the Brahmaputra or large rivers it is always used from a boat, one man paddling and the other throwing the net. In marshes and small
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Streams the net is usually thrown from the bank. The fish taken by this means are of small size. (2) A net with a wide mesh, and fifteen or sixteen feet in radius. It is used only from a boat and on the larger rivers, being managed in the same manner as the net first described. Large fish are caught by this net, such as the ruhti, katla, chital, mirgdi, dri, and boyudi. (3) A large net cast by means of a boat, and called othar. Seines or drag-nets of various kinds are also in use. In some parts the fishermen use a seine usually composed of nine pieces, each thirty feet long and about four feet wide. The floats are made of khagrâ reeds, and the sinkers of baked clay. These pieces separately are called tonalangi, but when joined together the whole net is called ber. Three men are usually employed in managing such a net, and each brings three portions of it; they unite in paying the hire of the canoe or boat. One man manages the boat, a second holds one end of the net, while the third takes a sweep with the other end; the net is then drawn on shore. It is only used near the banks of the rivers where the water is of no great depth, or in shallow marshes or lakes. In some parts a smaller seine is used, called gondla. It is about thirty cubits long by four broad, and is used by one man, who fastens one end of it to a stake and takes a sweep with the other. It is never used where the water is of a greater depth than two or three feet. Another description of net is like a large deep seine, from forty-five to eighty yards long and four or five deep, with floats and sinkers and a large mesh. It is used sometimes merely as a stationary net, being stretched from side to side of a river or water-course. The fishermen then go to a distance on both sides, and paddle towards the net in their canoes, making all the noise they can by splashing in the water. The fish stick in the meshes of the net. At other times, where the river is too wide for a single net to stretch from bank to bank, two separate nets are used, and five canoes are employed, one at each end of each of the nets, and one that remains between the two nets. One-half of each net is stowed in the stern of the canoe by which it is held. The two sets of boats commence operations by separating about forty or fifty yards apart. They then throw out their nets, the canoes belonging to each rowing straight away from each other, so as to leave the nets in two parallel straight lines, with the fifth canoe in the centre. The boatmen then begin to paddle so as to form their nets into semicircles, after which the two boats belonging to each net row towards each other, splashing.
the water as much as possible until they meet. They then lash
their boats together, and draw the nets into their sterns, bringing
up the head and foot ropes of the net joined together. After the
whole is drawn, the net is overhauled, and the fish, which are
sticking in the meshes, are taken out. In rivers it is the upper net
which takes by far the greater quantity of fish, and the middle
canoe attends to that alone, and splashes opposite to the opening
as the two canoes at its ends paddle towards each other. This
seems to be a good plan of fishing in rivers or lakes where the banks
are too steep for drawing the seine. The fish that I saw taken in
this manner were about four pounds in weight.

‘In the Brahmaputra during the rainy season, from the middle of
April to the middle of August, a floating net called obat is used. It
consists of three pieces, each thirty-six yards long and three and a
quarter broad, with a wide mesh. The net is paid out from the
stem of a canoe, one side being floated by gourds, while the other
sinks with its own weight. It is drawn into the boat every hour,
and the fish left sticking in the meshes are secured. The net is
worked from one boat manned by two men.

‘Besides traps and nets, the harpoon or spear is used for catching
fish. The Ganrars, a low caste of Hindus, who kill crocodiles,
turtles, and otters, catch fish also with the harpoon. With the same
weapon used for killing the otter, these men strike large fish, such
as the ruhi, katuda, mahâdîl, chitâl, âri, kocha, boydîl, gajal, sâil, etc.
In the rainy season they attract the fish to their boats by means of
torches. In the dry season they watch near shallow places where
there are many fry, and when a large fish comes to prey, he is
transfixed. The same fishermen also use a small harpoon with four
slender prongs, which floats, and is darted along the surface of the
water to kill a small mullet which swims with its eyes above water.
This is done at all seasons.

‘Rod fishing is practised by all classes. The rod used is a
bamboo, which has very little flexibility. The line is either silk or
kinkhuri (Urtica rives), tied to the end of the rod, without any reel
to lengthen or shorten it. The hook is suspended from a float,
and baited with a worm for the cyprinidae, and with a frog for the
larger siluridae or pimelodes, which are the two most common classes
of fish. The use of artificial flies is totally unknown.

‘In most parts the regular fisherman pays a duty to the proprietor
of the estate through which the stream passes. Some rivers, how-
FORESTS.

cver, are entirely free, as having been the boundary between two large estates. The rates and method of assessment differ in almost every estate, and it would be endless to detail them. The rent is sometimes levied by so much on each man, sometimes by so much on each net, sometimes in proportion to the extent of water, and sometimes according to the quantity of fish taken. The two former methods are most usual on the great rivers, and the two latter in marshes, small rivers, and water-courses. The landlords very seldom receive the rents directly from the fishermen, but generally farm their fisheries to persons for a fixed sum, and these latter levy the rates on the fishermen, according to the custom of the estate. In general, the duties seem moderate enough, and except at one place I heard no complaint on the part of the fishermen.' A list of fishes will be found on pages 202–204.

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—The general drainage of Rangpur is from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the course of the principal rivers. The river banks being generally higher than the surrounding country, the surface drainage first finds its way into the jhils and marshes, and thence by small streams into the large rivers. The soil of the District being principally sandy, the water is rapidly absorbed.

No MINERALS, coal, or building stone occur in Rangpur District; nor are there any caverns, hot springs, or interesting phenomena, such as picturesque gorges or passes.

FORESTS. — There are no important or large revenue-yielding forests in the present District of Rangpur. A short distance south of the village of Baripárá, in the police circuit (tháná) of Phuranbári, there is a sál forest of about six miles in circumference. It is private property; and the Collector in 1871 reported to me that he was unable to ascertain its annual value, as the trees were not then sold by the proprietor. Another forest, called the Pangá jhár, is situated close to the village of Pangá, in the police circuit of Barábári. It is eight miles in circumference, and is composed of chámá and other trees; it contains also thick canes, which are sold for sticks.

Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in his Statistical Survey of Northern Bengal, devoted special attention to the botany of the country; and it may be as well to reproduce in the following pages (but of necessity in a greatly condensed form) a list of the cultivated and forest trees enumerated by that gentleman in his ms. Report on Rangpur, prepared about the year 1809. It must be remembered, however, that
the Rangpur of Buchanan Hamilton's time included the whole of the present District of Godālpára, and a great portion of what is now included in Jalpáiguri. Many trees mentioned in the following list, therefore, are probably not met with in the tract which constitutes the existing District of Rangpur.

**Palms.**—Of the palm species, the following eleven varieties are met with:—(1) The *rdām-guyo* found in Godālpára is a different tree from the palm of the same name in Dinájpur, and is a small species of areca, with a very thin stem eight or nine feet high. It grows in moist woods. The *kumi supāri* is another small species of areca which grows in the woods of Pangá. (2) The *guyo* (Areca catechu), called the betel-nut palm by the English; is largely cultivated in this District. It is of two varieties,—the *deshwāli*, a kind peculiar to Rangpur, and the *bangālā*, a variety apparently introduced from the eastern districts of Lower Bengal. The former flowers between the middle of August and the middle of September, and ripens between the early part of February and the beginning of April. The *bangālā* variety flowers in June—July, and ripens between the middle of October and the middle of December. The *bangālā* kind is now by far the most common; indeed, the other is only cultivated in small quantities in the more remote parts of the District. (3) The cocoa-nut palm. This valuable tree, although much neglected, produces abundance of fruit in certain portions of the District. (4) The *khējur* or date-palm (Elate) is also greatly neglected, and at the present day (1874) only a few trees are found scattered here and there. The people do not seem to be acquainted with the art of tapping the tree, and of converting the juice into sugar or spirits. (5) In most parts of Rangpur the Caryota of botanists is called *chau*. It is chiefly found in thickets near villages. The tree does not grow so luxuriantly as on the Malabar coast, but it is by far the most elegant of the Bengal palms. It is hardly applied to any use, both the juice and the pith being equally neglected. In some tracts where iron is not used for the plough, a piece of this wood is often substituted, being harder than bamboo, which is also used for the same purpose. (6) Nearly related to the above is a dwarf palm which grows on the hills all the way from Godālpára to Chittagong. It is here called *karkati*, but is not applied to any use. (7) The Cycas of botanists, another palm found in this District, is sometimes erroneously classified as a fern. (8) The Licualia of Rumph is very common in the hills from
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Goálpárá to Chittagong, and is called kurup or karkali; umbrellas are sometimes made from its leaves. (9) The lantureswar tál is much neglected in this District, and the soil is not very suitable for its proper growth. (10) The bokhi of the Mechhpárá hills is a species of Elæagnus, which sometimes grows as a small tree, and sometimes climbs up others to a great height, and chokes them.

Myrobalanus.—The following five trees should be considered as belonging to one genus, which might be called Myrobalanus, as the oldest name, Terminalia, used by Linæus, is only applicable to one or two of the species. (11) The badám (Terminalia catappa, L.) is only occasionally met with in gardens. (12) The jaindál of the forests of Goálpárá grows in the woods to about three cubits in girth, and is used for making coarse articles of furniture. (13) The baurí, or Myrobalanus bellerina of Goertner, is very common both in the woods and near villages. The kernel of the fruit is eaten, and the wood is used for making boats. In the woods it is sometimes found six feet in circumference, and with spreading branches. (14) The hillá of Goálpárá is another species of Myrobalan, which grows to the same size as the foregoing; the timber is used for boat-building and making articles of furniture. (15) The haritaki (Myrobalanus chebula of Goertner) is found in the vicinity of villages.

Laurus.—The laurel tribe is represented by the following fifteen varieties:—(16) The téspát of Rangpur is cultivated on account of its aromatic leaves, which throughout Bengal are used as a seasoning for food. It is principally cultivated in the vicinity of the town. When fifteen years old, the téspát is fit for yielding leaves, and is then a middling-sized tree, twenty or thirty feet high. The leaves are gathered once a year in spring, exposed on mats for about fifteen days to the sun, and collected in heaps at night, but not removed from the dew. They are then made up into neat bales of about one and a half maunds weight each, and covered with sackcloth. (17) A very fine species of Laurus, resembling the last, has been introduced into the gardens of Rangpur from Bhútán. Its aromatic quality is almost entirely confined to the bark of the root, the scent of which is said to be superior even to that of the true cinnamon. Buchanan Hamilton states that it had not in his time acquired any name in Rangpur. (18) Another very large Laurus met with by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in the woods of Sinheswar had no local name so far as he could ascertain. This tree has very large ob-ovate leaves, several of which are collected in a circle round the joints of

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the branches. (19) In the woods in the eastern tracts, one of the
most common trees found near the streams and rivulets is a species
of Laurus called hari-sankar. It is often found six feet in circum-
ference, and is used for coarse joiner's work, such as making chests
and stools. It has a strong smell of camphor. (20) A very fine
species of Laurus is called kharkyā champá in some parts of the
District, and chámpá-pátá in others. It grows both in the vicinity
of the villages and in the woods, but does not reach more than three
cubits in girth. The timber is used for making coarse furniture, etc.
(21) Another species of Laurus is called bijal-ghátá, but both bark
and leaves are entirely destitute of any aromatic quality. It is
found in the Sinheswar forest, and lives to a great age. (22) In the
Sinheswar forest tract, Dr. Buchanan Hamilton met with a very
large tree, of which he was unable to ascertain the native name. It
belongs to the natural order of Lauri, and is either the same, or
very nearly the same, as the Machilus femina of Rumph. (23)
Another tree, called bijal ghátá, is also found in Rangpur. It
seemed to Buchanan Hamilton to be the Tomex japonica of Wilden-
ow. In cultivated tracts it is usually found in the form of a bush,
but in the hills of Goálpárá it sometimes reaches a girth of six feet,
and is commonly found of a size sufficient to make small canoes, or
for ordinary joiner's work. (24) The bàul is another species of
Tomex, which grows in the woods of Goálpárá to a girth of three
cubits. The timber is used for making common furniture. (25) The
pánmuja is another Tomex of the Goálpárá hills, and grows to a
larger size than the foregoing. The timber is used for making
articles of furniture. (26) The vagnal seems to be the Tomex
sebifera of Wildenow, and is found both in the forests and surround-
ing the villages in the cultivated tracts. It reaches a girth of three
cubits, and the timber is used for coarse joiner's work. (27) Another
Tomex, the pánchptiyá, is found in the Goálpárá hills. The tree
grows to the same size as the pánmuja, and the timber is put to
similar uses. (28) Very nearly allied to the foregoing is a small
tree called digluti, but its wood is not utilized. (29) In the woods
of Goálpárá a species of wild nutmeg is found, which sometimes
reaches a girth of five cubits. The natives call the tree jheruyá
amrá, and use the timber for joiner's work. (30) The siyuli (Nyc-
tanthes arbor tristis) is not uncommonly met with in the vicinity
of villages.

VERRVAINS.—Eight species are found that grow to be trees:
(31) The bhodiya of the forests of Goálpárá is probably the Vitex leucoxylon of Wildenow, or perhaps the Karil of Rhide. It grows only to a small size, seldom exceeding three cubits in girth. The wood is little used, except for making ploughs. This is one of the trees that best resists inundation, and it is often found on lands which are flooded for one or two months every year. (32) The angáchhui is a species of Vitex found in the same vicinity, and grows to about the same size as the foregoing. Its wood, however, is in more request, being extremely hard, and used for making mortars for oil-mills, etc. (33) The báná is another species of Vitex, and grows to about the same size. The timber is little valued, and is only used for coarse joiner's work. (34) The khajú of the Goálpárá woods is a species of Callicarpa, frequently growing to a girth of six feet. The timber is used for making pestles and mortars, and for common furniture. (35) The dangkári of Rangpur is usually reared in the vicinity of villages, the leaves being used as a medicine for cattle. The leaves and flowers have a very disagreeable smell, on which account Rumph calls the plant Folium hircinum. It seldom if ever attains the size of a timber tree. (36) The bukháli is a tree found in the woods of Goálpárá, similar to the foregoing. (37) The chiká gambhári is another tree of the same character. Its wood has a strong smell, like that of the musk rat, from which animal its specific name is derived. (38) Another tree called gambhári is found, of a similar nature to the foregoing, except that it has no disagreeable smell, and does not grow so large. The timber, however, is light, tough, and durable, and is used by the natives for making chests, palanquins, platters, drums, etc.

BORAGINEÆ.—Four species, namely,—(39) A species of Cordia, called dhaváli in some parts, and kusiyári in others. The glutinous juice of its fruit is used by the makers of artificial flowers for glueing their work. (40) Another species of Cordia, of about the same size, is found in the Goálpárá woods, but is considered of such little value that the natives have not given it a name. (41) The sapoli is a small tree found along the banks of the Mahánandá river. (42) A tree called kátguyá in the District proper, and bhojgáchh in the Goálpárá section. It is not a very common tree, but it grows to a considerable size, sometimes attaining a girth of five cubits. It is a strong wood, but not very durable, and is used for posts, beams, and chests.
BIGNONIAE.—Four varieties, namely,—(43) The species of Bignonia which in the woods of Goálpárá is called pari ját, is styled kaldi in the cultivated tracts. Although growing to a considerable size, being often found five cubits in girth, the timber is considered as only fit for firewood. The flowers expand at night and drop in the morning, when they are collected as an offering to the gods, being very sweet-smelling. (44) Nearly allied to the foregoing is a tree called atko páliyá, found in the forests towards Bhután. (45) The ghantá or bell-flower tree is a still more beautiful species of Bignonia in its foliage. It is but a small tree, and is cultivated near temples as an ornament. (46) The Bignonia Indica is one of the most common trees in the District, but it never grows to a size fit for timber, and is a worthless, fetid plant.

ASCLEPIADES.—Four species, namely,—(47) The galáncdá, or Flos convolutus. (48) The dákuri of the forests of Goálpárá is a species of Nerium, described by Rude under the name of Nelem Pala. The timber is only used by the natives for common articles of furniture, but it seems fitted for very fine work. (49) The dudh- khuri belongs to the same genus, and has nearly the same qualities. (50) The chhátin (Echites scholaris) is common both in the vicinity of villages and in the forest tracts; the timber is used for making coarse furniture.

SAPOTEAE AND GUICANAE.—These varieties are closely allied, and the following nine trees are therefore included in one class:—(51) The bákul (Mimusops elengi) is found in the gardens of this District, but is not common. (52) The pithá-gáchh of the forests of Goálpárá, either a Chrysophyllum or a Diospyros, is a very beautiful tree, growing to about three cubits in girth, and the timber is used for making furniture. The fruit is eaten, and is about the size of a small apple, but excessively sour. (52½) The gab of Bengal, called by botanists Embryopteris glutenifera, is also either a Chrysophyllum or a Diosperos. It is said to grow rarely in this District, and to be sometimes called kendu. The kendu of the forests of Goálpárá, however, seems altogether a different plant, although its fruit possesses nearly the same qualities. The fruit of the tree is not larger than a walnut, and contains only four seeds, while that of the Embryopteris is about the size of an apple, and contains eight or ten seeds. The kendu grows to about a cubit in diameter; its timber is white, and is used for making coarse furni-
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53. The tapási is another species of the same tribe, and is cultivated in gardens on account of the fragrance of its flowers.

54. The bhángýára, found in the Goálpárá woods, has very smooth shining leaves, exactly like those of the tea tree, and bears a globular fruit. 

55. The bhángrí, a tree similar to the foregoing, but bearing an oblóng fruit; its leaves are used by dyers and tanners.

56. The kambá grows in the forests to a girth of about three cubits; its timber is used for making gun-stocks. 

57. The hijol is a beautiful tree, which, at the time Dr. Buchanan Hamilton wrote, composed almost an entire forest in the south-east of the District, flooded every year up to the lower branches, and consequently stunted in growth, the stems not exceeding six or eight feet in length. In the woods of Goálpárá, where not stunted by inundation, it grows to a diameter of three cubits, and is called hendal.

58. The mágur is common both in the woods of Goálpárá and in those that skirt the hills of Nepál. It grows to a circumference of three cubits, and the timber is used for making coarse furniture.

RUBIACLE.—Nine species, namely,—

59. The banjáam grows to a girth of three cubits, and the timber is used for coarse joiner's work.

60. Máyen. This tree grows in the poorest and most parched soils, but in such situations dwindles into a large bush, in which state it is generally found on all dry barren places near villages. In the woods of Goálpárá, however, it grows to a small timber tree, four feet in circumference, and its wood is used for making coarse furniture.

61. Chhotá, or little máyen, grows nearly in the same manner as the foregoing, but differs from it in having hairy leaves.

62. Bis, or poisonous máyen, so called although the others also have deleterious qualities; it much resembles the two former trees.

63. Kuji, or small máyen. This variety of máyen does not resemble the others very much, being a handsomer plant.

64. The pír-dílu is common in the lower lands of this District; it is a hardy plant, and resists the inundations.

65. The moríndá is found wild in almost every wood of the District.

66. The kádambá grows in cultivated land in the vicinity of villages, and also in the forests of Goálpárá; it grows to a circumference of six feet. The timber, which is of a deep yellow colour, is used for making coarse articles of furniture. The yellow flowers of this tree have little or no smell in the day, but become remarkably odorous during the night, which probably explains its botanical name of
Arbor noctis given by Rumph. (67) The _telī_ or _kelī_ _kadambā_ is also found in Rangpur, but is not common.

**Caprifoliæ and Araliæ.**—Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found in this District two trees of the order of Caprifoliæ, and two of the Araliæ almost impossible to be distinguished from the former, and therefore given under one classification. (68) The _nuniyā_ is a small tree, common near village sites. (69) A species of elder, also found near villages, approaches very near to the Sambucus nigra of Europe, but its flowers are more ornamental, being of a pale red. (70) One of the most common trees of this District, both in woods and near villages, is a plant approaching to the Cussonia, which goes by several names. In the south of the District it is called _sungrībhāṅgā_; near Rangpur town it is called _makāṅi_, and its leaves are there used as food for silk-worms. In the east part of the District it is called _karnāphul_, because its flowers resemble in shape a kind of native ear-ring. There is another tree called _makāṅi_ in the District, which has no sort of affinity with this, belonging to the order of Meliæ (No. 97). (71) The _unjālā_ of the Ḩortus Malabaricus is found in the low-lying eastern parts of this District.

**Sapindi.**—Two species (72 and 73), but the natives whom Dr. Buchanan Hamilton consulted could give no local name for either of the trees or for their fruit.

**Guttiferae.**—Five species, namely,—(74) The _dengphal_ is commonly met with in gardens; the fruit is eaten. (75) In the woods in the eastern part of the District, a species of Garinia called _kanyakūṅi_ or _kawā_ is not uncommon. It grows to about three cubits in diameter; its fruit is eaten, and although very acid, has exactly the flavour of the mangosteen. The timber is used for joiner's work. (76) The _sapsāpiyā_ is a tree resembling the foregoing, and grows in the same localities; the fruit, which is about the size of a walnut, is sweeter and more palatable than the former, but it has not so much of the mangosteen flavour. (77) Another tree nearly related to the mangosteen, and called _thāikal_, seems originally to have been confined to Assam, but it has now spread through the gardens of most parts of the District. The natives are very fond of the fruit, which is round, and from three to four inches in circumference. It is too acid for being used raw, but is cut into slices and dried, and used as an acid seasoning. It is also made into pickles and sweetmeats. (78) The _mdgeswar_ (Mesua
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ferrea) is very common in the vicinity of villages, and is also found in some of the woods. It is an exceedingly ornamental tree, and frequently attains to a good size, say forty or fifty feet in height and four feet in girth.

Nearly allied to the above five plants is a class of trees of which many varieties are found in India, such as the Vaterias, Vaticas, Dipterospermuums, Shoreas, and Damaras of Rumph. They are remarkably ornamental, many of them produce valuable timber, and all abound with resin. The following two only are found in this District:—(79) The sāl or gujāli (Shorea robusta) is the most valuable tree in the District, and grows to a very large size. The woodmen of Goaḷpārā never collect the resin; but in the woods of Battris-hazārī the foresters gather it from the trees which they cut, to be burned as an offering to the gods; it is never sold. In the northern forests the tree is said to be found ten cubits round; and it is said that six cubits is not an unusual size. Trees of this size are often found in the eastern tracts of the District. (80) A species of Vatica is found in the hilly tracts. In this District it is called kanak changpā, a name, however, which is also given to a totally different plant (No. 102). When in flower, this is a remarkably fine tree, and perfumes the whole vicinity.

CITRUS.—Eight species are mentioned by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton. At the time when he wrote, the orange was not cultivated in Rangpur, except in the gardens of the European residents, and the same was nearly the case with the shaddock. The trees of the genus Citrus are usually called jamīr in Rangpur, although the more ordinary name, nebu, is also generally known. The greater part of them grow nearly wild in the vicinity of villages. (81) The variety most usually called jamīr without any addition has an oval fruit about twelve inches in circumference, with a cavity round the foot-stalk, and at the top a protuberance like that of a lemon. It has a smooth, thin rind, with nearly the smell of the citron, but is much more juicy, and approaches nearest to the lemon. The fruit ripens in spring. (82) The kango jami r has an oval fruit, rounded at both ends, and about the size of a goose's egg. The rind is of a moderate thickness, and the juice copious and of a fine flavour. The fruit ripens in the cold season. (83) The gango jami r is also common; the fruit ripens in autumn. (84) The kagoji is also found in Rangpur; it continues in season from the middle of the rains until the middle of the cold-weather months. The other trees of this species
are (85) the pāthī jāmīr, (86) the pānī jāmīr, (87) the kathel, and (88) the bel.

**MELIÆ.**—Ten species, namely,—(89) One species, with very minute flowers, is common near Goālpārā, but has no local name, nor is it applied to any use. (90) The nim (Melia azadirachta) is very rarely met with in the District. (91) The gorā nim (Melia azadirach), on the contrary, is very common in every part of the north-west of Rangpur. It is a very ornamental tree, but is applied to no use, except that its odorous and elegant flowers are presented in offering to the gods. (92) The rasuniā pomá, so called from its having a smell resembling garlic, grows to a girth of five cubits, and is used for making canoes. (93) Another tree which grows on the hills is called by the same name, but is of a different species, and has a red wood. Its leaves are hairy, while that of the former are smooth. (94) Another tree of the same genus is called gabor phongoytā from its abominable stench; it does not grow to such a size as the foregoing, but is used for making canoes. (95) The amari grows to a girth of five cubits, and is used for making canoes and chests. (96) The bard gatadhār is another plant of the same genus, which grows in the forests of Goālpārā to a circumference of six feet; the timber is used for joiner's work. Another tree is also called gatadhār, but it has no resemblance to this. (97) A tree called pithrdās in Dinājpur is sometimes called by the same name in Rangpur, and sometimes makāi; in Goālpārā it is called also banār timd. (98) The tun, or Ėdrella, grows in the forests to a girth of five cubits, and is considered by the natives to be the best timber for making furniture which they possess.

**MALRACEÆ.**—Six species, namely,—(99) One of the largest, most beautiful, and valuable timber trees of this District is a species of Gordonia, called by the woodmen of Goālpārā, makri sāl. It grows in abundance on the hills of Mechhpārā. The tree bears a white sweet-smelling flower. The timber is used for making canoes and chests. (100) Dr. Buchanan Hamilton observed in the Goālpārā woods a very large and beautiful tree belonging to a genus which Roxburgh has named after Colonel Kyd, the founder of the Botanical Gardens of Calcutta, but of which his native guides could not give him the local name. (101) The same was the case with another smaller tree of the same genus. (102) The kanak changpā (Pterocarpum suberifolium). (103) The simul is common in Rangpur, and is one of those species which thrive best on inundated land.
In the more cultivated parts of the District, the fishermen make canoes of this tree; they do not last more than one year, but are remarkably buoyant, and are easily wrought. (104) The odlá or hachânda is a very common tree, which grows to a girth of five cubits. The bark is used for making ropes, and the timber for making canoes.

MAGNOLIÆ.—Six species, namely,—(105) The champa (Michelia) is a favourite tree in gardens and about villages, on account of its sweet-smelling flowers. (106) Another tree of the same genus is called dudh champá. It is a finer tree than the foregoing, but the scent of the flowers is not so overpowering. (107) The chalité is very common in the woods of Godápárá, and is also planted in the vicinity of villages; in the forests it reaches a girth of six feet. (108) The ddini aksi, found in the Godápárá forests and towards Nepál, where it is called chulli, is a fine large spreading tree, six feet in girth, and appears to be one of the most valuable timber trees in the District. The wood is used for making canoes, being thought inferior only to the sál. (109) A tree called akchu is similar to the foregoing; it grows to the same size, and the wood is used for joiner’s work. (110) A species of achmd, reared as an ornament in gardens.

ANANÆ.—Three varieties, namely,—(111) The bandar kád is probably the Uvaria suberosa of Willdenow, although it does not entirely agree with his account. It is found in the woods of Godápárá, where it grows to about three cubits in girth, and is used for beams, posts, and planks. The two other species of Ananæ found in Rangpur are the (112) atá and (113) lond, both described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in his Account of Dinápur.

TILIACÆ.—Six species, namely,—(114) The baingáchhi in hard clay lands is a mere bush, but in fertile soil it becomes a middling-sized tree. (115) The jálpáí. (116) The rudrákhái is common in Rangpur. The fruit is of a fine deep-blue colour, but is never eaten; the stone, which is globular, is deeply wrinkled as if cut by hand, and is used for beads. The tree grows to a middling size, and has remarkably brittle branches. (117) The chakrá sítá often grows to five cubits in girth. The wood is considered to be of good quality, and is used for making mortars, chests, and for similar purposes. (118) Another variety of this order, growing to the size of a fine tree, was found in the Sinheswar woods, but Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain its native name.
ONAGRÆ.—Two species, namely,—(119) In the vicinity of the villages in the north-west of the District, Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found a large tree, of which he was unable to ascertain the native name. The fruit almost exactly resembles the Pygieum of Görtner. (120) The bankan thulū is one of the most common village trees in the vicinity of Rangpur town.

MYRTI.—Nine species, namely,—(121) A fine tree called chakrā sāl is found in the Mechhpara woods. The same tree is found in Chittagong, where it is called either duya bhāngā or banar hold. (122) The jārul (Flos regina), which derives its botanical name from the beauty of its flowers, is much sought after for boat-building. (123) The sidā, a tree similar to the foregoing, is common in the Goālpārā woods, where it grows to six feet in girth; also used for making boats. The tree is also met with in the cultivated parts of the District, where it is called ghagrā. (124) The gayabā is principally found in the neighbourhood of old ruins; its bark is sometimes used by tanners. (125) The jām is one of the most common trees met with, growing near almost every village and in every wood. (126) The gaṭhā jām, nearly allied to the foregoing, is found principally in the Goālpārā woods. It grows to a girth of about six feet; the timber is cut into planks, but is not considered by the natives to be of good quality. (127) Another variety, called sāl jām, occurs in the same woods, and although it does not grow to such a large size as the foregoing, is more used for planks, posts, etc. (128) Another species, found in the eastern parts of the District, is the bhadrā jām, which grows like the others. (129) The loth is found in the north-western parts of Rangpur; the leaves are used by tanners.

LEGUMINOSÆ.—This order is represented in this District by twenty-three different trees,—(130) The guyā bīblī is found in Rangpur, but is a rare plant. (131) The bhājgāichh is a mimosa met with in the woods of Goālpārā; but the same name is also applied to a totally different plant. In the western parts of Rangpur this tree is called khauyā takī. (132) The siris is also a mimosa, and grows wild near villages. (133) The karui of the Goālpārā woods grows to a girth of five cubits, and its timber is said to make good planks. (134) The jati karāi grows in great abundance in the Mechhpara hills, with a very lofty but not straight trunk. In the cultivated tracts, where it is sometimes found, it is called sirish, a name also given to a species just mentioned (No. 132). (135) A small mimosa is called jīl gīb in the forest tracts,
and tatrásimá in the cultivated parts; fishermen steep their nets in a
decoctio of its bark, which is probably a strong tan. (136) In the
southern parts of the District, where the soil is dry, one of the most
common small trees, which sometimes degenerates into a bush, is
called in some parts kauri, and in others ghórá kuchi. (137) The
tamarind is exceedingly rare in this District, and is chiefly confined
to the woods near Pangá. (138) The sbun-dul (Cassia fistula) re-
sembles oak, and is used for making ploughs. (139) The raktá-
chandan (Adenanthera pavonina) is a common tree in the vicinity
of villages, and grows to a considerable size. (140) Lál kanchán
and (141) sweet-kanchán are common in Rangpur. (142) Another
kanchán is also met with, similar to the foregoing, except that the
flowers are white. (143) The bhakuri of the forests of Goálpárá
grows to about three cubits in circumference, and is used for making
furniture. (144) The tukrá and (145) the bakpásh are met with.
(146) Palitá madar; very rare. (147) Palás (Butea frondosa) is
common in the woods, and grows to a good size; the timber is used
for making coarse furniture. (148) The mon-sílá grows to a con-
siderable size in the Goálpárá forests, and the timber is used for
making coarse furniture. (149) A similar tree to the above, but of
a smaller size, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to
ascertain the native name. (150) The sisu is a tree nearly related
to the two former. It is only found in Rangpur in the low ranges
bordering on Nepál and Bhután, near the banks of rivers and
streams. Its timber is of excellent quality, and makes good furniture.
It does not grow to a larger girth than three and a half cubits. (151)
The makri gílú (Dalbergia arborea) and (152) asak (Jonesia) are
found in Rangpur District.

Terebintaceae.—Eleven species, as follows:—(153) The bhelá is
commonly met with in the woods; the timber is used for making
chests and couches. (154) The ám-gáchhí or mango tree does not
flourish well in Rangpur, and the fruit is very indifferent. (155)
The jiyol, called also jiyá and kalijiyá, is frequently met with in the
hills near Goálpárá. (156) The khágá is a middling-sized tree, met
with in the woods in the northern part of the District. (157) The
niyár, found in the Goálpárá woods, grows to a girth of five cubits,
and has a strong resinous smell. The timber is excellent for making
furniture. (158) The jiyá khoí of the Goálpárá woods has a strong
affinity to the above; the timber is valuable, and is used for boat-
building. (159) The amrá (Spondias amara) grows both in the
woods and near villages. The tree attains a good size; but the timber is of little value. (160) The hāl-phalī is one of the most common trees found in the woods of the eastern parts of the District. The tree grows to a girth of about three cubits, and the timber is used for making stools and light articles of furniture. (161) The bajarnandī is a good-sized tree, nearly related to the above. The fruit has a warm resinous taste, and is used by the natives as medicine. (162) Another tree, nearly related to the two just named, is the chhotā or small gatādhār, found in the woods of Goālpārā, which has no affinity to the barā or great gatādhār mentioned previously (No. 96). (163) The uriyā-dām is nearly allied to the last named; it grows to three feet in girth, and is used for making coarse articles of furniture.

Rhamni.—Seven species, namely,—(164) The bhes or moj of Goālpārā; a good-sized tree, the timber of which is used for making coarse furniture. (165) The silā pomā of Goālpārā grows to a large-sized tree five cubits in circumference, and is considered very valuable for furniture. (166) A species of Ilex, growing to a middling size, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain the native name. (167) The bayer badarikā (Jujuba) is common in every part of the District, and is a very hardy plant. It resists both the sterility of sandy soil and the floods of the Brahmaputra. There are two varieties of this tree. One has an oblong fruit and a succulent covering nearly of the consistence of an apple. The other has a round fruit, more mealy than the former, and much used by the natives as a seasoning to their food. (168) The Zizyphus xylocarpus is found in the clayey lands in the south-west of the District. (169) The kamranga (Averrhoa carambola) and (170) the hāripfal (Cicca) are met with in the cultivated tracts.

Euphorbiæ.—Nineteen species, namely,—(171) The ambā (Em- blica), a very common tree both near villages and in forests. It is especially abundant on the skirts of forests in a dry soil, where there are many reeds; for although a small tree, it resists fire better than any other, and these reeds are burned every spring. It is surprising, indeed, how anything should be able to endure the flame that arises from a thicket of reeds from eight to twelve feet high. The trees, of course, are entirely stripped of their leaves; but the ambā, sāl, and kambā seem to suffer little other injury, and in less than a week afterwards break into flower. The ambā never exceeds three cubits in girth, and although considered a poor wood, is used for planks and stools. (172) The latkā is very common both in
the villages and in the eastern forests. (173) The bradleja (Bradleja sinica of Göertner) is also found in Rangpur. (174) The bankang-thâli is common both in the villages and forests; in the Goâlpârá woods the tree is called kohi. The timber is used for making chests and stools. (175) A tree similar to the above, called in some parts kosi, and in others karchimâlê, is frequently met with. (176) Another species (Clutea retusa of Linnæus) is sometimes called lat-kohi, but at Goâlpârá is called kâhâli. The pulp of the berries is eaten by children. (177) The akrot (Aleurites Moluccana of Willdenow) is a very ornamental plant, and usually found near temples, but it is very rare in this District. (178) The dakâti of Rangpur is a still more ornamental, although a smaller tree than the above. (179) The tree called sindur in Dinájpur is here called indifferently kumillâ, ajhorâ, or ghâti. The tree grows almost everywhere; and old women are employed to collect the fruit, which is covered with a red dust used in dyeing. The fruit is first dried, and then rubbed on a bamboo sieve until all the dust has passed through. (180) The ghuttî is a tree very nearly allied to the foregoing. (181) The dudh or dudhiyâ is found here, and used for making beads by the people of Malang. (182) A small tree called kanibish, very nearly allied to the above. (183) The jamâlgâtâ (Croton tiglium) closely resembles the last-named tree; the seed of the plant is used medicinally as a purgative. (184) The tree called mukundá when found growing in hedges, is called parâkupiî when growing in the forests, where it attains a girth of five feet. The timber is used for making coarse furniture. (185) The kalikâdâm of Goâlpârá is a tree of the same tribe as the above; as also (186) a large tree called dhakâheki at Patgrâm, where it is found in the vicinity of villages. (187) Another large tree, strongly resembling the above, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain the native name. (188) The telijârâ is common in the neighbourhood of villages in Rangpur. (189) The sonâphal is the name of the male variety of a tree found in the District, of which the name of the female tree is nadâ-jâm.

URTICÆ.—Excluding creeping and climbing species, twenty-one varieties of this natural order are found in Rangpur District which grow up into trees. (190) The common fig grows among the rocks in the hills near Goâlpârá. It is a very ornamental plant, but has not acquired any local name from the natives. The figs are in pairs, and adhere close to the branches. (191) The banyan tree
(Ficus Bengalesis) is fully described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in his Account of Dinajpur. In Rangpur it is not so common, nor does it grow to be so fine a tree. (192) The dhāp is one of the most common branch-rooting figs; it may be at once known by its smooth leaves and cylindrical fruit, while that of the banyan tree is globular. The dhāp is almost as elegant as the banyan, and is one of the trees on which the lac insect is reared. Its branches spread lower and are more horizontal than those of Ficus Bengalesis, and its stem is smaller. (193) Another tree similar to the foregoing is also called dhāp by the natives, but the figs are of a cylindrical shape. This tree is not less beautiful than the two just mentioned. (194) Another very elegant fig tree, remarkable for the slenderness of its branches and the lightness of its foliage, was met with by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who does not, however, give the native name. The fruit of this tree adheres to the branches. (195) Nearly related to the preceding is the natabarbat of Goalpárá. The figs are small, of the size of a nutmeg, and adhere to short stalks. (196) In the eastern parts of the District another branch-rooting fig is found, said to be the same as the akshā bat or sacred tree of Gayá. It is a rigid plant like the common banyan tree, and in spring has a remarkably handsome appearance, the buds being of a shining gold colour; on which account the tree is here most commonly called subarnā bat. In other parts it is also called rām barga. (197) The pīpal (Ficus religiosa) is rare in this District. (198) The nakur or pakur is used for rearing the lac insect. (199) Another tree, also called nākur, is rare in Rangpur; as also (200) is the naksá. (201) A much more common fig tree is the dēhin or harisanskar. It grows to be a very stately tree, like the pīpal, and in spring has a fine appearance, from its large veined buds, on which account it has been called Ficus venosa. (202) Another tree of the same kind has obtained no name from the natives. It attains a good size, and, like all the other sorts, frequently takes root on other trees and overpowers them. (203 and 204) Two other varieties of figs, of which the native names are not given. The first grows erect, and has small figs growing in pairs at each leaf; the second is rather an immense climber than a tree. (205, 206, and 207) Three other varieties of fig trees, all resembling each other, and called respectively yug-dumar, dumar, and kuji-dumar. The other species of figs are (208) the rakhal-pâni of Goalpárá, (209) the kusuri, and two others (210 and 211) of which the
native names are not given.  (212) The jack tree (Artocarpus
integifolia), next to the bamboo and areca, is the most important
tree in the plantations of Rangpur; and in 1809 Dr. Buchanan
Hamilton estimated that there were at least half a million of these
trees in bearing.  (213) The dheyá is commonly met with in the
neighbourhood of villages.  (214) The cháma or kangtalá cháma,
an Artocarpus, is, according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, the glory
of the forests in the east of the District. It is a very fine tree,
sometimes growing to the circumference of six cubits. The best
canoes in this District are made from this tree; they are said to be
much more valuable than those made of sál, being more durable,
and much more buoyant.  (215) In the Goálpárá woods, Dr.
Buchanan Hamilton found a middling-sized tree, evidently a
Papyrus, for which the natives had no name.  (216) A small
thorny tree called biskangta (Cudranus Amboinensis of Rumph) is
common in Rangpur, and approaches very near to the Papyri.
(217) The sará or seorá, nearly allied to the Morus, is found in the
District. It will grow on the poorest lands, but is then stunted.
In the woods of Goálpárá it is found three cubits in circumference.
(218 and 219) Two kinds of the real Morus Indica are found in
Rangpur. The first is the tut (Morus japonica of Rumph), which
never grows to be a tree, but always remains a bush. It is reared
simply for feeding silk-worms, the fruit being very small, and scarcely
worth eating. The second kind is the Morus Macassariensis
of Rumph, and grows to be a small tree; it is reared for its fruit. In
the western parts of Rangpur the lac insect is also raised on this tree.

AMENITALIE.—Seven species, namely,—(220) The jiga or jibni
(Celtis orientalis) is common in the cultivated parts of the Dis-

trict. In the Mechhpárá hills it is called jan-fung; and a kind of
course cloth is made out of its inner bark, and worn by the hill
people.  (221) A species of willow is common in the District, and
grows to a small tree.  (222) In the Mechhpárá hills is found a tree
approaching nearly to the Carpinus or hornbeam of England. The
following are four species of oak belonging to this natural order:—
(223) Kangtá singur. This tree does not grow to more than three
feet in circumference; its timber is used for making canoes.  (224)
The gol singur grows to a much larger size than the above; it is also
used for boat-making.  (225) The nikári grows to five feet in cir-
cumference; the timber is used for making canoes and articles of
furniture.  (226) The timá is an oak which does not grow larger
than three cubits in circumference; timber used for making common furniture.

Antidesma.—Four species, namely,—(227) Heloch or bará (great) heloch, found near villages, but only of a small size; in the hills, however, it is sometimes met with six feet in circumference. (228) The kuji or little heloch differs very slightly from the former. (229) A small tree, called amrī near Rangpur, and abutenga at Godlpárá. (230) Another species called adhara.

Bamboos.—The principal varieties of bamboos are the following:—(231) bará báns, (232) maktá báns, (233) jautá báns, (234) herú báns, (235) kangkúdyá báns, and (236) tará báns.

Miscellaneous Trees.—The following trees are also met with, but were not classified by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton according to scientific order; on the ground that botanists were divided in opinion where they should be placed:—(237) The agar or sanguhí of this District is a tree of considerable celebrity. It is common in the low lands of Assam, and not rare in the lower Godlpárá hills. In Assam the bark of this tree forms the material on which people write. In the Gáro mountains this wood acquires very different qualities: certain masses in the heart of the tree become dark-coloured, and are highly impregnated with an odorous oil called agar. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton mentions that the Mughul court at Dehli, in its palmy days, was supplied with this oil by a Gáro chief, who is said to have received a deed of protection, on condition of paying a tribute of a certain quantity, together with some rare birds. (238) The sujíná is a hardy plant, of which the leaves are eaten as a vegetable, the unripe fruit being also used in cookery, and the roots and seeds as medicine. (239) The gand-sari of Godlpárá grows to a circumference of five cubits. The wood, which has a strong smell of aniseed, is used for making canoes and chests. (240) The dapharí is a small tree, used for making coarse furniture. (241) The hablá, (242) banglá, and (243) phútki are all trees of Godlpárá of which the timber is used for making coarse articles of furniture. (244) The hárá of Godlpárá, a tree nearly approaching to an oak, is found six feet in girth, and is used for making canoes. (245) The látí patiyá, (246) bárá patiyá, and (247) bhélí are all used for boat-making. (248) The bán kápas should from its name be a species of cotton, but Dr. Buchanan Hamilton thinks it is more probably an Hibiscus. It grows to a girth of six feet, and is used for making coarse furniture.
OTHER VEGETABLE JUNGLE PRODUCTS.—Canes and reeds abound throughout the District. The canes are of inferior quality, the principal being the garāl bet (the best), the jāli bet, and the harkate bet. The reeds are of more importance. The following list of them is condensed from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton’s MS. Report on Rangpur:—

1. The largest, called barā or large khagra, is often higher than a man’s head when riding on an elephant. The full-grown stems are about an inch and a half in diameter, and from fifteen to eighteen feet in length. They are used for the framework of the huts in the localities where they grow, but for this purpose are very inferior to bamboo. 2. The lāl or red khagra is a much smaller reed than the last, and varies in size from the thickness of a goose quill to that of the little finger. The young leaves of all varieties of reeds are eaten by elephants, buffaloes, cows, and horses; but those of the lāl khagra are esteemed the best. It thrives remarkably on the low banks of the Brahmaputra; and during the annual inundations, when the leaves are in season, the villagers go out in boats and cut them as fodder for the cattle, which at this time of the year are pent up in huts. 3. Sāttā chal or sāttā khagra is a larger reed than the last, and has a green stem; it is used for making the walls of houses. These three varieties of reeds all grow on low inundated land, especially on newly-formed sandy tracts near rivers. 4. Bāta reeds are divided into two varieties, red and white; used for making fences and also the walls of huts. The reed is from nine to ten feet in length, and about a finger’s thickness. 5. The narangā bar is a reed not thicker than a man’s little finger; it grows on higher lands than those above mentioned, and is often used for making fences round huts. 6. The maneri kajáyā of Goālpara is a saccharine reed growing on the sandy banks of the Brahmaputra. In spring it sends out long shoots, which creep along the surface of the ground and strike out roots from their joints; they then send up leaves, and towards the end of the inundation push forth long slender reeds. The shoots begin to form between the 10th of February and the 10th of March, and from the middle of May to the middle of July are collected by the cattle tenders, for the purpose of extracting the sugar. The pith of these shoots contains much saccharine juice. The shoots are cut into pieces, and then beaten in a wooden mortar to a kind of pulp. This is put into an earthen pot with a small hole in the bottom, which is placed on the mouth of another pot that stands over a fire. The saccharine matter is washed into the lower
pot by pouring some water on the beaten mass, and then boiled to the thickness of new honey, which it nearly resembles in colour. (7) Another similar plant, from which saccharine juice is extracted, is called kháierí kajdíly, and grows in a like manner. The extract from this is of a very black colour, and of inferior quality. (8 and 9) Two other species of reed, nearly approaching to No. 6, are called bárí (great) kási and cchótá (little) kási. The leaves are remarkably tough, and are used as ropes for tying fences and the framework of houses; sometimes also as thatch by the poor. (10 and 11) The bárí ulú and cchótá ulú are two other varieties of reeds; the leaves, which are much used for thatching purposes, are very long and durable. (12) The reed called sar is found in this District, and is used for making torches; it is also sometimes employed for the walls of houses, but does not last. The reed is about the thickness of a man's finger, and from nine to ten feet long. (13) The nal reed grows to the size of a bamboo, but it is neither so hard nor so strong. It is split and made up into mats. (14) The anal is a similar reed to the above, but of a much smaller size. (15) The kusá is a very scarce grass in this District, and is not applied to any use. (16) The tàngá is a very common reed or high grass, but is not applied to any useful purpose. (17) The birná is common near rivers in the cultivated parts of the country; the leaves are used by the poor for thatch, and the stems for making hurdles. (18) The byáná is applied to nearly the same uses as the foregoing. (19) The nagarmuthá is found, but is not put to much use. Except the ulú thatching reeds, few of the reeds or grasses in this District pay any rent. All the tenants on an estate are usually allowed to cut whatever reeds they wish. But in some parts, where the quantity is great, strangers come from a distance to cut the reeds, and usually pay a trifling sum for each sickle or person employed. In the cultivated parts of the District, many plants grow wild, or nearly so, of which the fruits, seeds, or roots are used as articles of food. Most of these have been already enumerated in the list of trees given in the foregoing pages.

Animal Jungle Products.—Honey, beeswax, and shell lime are the principal animal jungle products of Rangpur. Beeswax and honey are abundant in the south of the District. There are three seasons for collecting the honey, namely, when the mustard plant has flowered, in the beginning of the cold season; when the nágêswar trees flower, at the end of spring; and about the middle
of July, after the Convolvuli have flowered. A class of people called *jugis* collect a large quantity of shells, for the purpose of converting them into lime by burning. This lime is much used by the people, who chew it with *pañ* leaves and betel-nut; it is also used in the manufacture of indigo. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that the best lime is prepared from two species of mussel (Mytilus), which greatly resemble the Anatinus common in the rivers of England, but are much smaller in size. The second quality of lime is prepared from a kind of snail called *sînuk*, almost round, and about two inches in diameter. The worst lime, which is never eaten, is made from a smaller conical snail about an inch long.

**Feræ Naturæ.**—The following account of the *feræ naturæ* of the Rangpur District is for the most part condensed from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's very valuable ms. Report, supplemented by later information furnished in 1871 by the Collector of the District. As explained when quoting Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's list of trees, it must be remembered that his statements refer to a very much larger area than the present District. Some of the animals mentioned in the following list may not be found at all, or only very rarely, in Rangpur at the present day; and the modes of hunting described may now be obsolete.

**Wild Animals.**—Tigers and leopards appear to be more numerous now than in former years. Buchanan Hamilton states that when he was in the District they were very rarely seen, and that in Battrishazâri, one of the tracts then most exposed to their depredations, one man might be killed every two or three years, and about fifteen to twenty head of cattle annually. In 1871 the Collector reported to me that these animals were numerous in many parts of the District, especially in the *chars* or sandy islands of the Brahma-putra. Wild buffalo are numerous, especially in tracts where deer are found. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that many of these animals are caught in pitfalls by the villagers, who also capture the young ones alive, especially in the rainy season, when the inundation confines the herds to a few high places. On such occasions the people in their canoes attack a herd with spears, and after having killed or dispersed the old ones, are often able to secure some of the young. The buffalo is also sometimes hunted for the sake of the horns and skin. The hunters take an advance of money from a trader. Two or three men usually go together, and, without attempting to conceal themselves, shoot the
buffalo with poisoned arrows. The slightest wound proves fatal in a few hours, during which time the hunters watch the animal, and avoid a near approach until he is dead. The total number of skins procured is, however, very inconsiderable. The common black bear of India is found, but not very abundantly. Many exist in the Sinheswar forest, and occasionally kill a person who may have wandered near them. They eat mango, jack, and plantain trees, as well as honey, but do no harm to the crops or herds. In the early years of the century, elephants were numerous throughout the eastern and north-western divisions of Rangpur, now separated from the District, but they scarcely ever penetrated into the more settled parts; in the outlying tracts, however, they were very destructive to the grain crops. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that when the rice approaches maturity, the cultivators in the parts which elephants frequent have to keep a watch on the crop every night. Stages are erected on posts twelve or fourteen feet high; on one side of the stage a small shed is erected for the watchmen, who keep watch in pairs, one man feeding a fire which is kept constantly burning in the open part of the stage, while the other sleeps. In the event of elephants, deer, or hogs coming to the field, the sleeper is roused, and both men unite in attempting to frighten away the intruders by shouting and beating drums. They never attack the animals. The sal forests seem to be the principal haunts of the elephants during the rainy months; in the dry season they frequent the reed thickets. In travelling from one place to another, elephants usually follow a regular path made by themselves, which soon becomes well beaten and smooth. Several landholders keep tame female elephants as a decoy for capturing wild ones. The decoy elephant is provided with a long rope, which is fastened to its girdle and coiled on its back. At the end of the rope is a running noose, which the rider of the decoy female elephant throws round the neck of the wild one. As soon as the noose is thrown, the decoy walks away, and the noose is drawn tight, until the unfortunate prisoner is nearly strangulated. The villagers then attach ropes to his legs, and fasten him to a stout tree until he becomes somewhat tame. The elephants caught in this manner are usually small, seldom more than six and a half feet high, and a larger proportion of them die than of those captured by being surrounded with a stout stockade (kheda). In Mechhpárá and Hawarághát elephants are occasionally caught in pitfalls (dhar). These are dug in the paths
frequented by the elephants, and carefully covered over with branches and earth. A watch is kept near, and when an elephant has been trapped, the watchers come up with lighted torches, and make as much noise as possible in order to drive away the herd, who would otherwise help their companion to escape. As soon as the herd is frightened off, ropes are made fast to the captive and tied to trees. One side of the pit is then dug away, so as to make a slope, and enable the animal to come out of the trap. This, again, is a bad method of catching elephants, for the animals are frequently so much injured by the fall that they never recover. Elephants are also sometimes hunted and killed for the sake of the ivory. Rhinoceros are frequently met with in the forests and extensive reed thickets, especially in the eastern tracts which now form the Goálpárá District. They are perfectly harmless animals, and do no injury either to man or crops. Many persons make a profession of hunting them for the sake of the horn and skin. The horn is in great request, being considered to possess peculiar medicinal virtues; it is also utilized for making bracelets and cups used in the religious ceremonies of the Hindus. The skin is used for making targets and shields. The loss of life from wild beasts (almost solely caused by tigers and leopards) for the three years ending 1868-69 is returned by the police as follows:—1866-67, 49; 1867-68, 35; 1868-69, 38: annual average for the three years, 41. The amount paid in the shape of Government rewards for the destruction of wild beasts in the same three years is returned as follows:—1866-67, Rs. 24. 2. 0, or £2, 8s. 3d., paid for the destruction of 1 tiger and 9 leopards; in 1866-67, Rs. 141. 10. 8, or £14, 3s. 4d., for 16 tigers and 1 leopard; and in 1868-69, Rs. 17. 8. 0, or £1, 15s. od., for 1 tiger and 5 leopards.

The other Varieties of Mammalia are the following:—Wild hogs are met with in nearly every part of the District; but in the eastern and north-western tracts, in the Sinheswar forest, and the Pangá forests they are very troublesome and destructive. In this part of the country the Hindu cultivators capture the wild hog in nets, and the flesh is considered as pure food. No attempt is made to extirpate or reduce the number of these animals, which are only occasionally killed for the sake of the flesh. Deer of many kinds are very numerous and destructive to the crops, particularly in the eastern and north-western tracts. The most common variety of deer is called either gaoj or bhalángi. The other kinds are the spotted
deer (bará khatiyd), hog-deer (khatiyd), ribbed-faced deer (máyá), common antelope, and musk deer. No class of people make a profession of hunting the deer, nor are their skins in any request. Many cultivators, however, employ their leisure time in killing them for the sake of the food, which is eaten either when freshly killed or after having been dried by smoke. The usual method of catching the deer is by pitfalls, traps, or nets. Occasionally a man goes out at night with a lantern tied to his head; the deer are attracted by the light, and shot by arrows. In the Mechhpárá forest two kinds of ape are met with, both called huluk by the natives, one of a grey colour, and the other black with broad white eyebrows; both kinds have the same manners, shape, and cry. The huluks live in large herds, are exceedingly noisy, but very shy. In the dry season, when water is scarce, and they are under the necessity of leaving the woods to procure drink, they are often captured by taking advantage of their awkward walk, which is always erect. The old ones when caught are very intractable, and seldom live long, but the young ones are readily tamed. Spiders and grasshoppers are their favourite food, but they also eat fish, wild fruit, and leaves. The short-tailed monkey, called márkut by the natives, is found in the woods. The langur or long-tailed monkey is also common. Both these species of monkeys live entirely on vegetables, and are very destructive to the fields and gardens. The Lemur tardigradus is sometimes but rarely caught by the people of Mechhpárá, where it is called the lajáwati bandar or bashful monkey. It is an animal of prey, and feeds chiefly on small birds, which it catches at night, at which time it is very active. Its manners in some respects resemble those of a bat; it is dazzled by glare, and takes its rest in the day-time, hanging from the branch of a tree, much as the large bats of India do. Foxes and jackals are numerous in every part of Rangpur District, and hyænas are sometimes met with. Porcupines are found, but are not very numerous; they are sometimes captured for food. Hares are very abundant all over the District. Otters are rather common, and in the northern parts of the District a few skins are taken for the Bhután market, but otter-hunting is not much practised. A few hunters from Dacca and some of the Ganrár caste frequent the banks of the Brahmaputra, and kill otters for the Dacca market. They first catch a living young otter, procurable between the middle of November and the middle of December. The two following months form the hunting season. The huntsman seeks out
FERÆ NATURÆ: BIRDS.

a place frequented by otters, where he ties the young otter to a bush or reed, and conceals himself close at hand. Its cries soon bring the old otters, which are thereupon killed with a harpoon. The otter is about three and a half feet in length from the snout to the end of the tail. Porpoises are numerous in the Brahmaputra. They are killed for the sake of the oil by a class of fishermen called Ganrās. According to these fishermen, the porpoise brings forth her young between the 11th February and the 11th April, bearing only one at a time. They do not give suck for more than a month, by which time the teeth of the young have grown, and they are able to provide for themselves. Porpoises are caught at all seasons of the year, but principally between the middle of January and the middle of March. The fishermen, in a fast-rowing boat, watch when the animals come up to breathe, and strike them with a harpoon having three slender barbed prongs of iron about a foot in length. After the entrails and bones have been thrown away, the body of the animal is cut into pieces, which are boiled in an earthen pot for about an hour and a half. The oil is then separated from the flesh by straining through sackcloth. One porpoise gives from ten to fifteen sers of oil, or from about twenty to thirty pounds avoirdupois.

BIRDS.—As a rule, the birds of Rangpur District are not made to serve any useful purpose either as food or for trading purposes. Birds belonging to the genera of the pigeon, partridge, quail, peacock, pheasant, bustard, bittern, plover, snipe, and duck, in great variety and many of them very choice eating, are found in abundance. These, however, are not the birds most in request among the natives; who, when they eat any wild bird, which is very seldom, prefer small herons, shags, and sparrows to all others. The jungle fowl (Phasianus gallus) is very common in the woods, but is such an unclean feeder as to be unendurable as food. Some members of two low classes called Naliyās and Telingās catch birds with a rod, the end of which is besmeared with birdlime. Some of these birds, chiefly parakeets, are tamed and sold; but the greater part are eaten by the men who catch them, who but seldom are able to find a purchaser for their game. The cultivators catch many young māindās (Gracula religiosa), pharidis (Poitacu gugianus B.), and tiās or the common parakeet. The bhimrāj (Lanius Malabaricus), which sings with a fine mellow voice like that of a bullfinch, but louder, is also frequently procured. These birds are eagerly bought up by boat-
men from the southern Districts. The parakeet and bawdyī (Loxia typhina) are the cultivators' great enemies, and in some tracts a continual watch has to be kept in order to scare them away. The kāim, a bird nearly approaching to the Galinula porphyrio, is very numerous in the ditches and ponds, and destroys a great quantity of grain. Large flocks of a crane called kalang and of another called saras (Ardea antigone) frequent Rangpur District in winter, and also consume the rice. These birds come from the north at the beginning of the cold season, and retire when the heats commence. In the dry season the pelican (Pelicanus Phillipensis) is very common on the sands of the Brahmaputra; in the rainy months it is said to frequent the Gáro mountains, where it breeds.

Reptiles are abundant in Rangpur District. Near the banks of the Brahmaputra, both river turtle and tortoises are much used in the diet of the natives, but towards the west of the District they are seldom eaten. Along the Brahmaputra, a particular class, the Ganrárs, make a profession of catching them; they are also caught by all classes of common fishermen. The Ganrárs catch the turtle by means of a harpoon with three barbed prongs about four inches in length, and sell the flesh to petty dealers, who retail it throughout the country, especially in the markets frequented by the Gáros, who seem remarkably fond of this food. The river turtles are of several varieties. The most common is called chhim or pánímech. In the Brahmaputra it is very often found five or six feet long and fourteen inches thick. It lays its eggs between the middle of August and the middle of September, as the floods begin to retire; and in one hole the fishermen sometimes make a prize of two hundred eggs. Another kind of river turtle is called danáil; it attains a length of five feet and is no less than two feet in thickness. It is said to be very scarce, and is reckoned better eating than the chhim. A third species, called kachhim or jít kachhim, is very common. It also is considered better than the chhim, but it does not grow to more than eighteen inches in length. It is readily distinguished by four yellowish circles on its back. All the foregoing varieties live in rivers, and never frequent the banks or marshes, as do the land tortoises. They deposit their eggs in holes formed in the sand, and eat nothing except fish. The durá is another variety of river turtle; but the same name is also applied to some kinds of land tortoises. It grows to about two feet in length, and the flesh is considered to
be better than any of the above-mentioned kinds. The six principal varieties of land tortoises are the following:—Salidurā or durā kathuyā, about six inches long; kuji kathuyā; panghuri; khagrahatā; and kari kathuyā, all growing to about a foot in length. Land tortoises, although occasionally seen in rivers, more usually frequent the marshes, and often burrow under ground. Their flesh is reckoned better eating than the flatter varieties of river turtle. Two kinds of crocodile are found in the Brahmaputra, the ghariāl (Crocodilus Gangeticus) and the bangchā. The Ganrār caste kill both kinds of crocodile. Some of these fishermen informed Dr. Buchanan Hamilton that they had killed the bangchā fifteen feet in length, and that one of this size was much heavier than a ghariāl of eighteen feet long, which was the largest they had met with. In the water the bangchā attacks both men and cattle; but on shore he is shy and timid, and great stealthiness must be exercised on approaching near him, as he takes to the water on the least alarm. The bangchā usually frequents ponds and marshes, and it is only when these become entirely dry that they retire to the rivers. They live in holes, which they dig in the bank of the pond or river. In these holes they lay from twenty to thirty eggs between the 10th February and 10th March; the old ones take care of the young for a month, supplying them with fish to eat, after which they are able to provide for themselves. The ghariāl is esteemed a much purer animal than the bangchā, and never lives in stagnant water, nor in holes in the earth. It does not attack men or cattle, and lives entirely on fish. The female lays her eggs at the same season as the bangchā. She digs a trench near the margin of the river, and there deposits ten or twelve eggs, which she covers with sand. She watches the eggs all day, but at night retires into the river, being remarkably shy and timid on shore. The young are hatched between the middle of May and the middle of June, and require the care of the mother for a month. The eggs of the ghariāl are considered a remedy for small-pox, and for the similar disease in cattle known as basantā. When the fishermen are able to approach either kind of crocodile unobserved, they strike him with a harpoon, which has one iron prong about three inches in length barbed on one side. The plug of wood into which the iron is fastened is connected with the shaft (a very light bamboo) by a rope of about twelve feet long, which is neatly rolled round the shaft. The Ganrārs throw the harpoon with great dexterity at from fifteen to twenty yards' distance. On striking the crocodile,
the head of the harpoon comes out, the rope unrolls itself, and, on
the animal rushing into the water, the floating shaft directs the
hunter where to pursue. This he does in a fast-rowing boat, and
takes the first opportunity of striking with another and stronger har-
poon, with which he can drag the animal on shore. The omentum
of both kinds of crocodile yields an oil which is used for burn-
ing,—that of the ghariáś yielding from three to five times as much
as the bangehá. Two kinds of lizards or guanas, called gadhiká and
subarná gadhiká, are found, but are not common.

Serpents are numerous; but it is chiefly in high places of small
extent, which are everywhere surrounded by lowlands, that casualties
occur. When the floods begin, the reptiles are driven suddenly
into these small elevated spots by the inundation of the lowlands,
and are often compelled to take shelter in the houses, where they
are trodden on in the dark, upon which they bite their assailants.
The loss of life in Rangpur District from snake-bites for the three
years ending 1868-69 is returned by the police as follows:—1866-67,
57; 1867-68, 55; 1868-69, 92: annual average for the three years,
68. No Government rewards have ever been given for the destruc-
tion of poisonous snakes.

Fishes.—Dr. Buchanan Hamilton gives an elaborate account of
126 different kinds of fish found in the District, of which the follow-
ing is the bare list of names:—(1) Tempá (tetrodon fluviatilis); (2)
dokátá (syngnathus deocata); (3) nadir báim (macognathus arma-
tus); (4) báim (macognathus aculeatus); (5) gochi (macognathus
pancalus); (6) báliyá (gobius gútum); (7) khalishá (trichopodus
colis); (8) beji khalishá (trichopodus bejeus); (9) bilk sotak
(trichopodus cora); (10) sádá khalishá (trichopodus sota); (11)
chuná khalishá (trichopodus chuna); (12) lál khalishá (trichopodus
lalius); (13) chen (ophiocephalus gachua); (14) garui (ophio-
cephalus lata); (15) motá (ophiocephalus wrahle); (16) chená
(ophiocephalus chena); (17) gajul (ophiocephalus marulius); (18)
barká (ophiocephalus barca); (19) galpuri (laprusbadis); (20)
ságár koyá (coius cobojius); (21) bhedá (coius nandus); (22) chándá
(chanda nama); (23) bákul chándá (chanda baculis); (24) phul
chándá (chanda phula); (25) bagurá chándá (chanda bogoda); (26)
lál chándá (chanda lala); (27) darí (cobitis daris); (28) gengó
(cobitis geto); (29) pangiyá (cobitis pangía); (30) butá (cobitis
guntea); (31) bòtiyá (cobitis botia); (32) turi (cobitis turio); (33)
bil turi (cobitis bilturio); (34) ghorgotá (cobitis ghorgota); (35)
gharuyá (silurus garua); (36) kocha (not given); (37) pābdá or pábhó (silurus pabo); (38) káni pābdá (silurus canio); (39) bodlí (silurus boalis); (40) singí (silurus singio); (41) mágur (macropteronotus magur); (42) kajói (malapterurus coila); (43) tengrá or mosá (pimelodus carcio); (44) bis tengrá (pimelodus tengara); (45) bátási tengrá (pimelodus batasio); (46) kengyá (pimelodus rama); (47) kauyá tengrá (pimelodus cavia); (48) keuyá tengrá (nearly related to the last); (49) păthári tengrá (pimelodus cavusi); (50) gágor (not identified); (51) changrármárá (pimelodus chandra-mara); (52) rám tengrá (pimelodus rama); (53) tengáná (pimelodus tengana); (54) barádáhá (pimelodus urua); (55) doyá (pimelodus anguis); (56) ritá (pimelodus rita); (57) pángáis (pimelodus pangasius); (58) silón (pimelodus silondia); (59) báchá (pimelodus vacha); (60) árí (pimelodus arius); (61) bágh árí (pimelodus bagarius); (62) khontá (pimelodous contra); (63) bhot mágur (pime-
ledous botius); (64) sisor (sisor rabdophorus); (65) cháká (platystacus chaca); (66) ghariyá or ghor (esox cancila); (67) bólitorá (cyprinus balitora); (68) sukati (cyprinus sucatio); (69) kháskhasiyá (mugil cascasia); (70) mugi or inglí (mugil corsula); (71) pháingyá (clupea telara); (72) phensá (clupea phasa); (73) phalýyi or phole (mystus capirit); (74) bárd chítál (mystus chitala); (75) chitál (nearly the same as the last); (76) ilish or hilsa (clupanodon hilisha); (77) manmin (clupanodon manmina); (78) khayrár or karati (clu-
panodon cortius); (79) morti or moti (clupanodon motius); (80) ghórá chélá (cyprinus gora); (81) naryáli chélá (cyprinus bacaia); (82) phul chélá (cyprinus phulo); (83) layu bhúká (cyprinus laubuca); (84) layu kulá (cyprinus atpar); (85) bhóla (cyprinus bola); (86) bük rángá (not given); (87) bólíbhólá (cyprinus borelis); (88) bari lá (cyprinus barila et chedris); (89) kháksá (cyprinus cocs); (90) chédra (cyprinus chedra); (91) chhepká (cyprinus devario); (92) rám cháná (cyprinus rasbora); (93) elángá (cyprinus elanga); (94) jaurí (cyprinus bata); (95) bhágán (cyprinus cura); (96) akhrá (cyprinus acra); (97) lachímá (resembles the last); (98) voya bhangán (cyprinus boga); (99) mrigál or mirgal (cyprinus mirgala); (100) rohit or rui (cyprinus rohita); (101) kurchá (cyprinus cursa et gonius); (102) mahá saul (cyprinus putitora); (103) tor (cyprinus tor); (104) anglá (cyprinus angra); (105) morul (cyprinus morala); (106) dhengro (cyprinus dero); (107) jaoyáli (cyprinus jaolius); (108) kálbasu (cyprinus calbasu); (109) kátal or kátá (cyprinus catla); (110) darange (cyprinus chagunio); (111) saran punthi
(cyprinus sarana); (112) punthi (cyprinus sophore); (113) cholá punthi (cyprinus chola); (114) teri-punthi (cyprinus terio); (115) tit-punthi (cyprinus ticto); (116) kānchān-punthi (cyprinus conchonias); (117) geli-punthi (cyprinus gelius); (118) phutuni-punthi (cyprinus phutunio); (119) kani-punthi (cyprinus canius); (120) ghugini (cyprinus guganio); (121) manyā, moldā, or murañā (cyprinus mola); (122) ghilā chándā (cyprinus cotoio); (123) dorkinā or dānikonā (cyprinus daniconius); (124) sādā bālitorā (cyprinus sada); (125) lati (cyprinus latius); (126) kuchiyd (unibranchapertura cuchia).

Population.—Rangpur is one of the most densely populated Districts in Bengal. Several attempts have been made towards an enumeration of the people, but the results of the general Census of 1872 prove that all previous estimates were very wide of the mark. The earliest recorded estimate is that of 1789, in which year the Collector returned the population of the then District (including Kuch Behar) at 459,512; which, after striking out the figures relating to tracts since separated, and, on the other hand, allowing for subsequent transfers to Rangpur, would amount to a population in 1789, for the area comprising the present District, of about 400,000. This estimate must have been very much too low; but at that time it was almost inevitable that the Collector should understate the number of the people, and it was the interest of the zāmindārs to make out their lands to be in as poor a state as possible.

In 1809 Dr. Buchanan Hamilton returned the population of Rangpur at 2,735,000, or 2,084,000 according to the present limits of the District. It is difficult to come to any definite conclusion as to the increase of the population in this District from these discrepant data. The first estimate is very much too low a one, while that of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, on the other hand, appears to be much too high. The details of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's estimate are exhibited in the following table:—
## Previous Estimates of Population

### Estimated Population of Rangpur in or about 1809, according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police Circuits (thānās)</th>
<th>Muhammadans</th>
<th>Hindus</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Kotwálí</td>
<td>31,000</td>
<td>19,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dháp</td>
<td>187,000</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>272,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Phuranbārī</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>86,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Bārūni</td>
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<td>5. Pātgrām</td>
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<td>6. Fakirganj</td>
<td>41,000</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>73,000</td>
</tr>
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<td>7. Sanyásikáta,</td>
<td>42,000</td>
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<td>8. Bodá</td>
<td>100,000</td>
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<td>231,000</td>
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<td>9. Dimlá</td>
<td>29,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>94,000</td>
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<td>10. Darwánī</td>
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<td>36,000</td>
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<td>11. Kumārganj</td>
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<td>12. Malang</td>
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<td>13. Bāghdawar</td>
<td>54,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>72,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Pirgān</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>74,000</td>
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<td>15. Sādullāpur</td>
<td>92,000</td>
<td>55,000</td>
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<td>16. Govindganj</td>
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<td>17. Dīwānganj</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>43,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Bhāvānganj</td>
<td>98,000</td>
<td>59,000</td>
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<td>19. Chilmāri</td>
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<td>20. Ulpūr</td>
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<td>64,000</td>
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<td>21. Barābārī</td>
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<td>22. Nāgeswari</td>
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<td>23. Dhūbri</td>
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<td>53,000</td>
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<td>24. Rāngāmáti,</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>82,000</td>
<td>93,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,536,000</td>
<td>1,199,000</td>
<td>2,735,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton’s survey, the thānās of Dhubri and Rāngāmáti have been transferred to Godalpárá; Dīwānganj to Maimansinh; and Fakirganj, Sanyásikáta, Bodá, and Pātgrām to Jalpāiguri. Deducting the figures for these thānās, there remains a balance of 1,268,000 Muhammadans and 816,000 Hindus; total, 2,084,000 for the area of the existing District.

These figures approximate very closely to the population of the District as ascertained by the general Census in 1872 (2,150,179); but Mr. Collector Glazier is of opinion that they considerably exceeded the population as existing in 1809, and gives the following reasons in support of his view:—‘According to Buchanan Hamilton’s estimate, the population was almost the same in 1809 as at present, after a prosperous period of over sixty years. When Buchanan Hamilton went over the land, it was fairly cultivated, but there was still a large quantity of good land left that had not come under the
(cyprinus sarana); (112) punthi (cyprinus sophore); (113) cholá punthi (cyprinus chola); (114) teri-punthi (cyprinus terio); (115) tit-punthi (cyprinus ticto); (116) kánchán-punthi (cyprinus conchoniæ); (117) geli-punthi (cyprinus gelius); (118) phutuni-punthi (cyprinus phutunio); (119) kani-punthi (cyprinus canius); (120) ghügni (cyprinus guganio); (121) mauyá, molá, or maurála (cyprinus mola); (122) ghilá chándá (cyprinus cotio); (123) dorkiná or dánikomé (cyprinus daniconius); (124) sálá bálitorá (cyprinus sada); (125) lati (cyprinus latius); (126) kuchiyá (unibranchiapertura cuchia).

Population.—Rangpur is one of the most densely populated Districts in Bengal. Several attempts have been made towards an enumeration of the people, but the results of the general Census of 1872 prove that all previous estimates were very wide of the mark. The earliest recorded estimate is that of 1789, in which year the Collector returned the population of the then District (including Kuch Behar) at 459,512; which, after striking out the figures relating to tracts since separated, and, on the other hand, allowing for subsequent transfers to Rangpur, would amount to a population in 1789, for the area comprising the present District, of about 400,000. This estimate must have been very much too low; but at that time it was almost inevitable that the Collector should understate the number of the people, and it was the interest of the zamindárs to make out their lands to be in as poor a state as possible.

In 1809 Dr. Buchanan Hamilton returned the population of Rangpur at 2,735,000, or 2,084,000 according to the present limits of the District. It is difficult to come to any definite conclusion as to the increase of the population in this District from these discrepant data. The first estimate is very much too low a one, while that of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, on the other hand, appears to be much too high. The details of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's estimate are exhibited in the following table:—
### Estimated Population of Rangpur in or about 1809, According to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Kotwāllī</td>
<td>31,000</td>
<td>19,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dhāp</td>
<td>187,000</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>272,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pharanbāri</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>86,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Bārunī</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>57,000</td>
<td>92,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Pāṭgrām</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Fakīrīganj</td>
<td>41,000</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>73,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sanyāsīkātā</td>
<td>42,000</td>
<td>41,000</td>
<td>83,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Bodā</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
<td>231,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Dimlā</td>
<td>29,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>94,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Darwānī</td>
<td>106,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>142,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Kumārganj</td>
<td>52,000</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>84,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Malang</td>
<td>61,000</td>
<td>21,000</td>
<td>82,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Bāghdāwār</td>
<td>54,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>72,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Pīrganj</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>74,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sādollāpur</td>
<td>92,000</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>147,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Govindganj</td>
<td>134,000</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>214,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Dīwānganj</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>43,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Bhawānīganj</td>
<td>98,000</td>
<td>59,000</td>
<td>157,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Chilmārī</td>
<td>47,000</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>75,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Ulīpur</td>
<td>105,000</td>
<td>64,000</td>
<td>169,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Barābārī</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>84,000</td>
<td>134,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Nāgeswāri</td>
<td>88,000</td>
<td>52,000</td>
<td>140,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Dhubrī</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>53,000</td>
<td>83,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Rāṅgāmātī</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>82,000</td>
<td>93,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 1,536,000 1,199,000 2,735,000

Since the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton’s survey, the thāндās of Dhubrī and Rāṅgāmātī have been transferred to Goālpārā; Dīwānganj to Maimansinh; and Fakīrīganj, Sanyāsīkātā, Bodā, and Pāṭgrām to Jalpāiguri. Deducting the figures for these thāндās, there remains a balance of 1,268,000 Muhammadans and 816,000 Hindus; total, 2,084,000 for the area of the existing District.

These figures approximate very closely to the population of the District as ascertained by the general Census in 1872 (2,150,179); but Mr. Collector Glazier is of opinion that they considerably exceeded the population as existing in 1809, and gives the following reasons in support of his view:—‘According to Buchanan Hamilton’s estimate, the population was almost the same in 1809 as at present, after a prosperous period of over sixty years. When Buchanan Hamilton went over the land, it was fairly cultivated, but there was still a large quantity of good land left that had not come under the
plough; and it is out of the question to suppose that there has been no increase of population since his time. Very little land is left uncultivated now; and the complaint all over the country is, that there is not enough grazing ground for the cattle. Buchanan Hamilton arrived at his figures in the following manner. He passed through a great part of the District, and from his personal observation and inquiries in every direction he made a calculation of the quantity of cultivated land; and, assuming that one plough could cultivate fifteen bighás or five acres, to every plough he counted five persons for the agricultural population, adding to his results certain proportions to make up the non-agricultural portion of the people. Now, taking as correct this calculation of cultivated land,—a very large assumption,—it seems to me that the apportionment of five persons of agricultural population to each plough is excessive. The families in this District are small; the boys begin early to follow the plough; and many are compelled to remain unmarried to a comparatively late age, because the well-to-do classes of the agriculturists monopolize more than their fair share of the women. I think a calculation of three to a plough would be much nearer the truth; and this would give a population (for the area of the existing District) in 1809 of 1,200,000. Buchanan Hamilton in 1809 estimated that the population had increased one-third during the preceding twenty years. Taking the increase as such, the population having doubled in many parts mainly by immigration, and calculating a further increase of two-thirds for the sixty-three years between 1809 and 1872, which seems a not excessive estimate, the figures (for the area of the existing District) would stand thus in round numbers:—Population in 1789, 720,000; ditto in 1809, 1,200,000; ditto in 1872, 2,149,972 (Census figures).'

The first regular Census of Rangpur was taken simultaneously throughout the District on the night of the 15th January 1872. The results disclosed a total population of 2,149,972 souls, dwelling in 4266 villages or townships, and 331,079 houses; the average density of population throughout the District being 619 to the square mile. The manner in which the Census was carried out is thus described by the District officer:—'The plan pursued by the Assistant Magistrate, to whom was entrusted the work of preparing the lists of survey mauzás or halkás (collections of villages) in each thaná (police circle), was as follows: A tracing of each thaná, according to the revised boundaries, was made on the one-inch-to-the-mile map, and over each mauzá or halká its serial number in the
main registers was written in red ink. If, as was often the case, the
name of the mauzā was not mentioned on the one-inch-to-the-mile
map, reference was made to the four-inch-to-the-mile congregated
village sheets, and the mauzā being discovered, its number was
written as nearly as possible over the spot where the name of the
mauzā ought to have been. This process was a tedious one, but
it was the only way in which an accurate list of the survey mauzās
or halkās in each thānā could be prepared.

'The chief supervisor was a paid officer, because there was no
Government official available for the duty; the supervisors were
also all paid, because the time allowed for preparation was short.
No police officers fit for such posts were available. The enumerators
were chosen mostly from the patwāris (village accountants), who
exist nearly all over the District. In the few places where they
were not available, the services of the samindāris muharrirs (land-
holders' clerks) were made use of. The mandals (village heads),
tahsildārs (rentcollectors), and mukhtārs (law agents) were also
employed, but only one constable who was able to read and write.
The chaukidārs (village watchmen) were made very useful in assisting
the enumerators in their work. In the town, schoolmasters
were employed as enumerators, but not many in the rural parts.
Parwanās (requisitions) were issued to about five hundred samind-
dārs to assist the supervisors and enumerators; and great assistance
was rendered by the agents of Mahārānī Swarnamāyī. The samindārs'
 servants who gave assistance were ordinarily the local agents and
servants of the samindārs. In fact, I believe that all classes who
could in any way assist have been employed in some degree or other.'

As regards the accuracy of the Census, the District officer is of
opinion that 'he would be a bold man who would say that the
Census was accurate;' but he 'believes that every precaution was
taken to secure as accurate a Census as possible, and the figures
given may fairly be presumed to be approximate.'

Rangpur is the most populous District in the Rājshāhī Division.
Only in the two police circles (thānās) of Pīrganj and Chilmārī is
the population less than five hundred to the square mile, the average
for the whole District being nearly one person for every acre. The
most densely populated parts are the tracts on either side of the
Tistā, which bisects the District from north-west to south-east. The
whole District is more amply watered than any other in the Division,
and this probably accounts for its denser population.
The table on the following page, exhibiting the area, population, etc. of each police circle (thānā) of Rangpur District, is quoted from the Census Report of 1872. The averages given are those of the Census officers, and have not been subjected to verification.

Population classified according to Sex, Religion, and Age. —The total population of Rangpur District consisted in 1872 of 2,149,972 souls, namely, 1,095,026 males and 1,054,946 females. Proportion of males in the total population, 50.83 per cent.; average density of the population, 619 per square mile. Classified according to religion and age, the Census gives the following results:—Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 248,058, and females 188,742; total 436,800: above twelve years, males 414,085, and females 440,580; total 854,665. Total Muhammadans of all ages, males 662,143, and females 629,322; grand total 1,291,465, or 60.06 per cent. of the District population. Hindus—under twelve years of age, males 143,249, and females 115,616; total 258,865: above twelve years, males 289,312, and females 309,121; total 598,433. Total Hindus of all ages, males 432,561, and females 424,737; grand total 857,298, or 39.87 of the District population. Christians—under twelve years of age, males 10, and females 16; total 26: above twelve years, males 26, and females 21; total 47. Total Christians of all ages, males 36, and females 37; grand total 73. Other denominations not separately classified, consisting of Buddhists and aboriginal races and tribes—under twelve years of age, males 107, and females 132; total 239: above twelve years, males 179, and females 718; total 897. Total ‘others’ of all ages, males 286, and females 850; grand total 1136, or 0.05 per cent. of the District population. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 391,424, and females 304,506; total 695,930: above twelve years, males 703,602, and females 750,440; total 1,454,042. Total District population of all ages, males 1,095,026, and females 1,054,946; grand total 2,149,972: proportion of males in total District population, 50.83 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population, of different religions, is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Muhammadans—proportion of male children 19.2 per cent., and of female children 14.6 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 33.8 per cent. of the Muhammadan population. Hindus—male children 16.7 per cent., and female children
## THE CENSUS OF 1872

### ABSTRACT OF AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THANA) OF RANSPUR, 1872.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subdivision</th>
<th>Police Circle (Thana)</th>
<th>Number of Houses</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Total Population per House</th>
<th>Area in Square Miles</th>
<th>Police Circle (Thana)</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Total Population per House</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.687</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>1.979</td>
<td>3.475</td>
<td>1.359</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0.87</td>
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<td>1. Sudder Headquarters Subdivision</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Madhupur, Nishatbagh, Darwazah, Jalalpur, Dina, Bharabari, Barabari, Madar, Take, Keshogarh, Suli, Gora</td>
<td>2.687</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>1.979</td>
<td>3.475</td>
<td>1.359</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Bhawaniganj Subdivision</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- This is only the approximate area as taken for the purposes of the Census; but for the sake of uniformity I have adopted it for all calculations of percentages and averages based upon the area throughout this Account. The exact area of the District, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874, is 3411.5, square miles.
Sentence continued from page 208.]

13'5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 30'2 per cent. of the Hindu population. Buddhists—male children 8'2 per cent., and female children 9'8 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 18'0 per cent. of the Buddhist population. Christians—male children 13'7 per cent., and female children 21'9 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 35'6 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other denominations—male children 9'5 per cent., and female children 11'7 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 21'2 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions—male children 18'2 per cent., and female children 14'2 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 32'4 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, is probably due to the fact that natives consider girls attain womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood. The proportion of the sexes of all ages, namely, males 50'83 per cent., and females 49'17 per cent., is probably correct. The general excess of males over females is explained by the fact that a large number of labourers from neighbouring Districts come to Rangpur for the harvesting (the season of the year at which the Census was taken), leaving their wives and families behind them.

The number and proportion of insanees and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Rangpur District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes—males 695, and females 223; total 918, or 0'427 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males 37, and females 14; total 51, or 0'024 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males 594, and females 192; total 786, or 0'366 per cent. of the population. Blind—males 954, and females 463; total 1417, or 0'659 per cent. of the population. Lepers—males 2120, and females 182; total 2302, or 1'071 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirns amounted to 4400, or 4'018 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirns 1074, or 1'018 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirns of both sexes was 5474, or 2'546 per cent. of the total District population.

Population according to occupation.—I omit the details of population according to occupation given in the District Census Compilation, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.
**HINDU HIGH CASTES.**

**Ethnical Division of the People.**—The races in Rangpur District are divided by the Collector into two classes,—Aryans, and aboriginal tribes or races. The first class consists of settlers from Bengal or other parts of India, who by the tide of conquest or desire of trade and employment have immigrated into the District and permanently settled there. These settlers are of various religions and sects, consisting of Hindus, Sikhs, Jains, and Muhammadans. The second class consists of aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes, such as the Koch or Rájbansi, Mech or Kuri, and others. The characteristic features of these people—flat faces, broad noses, and high cheek-bones—clearly show that they belong to the Mongolian race. They were the indigenous inhabitants of Rangpur, who founded the last local dynasty previous to the irruption of the Muhammadans; and the marked Mongol physiognomy of the people is unmistakable in the portion of the District bordering on Kuch (Koch) Behar. In Buchanan Hamilton’s time, these tribes numbered half the Hindu inhabitants of Govindganj, but the line of demarcation has now been pushed farther north.

Mr. C. F. Magrath’s District Census Compilation for Rangpur thus classes the ethnical divisions of the people. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged in a different order from that given here, according to the rank which they hold in local public esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.</th>
<th>Number.</th>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.</th>
<th>Number.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I.—NON-ASIATICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td>III.—ASIATICS.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td></td>
<td>A.—Other than Natives of India and Burmah.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotch</td>
<td></td>
<td>Armenian,</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dane</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nepálí,</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
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<td>Total,</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II.—MIXED RACES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>B.—Natives of India and British Burmah.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurasian</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1. Aboriginal Tribes.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Káchári,</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rabhá,</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.</td>
<td>Number.</td>
<td>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.</td>
<td>Number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Aboriginal Tribes—continued.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(iii.) TRADING CASTES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telengá</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>Agarwála and Márvári,</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nat.</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>Gandhbanik,</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhángár</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>Kainyá,</td>
<td>66</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhumíj</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Khairi,</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhar</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Oswál,</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>1,109</td>
<td>Subarnábanik,</td>
<td>414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>1,480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bágdá</td>
<td>63</td>
<td><strong>(iv.) PASTORAL CASTES.</strong></td>
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<td>Bábélíá</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Garcéri,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Báúrí</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Goálá,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bedíyá</td>
<td>2,160</td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>3,050</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhuyá</td>
<td>191</td>
<td><strong>(v.) CASTES ENGAGED IN PREPARING</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Buná</td>
<td>193</td>
<td><strong>COOKED FOOD.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cháín</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Gánráí,</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chámár and Muchí</td>
<td>3,628</td>
<td>Haláwálí,</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurí</td>
<td>5,475</td>
<td>Madak,</td>
<td>5,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandálí</td>
<td>36,148</td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>5,814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dom</td>
<td>3,095</td>
<td><strong>(vi.) AGRICULTURAL CASTES.</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dosádh</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>Agúri,</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hárí</td>
<td>6,213</td>
<td>Bárúi,</td>
<td>1,374</td>
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<tr>
<td>Karangá</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Támbhuli,</td>
<td>319</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khyen</td>
<td>20,013</td>
<td>Chásá Dhopá,</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koch</td>
<td>6,345</td>
<td>Kailártta,</td>
<td>35,396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pall</td>
<td>1,906</td>
<td>Koérí,</td>
<td>21,162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ráijbansí</td>
<td>399,407</td>
<td>Kurmi,</td>
<td>1,350</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mál</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>Málí,</td>
<td>2,668</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mihtar</td>
<td>2,298</td>
<td>Hakár,</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhúimáli</td>
<td>3,771</td>
<td>Bhatiá,</td>
<td>1,153</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pásí</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>Sadgop,</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shikárí</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>Others,</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>492,149</td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>63,624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Hindus.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(vii.) CASTES ENGAGED CHIEFLY IN</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(i.) SUPERIOR CASTES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PERSONAL SERVICE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bráhman</td>
<td>10,623</td>
<td>Hájíjám, or Nápít,</td>
<td>13,726</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ráiput</td>
<td>2,404</td>
<td>Dhoá,</td>
<td>805</td>
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<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>13,027</td>
<td>Behará,</td>
<td>19,055</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>(ii.) INTERMEDIATE CASTES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Káhár,</td>
<td>707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baidyá</td>
<td>886</td>
<td>Dhánuk,</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhát</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Dháwá,</td>
<td>1,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>Káyasth</td>
<td>10,387</td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>35,595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</td>
<td>Number.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii.) Artisan Castes.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kármar (blacksmith)</td>
<td>4,237</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kánsári (brazier)</td>
<td>306</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sonár (goldsmith)</td>
<td>255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sutradhár (carpenter)</td>
<td>2,326</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumár (potter)</td>
<td>6,709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suní (distiller)</td>
<td>7,692</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell (oilman)</td>
<td>2,528</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalu (ditto)</td>
<td>734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sánkhári (shell-cutter)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>24,822</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ix.) Weaver Castes.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tántí</td>
<td>2,578</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julahá</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derá</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogí</td>
<td>6,819</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ganesh</td>
<td>260</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kápáli</td>
<td>316</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10,034</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(x.) Labouring Castes.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Beldár</td>
<td>139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunáráí</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>212</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(xi.) Castes occupied in Selling Fish and Vegetables.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabzá</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nikáráí</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(xii.) Boating and Fishing Castes.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jálíyá</td>
<td>16,301</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhal</td>
<td>401</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pátuní</td>
<td>2,178</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pod</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiyár</td>
<td>141,213</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Málá</td>
<td>388</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mánjhi</td>
<td>1,004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keót</td>
<td>961</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>162,447</strong></td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(xiii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Báíti, etc.</td>
<td>1,091</td>
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<tr>
<td>(xiv.) Persons enumerated by Nationality only.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hindustání</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Panjábi</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>59</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Caste.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,415</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Grand Total of Hindus:** 339,983

4. Persons of Hindu origin not recognising Caste.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vaishnav</td>
<td>24,451</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tantránáth</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanyásí</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Christians</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25,171</strong></td>
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5. Muhammedans.

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<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Julahá</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathán</td>
<td>815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayyíd</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>1,290,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,291,465</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maghs</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total of Natives of India</strong></td>
<td>2,149,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total of Asians</strong></td>
<td>2,149,932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td>2,149,972</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CASTES.—The following is a list of ninety-one Hindu castes met with in Rangpur District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public esteem, together with their occupations, etc. The figures showing the number of each caste are extracted from Mr. C. F. Magrath’s District Census Compilation for Rangpur.

HIGH CASTES.—The following eight rank highest:—(1) Bráhman; members of the priesthood; many are also landholders, and others are employed in Government or private service. In 1809 Buchanan Hamilton estimated the total number of Bráhmans in Rangpur at about six thousand families. The number of Bráhmans in Rangpur District amounted in 1872, according to the Census Report, to 10,623. The settlement of the sacerdotal class of Hindus in Rangpur has taken place within historical times. The following account of the immigration of Bráhmans into this District, together with much information concerning other castes, is condensed from Buchanan Hamilton’s Ms. Report on Rangpur. The earliest Bráhman settlement appears to have taken place in the thirteenth or fourteenth century, having been introduced from Mithilá or Tirhut by the Rájás of Kamátápúr. These Bráhmans are still numerous in the north and west of Rangpur, and in the State of Kuch Behar. This class of Bráhmans is said to be not disgraced by acting as spiritual guides or priests to the lower classes; and they have many followers among the Súdra castes, as also among the semi-aboriginal tribes of Rájbanís and Khyens. The next Bráhman colony in point of antiquity in Rangpur was formed by immigrants from Kanaúj or Oudh, who are now called Kámrápi Vaidiks. They were introduced about the beginning of the sixteenth century by Viswa Sinh, but whether direct from Kanaúj or through Sylhet does not seem to be clearly ascertained. At any rate they have now entirely separated from the Sylhet Vaidiks, and have adopted customs peculiar to themselves. Many also of these Bráhmans act as priests and religious instructors to the lower castes. They do not themselves lose caste by so doing, although their children become less acceptable in marriage. In the southern part of the District, the Bráhmans principally belong to the Barendrá and Ráthi classes (described in my Account of Rájsháhi District). These would lose their purity by ministering to Súdras, and they look down upon the two first-named classes of Bráhmans. A few Utkala or Orissa Bráhmans are found in Rangpur, as also a few Bráhman
families from the west of India, called bhuiyari or zamindar Brāhmans. Besides their duties as priests and religious instructors, the Brāhmans of Rangpur occupy many offices in the administration of justice, in the police, in the collection of the public revenue, and also in the management of large private estates. (2) Acharjya or Daibajya; astrologers and fortune-tellers. They wear the sacred thread, and are considered as a class of degraded Brāhmans, who have lapsed from caste on account of their indiscriminate acceptance of alms. They are not returned as a separate caste in the Census Report, and are probably included in the general body of Brāhmans. (3) Bhát; heralds and genealogists; many of them also rent land, which they cultivate by means of hired labour. The Bhats assert themselves to be lapsed Brāhmans, and wear the sacred thread, but their claims in this respect are disputed by many. They are ranked as a separate caste in the Census Report, in which their number is returned at 21. (4) Kshattriya; the second or warrior caste in the ancient Hindu social organization. At the present day, however, it is believed that there are no pure Kshattriyas in Bengal, and the caste given as ‘Khatrí’ in the Census Report is the great trading class of Upper India. Their number in Rangpur District in 1872 is returned at 118. (5) Rájput; employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and doorkeepers. They claim to be Kshattriyas by descent, probably on account of their military occupation. The Census Report of 1872 returns their number in Rangpur District at 2404. (6) Baidyá; hereditary physicians by caste occupation. Most of the members of this caste in the District are immigrants from other Districts, who have come in search of service, and have betaken themselves to various employments. Some are employed as priests. The number of Baidyas in Rangpur District in 1872 is returned at 886. (7) Káysth; the writer caste of Bengal; employed in Government service, as zamindarí revenue officers and agents, in mercantile pursuits, and in every other occupation followed by the respectable classes. A large number of the Assam tribe of Kolitás have assumed the title and rank of Káysths, and, according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, ‘conceal their descent from the Kolitas with as much care as the Rájá of (Kuch) Behar does his origin from a Koch.’ At the present day, however, it appears that the Kolitá Káysths are held in equal esteem with the Bengal Káysths. The Census Report in 1872 returned the number of Káysths in Rangpur District at 10,387. (8) Márwári and Agar-
wálá; wealthy up-country traders. They are two distinct castes, but are returned together in the Census Report, which gives their number in Rangpur District at 67.

Pure Sudra Castes.—Next in rank come the following sixteen Sudra castes, from whose hands a Bráhman can take water or uncooked food without injury to his caste. Originally these pure Sudra castes were only nine in number, called nabasák, but some of them have split up into two or three subdivisions, all held in equal respect, while other lower castes, by their influence and wealth, have forced themselves forward into a position of equal social respectability. (9) Nápit; barbers; 13,726 in number. (10) Kámár; blacksmiths; 4237 in number. (11) Kumár; potters; 6709 in number. (12) Télí or Tíl; oil pressers and sellers by caste occupation. Many, however, have now abandoned their hereditary profession, and are traders in salt and grain. Some of the wealthiest merchants of Rangpur District belong to this caste. Number in 1872, 2528. (13) Támbullí or Támlí; originally pán growers and sellers by caste occupation, but now traders and merchants in grain and salt; 319 in number. (14) Báruí; growers and sellers of pán or betel leaf; 1374 in number. (15) Sadgop, commonly called Chásá-Golá; the highest of the cultivating castes. Buchanan Hamilton states that they are properly tenders of cattle, who have now betaken themselves to agriculture. Number in 1872 in Rangpur District, 136. (16) Máltí; gardeners and flower sellers; 2068 in number. (17) Gandhabanik; grocers and spice dealers; 758 in number. (18) Sánkhári; shell-cutters and makers of shell bracelets; 35 in number. (19) Kainyá; traders and merchants; 66 in number. (20) Oswál; traders and merchants; 57 in number. (21) Kánsári; braziers and coppersmiths; 306 in number. (22) Aguri; a respectable mixed caste of cultivators; according to Buchanan Hamilton, its members lay claim to the dignity of Kshattryiyahood. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 9. (23) Kurmi; a respectable cultivating caste, immigrants from the country in the neighbourhood of Patná; 1360 in number. (24) Kaibarttas; Buchanan Hamilton also classes the Kaibarttas among the pure Sudra castes, although it is generally believed that they belong to one of the aboriginal tribes of Western Bengal, who during the early period of the Aryan colonization succeeded by their numbers and influence in obtaining admission to Hinduism on honourable terms. Further mention of the Kaibarttas will be found in my Statistical
Accounts of Húglí and Midnapur Districts. The Kaibarttas are one of the Súdra castes who are ministered to by Bráhman priests who have lapsed from pure Bráhmanhood. To such an extent are these lapsed Bráhmans looked down upon, that although a pure Bráhman may receive water from a Kaibartta without injury to his caste, yet even a respectable Súdra (other than a Kaibartta) would be degraded by receiving food or water from the Bráhman priest by whom the Kaibarttas are instructed. The number of Kaibarttas in Rangpur in 1872 is returned at 35,396.

INTERMEDIATE SUDRA CASTES.—The intermediate Súdra castes, who are neither esteemed nor despised, but who have some claim to respectability, are the following twenty-six:—(25) Koerí; cultivators; given as a separate caste in the Census Report, but they are probably merely a branch of Kaibarttas. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 21,626. (26) Garerí; an up-country pastoral caste; 1 in number. (27) Goáld; milkmen and cowherds; 3049 in number. (28) Chásá Dhópá; cultivators; 15 in number. (29) Gánrá; sellers and preparers of parched rice; 16 in number. (30) Another caste called Gánrá, quite distinct from the above, is mentioned by Buchanan Hamilton, but not returned in the Census Report. Regarding this caste Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states: 'The Gánrárs are a tribe of fishermen, originally from the vicinity of Dacca, of whom about two hundred families have settled in this District, along the banks of the Brahmaputra. They do not use a net, but strike otters, porpoises, crocodiles, tortoises, and large fish with various kinds of spears, in the use of which they are very dexterous. They also have fast-rowing boats, in which they are employed to carry messages and to act as guards. The robbers who swarm on the river (1809) dread the spear of the Gánrá, and seldom venture to attack them or any boats that are under their protection. Those that have lately come from Dacca are of a higher social rank than the others, and have a Bráhman for their religious guide. They make frequent sacrifices of a particular species of river tortoise (jat káchhim) to a female deity called Kalá Kumári (daughter of the deep), who afflicts with sickness all those who neglect to make such offerings. These Gánrárs sell only tortoises and otter skins, and live upon the fish which they catch. The other class, who have been long settled in the country, are of a much lower rank, and have no Bráhman priest. They sell the fish they catch, and have taken to eating pork and drinking spirituous liquors. The two classes neither
eat together nor intermarry.' (31) Madak; sweetmeat makers; 5554 in number. (32) Halwáí or Halwákár; confectioners, etc.; 244 in number. (33) Hakár; cultivators; 116 in number. (34) Bhatí; cultivators; 1153 in number. (35) Vaishnáv; a class of Hindus professing the doctrines of Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the fifteenth century, which inculcate renunciation of caste and the equality of man before his Maker. Caste principles, however, are said to be now creeping in among them. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 24,451. (36) Sanyásí, 268 in number, and (37) Tantránáth, 420 in number; two sects of Sivaite religious ascetics, who also profess renunciation of caste. (38) Tántí; weavers; 2578 in number. (39) Sutraddhar or Chhutár; carpenters; 2326 in number. (40) Kalú; oil pressers and sellers; 734 in number. (41) Subarnábanik or Sonárbaní; dealers in gold and silver, bankers and money-changers; 414 in number. (42) Sekera or Swarnákár; goldsmiths and jewellers; 255 in number. (43) Barendrá Sháhá; not separately mentioned in the Census Report. They probably belong to the Suri (also called Sháhá) or wine-distilling caste, but have abandoned their hereditary occupation, and are now well-to-do grain and salt merchants. In Buchanan Hamilton’s time they were said to number about five hundred houses in Rangpur District. (44) Ganesh; returned in the Census Report as a weaving caste, but stated by Buchanan Hamilton to be potters; 260 in number. (45) Jälíyá; fishermen; returned as a separate caste in the Census Report, but stated by Buchanan Hamilton to be a branch of the Kailárttas; number in 1872, 16,301. (46) Jhál; fishermen; an offshoot of the foregoing caste; 401 in number. (47) Mánjí; not a caste, but a class of boatmen who act as helmsmen; 1004 in number. (48) Málá; fishermen and boatmen; 388 in number. (49) Bayuri; makers of sweetmeats and various preparations from rice. Not given as a caste in the Census Report; but Buchanan Hamilton states that in his time the caste numbered about a hundred houses in Rangpur District. (50) Kapálí; weavers and umbrella-makers; 316 in number. Buchanan Hamilton states that the members of this caste in Rangpur are held in higher social esteem than in the neighbouring District of Dinájpur, and have Bráhmans as their spiritual instructors. Number in 1872, 316.

Low Castes.—The following nineteen are low castes, and nearly all of them are of semi-aboriginal descent:—(51) Dhobá; washermen; 805 in number. (52) Sunrí or Suri (also called Sháhá);
wine distillers and sellers; 7692 in number. The Barendër Sháhás mentioned above (No. 43) are probably an offshoot of this caste. (53) Jogí or Jugí; weavers, lime-burners, and religious beggars; 6819 in number. Buchanan Hamilton is of opinion that these Jogis formed the priesthood of this part of the country in ancient times. The Jogis have separated into two branches, the members of one branch neither intermarrying nor eating with the other. The first branch, called Halingá, are weavers and cultivators; their women dye thread and retail turmeric, capsicum, and other condiments. The second class is called Theluyá. Its members live by begging and reciting sacred poems, and when these fail to procure a subsistence, by burning lime from shells. A few of them have also taken to cultivation. Many also act as religious instructors and priests to the labouring classes. (54) Chapál; mentioned by Buchanan Hamilton as a low weaving caste in the north-west of the District, but not returned as a separate caste in the Census Report. (55) Julahá; weavers; 18 in number. (56) Derá; weavers; 43 in number. (57) Beldár; day-labourers; 139 in number. (58) Chunárf; burners of lime from shells; 73 in number. (59) Káhár; palanquin bearers and domestic servants in respectable families; 707 in number. (60) Dhánuk; day-labourers and domestic servants; 2 in number. (61) Dháwá; domestic servants; 1300 in number. (62) Behárá; palanquin bearers and day-labourers; 19,055. (63) Tior; fishermen and boatmen; the second most numerous caste in Rangpur District, returned in the Census Report of 1872 at 141,213. (64) Pátní; ferrymen and boatmen; also fishermen and basket-makers; 2178 in number. (65) Keut; fishermen; 961 in number. (66) Sabzí; sellers of vegetables; 14 in number. (67) Nikárí; fishmongers; 5 in number. (68) Báiti; mat-makers and musicians; 1091 in number. (69) Chandál; cultivators and fishermen; 36,148 in number.

**Semi-Aboriginal Castes.**—The following twenty-two are all undoubtedly semi-aboriginal castes:—(70) Rájbansí; the most numerous caste or tribe in the District, numbering, according to the Census Report, 399,407 souls. (71) Pálí; 1906 in number. (72) Koch; 6345 in number. These three last mentioned are all branches of one aboriginal tribe. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that 'the most numerous and important tribes in this District are the Koch and Rájbansí, with their subdivisions, but they are generally looked upon as low and impure. This is naturally resented, especially
by their chiefs and princes, who lay claim to a divine origin. Many of them observe the Hindu law with such strictness, that in their own territory at least they are allowed to be real Sudras, and the Mithilá and Kámrúp Bráhmans admit them to be such, although the orthodox Bengali Bráhmans hold them in contempt. Many of the chiefs claim to be descended from the Kshattriyas who escaped from the wrath of Parasurám, the Bráhman incarnation of Vishnu, in the war of extermination which he made upon them, by flying to Chin (China).

(73) Khyen. This is the next tribe of importance in this part of the country, and seems to rank higher than either of the foregoing. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that they 'are the only Kámrúpí tribe that the Bráhmans of Bengal will admit to be pure Sudras, which clearly shows the great power that their princes held.' The number of Khyens in Rangpur District is returned at 20,013 in the Census Report of 1872. (74) Bhuiyá; cultivators and labourers; 191 in number. (75) Báuri; cultivators and labourers; 45 in number. (76) Báhelía; day-labourers; 6 in number. (77) Bágdí; cultivators, fisher men, and day-labourers; 63 in number. (78) Buná; day-labourers; 193 in number. (79) Cháín; cultivators and labourers; 22 in number. (80) Chámár and Muchí; shoemakers and leather dealers; 3628 in number. (81) Kuril; 5475 in number. (82) Dom; a very low caste of cultivators, fisher men, and basket-makers; 3095 in number. (83) Dosádh; cultivators and labourers; 195 in number. (84) Karangá; cultivators and labourers; 6 in number. (85) Mál; snake charmers and musicians; 386 in number. (86) Páí; makers of toddy from date juice; 194 in number. (87) Shikári; hunters and fowlers; 389 in number. (88) Hárí; swineherds and sweepers; 6213 in number. (89) Míhtár; sweepers; 2298 in number. (90) Bhuimáll; a branch of the foregoing; gardeners, basket-makers, and sweepers; 3771 in number. (91) Bediyá; a wandering gipsy-like tribe, who gain their living by bird-catching, snake-catching, juggling, making drums, begging, etc., and when these fail, by petty thefts; 2160 in number.

ABORIGINAL TRIBES.—The Census Report returns the following seven as aboriginal tribes; many of their members, however, have now embraced some form of Hinduism:—(92) Telengá; 671 in number. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states they are a similar caste to the Bediyáś. They live by begging, playing on drums, etc., and snaring birds; some of them also trade in cattle. (93) Ráhbá; 11 in number. (94) Káchári; 21 in number. (95) Nát; 157 in
number. (96) Dhangár; 242 in number. (97) Bhumij; 3 in number. (98) Bhar; 4 in number.

Religious Division of the People.—The great bulk of the population of Rangpur are Muhammadans and Hindus, the remainder consisting of a very small sprinkling of members of the Bráhmá Samaj, Buddhists, Christians, and aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive forms of faith. According to the Census Report of 1872, the Muhammadans of Rangpur District number 662,143 males, and 629,322 females—total, 1,291,465, or 60 per cent. of the total population; proportion of Muhammadan males in total Musalmán population, 51.3 per cent. The Hindus are returned at 432,561 males, and 424,737 females—total, 857,298, or 39.9 per cent. of the total population; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 50.5 per cent. The Census Report apparently includes the members of the Bráhmá Samaj, or reformed Theistic sect of Hindus, with the general Hindu population. The Buddhist population consists of only 46 males and 15 females—total, 61; and the Christians, of 36 males and 37 females—total, 73. Other religious denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal tribes which still retain their ancient faiths, number 240 males and 835 females—total, 1075; proportion of males in total ‘other’ population, 22.3 per cent.

The Muhammadans form the majority of the population, numbering in 1872, 662,143 males, and 629,322 females—total, 1,291,465, or 60 per cent. of the total population of the District; proportion of males in the total Musalmán population, 51.3 per cent. The existence of a large Muhammadan population is said to be accounted for rather by conversion of the original inhabitants than by immigration, although the latter also has tended to increase the number. On this subject Dr. Buchanan Hamilton writes: ‘Although the followers of the Kurán form the largest proportion of the inhabitants of this district, there is little reason to suppose that many of them are intruders. They seem in general, from their countenances, to be descendants of the original inhabitants, who have been converted in a great measure probably by the intolerance of the Muhammadan Governors of Bengal. In the parts of the District which were conquered by the Mughuls, the original tribes have suffered less; for until the time of Aurangzeb, the princes of the house of Timur were perfectly tolerant. In some parts, as in Battrishazári, the number of Musalmáns seems to be owing to an increase of cultivation. The zamindár, on the establishment of a settled government,
invited strangers to settle on his estates more accustomed to a settled life than his own tenants, who had long been in the habit of skulking from wood to wood; and his supply came chiefly from Dinajpur, where most of the cultivators are Musalmáns.

The Collector of the District reported to me, in 1871, that the Muhammadans of Rangpur have of late years divided into two sects, called Shárá and Be-Shárá. The former, called also Faráízis or Namázís, adhere strictly to the law of Muhammad as laid down in the Kurán, and abstain from the processions and ceremonial observances of the Muharram, which they consider are not enjoined by the sacred law. All the higher classes of Muhammadans in Rangpur are said to be gradually becoming Shárás or Faráízis, and it is only the lower orders that still observe the Muharram ceremonials and processions. The Be-Shárás are numerically stronger than the Shárás, but the latter, owing to their wealth and position, are the more influential. The Collector states there is no reason to believe that this new sect is fanatical or intolerant. The religion of Islám is said to have now ceased from making any further progress among the people.

The Hindus of Rangpur number 432,561 males, and 424,737 females—total, 857,298, or 39.9 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in the total Hindu population, 50.5 per cent. Regarding the different religious orders of Hindus, I quote the following in a condensed form from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who obtained the information from a learned Goswámi pandit of the District. He says that the Rangpur Bráhmans, as well as those of Bengal generally, are divided into only two sects (maths) deserving special notice, the others being unimportant and numerically inconceivable. The first and most numerous of these sects is the Sakta math, the followers of which, without rejecting the Puráns, follow as their chief guide the principles inculcated in the Tantras, which, according to tradition, were composed by Siva for the instruction of his wife Parvati, at the commencement of the Satyá Yug, or earliest age of Hindu mythological chronology. This sect is divided into three branches,—Divyabháv, Pasubháv, and Virbháv. Although the date of the composition of the Tantras is assigned to a period of the remotest antiquity, the earliest historical personage who gained any celebrity in teaching and explaining its doctrines appears to have been Krishnanand, a Nadiyá Bráhman who lived about the middle of the sixteenth century. His doctrine, called Pasubháv or Dak-
shinachar, is that followed by the great majority of Bengali Brāhmans belonging to the Sākta math. About the end of the sixteenth century, Brāhmanandgiri, a Brāhman of Maimansinh, preached the doctrines followed by the Virbhāv branch of the sect. The second great sect (math) are the Vaishnavs, who follow as their chief guides the works of the sage Vyāsā. On this account the two sects are sometimes called respectively Tantriks and Vaidiks; but it must be observed that by far the greater part of the Brāhmans of Bengal who are called Vaidiks follow in reality the doctrines of the Tantrás. The principal religious work upon the Vaidik doctrines is the Sṛibhāgavat. No religious teachers of any great note appear to have arisen among the followers of Vyāsā until the time of Sankar, one of the great doctors of the Vaishnavs of Bengal, who founded the congregation (samprādā) called Rudrā. Nearly contemporaneously with him lived Adāyanachārjyā, another celebrated Vaishnav teacher. Shortly following after these great doctors, another teacher appeared, named Vishnuswami, who taught doctrines which occasioned a schism in the sect. The congregation split into two bodies, called respectively Gyangu and Bhāgavot, upon a difference of opinion respecting the materialization of the Deity,—one body maintaining that the Supreme Being is endowed with a material body, and the other rejecting this doctrine. Another branch is that which goes by the name of Sṛi-samprādā, or holy congregation. The followers of this sect maintain that its doctrines were first taught in private by the goddess Lakshmī, wife of Nārāyan (Krishna), and were handed down from one holy man to another, until they were made public to the world by Ramānujā, a great Vishnuvite reformer of the eleventh or twelfth century. The followers of the teachers of Ramānujā are few in number in Rangpur. Another and more important branch of the sect remains to be described. Madhav, a pupil of the great teacher Sankar, having differed with his master on a question relating to the seat of the soul, went to Badranāth, near the source of the Ganges, in order to consult the sage Vyāsā. Madhav prayed to the image of Vyāsā, whereupon the sage discovered himself, and instructed him in the doctrine which he afterwards taught. His followers maintain that this doctrine was first revealed by Nārāyan (Vishnu in his form of Krishna) to Brahmá, and by him to Narad, by whom it was communicated to Vyāsā. All the Goswamis or Gosāins of Bengal belong to this branch. The three principal teachers of the doctrines held by them are, Chaitanya,
the great religious reformer, born at Nadiyá in 1484-85 A.D., and his disciples, Adwaitá and Nityánand. The latest congregation of this sect (math) was established by Nimbak, a Bráhman of the west of India, who promulgated his doctrines shortly after the time of Madhav. This congregation is usually called sanak sam-práddá, and its members Nimayik Vaishnavs. A few of them are scattered throughout Bengal, and there are two or three convents (dkrás) in Rangpur.

The Brahma Samaj, or Theistical sect of Hindus, is said by the Collector to be making progress among the educated natives at the Civil Station and at Kánkiná, where a vernacular weekly paper, called the Rangpur Dik Prákás, advocates the cause of the sect. The Collector believes that although there are few who have (1871) openly avowed the doctrines of the Samaj, yet a real change in this respect is gradually being made in the town population. At present, however, the Samaj appears to have made no progress in the rural tracts. The Census Report of Bengal apparently includes the followers of the Bráhma Samaj with the general Hindu population of the District.

The Jain population appears to be confined to the Kyáhs or Márwáris who have settled in Rangpur, most of whom are wealthy merchants, carrying on a considerable trade in country produce and piece goods, or as money-lenders. The Census Report, in treating of the religious divisions of the people, does not separately indicate the Jains, but in its list of castes the number of Márwári traders is set down at 67.

The Buddhists residing in Rangpur District consisted in 1872 of 46 males and 15 females; total, 61.

The Christian population of the District in 1872 amounted to 73 souls, namely, 36 males and 37 females. Missionary efforts have not made any progress in Rangpur. Deducting 41 from the total Christian population as the number of European, Eurasian, and Armenian Christians, there remains a balance of only 32 as representing the total native Christian population of the District.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—The population of Rangpur is entirely rural. The Census Report returns only a single town as containing a population of five thousand souls or upwards, namely, Rangpur, with a total population of 14,845. This is not, properly speaking, a single town, but a municipality, comprising, besides the Civil Station of Rangpur,
the towns or villages of Mahiganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj. Details
of the population of the municipality will be found below. No
tendency is perceptible on the part of the people towards town or
city life. Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation thus
classifies the villages:—There are 1892 villages containing less than
two hundred inhabitants; 1193 with from two to five hundred; 559
with from five hundred to a thousand; 368 small towns with from
one to two thousand; 104 with from two to three thousand; 55
with from three to four thousand; 14 with from four to five
thousand; 10 with from five to six thousand; 6 with from six to
ten thousand; and 5 with from ten to fifteen thousand. Total,
4206. In this statement, however, all the large villages are mauzás
or groups of villages, and not separate towns. With the exception
of Rangpur municipality, no town in the District contains a popula-
tion exceeding five thousand souls.

RANGPUR, the Administrative Headquarters and principal Civil
Station of the District, is situated on the north bank of the Ghagát
river, in 25° 44' 55" north latitude and 89° 17' 40" east longitude.
The Rangpur municipality consists, besides the Civil Station, of the
adjacent villages or towns of Mahiganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj, and
contains a population of 14,845, according to the Census Report
of 1872, classified as follows:—Muhammadans—males, 4577; and
females, 3483: total, 8060. Hindus—males, 5277; and females,
1386: total, 6663. Christians—males, 25; and females, 27: total,
52. Others—males, 6; and females, 64: total, 70. Total of all
denominations—males, 9985; and females, 4960. Grand total,
14,845. In 1870 the income of the municipality amounted to
£721, 8s. 10d., and the expenditure to £618, 11s. od. In 1871
the gross municipal income amounted to £643, 16s. od., and the
expenditure to £581, 2s. od.; average rate of taxation, 6 annás
and 1¹/₂ pie, or 10³/₄d. per head of the municipal population.

Material Condition of the People.—The great bulk of the
population is composed of the lowest classes of Hindus and Muham-
madans. They are described as indolent and superstitious, but
their material condition has considerably improved of late years.
The ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a dhuti or
waist-cloth, a cotton sheet or shawl (chádar), and a pair of shoes.
The clothing of an ordinary cultivator is nearly the same, ex-
cept that he does not wear shoes, and the cotton is of a coarser
quality. Bamboo matting, straw, and grass are the only materials
used for house-building. A comfortable homestead usually consists of four apartments within a square enclosure, surrounded by a fence of woven bamboos or grass. A well-to-do cultivator would have two such enclosures for his dwelling, one being reserved for the female members of the family. The only furniture found in such a dwelling consists of common brass and pewter plates, cups, and pots for cooking and eating; a bamboo machán or platform, which serves as a bedstead; and a wooden chest. The ordinary food of the people, shopkeepers and agriculturists, is much the same, and consists chiefly of common rice, pulses, káchu (a species of yam), vegetables of different sorts, salt, oil, fish, and occasionally milk. Milk is more a luxury than an ordinary article of food. The Collector, in 1871, estimated the living expenses for an average-sized household of a well-to-do shopkeeper at about 10 rupees, or £1, per month, and the expenses of a similar family of ordinary peasants at 8 rupees, or 16s., a month. This latter amount, however, represents the cost which would be required if everything was purchased by the cultivator. As a matter of fact, the money cost is considerably less. His fields supply him with rice and vegetables, and most of the fish used for food is caught by himself or some member of his family.

HABITS OF THE PEOPLE.—The following paragraphs regarding the habits and social customs of the people of the District are condensed from Bábú Gopál Chandra Das' Report on the Statistics of Rangpur (1874). The cultivators, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, rise early in the morning, go to the fields and work till 9 o'clock, when they take a breakfast of cold rice. They then work on till 1 P.M., when they unyoke their cattle, and go themselves to take their day's bath. This done, they go home to dinner; and the rest of the day is spent in lounging about, doing little repairs to their houses, or in going to the nearest market village with the milk or vegetables which their cows or homestead land may yield them. No field work is done after 1 P.M., and the cultivators do not labour more than six hours a day. In the towns, the day-labourers work from 10 A.M. till 4 P.M. In the evening, another hot meal of rice is taken as supper, a portion being put aside for the next morning's cold breakfast. The women, besides cooking for the household, assist their husbands in husking the rice, rearing silk-worms, and, in the northern tracts of the District, in spinning and weaving gunny bags. The girls commence to work at nine years of age, and assist their mothers in the household duties. The boys at six or seven years
begin to tend the cows, and become labourers and ploughmen between twelve and sixteen. The average duration of a peasant's life is forty years.

Customs on the Birth of a Child.—On the birth of a child, whether of a Hindu or Muhammadan family, great rejoicings take place. Rich men distribute alms to the Brâhmans and the poor; the village barber and the midwife are liberally rewarded, and the priests are well paid for preparing the child's horoscope. The poorer classes give a sum varying from 4 ānndás to 1 rupee (6d. to 2s.) to the midwife, and an equal amount to the barber and priest. On the fourth or sixth day after the birth of a child, the Muhammadans perform a ceremony called akeyd, in which even the poorest peasant sacrifices a goat, offers a prayer, and weighs a hair of the child's head in gold, which he gives to the fakir. The Be-shârâ Musalmáns distribute pán, betel-nuts, turmeric, and oil to their neighbours, friends, and relatives. The upper class of Hindus, on the sixth day after the birth of a child, celebrate a rite called sataripujâ; and on the thirtieth day after birth, in the case of a Súdra, or the twenty-first day in the case of a Brâhman, a ceremony called namákuran is performed. On both these occasions presents of pán, betel-nut, oil, and turmeric are made to the neighbours. In Muhammadan families, the ceremony of circumcision is performed by a class of men called Bangri, who are paid from 4 ānndás to 1 rupee (6d. to 2s.) for their services. A goat is slaughtered, prayers offered, relatives invited to a feast, and alms distributed to the poor. The Hindus perform the ceremony known as karnábede or ear-boring, on which occasion the father of the child makes an offering called nanimukh (an offering of cakes to appease the spirits of departed ancestors), and, if his circumstances enable him, invites his friends and neighbours to a feast. The ceremony of annd prasan, or feeding a child with rice for the first time, is performed in the sixth month after birth if a boy, and in the seventh month if a girl.

Marriage Ceremonies.—Among the higher classes of Hindus in this District, marriage contracts are made by relatives and friends, and not through ghatak's or marriage registrars, as in the neighbourhood of Calcutta. After the dowry has been settled, the parents interchange visits to see the bridegroom and bride. The boy undergoes an examination; and the girl is made to speak and walk, for the purpose of ascertaining that she is neither dumb nor lame. In Brâhman families the contract is reduced to writing; in families of
other castes, the contract is usually verbal, but the greater portion of the bride's dowry is paid by the bridegroom's family at the time of making the contract. On the day of the marriage, which takes place at night, the friends and relatives of the bridegroom, in the case of wealthy families, pass the day in feasting and in preparing for the procession at night. The procession is usually accompanied by fireworks and music. The Hindu marriage rites are performed by Bráhman priests according to the Sástrás, and Sanskrit texts are read. The bride is taken away to her new home the day after the marriage ceremony. Among the lower classes of Hindus, the bridegroom pays a sum of from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 (£3 to £5) for the girl to her father, and marries her either at his own house or at that of her father, generally at the latter. On occasion of marriages among his tenants, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, the zamindár levies a tax called marchá, varying from 1 to 5 rupees (2s. to 10s.) in amount; this tax is paid by the bridegroom's party. The Be-Shárá Muhammadans are said to adopt almost all the marriage customs of the Hindus. Among the stricter Shárá Muhammadans, the bridegroom, accompanied by a few friends and relatives, proceeds to the house of the bride's father. A proxy on the part of the bride settles her dowry, and the ceremony consists of the kázi or his deputy reading out the kilmá. The marriage thus finished is attested by two or three witnesses, and followed by a feast, after which the husband takes his wife away to his own house. Kázis are only met with in the south and east of the District, and these never attend lower-class Muhammadan marriages, which are usually performed by the village mullá or priest. The Musalmáns, however, are by no means restricted to the services of these men. In a company of five or more men, any one who can repeat the kilmá or form of marriage may be constituted a mullá for the occasion, and a valid marriage may be thus performed. The niká marriage of Muhammadas (marriage of a second or third wife during the lifetime of either the first or second), and the re-marriage of low-caste Hindu women, take place without much formality; but the zamindár's marchá cess is always levied, and, the Collector states, is felt to be a great hardship. The charge of a kázi for celebrating a marriage varies from one to five rupees (2s. to 10s.); a mullá from 2 annás to 1 rupee (3d. to 2s.); and a Bráhman from 1 to 6 rupees (2s. to 12s.), besides a share in the general feast. The barber also receives from 1 to 4 rupees (2s. to 8s.), according to the position in life of the parties.
AUSPICIOUS DAYS.

Funeral Obsequies.—On the death of a Hindu, the relatives and friends carry the body to the banks of a river, if sufficiently near at hand, or to a tank at some distance. The body is then washed, anointed with oil, dressed in a new cloth, and placed on a funeral pyre. The eldest of the heirs of the deceased present at the time sets fire to the pile, and the body is reduced to ashes. The bodies of Hindu infants less than five years of age are seldom burned, being generally buried or thrown into the nearest river. The Bairágis (a class of Vaishnav religious mendicants) bury their dead instead of burning them. The Rájbanśis either bury or burn their dead, as they may think proper. On the fourth day after the death of a Hindu, his married daughters perform a ceremony known as chaturthi. On the eleventh day after the death of a Bráhman, or the thirty-first day after the death of a Súdra, the funeral obsequies (sraddha) are performed by the eldest heir of the deceased. On the occasion of the death of a wealthy Hindu samindádr, particularly one dying in old age, great preparations are made for his sraddha. Learned pandits are invited from the Sanskrit schools of Nadiyá, and large presents are made to them. The poor of the surrounding country flock to receive alms; and relatives, friends, and neighbours are sumptuously fed. The Hindu peasantry are unable to expend much in these funeral obsequies, and the cost of the ceremony seldom exceeds 10 or 12 rupees (£1 to £1, 4s. od.). Among the Muhammadans, the body is first washed, anointed with perfumes, dressed in new cloth, and then carried to the burial-ground by the assembled relatives and friends. In the case of a rich man a coffin is used. The grave is dug seven and a half feet long, four and a half feet broad, and four and a half deep, the body being laid in the ground with the face turned towards the sacred city of Mecca. After a few prayers have been read, a bamboo roof is placed above the body, and the grave filled in with earth.

Astrology and Auspicious Days.—The people, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, never commence any important work without first consulting the stars, and finding out the most auspicious moment for the undertaking. The pandits in the towns, and in the rural villages the grám purohit, or priest of the hamlet, fix the auspicious periods for the Hindu peasants to plough and sow their lands. Muhammadan astrologers are very few in number; and in tracts where there are none, the Musalmán cultivators generally ask the Hindu astronomers to name their auspicious days. A class of
Brāhmans called ojhās pretend to possess a supernatural influence over the hailstorms; and the ignorant peasants, believing that they have the power to avert such a calamity, pay the ojhās small sums to protect their fields from destruction by hail. At the commencement of each year, the village astrologer (achārjya) visits every house to read out the new almanac, and explain to the peasantry the deities who will reign over the harvest, etc., for the year. In return he receives a small measure of rice and half an āṇṇā (three farthings) in cash. To astrology the achārjya adds fortune-telling, for which, of course, he receives an additional reward from those that consult him.

**INDIGENOUS VILLAGE OFFICIALS.**—Few vestiges now remain in Rangpur District of the ancient indigenous village corporations of the days of the Hindu monarchy; and the few rural officials still met with are now rather servants of the samindārs or landholders, than officers having a common interest in the prosperity of the village. The status of these village communes in the days of the Hindu kings is thus described by Bābu Gopāl Chandra Das, Deputy-Collector, in his Report on the Statistics of Rangpur:—

'Every village had its own government, court of justice, and council. The thākur (proprietor of the village) was the president of the meeting; the village Brāhman was the priest and expounder of the law; the patwāri was the accountant and correspondence clerk; the chaukidār was the village watchman; the marilhā acted as surveyor, and distributed the produce of the land between landlord and tenant; the chāmār supplied the villagers with shoes, and his wife acted as midwife; the carpenters made the ploughs for the cultivators, and the blacksmith the iron implements of industry; the washerman and potter had also their place in the community. Nor were charitable institutions forgotten, for every village had a building set apart for the reception and entertainment of strangers. When the harvest was ready for reaping, the thākur received one-tenth of the produce as his sovereign right in the land; a small portion of the produce of every field was laid aside for charitable and hospitable institutions; the village Brāhman, the patwāri, chaukidar, marilhā, carpenter, blacksmith, and chāmār had each of them his share in the produce, the proportion being regulated according to the extent and value of his assistance to the community. In case of any complaint, the elders of the village convened a meeting, and summoned the offender to take his trial before
a jury of his own class, comprising also the village head-men, and
summarily disposed of the case then and there.'

Existing Village Officers.—The ancient village communes
have long since died away; and although many of the officials named
above are still found, at least in name, they are in nearly every case
merely the servants of the zamindars. The following account of
the present status and duties of these officers is quoted in a con-
densed form from Babu Gopal Chandra Das' report, above cited:—

The Patwari is a servant of the zamindar, and is paid by him.
In large estates he serves under the gumashtá or tahsildár, but in
petty zamindaris he collects the rent himself. Instead of receiving
a share of the produce of the land, he is now remunerated either by
a slight percentage on the collections, or by a fixed money payment.
The patwáris are generally natives of the District, and the post is
usually hereditary; in special cases, however, they are succeeded by
outsiders. On the death of a patwári, his eldest son is usually
 nominated to the vacant post by the zamindár, subject to the
 approval of the villagers. The duties of a patwári are multifarious.
He keeps the accounts of every field, and knows the history of its
occupant; he knows the nature of the soil and the productive power
of every little patch of land. At the end of every year he sends
to his master an account statement known as jamá-wasíl-baki, show-
ing the total demand, amount actually collected, and balance still
remaining due for every separate holding, together with extra col-
lections or cesses under heads denominated sayer, abwáb, and
maíhat. The rent-roll kept by the patwári is called dudhá-jamá-
bandi. He is the zamindár's principal witness whenever a suit
takes place between the proprietor and his tenants, whether for
enhancement of rent or the recovery of arrears.

The Gumashta is another village officer of the zamindár, but
superior in rank to the patwári. His duty is to collect the rents,
grant receipts to the cultivators, and to remit the collections at stated
periods to the revenue court (kachári) of the zamindár. Where the
zamindár retains land in his own hands as a home farm, the gumáshtá
has to see to its proper cultivation. He looks after the ploughmen
and cattle, superintends the harvesting and storing of the crops, etc.
If the zamindár is also a grain merchant or money-lender, it is
through the gumáshtá that he carries on the business. In the
event of a cultivator deserting his village, it is the gumáshtá's duty
to see that his fields are let out to another. He also keeps a
separate account of his master’s monetary transactions with which the patwári has no concern. When a portion of the zamindár’s lands are held on a tenure called bhág, in which the cultivator instead of paying a money rental gives a share of the produce, the gumáshtá has to see that a proper division of the crop is made. He is re-
munerated by a money salary, varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s.
to 12s.) a month; in addition to which, he also receives cer-
tain perquisites called parbani, and a feast on the occasion of 
every marriage in the village. He also occasionally conducts rent 
suits on behalf of the zamindár. His other duties are public ones. 
According to the Regulation Law, the gumáshtá was to give early 
information at the nearest police station of the resort to, or passage 
through, his village of any considerable body of strangers, together 
with any information he might be able to collect as to the alleged 
object of the assemblage or journey, or any suspicions which might 
arise as to their real character and intentions. At present, section 90 
of Act x. of 1872 (B.C.) prescribes it as a duty of the village officials, 
including the gumáshtá, head-man, and watchman, forthwith to com-
municate to the nearest Magistrate, or officer in charge of the nearest 
police station, any information which they may obtain respecting— 
1st, the residence of any notorious receiver or vendor of stolen 
property in the village; 2d, the resort of persons suspected to be 
thieves; 3d, the commission or intention to commit satí or other 
non-bailable offence at or near the village; 4th, the occurrence of 
any sudden or unnatural death.

The Chaukidár is the village watchman, and is paid by the 
cultivators. He is nominated by the villagers and appointed by the 
Magistrate. He receives annually from 4 to 12 dennáds (6d. to 1s. 6d.) 
from each house as his fee or allowance, is armed with a spear, and 
wears a badge as a token of his service. The zamindárůs do not con-
tribute anything to his support; nor does he hold any service land 
in lieu of or supplementary to his money wages received from the 
villagers. These wages are not regularly paid, and, when realized, the 
amount is insufficient for his maintenance and the proper discharge 
of his duties. Whenever the villagers neglect to pay him, he com-
plains to the darogá (Sub-Inspector) at the police station to which he 
is attached, who assists him in the collection of his dues. In the 
larger villages an improved rural constabulary has been established 
under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, and the chaukidárs are paid 
a fixed salary from the proceeds of the tax realized under the Act.
SUPERIOR ZAMINDARI OFFICERS.

The Pradhan is the village head-man. He assists the zamindár in the collection of rent, acts as a member of a pancháyat or village arbitration court in settling petty boundary disputes or minor cases, etc. The chaukidár brings every occurrence first to the notice of the pradhán; and if it appears to the latter to be of an important or serious nature, he directs the chaukidár to lay the case before the thannádár or regular police officer. In fact, if any trace can now be found of the ancient Hindu village system, it is in this official. The appointment of pradhán is hereditary, and only elective in the case of the death of the holder of the post without heirs. In olden days, these pradháns or head-men, called by different names in other Districts, were very important and influential representatives of the village. In all matters of importance they were consulted, as intelligent men interested in the welfare of the community. At the present day, these officials lend their assistance in the performance of all public business in the villages to which they belong. Houses are always searched in their presence, and they attest the service of every judicial process. Whenever a cess is levied by a zamindár or a perquisite demanded by his officers, they serve as mediators, and settle the amount on behalf of the villagers. In case of sudden or unnatural death, the police officers as a rule conduct the inquiry in their presence. The pradháns are not mere dependants on the zamindárs, but act semi-independently of their authority.

Sardars, Páiks, and Kotwals are zamindári officers employed as collectors, guards, and orderlies. They escort rents from the villages to the zamindár's principal revenue court (kachári), and are paid usually from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 (4s. to 6s.) per month. In some places they receive service lands in lieu of cash payment, the quantity of land awarded to each man being sufficient to yield a maintenance for himself and family.

Paramaníks and Busniahs are rather servants of the zamindárs than independent members of the village community. They are paid by the zamindárs, and it is their duty to assist the gumáshtás and patwáris in the collection of rent.

Superior Zamindari Officers.—In addition to the village officials above enumerated, large zamindárs have generally an establishment consisting of a náib, a kárkun or peshkár, a jamánavish, a record-keeper, a parkhádi, and several muharrirs. The náib, as the factor of the zamindár and head of his establishment, makes the settlement with the villagers, fixes the rent, grants leases, checks
the accounts of the patwāris and gumāshūs, and in every respect acts as the representative of the absent proprietor. The kārkun or peshkār is his deputy. The jamā-narīsh is the accountant of all receipts and disbursements; he also checks the accounts of the patwāris and gumāshūs. The duties of the record-keeper are explained by his English designation. The parkhāi examines and counts the money, and the muiharīrīs act as correspondence clerks. These officials receive, in addition to liberal salaries, nazars or presents from the tenants and farmers. At the end of the year they generally receive a bonus from their employers, and also on occasions of wedding and funeral ceremonies.

Agricultural Statistics.—In the following section, in addition to the information specially supplied to me by the Assistant-Collector, Mr. Crawford, in 1871, and published as Appendix C to Mr. Glazier’s Report on the District of Rangpur, I have to acknowledge my indebtedness to Bābu Gopāl Chandra Das, the special Deputy-Collector appointed by the Bengal Government to collect agricultural statistics for Rangpur, whose excellent report, dated 15th November 1873, and since officially published, has been of the greatest assistance to me. I regret that I am unable in every case to quote his own words within inverted commas, but I have had to economize space by combining the information contained in the Deputy-Collector’s report with that specially furnished to me by Mr. Crawford.

Rice forms the staple crop of Rangpur District. Two principal crops are sown and reaped during the year, namely, the āus or bahi or autumn rice, and the āman or haimantik or cold-weather rice. These two great genera are both divided into different species, and these again are subdivided into very many varieties.

Aus or Autumn Rice is divided into three species,—kaínān āus dhān, āus dhān, and jāli āus dhān. (a) The first-named species grows best on high-lying lands. The seed is sown broadcast on high rich lands, from which crops of sugar-cane, tobacco, and mustard have been obtained. The twenty-eight principal varieties of kaínān āus dhān are returned as follow:—(1) fogi talai; (2) thukri; (3) sāil ikhri; (4) kanchanoni; (5) kasiā panj; (6) jabar sāil; (7) phārdsh dumrā; (8) biq kāchāi; (9) kāla garphā; (10) khāi chāngā; (11) pākshirāj; (12) kaitar mani; (13) thukri dumā; (14) buttīlār; (15) garti; (16) chhotā kāshī; (17) dhola garphā; (18) ikhri; (19) pipīlī bhang; (20) dhola kanchāi; (21) bhādāi maishirā; (22) cheng dumrā; (23) phul ganjīā; (24) kantai; (25)
dakshinā; (26) sona-mai; (27) chatrāl; and (28) patharluri. This species of rice is sown in Chaitra and Baisākh (April and May), and reaped in Bhadra and Aswin (August and September). (b) The second species, āus dhān, grows best on ordinary land, neither too high nor too low. It is usually sown broadcast in Phālgun (February—March), on lands from which a crop of winter rice has been obtained, and reaped in Ashār and Srāban (June—August). Its fifty-five principal varieties are returned as follow:—(1) Ghani dumrā; (2) manrāj khani; (3) lakshmi āchul; (4) chhaitan; (5) khagrā chāng; (6) nelpāi; (7) phārāshi chāpāl; (8) balrām; (9) māḷā dumrā; (10) kāi jor; (11) sāil thukrī; (12) chitrī; (13) dakshinā dumrā; (14) bhātīdī garnā; (15) kumrā; (16) binni; (17) chinā dali; (18) bāigun bichhi; (19) kāsiā pani; (20) atīl; (21) dāi-sundrī; (22) sukhtī dumrā; (23) kātārī; (24) bakrī; (25) dhūrī; (26) āus gānjīd; (27) jhāpā; (28) bōgrā; (29) kumrā chāpāl; (30) bir madni; (31) sukhtī dumrā; (32) chāpāl; (33) nirābakrī; (34) sarisā pūl; (35) kātāliā; (36) chitrī; (37) gotāharī bakrī; (38) cheng māgur; (39) dumrā; (40) kārī; (41) pārāshī; (42) āus malskārā; (43) dāirkā sāil; (44) dārī; (45) sanā; (46) jābārī; (47) sāil ponā; (48) bāra māllikā; (49) ghushri; (50) nilājī; (51) gānjīd; (52) gārīpā; (53) gōra dumrā; (54) thukrī; and (55) kuchinī. (c) The third species of āus rice, jālī āus dhān, requires a low moist soil, and is generally sown in Māgh and Phālgun (January—March), in the beds of rivers and marshes, and reaped in Ashār and Srāban (June—August). A crop of āman or winter rice is often sown in the same field with jālī āus, and at the same time. The āman rice springs up after the removal of the āus crop, being brought forward by the rains, and a second crop is also obtained at the time of the usual winter harvest. The twenty principal varieties of jālī āus are—(1) Dhāl dumrā; (2) kathī; (3) amlā; (4) kushi dumā; (5) lakshmi dumā; (6) tharangā; (7) māḷā dumā; (8) ratni; (9) kālā chāpāl; (10) kālā dumā; (11) bhushri; (12) bhālāī; (13) āus jashoa; (14) keshālī; (15) chhaitan dumā; (16) jātā; (17) āus bachi; (18) dhemshī; (19) kajāl gauri; and (20) dedhīā hotāī.

Āman Rice forms the great winter rice crop of the District. It is divided into two species,—ropā or royā dhān, which is transplanted; and bunā, bondā, or bhuīyā, which is sown broadcast. (a) The ropā or transplanted āman rice is sown in the first instance upon high land. When the seedlings are about a foot high, after the
early rains have moistened the soil, they are gradually transplanted to marshy lands covered by about ten inches of water. In the eastern part of the District, between the Tīstā, Dharā, and Brahmaputra rivers, a variation is often introduced into the cultivation, and the rice is transplanted twice. First, when the shoots are about a foot high, they are transplanted into high dry land, which is well manured and weeded. When about two feet high, they are re-transplanted to wet, marshy soil. This practice is said to render the plants more hardy, and to save seed, the shoots from a single grain being often divided into nine or ten plants. This doubly transplanted rice is called gāchhi dhān. Ṛopā dhān is sown in the months of Chaitra, Baisākh, and Jaishthā (March—June), transplanted in Srāban and Bhadrā (July—September), and reaped in Agrahāyan and Paush (November—January). In cases where the plant is transplanted twice, the first transplantation takes place a little earlier; the second transplanting goes on in Asvin and Kartik (August—October). The peasantry enumerate no less than a hundred and seventy varieties of Ṛopā rice, as follow:—(1) Mālshirā; (2) kachu dumā; (3) shātiyā; (4) dhepā; (5) motā gānjīd; (6) chhotā gānjā; (7) tilkāphur; (8) ukhni madhu; (9) bindhi pākri; (10) jashā; (11) shul kumār; (12) barā-pāni sā'il; (13) bāg jhul; (14) sāo-bāz; (15) kāṭā sāo-bāz; (16) khirshā pāt; (17) halida jāon; (18) mugi mālshirā; (19) kośā; (20) lohā-dang; (21) kānāi-bānsī; (22) jaṭhar; (23) nāo dum; (24) kalam dhepi; (25) chhotā-pāni sā'il; (26) syām-rās; (27) parā mālshirā; (28) binna phul; (29) harisankar; (30) shunjī; (31) sā'il jashā; (32) phul gānjīd; (33) cheng māguri; (34) boatā kandi sā'o; (35) kūlījirā; (36) bāchā; (37) kartik sā'il; (38) kada pākri; (39) harin pānjor; (40) tuāl pānj; (41) kālā mānā; (42) matāk sā'il; (43) kānch kalash; (44) kāi sā'il; (45) maudīgīrī; (46) turā mālshirā; (47) rasuł bhog; (48) oati kandi sā'o; (49) chini bhog; (50) barā gānjīd; (51) katra jashā; (52) purā māgrī; (53) narikēl jhuki; (54) syāmrāj; (55) jāfār nādam; (56) bangāl dārā; (57) sankar mukhi; (58) gajāl gāriā; (59) kānā-har; (60) janak rāi; (61) dāl kōchrā; (62) māi; (63) khumnī mālshirā; (64) sundāri; (65) jākkhor; (66) pākhri; (67) khirshā; (68) pakshirāj; (69) ashambārā; (70) jul-julī; (71) nuli; (72) atāi dhepā; (73) boā pakhri; (74) bīr madli; (75) asvinā; (76) somās-jali; (77) gajāl gāriā; (78) bhog bāgrā; (79) harin-khol; (80) dhub-rāj; (81) dhensī; (82) asal sā'il; (83) bānsī; (84) sindur katū; (85) dhalā bachi; (86) kālā bachi; (87) burā harin; (88) beto; (89) gājiā; (90) pārēt jirā;
(91) kalā mái; (92) bhog-jirā; (93) nāo jirā; (94) katāir bhog; (95) mau bhanj; (96) bakur; (97) bawāi bhog; (98) dudh kalam; (99) bānś pātāri; (100) amlā; (101) chāpākāli; (102) singāri; (103) bānś-phul; (104) bāgrā; (105) aliā; (106) harunī; (107) bau dulāli; (108) bura bākur; (109) chāpī; (110) dol kalam; (111) gujri; (112) haldiā bachi; (113) harin kajliā; (114) harni; (115) háti jhul; (116) indra sāil; (117) jagannāth bhog; (118) kalāi jirā; (119) khirshá bhog; (120) lāl bachi; (121) madhu sāil; (122) nari kel phul; (123) pānāti; (124) phul pākri; (125) sāilnā; (126) syamlāl; (127) ránduṇi pāgal; (128) sīl kumār; (129) rāj bhog; (130) kālā sāilnā; (131) dhālā sāilnā; (132) krishna churā; (133) bāt pākri; (134) kālā pākri; (135) anjonā; (136) pāt madāi; (137) kānkuā; (138) pānī sāil; (139) elāi; (140) pāti sāil; (141) sengarī; (142) sīnd mái; (143) barā jashō; (144) chhotā jashō; (145) bent; (146) dhol; (147) nerā bachi; (148) khodni; (149) háthi dānt; (150) subarnā kharga; (151) háthi; (152) chandān churā; (153) bāγun bichhi; (154) pāiā musuri; (155) udāi gaurī málshirā; (156) khāi chur; (157) baj nāo; (158) kharag muti; (159) pātestvāri; (160) pāri jīl; (161) chārdī tutī; (162) kūr dumnā; (163) deb kanyā; (164) dudh shar; (165) bar; (166) subarnā jashō; (167) pākri málshirā; (168) bāman bhog; (169) shāpahār; and (170) surjyā ujiāl. (b) The second or broadcast species of āman rice is sown in the beds of marshes and rivers in the months of Phālguṇ and Chaitra (February—April), and reaped in Agrahayan and Paush (November—January). This rice is frequently sown in the same field with the āus rice mentioned above. The growth of the plant keeps pace with the rising of the water in the marshes during the rainy season, the stem sometimes growing to a length of twelve feet. This species of rice is not very extensively, cultivated. Its twenty-two principal varieties are returned as follow:—(1) Māguri; (2) bētā; (3) chāpā-kāli; (4) singāri; (5) amlā kānsā; (6) kāndī sāo; (7) khaliśāni bet; (8) kālmānā; (9) phul kānsā; (10) muriā; (11) bāṅgāl dāriā; (12) abāli; (13) kānsāhārā; (14) kānsā; (15) chāndā; (16) dāns; (17) khorā; (18) agurpāt; (19) chengā; (20) asvinā; (21) pāthar muti; and (22) thākurbin.

**Rice Cultivation.**—Āus rice land receives from three to five ploughings before it is ready to receive the seed, and two ploughings after sowing, the second of these ploughings being in a transverse direction to the first. The harrow and drill is passed over the fields after each ploughing, and, where necessary, the clods are
broken with a mallet. A single pair of bullocks can plough from 8 to 10 kâthâs (from two-fifths to one-half of a bighâ), harrow from 2 to 2½ bighâs (say two-thirds of an acre), and drill from 1 to 1½ bighâs (about one-third of an acre), in a day. When the young shoots are about a foot high, the crop is weeded twice; six labourers in one day can weed a bighâ (one-third of an acre) of land. After the crop is cut, it is bound into sheaves or bundles, and carried to the threshing floor, where it is trodden out by cattle. Four oxen can tread out in a day the crop of one bighâ of land. The straw is kept to serve as fodder for the cattle. Fourteen or fifteen sers of seed are required for one bighâ of land (equal to 84 to 90 lbs. avoirdupois per acre); and the average out-turn varies from 5 to 7 maunds of unhusked rice per bighâ, or from 11 to 15½ hundredweights per acre. After the dûs crop has been cut, the cultivators re-sow the fields with a cold-weather crop of mustard, potato, garlic, or pulse, if the land is dry. When the fields are still moist after the dûs has been cut, it is re-sown with a winter crop of 'aman rice. Aman rice land requires three or four ploughings before sowing or transplanting, but none afterwards. Two or three harrowings are quite sufficient. The out-turn is from 5 to 7 maunds of paddy per bighâ, or from 11 to 15½ hundredweights per acre; which, after husking, yields from 3½ to 4 maunds of cleaned rice per bighâ, or from 7½ to 8½ hundredweights per acre. In ordinary years the value of common rice varies from R. 1 to Rs. 1.12 per maund, or from 2s. 8d. to 4s. 9d. per hundredweight. In most cases the tenants retain the dûs rice for their own consumption, and pay their rent and living expenses by the sale of the 'aman or winter rice, and the cold-weather crops of vegetables, pulses, and oil-seeds. It is roughly estimated that in ordinarily good years about one-half of the rice crops of Rangpur is consumed by the local population, and that the rest is exported to other Districts. Rice cultivation has rapidly extended of late years. The Collector, in 1871, stated that the increase of rice-bearing lands during the previous thirty years might be safely set down at 75 per cent. No such improvement, however, has taken place in the productive powers of the land, which, according to the Collector, are generally believed to have considerably deteriorated. The Names of the Rice Plant in the different stages of its growth are as follow:—Bîj or bichhân, the seed; also applied to the seedling plant intended for transplantation. Bichhân pâtan, the ger-
minated áman seed before sowing. Tulá mathuá, the sprouting seed when first visible above the ground. Baráí kántá, young sprouts four inches high and of a reddish colour. Naśganj, the sprout in the green stage before expansion. Pátá phulá, the same when it has expanded. Do-pátá, the fully-developed sprout. Pátá, seedlings nearly fit for transplanting. Neechá bichhán, the shoots just before transplanting. Goči bichhán, shoots after they have been transplanted on to high lands, until they are afterwards re-transplanted into marshy soil. Dhán gachhi, clumps of five or six seedlings transplanted in low marshy lands. Thopán, clumps of eight or ten plants from one root. Gámar, the same, when the shoots have become thick and large. Kanch thor, the plant when it first comes to ear. Gol phulá, the stem below the leaves when it swells out. Phuláñ, spreading of the ear. Dúdh bhará, when milk forms in the ear. Kálá paká, the ripening plant when of the colour of a plantain. Purá paká, the plant when fully ripe. Dhán, unhusked rice. Ushná chául, rice husked after the paddy has been first boiled and dried. Atáp chául, rice husked after the paddy has been simply dried in the sun. Chául, husked rice. Tus, the husk. Khud, fragments of rice broken in husking.

The Different Preparations Made from Rice are the following:—Bhát, boiled rice. Churá or chirá, paddy first steeped in water, then partially parched and husked, after which it is beaten flat in the rice pedal; sold at about 10 pie per ser, or 5d. per pound. Kháí or láí, paddy parched over a fire in sand until the husk breaks, and then husked; price 1 annás 5 pie a ser, or 2d. per pound. Muri, paddy twice boiled and dried in the sun, then husked, afterwards wetted with salt and water, and parched in hot sand; price 1 annás 4 pie per ser, or 1d. per pound. Núrkí, kháí mixed with molasses and boiled; price 3 annás 8 pie per ser, or 2¼d. per pound. Malá, muri mixed with molasses and made up into balls; price 1 annás 10 pie per ser, or 1½d. a pound. Chául bhájá, roasted rice; price not mentioned. Pithá, rice flour mixed with sweets of various sorts, and made into cakes; price varies according to the ingredients. Panthá bhát, rice mixed with water, and left standing over night till it becomes sour; eaten cold for breakfast; not sold. Pachwáí, or rice beer. Deno mad or desi sharáb, spirits distilled from pachwáí; sells at Rs. 1. 2. 0 (2s. 3d.) and Rs. 1. 14. 0 (3s. 9d.) per imperial quart, according to strength.

Wheat is not much cultivated in Rangpur District, and the soil,
being low and damp, is not suitable to the crop. The land requires five or six ploughings and as many harrowings before it is ready for sowing. No weeding is necessary. The seed is sown in September and October, and the crop reaped in March or April. Five *sers* of seed are needed for one *bighá* of land (30 lbs. to an acre); the out-turn, however, seldom exceeds 2 *maunds* a *bighá*, or 4½ hundredweights an acre. Wheat ordinarily sells at from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 a *maund* (8s. 2d. to 10s. 1½d. a hundredweight), the flour, of course, being proportionately dearer. The extent of land under this crop is estimated by the Deputy-Collector at 35,110 acres, and the out-turn at 245,770 *maunds*, or 179,938 hundredweights. The local consumption, however, exceeds this amount, the balance being imported from other Districts where the soil is better suited to the crop.

Oats are sown in September and October, and reaped in March or April; but there is very little cultivation of this crop in Rangpur, the soil being unsuitable. The market price of oats varies from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3. 8. 0 a *maund*, or from 5s. 5d. to 9s. 7d. a hundredweight.

**Other Cereal Crops.**—Barley is cultivated, but only to a small extent. Sown in September and October, and reaped in March or April. Like wheat, it requires to be grown on dry high lands. *Kaun* or *kangá*, a species of millet (Panicum Italicum), is grown on moist, but not marshy, low lands. It is extensively cultivated on some of the Brahmaputra *chars*. Sown in February and March, and reaped in May and June. *Chind*, another species of millet (Panicum milaceum), also requires a somewhat moist soil. Sown in January and February, and reaped in April and May. The land in which this and the foregoing crop are grown requires five or six ploughings and as many harrowings if hard soil, and two or three if light. The processes of reaping, threshing, and husking are the same as with rice. The out-turn varies from 3 to 4 *maunds* per *bighá*, or from 6½ to 8½ hundredweights per acre. The price of the grain is usually from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *maund*, or from 2s. 8d. to 3s. 5d. a hundredweight.

**Pulses and Green Crops.**—*Musuri* (Ervum lens) is sown in October and November, and cut in March and April. The crop is generally sown in the same field with mustard, and yields an average out-turn of from 1½ to 2 *maunds* per *bighá*, or from 4 to 4½ hundredweights per acre, the produce being worth about Rs. 5 a *maund*, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight. *Kheséri* (Lathyrus sativus) is sown on high dry land in October and November, and cut in March and April.
OIL-SEEDS.

The out-turn varies from 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) to 2 mounds per bighá, or from 3\(\frac{1}{2}\) to 4\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, of the ordinary value of Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Arhar (Cajanus Indicus), sown in April and May, and cut about March in the following year. In Rangpur it is not usually treated as a regular crop, being generally sown on high lands in the same field with áus rice. Average produce, 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) mounds per bighá, or 5\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, of the ordinary value of Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Mug (Phaseolus mungo). Three varieties of this pulse are grown in Rangpur District,—soná mug, krishna mug, and ghorá mug,—all being sown on high dry land in October and November, and cut in March and April. They are very little cultivated in Rangpur District. The value of the produce varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per maund, or from 13s. 8d. to 16s. 4d. a hundredweight. Káldí (Phaseolus mungo, var. melanospermus). Four varieties, namely, thikri káldí, máś káldí, boro káldí, and kuní káldí, all sown on high lands in July and August, and cut in October and November. Very little labour is involved in the cultivation, and the crop grows on inferior lands. Average out-turn, from 1 to 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) mounds per bighá, or from 2 to 3\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, worth from Rs. 3. 8. o. to Rs. 4 per maund, or from 9s. 7d. to 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Dhalá bunt and lán bunt, two common varieties of pulse, sown on high dry lands in October and November, and cut in March and April. Mátar, or peas (Pisum sativum), sown in September and October, and gathered in March and April; not cultivated as a separate crop, but sown in the áman rice fields when they dry up at the close of the rainy season. The out-turn varies from 1 to 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) mounds per bighá, or from 2 to 3\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, worth about Rs. 3. 8. o a maund, or 9s. 7d. a hundredweight.

Oil-seeds.—Sarishá, or mustard (Sinapis dichotoma), consisting of three varieties, namely, ráí sarishá, mághi sarishá, and sentá sarishá, is grown all over Rangpur District, especially in Baharband and Bhitárbhand pargánds. The crop is sown in October and November, and cut in February and March. The land requires to be ploughed and harrowed eight times before sowing; one weeding is sufficient. Mustard is generally sown alone as a second crop on áus lands after the rice has been cut; it is sometimes, however, sown along with musuri on high lands. The average produce varies from 2 to 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) mounds per bighá, or from 4\(\frac{1}{2}\) to 5\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, worth from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per maund, or from 10s. 11d. to 13s. 8d. per VOL. VII.
hundredweight. The area under mustard cultivation in Rangpur District is returned at 73,145 acres, and the total produce at 438,870 maunds, or 31,348 hundredweights. Well-to-do cultivators pay their rent by the sale of this produce, keeping their rice and other crops for home consumption. *Til* (Sesamum orientale) is of two varieties, —*krishna til* and *raktā* or *āus til*. The first-named variety is sown in August and September, and cut in November and December. It thrives best on high dry land, and is sown either singly or along with *thikri kalādi*. The land requires to be ploughed four times and harrowed twice before sowing. In good years the produce varies from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 maunds per bighā, or from $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ hundredweights per acre, the price being the same as for mustard. The second variety, *raktā* or *āus til*, is only cultivated on a very small scale in Rangpur. Sown in January and February, and cut in May and June. The value of the crop is nearly equal to that of mustard. *Erenda putra*, or castor-oil (Ricinus communis). This is not usually sown in fields, but planted around the homesteads and boundary-lines as a fence. A kind of silk-worm is fed on the leaves, and oil is expressed from the stalk. Sown in November and December, and the leaves gathered from March till June.

**Fibres.**— *Koshtā*, or jute (Corchorus olitorius). Rangpur is noted for its jute cultivation. The plant thrives well throughout the District, but is cultivated most extensively on the banks and islands of the Brahmaputra and Tistá. It is sown in April and May, and cut in August and September. The land requires from six to seven ploughings; as many harrowings are required before the seed is put into the ground, and two weedings afterwards. The first weeding takes place when the plants are a foot above the ground, and the second when they are 2½ feet high. Each field is weeded in a single day, as the plants thrive so fast after the weeding that the slightest delay causes an inequality in the growth. The cultivators make an arrangement among themselves to assist each other in weeding, instead of engaging hired labour for the purpose. Excessive rains spoil the crop; and the superfluous water has to be drained off by narrow channels cut across the fields. The plants cease to grow any higher when they branch out at the top and commence to flower. When cut, they are kept under water during a fortnight for decomposition. When quite decomposed, they are taken out, and the fibre separated from the stalks by beating; after which it is well washed. Two classes of jute are grown,—one called *parbati*, which is of
superior quality, strong texture, and of a light reddish colour; and jēt phē, the fibre of which is of a somewhat inferior quality and of a whitish colour. The average out-turn of jute in good soils varies from 3 to 4 maunds per bighā, or from 6½ to 8½ hundredweights per acre; in the vicinity of Pirganj, however, where the soil is not so favourable, the produce is from 2 to 2½ maunds per bighā, or from 4½ to 5½ hundredweights per acre. The marketable value of the produce in 1872–73 varied from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per maund, or from 4s. 1d. to 4s. 5d. per hundredweight, showing a considerable falling off from previous years. Jute is sold by the cultivators in every village market to paikārs (brokers) and agents, who export it to Calcutta and Sirajganj. The bulk of the jute grown in Rangpur is exported in its raw state; but some is also woven into gunny bags, or used in paper manufacture. A little inferior jute is retained by the cultivators for their own purposes. The quantity of land under jute cultivation in Rangpur is returned at 117,569 acres, and the estimated total out-turn at 1,058,121 maunds, or 774,695 hundredweights. Jute which is sown in March and cut in July is called āūs or early jute, and is of inferior quality to the āman or late jute, which is sown in April or May and cut in August or September. Āūs jute is generally cultivated on low, and āman on high lands. The land best suited to the growth of jute is a medium soil, neither too low nor too high; in very low lands the plant suffers from excessive inundations, while on very high lands it suffers to an equal extent from want of sufficient moisture. Meshtē (Hibiscus cannabinus), a coarse description of jute, is little grown in Rangpur District. The best native paper is made from this fibre, which is also used to adulterate the genuine jute. Son, or hemp (Crotolaria juncea), is sown on high dry land from October to December, and cut from February to April. The mode of cultivation adopted is the same as for jute; the process of extracting the fibre only differs in that the plant is steeped in water for a much shorter time, and the stalks are broken into pieces before the fibre is separated by hand. Kankhurē, or China grass (Rhea), grows wild in many parts of the District, especially on the chars of the Brahmaputra. The fibre, which is very strong and durable, is chiefly used for making fishing nets. Kāpās, or cotton (Gossypium herbaceum), is sown in March and April, and gathered in December and January, but the cultivation is very limited.

Tuberous Plants.—Vilayati ālu, or English potato (Solanum
tuberosum), sown in September and October, and dug up in February and March. Before sowing, the field is well manured with cow-dung, house sweepings, bamboo ashes, and decaying deposits of reeds from large swamps; it also undergoes eight or ten ploughings and as many harrowings. The seed potatoes are planted on ridges or mounds of earth, raised a foot above the surface of the field in parallel lines, and carefully kept in repair. The crop is once weeded. Four maunds of seed are required for one bighá of land, equal to $8\frac{1}{2}$ hundredweights per acre. The out-turn varies from 30 to 35 maunds per bighá, or from 65 to 76 hundredweights per acre. The value varies from 12 annás to Rs. 1. 4. 0 a maund, or from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 5d. a hundredweight. Potato cultivation has much extended since it was first introduced into the District some thirty or forty years ago, but I am unable to give the total area under this crop. Large quantities of Rangpur potatoes are exported to the neighbouring District of Bográ, where the soil is said to be unsuited to the cultivation. Many varieties of the yam tribe are cultivated in Rangpur. Ol (Arun companulatum) and man (Arun Indicum), sown in the months of October and November, and dug up in the corresponding months of the following year. Not cultivated in fields, but generally planted in and around the homesteads. Baijá káchu, manyi állu, purd or gol állu, dhobá pát állu, háli puaya állu, gojá állu, kshirsá bhog állu, machh állu, and bundariyá or tepát állu are all varieties of the yam tribe, sown in and about the homesteads between November and January, and generally dug up in the corresponding months of the next year. Kántá állu, or prickly potato, thrives well on a high light soil; sown in October and November, and dug up in the following September and October. Sek állu or sakar kand, or sweet potato (red Convolvulus batatas), and dhalá sakar kand (white Convolvulus batatas). These are also grown on high light lands; sown in October and November, and dug up between January and March. The other varieties of sweet potato are, atiyá káchu, megh lál káchu, billi káchu, and bánsphul káchu, all cultivated in high light soils, planted in March and April, and dug up in October and November. Adrák, or ginger (Zinziber officinale), is sown in the months of April and May, chiefly on waste lands that have remained uncultivated for some years, a high light soil being best suited to its cultivation. The land requires to be first dug up with the spade, and then ploughed, harrowed, and drilled five or six times; after which the seeds are placed in parallel
ridges or mounds of earth, as in potato cultivation. The land is well manured with cow-dung, oil-cake refuse, and decaying vegetable matter from swamps. Four maunds of seed are required for one bighá of land, equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ hundredweights per acre. The out-turn varies from 30 to 35 maunds per bighá, or from 65 to 76 hundredweights per acre. The crop in its green state is sold at 8 ándás a maund, or Rs. 4$\frac{1}{4}$d. a hundredweight; but when dried, at Rs. 5 a maund, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight. The root is dug up a year after sowing, when the field is allowed to remain fallow for five or six years, after which another crop of ginger is raised. *Haldi*, or turmeric (Curcuma longa), is cultivated in the same manner as ginger, save that the roots are not dug up till two years after sowing. The out-turn varies from 4 to 5 maunds a bighá, or from 8$\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 hundredweights per acre; and the value of dried turmeric from Rs. 4. 8. 0 to Rs. 5. 4. 0 a maund, or from 12s. 3d. to 14s. 4d. a hundredweight. Arrowroot (Maranta arundinacea), planted in a high light soil in March and April, and dug up in February or March of the following year. Onion, sown in a nursery in high light lands in November or December. A layer of sand a quarter of an inch deep is prepared for the reception of the seed, which, when sown, is covered with another thinner layer of sand. When the young shoots reach a foot in height, they are transplanted into fields, and the crop is finally dug up in April or May. A nursery of 2 kathás (5 poles) will supply plants for from 4 to 5 bighás (from 1 acre 1 rood 12 poles to 1 acre 2 roods 24 poles). The out-turn of the crop is about 60 or 65 baskets of from 16 to 20 lbs. weight, worth from 4 to 6 ándás (6d. to 9d.) per basket. Almost every peasant cultivates a small plot of onions, principally for his own consumption. *Rasun*, or garlic (album sativa), cultivated at the same season and in the same manner as onions.

**Cucurbitaceaeous Plants.**—It is not usual to set apart any particular lands for the cultivation of these plants, which are sown in any odd corner, generally near some fence. The principal are the following:—Matiyá kailla (Momordica Charantia), sown in October and November, and gathered in March and April. Bará kailla, sown in October and November, and gathered in June and July. Lun-ladu or kadu, or bottle gourd, sown from July to September, and gathered from December to February. Kankanrol karkotak, gathered from May to July. Kohírā khīrā, or cucumber (Cucumis sativus), sown from November to January, and gathered from May.
to July. Pánikumrá, or pumpkin (Benincasa cerifera), sown from February to April, and gathered from June to August. Jhinga (Luffa acutangula), sown from February to April, and gathered from June to August. Chinchïrdá, or snake gourd, sown from January to March, and gathered from July to September. Bungí, or melon, sown from November to January, and gathered in June and July. Tarmúj, or water-melon (Cucurbita citrullus), sown from November to January, and gathered from April to June.

Miscellaneous Crops.—Níl, or indigo, was cultivated in Rangpur long before any European planter set foot in the District, and was sold by the cultivators in large quantities to the Bhutiádas, a trade which still continues to exist. It is estimated that as much as a thousand maunds a year are taken to Jalápáigúr and elsewhere for this purpose. In former days the Bhutiádas used to come down to Rangpur in large caravans to make their purchases, but few now come, as markets have been established nearer their homes. At the present time there are no European indigo planters in Rangpur; the majority of them were either ruined or left their concerns at the time of the indigo disputes in 1860, and their factories were purchased by natives, who now carry on the manufacture. It does not seem that any compulsion is used by the native planters to force the peasantry to sow indigo, although many of the latter take money advances under an agreement to cultivate the indigo plant, and supply it to the planters at a fixed rate. Indigo is sown from February to April, and is cut from August to September. The land requires seven or eight ploughings and as many harrowings, besides one or two drillings, before the seed is put into the ground. The quantity of land under indigo cultivation in Rangpur District is estimated at 13,302 acres. It is principally situated in the high-lying northern portion of the District, especially pargánás Kázirhát, Kánkiná, and Munthoná. The produce of the larger factories is usually taken down to Calcutta for sale; but the petty planters sell theirs on the spot to local carpet-weavers, who require it to colour their thread, or to Bhutiá traders, who convey it to Thibet. The value of indigo in the Rangpur village markets is regulated by the prices obtained at the periodical public sales which take place in Calcutta. The average out-turn of the indigo plant is about 10 or 12 bundles per bighá, or from 30 to 36 bundles per acre, of the total value of from Rs. 3. 5. 4 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from £1 to £1. 12s. 4d. per acre. The produce of dye obtained from a bighá of
plant is about 2 sers, or 12 lbs. per acre. Four sers of seed are sufficient for one bighá, or 24 lbs. of seed per acre; the value of the seed is about 1 anná a ser, or about 1½d. a pound.

Sugar-cane requires a light dry soil. The crop is cultivated throughout Rangpur District, except in the eastern tracts. It is planted in February and March, and cut in the following January and February, being in the ground a period of about eleven months. The land requires eight or ten ploughings, and as many harrowings and drillings. The seed-plants are sown on ridges or mounds of earth raised about a foot above the level of the field. Owing to the natural moisture, the crop does not require artificial irrigation in Rangpur, as it does in other parts. When the young canes are three or four feet high, they are tied together in bunches of eight or ten, to make them stand erect. The field requires careful weeding and manuring; and more care is taken of this crop than of any other. Four varieties of cane are grown, namely, sarián angi, handá, mukhi, and khäri. When the canes ripen, they are cut into small pieces about six inches in length, and ground in a mill to express the juice. This is afterwards boiled into gür or molasses, which is sold and exported in its raw state without any attempt at refining. The out-turn is estimated at from 9 to 10 maunds of gür per bighá, or from 19⅓ to 22 hundredweights per acre. The quantity of land under sugar-cane in Rangpur is estimated at 20,466 acres, and the total net produce at 292,136 maunds, or 213,885 hundredweights of gür.

Tobacco.—Rangpur is noted for its tobacco cultivation. Some superior samples, sent by a native landed proprietor of the District to the Paris Exhibition in 1867, obtained a medal and certificate. The importance of the crop can be traced back to an early date. It appears from the ms. Records of the Board of Revenue that the disturbances in 1782–83 were connected in some way with an interference by the farmer with the cultivation of tobacco by the rayats. The plant is sown in nurseries in August and September, transplanted into fields surrounding the homestead from November to January, and cut in March and April. The land is first well manured with cow-dung, house sweepings, and oil-cake refuse; it requires to be ploughed and harrowed ten or twelve times, and to be drilled twice, before it is fit for cultivation. This is the only crop in Rangpur District which requires irrigation. Half a poyá of seed is required for one bighá of land, or three-quarters of a pound to an acre. The crop requires constant care and attention to keep it free from insects.
known as lattás. When the leaves are plucked, they are exposed in the sun for a day to dry, after which they are made into bundles of eight or ten leaves, called jhákás; 20 or 25 of these jhákás are made up into a larger bundle called a peti, weighing about a ser or two pounds. Tobacco is principally cultivated in the high-lying northern tracts, especially in the parganás of Kázirhát and Kánkiná. In the northern tracts the out-turn varies from 3 to 4 maunds per bighá, or from $6\frac{5}{8}$ to $8\frac{3}{4}$ hundredweights per acre; and in the south of the District from 2 to 3 maunds per bighá, or from $4\frac{3}{4}$ to $6\frac{5}{8}$ hundredweights per acre. The area under tobacco cultivation in Rangpur is estimated at 71,204 acres, and the out-turn of the crop at 712,040 maunds, or 521,315 hundredweights. The price varies from Rs. 3. 8. 0 to Rs. 4 per maund, or from 9s. 6d. to 10s. 11d. per hundredweight, for the inferior sorts, and from Rs. 5 to Rs. 5. 8. 0 per maund, or from 13s. 8d. to 15s. a hundredweight, for the best qualities. The eight principal varieties of tobacco grown are known as hamak, chhotámání, bárdámání, dhudi, sundur motí, chartápattí, bhángá, and náwákhalí. The first four named are the finest in quality, but the other varieties are stronger, and are chewed with betel leaf. Rangpur tobacco is largely purchased by Maghá from the Chittagong coast, for the purpose of being manufactured in Burmah.

Pan, or betel leaf (Piper betel), is also largely cultivated. A pán garden seldom exceeds two bighás (two-thirds of an acre) in extent. The land is raised waist-high above the level of the surrounding fields, well manured with oil-cake refuse, and closely dug; new earth is thrown on the field every year. In April or May, the roots of the old creepers are placed on ridges of earth raised for the purpose; the garden is watered every day until the plants are three feet high, when it is enclosed and roofed over with reeds and bamboo; the creepers entwine themselves round the bamboo supports. The rent of a pán garden is very high, sometimes amounting to Rs. 20 a bighá, or £6 an acre. The leaves are eaten by the people with areca nut and lime paste made from shells. In the rainy season, eighty leaves sell for a pice (1½ farthings), but in April and May, before the rains set in, the same quantity is worth 2 annás (3d.). The Deputy-Collector's report does not give any estimate of the out-turn or cost of cultivation, but it is usually a very remunerative crop. The leaves of old creepers of two or three years' standing are preferred to those of younger plants.
SUPARI; or betel nut (Areca catechu). Nearly every peasant has a number of these palms in his homestead land. The trees are sometimes scattered here and there, but are generally planted in rows. They are transplanted at different stages of their growth; and it is said that a tree which has undergone seven transplantations is the most fruitful. The nuts are eaten with pān leaf, and are sold at the rate of 7 or 8 bishis for the rupee (2s.), a bishi consisting of 220 nuts. The nuts are gathered between October and February, each tree yielding from two to three hundred.

TUT, or mulberry (Morus Indica). Two varieties of mulberry are cultivated in Rangpur,—one, which grows to the dimensions of a small tree, for its fruit; and the other, a bush, for rearing silk-worms. The silk-worm mulberry requires a high rich soil; it is planted between May and July; the leaves are gathered between October and February, and again in April and May. One bighā of mulberry plants yields sufficient leaves to feed worms producing five or six ser (10 or 12 pounds) of cocoons. These cocoons sell at the rate of Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 a ser, or from 1s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. a pound.

LANKA MARICH, or chili (Capsicum annum). The seeds are first sown in a nursery, the young shoots being afterwards transplanted into fields from June to August, and gathered from December to February. The land requires to be ploughed and harrowed five or six times before sowing; after transplanting, it is carefully weeded several times. The cultivation of chili is limited, and is said not to suffice for the local wants of the population.

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—ULU, or thatching grass (Paspalum scrobiculatum), is cut in December and January, and grows well in a poor, wet soil. Kuso grass (Poa cynosuroides) also thrives in poor, wet lands; planted in November and December, and cut in May and June. Motha (Cyperus rotundus) requires a better soil and somewhat higher land than the foregoing; planted from January to March, cut in July and August, and again in October and November. Methi (Trigonella scenum græcum) grows best in a light sandy soil; sown in October and November, and cut from February to April. Bāns, or bamboo (Bambusa arundinacea), grows best in a high soil with an admixture of sand; but the bamboos of Rangpur are very poor and thin. They are cut between October and January, after which new shoots spring up from the old roots left in the ground.
GARDEN VEGETABLES.—Báigun, or egg plant (Solanum melongena), thrives well in ordinary garden soil, and is extensively consumed by the natives. Two crops are cultivated in the year,—an early crop, planted in June or July and gathered from December to February, and a late crop, planted in October or November and gathered from May to July. Tomatoes, gajar or carrot, sálgam or turnip, and bit palang or beetroot are only cultivated in a few gardens; sown in October or November, and gathered from February to April. Mulá, or radish, cultivated only in a few gardens; sown in October and November, and dug up from December to February. Phul kápí, or cauliflower, only raised in a few gardens; sown in October or November, and cut from February to April. Cabbages of two sorts, ol kápí and banda kápí, are grown on small patches of garden land, and are sown and cut at the same seasons as cauliflowers. Piring, generally cultivated on high lands surrounding homesteads; sown in November and December, and cut in March and April. Ság or native vegetables of various kinds are also grown on homestead lands. The principal kinds of ság are paláng, chukái paláng, khonká, naphá, lít ság, and bathuyá; all sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Kusum (Carthamus tinctorius), grown on homestead land; sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Lettuce, grown only in a few gardens; sown from October to December, and cut from December to February. Legumes of various kinds are sown around homesteads, and often trained up the sides of the house. The principal of these are—oyal-pete chhim, ghritá kanchan, gújáil gobígá chhim, kalái chhim, kotá oya chhim, labi chhim, talá pái chhim, terá dháb chhim, sindur kotá chhim, jami puli chhim, kal muchári chhim; all sown in March and April, and gathered in the following January and February.

SPICES.—Téj pát, a species of cinnamon (Cinnamomum cassia); planted in August and September. The leaves of this shrub are used for seasoning. Sajina much, or horse radish; a large tree, portions of the root of which are used for seasoning. Duphárują or dhámjá (Coriandrum sativum); sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Kúlijirá or cummin, guá-mauri (Panmormium scenicum), phoran or bandholi (Abras precatorius), and sálup or Indian fennel (Anethum Sowa); all sown from September to November, and cut from December to February.
AREA OF THE DISTRICT.

FRUIT TREES.—_Am_, or mango (Mangifera Indica), ripens from April to June; the Rangpur fruit, however, is said to be of inferior quality, and generally worm-eaten. _Nechu phal_, or leechee (Nephelium Litchi). Very few of these trees are grown in Rangpur District, but the fruit is said to be of superior quality; it ripens between April and June. _Imli_, or tamarind (Tamarindus Indica), ripens from April to June. _Sharifá_, or custard apple (Anona squamosa), ripens in September and October. _Darim_, or pomegranate (Punica granatum), ripens in July and August. _Suphári ám_, or guava (Psidium), ripens in July and August. _Bel_ (Ægle Marmelos) ripens from February to April. _Batári nebu_, or pomelo (Citrus decumana), ripens from August to October. _Nebu_, or lime (Citrus acida), ripens from August to October. _Moná_, or bullock’s heart (Anona reticulata), ripens from August to October. _Kantál_, or jack fruit (Artocarpus integrifolia); most plentiful from May to June, but they are also to be obtained, though sparingly, at all seasons of the year. _Nárikel_, or cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera), ripens in May and June. _Anánás_, or pine-apple (Ananassa sativa); this fruit grows wild in great profusion throughout the District; ripens in May and June, but is also to be obtained, though sparingly, at other seasons of the year. Papaya (Carica Papaya) ripens from May to July. _Kalá_, or plantain (Musa paradisiaca). Many varieties of this fruit are cultivated in Rangpur,—_imálábháí_, kánchá kalá, maná kalá, marttáman (Martaban) kalá, _autiyá kalá_, _kani bansi kalá_, _chhini sukur kalá_, etc. The trees bear fruit twice a year, from May to July, and from November to January, the best being that which ripens in the hot season.

AREA OF THE DISTRICT.—At the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton’s survey in 1809, the total area of Rangpur, which then included, besides other tracts, the whole of the present District of Gálpárá, was returned at 7400 square miles. At the time of the Revenue Survey of Rangpur, after the separation of Gálpárá and other transfers, the area was found to be 2,954,183 acres, or 4615’91 square miles. Since 1869-70, however, the large _cháklás_ of Bodá, Báikunthpur, and Pátgrám have been annexed to the newly formed District of Jalápáguri, and certain _parganás_ formerly transferred to Bográ have been re-annexed to Rangpur. The present area of the District, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal, is 3411’54 square miles, exclusive of 123’2 square miles representing the basins of large rivers. This is the geographical as well as the magisterial area. The area comprised within the revenue jurisdic-
tion, after making a similar deduction for the large rivers, is returned at 2,380,812 acres, or 3720 square miles. The difference of 308 square miles between the magisterial and revenue jurisdictions arises from the fact that a portion of the Pātilādahā parganā within the Maimansinh police circle of Dīwānganj is borne on the Rangpur rent-roll.

The special Deputy-Collector appointed to collect agricultural statistics for Rangpur (Bābu Gopāl Chandra Das) has founded his calculations on a third area,—that of the estates borne on the revenue-roll of the District. With regard to this area, the Collector states as follows:—‘This is in some respects different from that of the revenue jurisdiction generally, since whole estates are borne on the revenue-roll of that District in which the greater portion of each of them is situated. Thus in effect, broadly speaking, the Deputy-Collector gives statistics relating to about 10,000 acres situated in Bogrā and elsewhere; and on the other hand, he leaves out altogether the estate of Purubbḥāg, wholly in this District, comprising about 30,000 acres, which is joined with Bodā and Pātgrām in one demand of revenue, and accordingly the whole is paid in Jalpāiguri District.’

In availing myself of the Deputy-Collector’s report, I have quoted his own figures as to areas, etc.; and as the total area dealt with by the Deputy-Collector differs from both the magisterial and revenue areas, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner and the Collector, it may be as well for him to explain here in his own words the method upon which he worked. In the following list of pargands, I have simply changed the Deputy-Collector’s arrangement into alphabetical sequence. The pargands to which ‘No. 2’ is affixed represent portions of the pargands of the same name immediately preceding them, which, together with other entire pargands, have lately been transferred to Rangpur from Bogrā District.

‘The area furnished to me by the zamīndārs, as per Survey mahal- war registers, is 2,458,611 acres, or 3841’57 square miles, as noted below:—
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<td>Pátiládáhá</td>
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<td>Peri Khalishá</td>
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<td>Poládási</td>
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<td>Rokanpur</td>
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<td>Sarhatá</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sherpur</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shukarguzárí</td>
<td>8,041   2  11</td>
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### Names of Parganas

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<th>No.</th>
<th>Pargana</th>
<th>Area</th>
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<td>Sikshahar</td>
<td>11,565 A. 3 R. 30 P.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Sultanpur</td>
<td>1,695 A. 1 R. 8 P.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Swaruppur</td>
<td>37,537 A. 0 R. 18 P.</td>
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<td>58</td>
<td>Tappat</td>
<td>62,664 A. 1 R. 35 P.</td>
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<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Tulsighat</td>
<td>6,622 A. 2 R. 19 P.</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>Udasi</td>
<td>10,864 A. 0 R. 21 P.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Warigachha</td>
<td>7,650 A. 2 R. 1 P.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Total:** 2,458,611 A. 0 R. 18 P.

*Out of this area, 98,316 acres 2 roods and 11 poles are to be deducted on account of double entries in parganas Kaziirhat and Munthana. These entries were made in the mahalwar registers by the Survey officers of those mahals which were held in ijmat by the proprietors, and were measured without distinction of boundary, the total area being shown opposite to each of the mahals. As the zamindars filed their returns according to the mahalwar registers, their statements showed the excess area of the double entries in the columns of their unculturable waste lands. The net area after this deduction is 2,360,294 acres 2 roods and 7 poles, or 3687.96 square miles, which is less by 20,518 acres than the circuit area of 3720 square miles. The cause of this difference is, that the circuit area includes 30,810 acres of land on account of Purubhag (a portion of the Bod estate which has been transferred to Jalpajuri), and is consequently more by 30,810 acres than the revenue area of the District according to the rent-roll. The quantity of 20,518 acres of land above referred to being deducted from the 30,810 acres of Purubhag, there remains a balance of 10,292 acres to be accounted for, which is explained in the following manner:*

**Balance to be accounted for:**

- On account of mauzad Banghali, belonging to estate Chapara in pargana Kaziirhat, but lying within pargana Bod, not within circuit area:
  - **A. 2778 R. 2**
- Ditto of Baidyabagish, lying in Purubhag, do.:
  - **471 A. 0 R. 25 P.**
- Ditto of Nawardanga, do.
  - **306 A. 3 R. 8 P.**
- Ditto of Bikunbari, do.
  - **154 A. 0 R. 32 P.**

| On account of land belonging to estates on the rent-roll of this District, but lying in the District of Bogra, | **Total acres:** 6581 A. 1 R. 3 P. |

**Total acres:** 10,292 A. 0 R. 3 P.
Of the net area of 2,360,294 acres, or 3687.95 square miles, arrived at by the Deputy-Collector (excluding 30,810 acres of Purubbhág, which, although situated within Rangpur District, pays revenue into the Jalpaiguri treasury, and including for a similar reason 10,292 acres situated in Bográ and elsewhere), 1,737,950 acres or 73 per cent. are estimated as actually under cultivation; 112,706 acres as cultivable waste and fallow land; 52,093 acres as grazing land; and 457,544 acres as unfit for cultivation, comprising river areas (exclusive of those already deducted, which only allow for the large flowing rivers at the driest season of the year, when the Survey measurements took place), jungles, marshes, roads, boundaries, etc. The net area treated by the Deputy-Collector is 2,360,294 acres, or 3687.95 square miles, against 2,380,812 acres; or 3720 square miles, representing the revenue area, and against 2,183,385 acres, or 3411.54 square miles, representing the geographical or magisterial area.

**Surveyed and Assessed Area.**—The table on pp. 256–257, exhibiting the cultivated and uncultivated area, arranged according to pargáns, together with the gross and detailed rates of assessment, is quoted from the report of the Deputy-Collector. The figures must be accepted subject to the explanation of the Deputy-Collector quoted above. I have merely altered the order of pargáns in the list in order to make them run in proper alphabetical sequence.

**Area under Different Crops.**—The table on pp. 258–259 shows how the total cultivated area of 1,737,950 acres is distributed among the various crops, according to the estimate of the Deputy-Collector. I reproduce the figures as given by the Deputy-Collector, although they appear to contain some slight inaccuracies, which do not, however, invalidate the general results.

**Out-turn and Value of Crops on Land Paying Different Rents.**—The productive qualities of the soil as regards rice vary so much throughout the District, and the rates of rent are so arbitrary in different pargáns, that only a rough estimate can be given of the probable out-turn from lands paying different rates of rents. Rice land renting at Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or Rs. an acre, is generally of the description known as ek-khandá, producing but one crop in the course of the year. A fair out-turn from land of this description is from 6 to 7 maunds of unhusked rice per bighá, of the total value of about Rs. 4, or from 13 to 15¾ hundredweights per acre, value [Sentence continued on page 260.]
<table>
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<tr>
<th>NAME OF PARGANA</th>
<th>Total cultivated area</th>
<th>Grazing lands</th>
<th>Cultivable</th>
<th>Uncultivable</th>
<th>Total area</th>
<th>Gross amount of assessment</th>
<th>Rate per acre on cultivation</th>
<th>Rate per acre on cultivable land</th>
<th>Rate per acre on total area</th>
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* Equal to 799,767, 8s. 6d., at the rate of 2s. per rupee.
### Statistical Account of Rangpur.

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**Total,** 1,163,466 | 1,998,829 | 11,002 | 2,244 | 11,114 | 0 | 8,874 | 1,366 | 1,299,080 | 2,166

**Add on account of invalid rent-free tenures,** 100,000 | 0 | 18,750 | 0 | 2,300 | 0 | 9,350 | 0 | 350 | 0 | 130,750 | 0

**Grand Total,** 1,263,466 | 1,998,829 | 11,002 | 2,244 | 11,114 | 0 | 8,874 | 1,366 | 1,430,440 | 2,166

about £1, 4s. od. Land renting at Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. an acre, produces two crops in the year. Both of these may be rice, one the áus or autumn rice, and the other the áman or winter rice. In this case the total out-turn of both crops should be from 11 to 12 maunds of unhusked rice per bighá, valued at Rs. 7 or Rs. 7. 8. 0, equal to from 24 to 26 hundredweights per acre, worth from £2, 2s. od. to £2, 5s. od. More generally, however, the crop is a mixed one, instead of being exclusively rice. On high dry lands, after the removal of a crop of áus or early rice (the out-turn of which should be about 4 maunds per bighá, of the value of Rs. 2. 8. 0, equal to about 8 1/4 hundredweights per acre, worth say 1s. 3d.), a second or cold-weather crop of oil-seeds, pulses, or tobacco is raised. A second crop of mustard usually yields about 2 maunds per bighá, the total value of the produce being Rs. 6, equal to about 4 1/2 hundredweights per acre, of the total value of £1, 16s. od. Kheâtrí usually yields a second crop of 3 1/2 maunds per bighá, valued at Rs. 7. 14. 0, equal to 7 1/2 hundredweights per acre, worth about £2, 7s. 3d. Where musuri is grown, the out-turn is about 2 1/2 maunds per bighá, worth about Rs. 6. 4. 0, equal to 5 1/2 hundredweights per acre, worth about £1, 17s. 6d. The out-turn of wheat would be about the same in quantity, but the value of the produce would be about Rs. 7. 8. 0 per bighá, or £2, 5s. od. an acre. Tobacco makes a very valuable second crop, but requires great care and attention in its cultivation. The out-turn is about 4 1/2 maunds a bighá, of the total value of about £2, equal to nearly 10 hundredweights per acre, worth say £6. By a proper selection of soil and care in cultivation, the produce of some crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, jute, ginger, etc., may be made very remunerative. The Collector estimates that under favourable circumstances the following out-turn can be obtained from a standard bighá (one-third of an acre) cultivated with these crops:—Sugar-cane, 9 maunds of unrefined sugar, value Rs. 36 (£3, 12s. od.), or 3 maunds of refined sugar, value Rs. 60 (£6), together with 4 1/2 maunds of treacle, value Rs. 13. 8. 0 (£1, 7s. od.); total value, Rs. 73. 8. 0 (£7, 7s. od.). Tobacco, 8 maunds, value Rs. 36 (£3, 12s. od.); jute, 15 maunds, value Rs. 45 (£4, 10s. od.); ginger, 25 maunds undried, value Rs. 18 (£1, 16s. od.); or 8 maunds dried, value Rs. 40 (£4); turmeric, 5 1/2 maunds, value Rs. 22 (£2, 4s. od.); potatoes, 25 maunds, value Rs. 50 (£5); betel-nuts, 13 maunds, value Rs. 39 (£3, 18s. od.); millet or kaon, 7 maunds,
OUT-TURN AND VALUE OF PRODUCE. 261

value Rs. 8 (16s.); chind, 5 maunds, value Rs. 6 (12s.); thikri-kalâi, 3 maunds, value Rs. 7 (14s.); and arhar, 5 maunds, value Rs. 16. 8. 0 (£1, 13s. od.).

Estimated Out-turn and Value of total District Produce.—The Deputy-Collector, Bâbu Gopál Chandra Das, gives the following approximate estimate of the total out-turn of crops in Rangpur District, together with their marketable value, etc. It must be remembered that the area dealt with by the Deputy-Collector also includes the police circle (thând) of Diwânganj, which is subject fiscally to Rangpur, but is within the magisterial jurisdiction of Maimansinh; and the figures must be accepted subject to the explanation respecting details of area, etc., given on a previous page when reproducing the Deputy-Collector’s calculations. The apparent total of cultivated land in this estimate amounts to 1,933,597 acres. The actual cultivated area, as given elsewhere by the Deputy-Collector, is 1,737,950 acres. The explanation is, that lands which bear two crops have been in some cases inserted twice over in the present estimate. It should also be stated that a few errors in calculation have been corrected:—

1,222,517 acres yielding âman rice only, at 21 maunds per acre; total, 25,672,857 maunds of paddy (unhusked rice), equal to 16,045,535 maunds of rice, which, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund, or 3s. 9d. per cwt., is worth Rs. 22,062,610

40,749 acres yielding two crops of rice, at 30 maunds per acre; total, 1,222,470 maunds of paddy, equal to 763,043 maunds of rice, worth, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund, or 3s. 9d. per cwt., 1,049,184

275,067 acres yielding âus or early rice, at 15 maunds per acre; total, 4,126,005 maunds of paddy, equal to 2,578,752 maunds of rice, worth, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund, or 3s. 9d. per cwt., 3,545,784

117,569 acres yielding jute, at 9 maunds per acre; total, 1,058,121 maunds of jute, worth, at Rs. 1. 8. 0 per maund, or 4s. 1d. per cwt., 1,587,181

13,302 acres yielding indigo, at 90* bundles per acre; total, 1,197,180 bundles, worth, at 4 bundles per rupee, or 6d. per bundle, 299,295

20,466 acres yielding sugar, at 23 maunds of gur per acre; total, 470,718 maunds, worth, at Rs. 2. 8. 0 per maund, or 6s. 10d. per cwt., 1,176,795

15,226 acres yielding vegetables, such as potatoes, ginger,

* This is the estimate of the Deputy-Collector, but it appears to be excessive. The out-turn of indigo plant has been more correctly stated on p. 246 at from 30 to 36 bundles per acre.
 turmeric, onions, garlic, etc., at 90 maunds per acre; total, 1,370,340 maunds, worth, at Rs. 1. 8. 0 a maund, or 48. 1d. per cwt. 35,110 acres yielding wheat, at 7 maunds per acre; total, 245,770 maunds, worth, at Rs. 3 per maund, or 8s. 2d. per cwt. 73,145 acres yielding oil-seeds, at 6 maunds per acre; total, 438,870 maunds, worth, at Rs. 5 a maund, or 13s. 8d. per cwt. 71,204 acres yielding tobacco, at 10 maunds per acre; total, 712,040 maunds, worth, at Rs. 5 a maund, or 13s. 8d. per cwt. 49,242 acres yielding other food-grains than rice or wheat, at 10 maunds per acre; total, 492,420 maunds, worth, at Rs. 3 per maund, or 8s. 2d. per cwt. Total, Rs. 2,055,510 737,310 2,194,350 3,560,200 1,477,260 Rs. 39,745.479 or £3,974.547, 18s. od.

**Condition of the Cultivating Classes.**—From eighty to a hundred bighás, or from twenty-seven to thirty-three acres, would be considered a very large holding for a single husbandman in Rangpur District. To cultivate a farm of this extent, he would require from eight to ten ploughs; and even though there were four or five adult male members of the family, he would need to employ an equal number of hired labourers. A cultivator's holding not exceeding three or four bighás (or from an acre to an acre and a third) in extent would be considered a very small one. A farm consisting of about twenty-five bighás or eight acres would be considered a fair-sized, comfortable holding, and would require probably about three ploughs for its proper cultivation. The Collector estimates that about thirty per cent of the peasantry of Rangpur District cultivate only a single plough of land. The extent comprised in a 'plough' of land varies according to the nature and condition of the soil and of the crop cultivated, but on an average it may be taken at from ten to eleven bighás, or from 3½ to 3¾ acres. The poorer husbandmen with only a single plough generally cultivate mixed crops on their holdings, as being more remunerative than rice alone. A husbandman with a farm of fifteen bighás or five acres in extent, if he cultivated only rice, would be about in the same position as a man drawing a fixed pay of Rs. 8 or 16s. per month, perhaps not quite so well off; but his condition would be considerably better if his land admitted of his cultivating mixed crops. The Collector
states that both socially and materially, these small farmers, with holdings of fifteen bighás or five acres of all descriptions of land, are quite on a par with the respectable village shopkeepers and retail dealers. A considerable proportion of the cultivators are in debt, but not to the extent that prevails in certain other parts of India. The manager of Rání Swarnamayi's estate, in the eastern portion of the District, reported to the Collector in 1871 that about one-half of the cultivators in that tract were in debt. For other parts of the District the Collector is of opinion that the proportion of husbandmen in debt is considerably less, and that it does not exceed from fifteen to twenty per cent. The cause of debt most frequently arises from the misfortunes of a single season, extravagance on the occasion of marriages and other festivals, or from speculation. This last cause chiefly affects the larger husbandmen (jotdárs), who frequently set up as merchants for buying up country produce, and occasionally meet with heavy losses.

RIGHTS OF OCCUPANCY, ETC.—The great majority of the husbandmen of Rangpur District hold their lands without occupancy rights. One cause which contributes greatly to this state of things is said to be that the cultivators are fond of changing their lands, and frequently relinquish one holding for another. In Baharband and the eastern parts of the District, the proportion of husbandmen holding their lands with a right of occupancy is estimated at one-eighth of the whole cultivating body; in Swarūppur, in the east, the proportion is returned at one-sixteenth, and in the southern parts of the District at five-eighths. For the District as a whole, the Collector states that one-fourth seems to be a fair estimate of the proportion which the cultivators with a right of occupancy bear to the whole body. The remainder are either tenants-at-will, or tenants settled for a term of years, subject to a new settlement on the expiration of their leases. The Collector has been unable to obtain any information from the local landholders of the number or proportion of husbandmen in Rangpur District who hold their farms under a right of occupancy, and are at the same time exempt from liability to enhancement of rent. Their number, however, is undoubtedly small, and, in the opinion of the Collector, does not exceed one-sixteenth of the whole body of the tenantry.

There is no class of small proprietors in Rangpur District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a zamindár or superior holder above them, or a sub-holder or
krishān or labourer of any sort below them. It is just possible that there may be a few solitary instances of such a holding within the District, but the Collector states they have not been remarked, and that inquiry has failed to discover their existence. There are a large number of holders of rent-free estates in Rangpur. It is the almost invariable custom for the proprietors of these estates either to sublet their lands, or to cultivate them through others by a sort of metayer tenure, the cultivator paying no rent and taking half the produce of the land, while the remaining half goes to the proprietor of the estate. The Collector states that Rs. 2 (4s.) per month a head (counting two children as one adult person) is a sufficient allowance for a cultivator to support his household upon in moderate comfort. Taking the family to consist of three adults and two children, this would represent a monthly sum of Rs. 8 or 16s.

The Domestic Animals of Rangpur comprise elephants, horses, oxen, buffaloes, donkeys, sheep, goats, pigs, dogs, cats, and fowls. Elephants are somewhat numerous, and are owned by many of the zamindārs, being caught in the hills of Goālpāra or the Dwārs. In former days a large number of elephants were annually captured and made over to Government, in payment of the land revenue of certain of the zamindārs whose estates bordered on Kuch Behar and Bhutān. They were then sold by the Collector, and sometimes brought prices averaging only £5 each. This practice, however, has long been discontinued, and the revenue is now invariably paid in money. Horses are neither plentiful nor good of their kind; of late years, however, dealers have begun to bring a better class of horses from up-country at the season of the great fairs. The Bhutiā ponies have long been famed in the District, but they are not now held in their former estimation, as it is supposed that the breed has somewhat deteriorated. They are still brought to Rangpur by the Bhutiās in their annual visits to the District, but not to such an extent as formerly, equally good markets being now met with farther north. Manīpuri and Burmah ponies are also occasionally obtainable. The cattle of the District are of small size, and rarely exceed four feet in height. A principal cause of this stunted growth is stated to be the want of grazing land, beaten straw being the only provender available for the cattle. The best cattle and oxen are all imported from the up-country Districts. The total number of cows and bullocks in Rangpur District is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 1,765,264. Buffaloes are comparatively few in number in Rangpur, and the
domesticated ones are not of a very good kind. They are most numerous on the banks of the Brahmaputra, the chars of which make good grazing ground. Buffaloes are not reared in Rangpur, but are imported by dealers from Purniáh and the Districts of the Upper Provinces, and sold at fairs. The total number of buffaloes in Rangpur is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 2835. Sheep are only kept by those who have available grazing lands, and are reared by Muhammadans for food. Goats are abundant in Rangpur. The total number of sheep and goats in the District is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 241,081, of which, however, the sheep do not comprise more than one-tenth. The price of an ordinary cow is about Rs. 15 (£1, 10s. od.); a pair of bullocks fetch from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 (£2 to £4); a score of country sheep, Rs. 30 (£3); a score of imported Patná sheep, from Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 (£6 to £7, 10s. od.); a score of kids six months old, Rs. 15 (£1, 10s. od.); and a score of full-grown pigs, Rs. 140 (£14).

Agricultural Implements.—As before explained, 'a plough' of land, viz. the extent cultivable by a single pair of bullocks with one plough, is in Rangpur District generally taken to represent from 10 to 11 standard bighás, or about 3½ standard acres. With a light soil, strong oxen, and active cultivation, however, the plough of land may extend to as much as 15 bighás, or about 5 standard acres. The total capital required to till a plough of land is about Rs. 40 (£4), including the cost of an ordinary pair of plough oxen and of the requisite implements of agriculture. These implements, which would cost from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 12s.), are as follow:—(1) Nángál, a wooden plough with an iron share; (2) joyáá, or yoke; (3) máí, or bamboo harrow, constructed in the shape of a ladder, and drawn by bullocks, the driver standing upon the implement to give it weight; (4) bídá or nángláá, a large grubber dragged by bullocks; (5) kúrsi, a clod-crusher or mallet; (6) hátt-nángál, or hand plough not requiring oxen, and used by the peasantry in cultivating turmeric, ginger, etc.; (7) a rake for grubbing up weeds, also called hátt-nángál; (8) káinchhi, or sickle; (9) kódáli, a large hoe used instead of a spade; (10) pásun, a smaller hoe; (11) kúráli, or axe; (12) dáo, or bill-hook for fencing and cutting bamboos; (13) páát, a scraper for gathering the paddy together after it has been reaped; (14) senti or satī, a basket for irrigating the fields; (15) kulá, a basket fan for winnowing rice; (16) tulá, a basket for measuring grain; (17) dálá, a basket for carrying vegetable produce to and from the
market; (18) pēnti, a stick for driving the cattle; (19) bankuá, a large stick used for carrying the sheaves of paddy from the field. The whole of the implements mentioned above, with the exception of the grubber (No. 4), axe (No. 11), and bill-hook (No. 12), are required for the cultivation of a single plough of land. It may not be out of place here to give the Collector’s estimate of the expense of cultivating a single bighá of land (¼ of an acre) with various crops. The rates are calculated on the supposition that hired labour is employed, and include six months rent:—Aus rice, Rs. 4 (8s.); áman rice, Rs. 3 (6s.); tobacco, Rs. 9 (18s.); sugar-cane, Rs. 22 (72, 4s. od.); mustard seed, Rs. 3. 4. 0 (6s. 6d.); jute, Rs. 5 (10s.); potatoes, Rs. 6. 8. 0 (13s.); ginger, Rs. 5 (10s.); turmeric, Rs. 6. 8. 0 (13s.); wheat, Rs. 2. 12. 0 (5s. 6d.); chilies, Rs. 10 (1£1); dán, Rs. 125 (1£12, 10s. od.); betel-nut, Rs. 5. 8. 0 (11s.); klon, Rs. 2. 8. 0 (5s.); chindá, Rs. 2. 8. 0 (5s.); thikri kalái, 12 ánnás (1s. 6d.); khesári, 12 ánnás, (1s. 6d.); arhar, R. 1. 2. 0 (2s. 3d.). In the case of husbandmen who cultivate from 10 to 30 bighás, with from one to three ploughs, but have not to engage hired labour, the cost of cultivation would barely amount to one-half of the rates mentioned above.

WAGES AND PRICES.—The Collector returns the present (1871) rates at which labour is obtainable in Rangpur District as follow:—Agricultural day-labourers, from 2½ ánnás to 2½ ánnás (from 3½d. to 3½d.) per day; ordinary labourers in towns, from 2½ ánnás to 3 ánnás (3½d. to 4½d.) per day. The monthly wages of blacksmiths vary from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 (12s. to 16s.); of carpenters, from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 (16s. to £1, 4s. od.). Bricklayers are now paid at the rate of from Rs. 125 to Rs. 135 (£12, 10s. od. to £13, 10s. od.) per lakh (100,000) of bricks moulded and burnt. Previous to 1860, since which date a considerable rise in the value of labour has occurred, ordinary and agricultural labourers were obtainable at the rate of from 1 ánná to 1½ ánnás (1½d. to 2½d.) a day; blacksmiths and carpenters earned from Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 (8s. to 12s.) a month; while the rate paid for brickmaking was Rs. 60 (£6) per lakh (100,000). Prices of food-grains have advanced in a more than corresponding rate. The following table, supplied by the Collector in 1871, exhibits the average prices of ordinary food-grains in 1785-86, in 1859-60, the maximum rates prevailing in the famine year of 1866-67, and the ordinary rates in December 1870 (at the time of the winter rice harvest):—
### Comparative Prices of Food-Grains (per Maund and Cwt.) at Different Periods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average of 1785-86.</th>
<th>Average of 1859-60.</th>
<th>Maximum rate in 1866-67 (Famine Year)</th>
<th>Rate in December 1870.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per maund of 82 lbs.</td>
<td>Per cwt.</td>
<td>Per maund of 82 lbs.</td>
<td>Per cwt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best cleaned rice</td>
<td>R. a. p. 0 14 0</td>
<td>s. d. 2 4</td>
<td>R. a. p. 1 13 11</td>
<td>s. d. 5 1 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common rice</td>
<td>0 9 0</td>
<td>1 6</td>
<td>1 7 8</td>
<td>4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unshelled barley</td>
<td>0 6 0</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 1 1 4</td>
<td>4 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>0 10 6</td>
<td>1 9 ½</td>
<td>1 7 8</td>
<td>4 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In 1872 the ordinary rates were—for best cleaned rice, Rs. 2. 3. 6 a maund, or 6s. a hundredweight; and for common rice, Rs. 1. 8. 7 per maund, or 4s. 2½d. a hundredweight.

Weights and Measures.—The following paragraphs regarding the extreme diversity of weights and measures current in different parganas is extracted verbatim from the Collector's special report to me in 1871:—‘There is an infinite variety of weights used in this District, differing according to the locality, the substance weighed, and the usages of trade. The rati, or seed of the Abrus precatorius, is said to be the basis of weight for gold, silver, and drugs. The seed itself averages about $\frac{15}{18}$ grains in weight; the artificial rati should be double this weight, but in common use it averages about $\frac{24}{1}$ grains. The standard gold and silver weight is as follows:—$4$ dhán = $1$ rati; $8$ rati = $1$ máshá; $12$ máshá = $1$ tola of 180 grains troy. This is the standard tola as fixed by Regulation vii. of 1833; but the tola most commonly used and recognised previous to 1833, on which the weights and measures must in many instances have been founded, was the weight of the sikká rupee, which when new should weigh 179.666 grains troy. As the current silver coin of the realm has commonly been used as the basis of weights and measures in India, the extreme diversity of the standards in Rangpur may in part be accounted for by the debased nature of the coin current in the District in the latter part of the last century. In 1787 there was no copper coin whatever in circulation in the District, its place being to some extent supplied by cowries (kauris). There were some $12$ lákhs of nárdáyaní half-rupees in circulation; but these were so debased, that in 1785 Government had to sell off an accumulation of them at the Rangpur treasury at the rate of 400 half-rupees for 100 Calcutta sikká rupees. They would circulate only in Kuch Behar (where they were coined), Assam, the eastern Bengal Districts, and in Bhután, and were exchanged generally at the rate of 273 half-rupees for 100 Calcutta sikká rupees. The nárdáyaní whole rupees were neither coined nor in circulation at that time; indeed, the only whole rupee generally current in the District was the French arcot rupee (coined at Pondicherry), but this was so much clipped as to be worth only from nine aţnás upwards. Two lákhs of these rupees were estimated to be in circulation in 1787. A year or two later we find mention of the sonát rupee being in circulation at a discount of one aţná; and of small quantities of inferior kinds of rupees, called jasbi, gursdí, and u-ulí,
current at a discount of 4\(\frac{1}{10}\), 5\(\frac{1}{10}\), and 6\(\frac{1}{10}\) ánnás respectively. In this debased state of the coinage, uniformity in weights and measures was not to be expected, the basis of these being regulated according to the weight of the rupee or tóla. Large substances are sometimes, but not generally, weighed according to the Government standard as follows:—5 tóla = 1 chháták; 16 chháták = 1 ser, or 2 lbs. 0 oz. 14\(\frac{1}{2}\) drs.; 40 ser = 1 man or maund of 100 troy pounds, or 82 lbs. avoirdupois. The above are the standard weights, but they have not been at all generally adopted. The table most commonly used is as follows:—80 ráli = 1 tóla; 60 tóla = 1 kachhá ser; 90 tóla = 1 paká ser; 5 ser = 1 dhará; 8 dhará = 1 maund, the maund of course varying in weight according to whether the kachhá or paká ser is used. To the west of the Jabuneswári, the lighter or kachhá ser is the one most generally employed, and grain, etc. is measured by it. To the east, however, and especially in the neighbourhood of the headquarters town, the paká ser of 90 tólas prevails. The ser, however, varies in the different markets. Thus we have 58, 60, 72, 80, 82\(\frac{1}{2}\), 84, 87, 90, and 480 tólas to the ser. This last is called káli chándí ujan, and is used in the neighbourhood of Kulághát for weighing tobacco. Oil is generally, and silk uniformly, weighed by the ser of 72 tólas; cotton thread, etc., by the kachhá ser of 60 tólas.

The following is the recognised table of land measure:—3 barleycorns = 1 angúli; 4 angúli = 1 mushti; 6 mushti...
=1 cubit or háth; 4 háth=1 guthone or bow; 1000 bows=1 kos. This, however, is rarely adhered to; the mass of the people, in estimating length, use only indefinite terms, roughly expressive of their meaning. A háth is the length of an ordinary man's forearm; a rasi, or chain, generally means about 50 yards; a tir, or bowshot, about 80 yards. A kos (properly speaking, about two miles) is generally understood to represent the distance a man can walk in two dandas (about 48 minutes). Every parganá has its own standard of measurement, and even throughout some parganás the standard is not uniform. In some, it is a recognised practice for the superior tenants to use a shorter chain in measuring the lands of their tenants than that used by their own zamindárs. The general unit in land measure is the dast or cubit, and the permanent standard rod of each parganá represents either the cubit or the yard, gaj or dirrá, derived from the cubit. The following are specimens of some tables of measurement recorded in the District about eighty years ago:—(1) Parganá Kázirhát: 10½ mushtí=1 gaj or yard; 10 gaj=1 phul; 10 phul=1 chain or rasi; 40 gaj × 40 gaj=1 don; length of gaj filed, 34 inches. (2) Parganá Kundi: 10 mushtí=1 gaj; 10 gaj=1 phul; 10 phul=1 rasi; 40 gaj × 40 gaj=1 don; length of gaj, 32 inches. (3) Parganá Ambári: 110 háths of 18½ inches =1 bighá rasi. (4) Chaklé Gorághát: (a) pálí mahals, i.e. a soft, sandy soil, producing all kinds of crops, the following is the usual standard measure:—4 anguli=1 mushtí; 6 mushtí=1 dast; 10 mushtí=1½ dast=1 dirrá; 52 dirrá=91 dast=1 rasi. (b) In khear lands, i.e. a hard, stiff soil producing winter rice only, the measure is ordinarily as follows:—1½ dast=1 dirrá; 48 dirrá=84 dast=1 rasi. The dast here referred to is that of Rájá Gaurináth (1788 A.D.).

'The unit of assessment is the square chain, called in some parganás the bighá, in others the don. The latter corresponds exactly to the Government standard bighá of 1600 square yards; and this is the measurement used in all the parganás which were included in the ancient territory of Kochwárá, so called probably from being comprised within the dominions of the Koch princes. The denominations of this measure are as follow:—1 square yard=1 kara or kauri; 4 kara=1 gandá; 25 gandá=1 káli or káni; 16 káli=1 don; 20 don=1 bis; 16 bis=1 gavo. In the other parganás of the District, as elsewhere in Bengal, the bighá is the standard of measure most commonly used. Its various denominations are as follow:—1 square yard=1 kara; 4 kara=1 gandá;
MEASURES OF TIME.

20 gandá = 1 kathá; 20 kathá = 1 bighá, or 14,400 feet, or 1600 square yards. [This is the standard bighá, but the local bighá varies in extent in different parganás. In all my calculations throughout this Statistical Account, I have taken the bighá at \( \frac{1}{10} \) of an English acre, and the maund at 82 lbs. avoirdupois.] The following table shows the recognised land measure current in the principal parganás of Rangpur District:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Pargana</th>
<th>Length of standard rod filed in Collectorate.</th>
<th>Length of chain used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ft. in.</td>
<td>Yds. ft. in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kánkiná,</td>
<td>2 8(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>35 2 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pángá,</td>
<td>2 7(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>35 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kábipur,</td>
<td>2 6(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>34 0 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purúbhág,</td>
<td>3 0(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>40 2 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muntháná,</td>
<td>2 7</td>
<td>34 1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basáta,</td>
<td>2 6(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>33 1 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kázirhát,</td>
<td>2 10</td>
<td>37 2 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tappá,</td>
<td>2 8(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>36 0 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhítárband,</td>
<td>2 11</td>
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'Measures of Time.—People of education use the European method of reckoning time. The ghatá or ghari corresponds to the English hour, and the English word minute has been adopted into the language:—60 minutes = 1 ghatá or ghari; 12 ghatá = 1 din, or day; 24 ghatá = 1 diba rát, or day and night. The old Bengali fashion of reckoning time, however, still prevails with the mass of the agricultural population. Under this system the day is considered to commence at sunrise and to end at sunset, being divided into 4 prahars or watches (consisting generally of three hours each). When the sun is on the meridian course, it is do-prahar, or midday. The period from sunrise to noon is called purūb-ahno; and from noon to sunset, opor-ahno. From 6 to 12 o'clock during the day or night, the time is reckoned from the former hour, and expressed as jātte. From 12 to 6 it is reckoned backwards from the latter hour, and is
distinguished as thakite. The former method of reckoning may be continued beyond 12 o'clock, and the latter begun previously to it, but this is not generally the case. The former during the day-time is sometimes called usānī, and the latter bhātile. Thus, der prahar din jaite or der prahar usānī means about 10.30 A.M.; der prahar din thakite or der prahar bhātile means about 1.30 P.M. Similarly, der prahar rāt jaite and der prahar rāt thakite mean 10.30 P.M. and 1.30 A.M. respectively, while do-prahar rāt means midnight. The Bengali standard of reckoning time is as follows:—60 bipāl = 1 pāl; 60 pāl = 1 danda, or 24 minutes; 7½ danda = 1 prahar, or 3 hours; 4 prahar = 1 din (day) or 1 rāt (night); 8 prahar = 1 dibā rāt, or day and night from sunrise to sunrise.'

LANDLESS LABOURING CLASSES.—The Collector reports that there does not appear to be any marked tendency towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers in Rangpur District, who neither rent land nor possess any of their own. There is, indeed, a considerable class of labourers, known as nāgurs, many of whom do not hold any land; but the rule is otherwise. The great majority of the labouring population have small holdings, ranging from six bighās or two acres in extent downwards. If a labourer lives in his own house, he generally gives his spare time to his little plot of ground. If his holding, however, consists of more than two bighās or two-thirds of an acre in extent (and the Collector estimates that fully one-third of the labourers' holdings are larger than this), it is more usual for him to make it over to a neighbour to till it for him, on condition of receiving a half share of the produce. Labourers who are employed as farm servants are called krishāns. These in general live in their master's house, and are fed by him. A krishān's engagement may be either monthly or yearly. In the latter case, the usual rate of pay is from Rs. 16 to Rs. 30 (£1, 12s. od. to £3) a year, with food; in the former case, he receives from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 (3s. to 4s.) per month, with food. Daily farm servants are called nagdā krishāns, but this class is not numerous in Rangpur. The Collector states that it is not an unusual thing in this District for a man to borrow a sum of money, and then to work off the debt by his labour; and instances are known to occur in which men even work off debts thus contracted by their parents. The krishāns or agricultural labourers have no claim whatever to a share of the crop, nor is it usual to pay their wages in kind instead of in money. Another and more important body of peasantry in Rangpur are the
áḍhiárs, a sort of metayer tenantry, who, as implied by their name, gain a subsistence by cultivating the lands of others on condition of receiving a share of the crop. The áḍhiáŭ may have also a holding of his own; indeed, most of them have a little plot round their houses, on which they rear the castor-oil plant, or tobacco, or vegetables of some kind; but their chief subsistence is gained by cultivating the lands of others. A large class of people in Rangpur hold land which their position or caste prejudices preclude them from cultivating themselves. These include the zamindárs who hold their khámār or private lands, and all the priestly or quasi-priestly classes in possession of bráhmottar, debottar, or other lands granted to them as rent-free endowments. All such lands, together with others which may be held by persons whose dignity will not allow them to till the soil for themselves, are made over to the áḍhiáŭ to cultivate, on condition that he gives the owner half the produce of the fields. The subordinate conditions of this tenure vary according to circumstances. It is usual for the owner to supply the seed in the first instance; and twice the amount of seed advanced is generally deducted from the produce and made over to the owner before the regular division of the crop takes place. The plough cattle generally belong to the áḍhiáŭ. A further description of this tenure will be found on a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the land tenures of the District. Women and children are very little employed in the fields; the out-door work of the women is mostly confined to weeding the little plots of ground around the homestead. Boys are employed to some extent at harvest time in carrying in the grain from the fields; but from a very early age they go out with their fathers to learn how to manage the plough, although the actual amount of work they do is inconsiderable.

Spare Land.—Waste-land tenures, such as the ut-bandí of Nadiyá and the júmiá of Chittagong, are unknown in Rangpur District. Except the poor land on some of the large charrs, and that which is covered with jungle, there is very little spare land at all, and even grazing land for the cattle is very scarce. It is said, however, that the restless spirit of the cultivators and their desire for change have some effect in always keeping a certain extent of land available for settlement.

Land Tenures.—The following paragraphs regarding the land tenures of Rangpur District are condensed from a Special Report by the Deputy-Collector, Bábu Gopal Chandra Das, reprinted in Vol. VII.
that officer's Report on the Agricultural Statistics of Rangpur for 1872-73, pp. 37-60. The land tenures are divided into six classes, namely,—(1) Tenures held direct from Government; (2) superior intermediate tenures created by landlords; (3) sub-tenures created by middlemen; (4) tenures held by actual cultivators; (5) revenue-free tenures; and (6) rent-free tenures.

Tenures held direct from Government.—The Deputy-Collector states that under this head are included the holdings of those who, prior to the time of the Decennial Settlement, had a proprietary right in the land, being feudal lords, independent tālukdārs, collectors of rent, farmers of villages, or owners of non-valid rent-free grants. By section 4 of Regulation viii. of 1793, it was declared that 'the Settlement shall be concluded with the actual proprietors of the soil, of whatever denomination, whether samīndārs, tālukdārs, or chaudharīs.' Under section 5 of the said Regulation, a certain number of tālukdārs were declared to be actual proprietors, and as such entitled to a direct Settlement with Government. These are still termed 'independent tālukdārs.' The proprietors of dimā malguzārī tenures, or lands held at a fixed quit-rent under grants made by Muhammadan Governors previous to the Company's accession to the diwāni, or granted since that date by proprietors of estates for a consideration received by them, were also regarded as actual proprietors entitled to enter into direct engagements with Government. A certain class of mukarraridārs, not being actual proprietors of the land, whose leases were granted or confirmed by the Supreme Government, or obtained previous to the Company's accession to the diwāni, were allowed to hold their tenures direct from Government during their lives, but on their deaths the Settlement was to be made with the actual proprietors of the land (section 16 of Regulation viii. of 1793). In case of mortgage, if the mortgagee had possession of the land at the time of the Permanent Settlement, the Settlement was made with him, and the proprietor was declared entitled to succeed to his engagement on recovering possession. If the mortgager had possession, the Settlement was made with him, and the mortgagee was declared entitled to succeed to his engagement on his obtaining possession of the land (section 28, Regulation viii. of 1793). Where there was no proprietor, or where the proprietor was not forthcoming, the Settlement was made with a farmer for a term of ten years, preference being given to the nearest samīndār (section 29, Regulation viii. of 1793). The
owners of non-valid rent-free tenures resumed under Regulation ii.
of 1819 were also entitled to a direct Settlement with Government.
In khās mahals, where Government has the proprietary as well as
the sovereign right in the land, the farmers hold their tenure direct
from Government.

The number of estates on the Rangpur rent-roll in 1790 was 72,
the total Government revenue assessed on them being Rs. 818,360
or £81,836. Since then, several pargands have been separated
from, and others added to, Rangpur District. Mr. Glazier, in his
Report on the District of Rangpur, pp. 40-41, thus classifies the
zamindārī estates in 1873:—‘Original number of estates settled,
72; transferred to other Districts, 13; original estates still remain-
ing, 59; new estates acquired by resumption proceedings, 125;
ditto by sales, 152; ditto by partitions, 172; ditto from dried river
beds, 23; estates transferred from other Districts, 32: total number
of estates in 1873, 563, paying a Government revenue of Rs. 974,089
or £97,409, of which Rs. 971,530 or £97,153 is derived from
permanently settled, and Rs. 2530 or £253 from temporarily settled
estates. Of the 563 estates, 463 held by 1229 Hindus pay a total
revenue of £87,418, 14s. od.; 52 estates held by 160 Muham-
madans pay a revenue of £3254, 14s. od.; 45 held jointly by 261
Hindus and 186 Muhammadans pay a revenue of £6730, 1os. od.;
and 1 Government estate pays a revenue of £5. Classified ac-
cording to the amounts paid, the estates are divided as follow:— 8
pay an annual revenue of less than £1; 184 between £1 and £10;
215 between £10 and £100; and 156 upwards of £100.’

Superior Intermediate Tenures.—Under this class the
Deputy-Collector places (1) dependent tālukdārs; (2) patniddārs;
(3) mukarraridārs; (4) istimrārīdārs or maurūsiddārs; (5) upan-
chakidārs; (6) majkuriidārs; (7) jotdārs; and (8) ṣifārdārs or
thikdārs. The peculiar rights of each of these tenure-holders are
thus described:—

‘Dependent Tālukdārs.—At the time of the Permanent Settlement,
such subordinate leaseholders as were compelled by the terms of
their lease to pay the Government revenue through their landlords,
were not considered as proprietors of their lands, but only as tenants
of the zamindārs. They are known as dependent tālukdārs; but
in Rangpur District this tenure does not exist.

‘Patni Tālukdārs.—The preamble of Regulation viii. of 1819
defines the relative rights of zamindārs and patni tālukdārs. The
rules laid down in the Permanent Settlement law authorized the proprietors of land, with whom Government made engagements for the payment of public revenue, to lease out their estates in any manner they might think most conducive to their interests, subject, however, to two restrictions laid down in Regulation xliv. of 1793. The first of these restrictions was, that the rent should not be fixed for a period exceeding ten years; the second, that in case of a sale of the parent estate for arrears of public revenue, such lease should stand cancelled from the date of sale. That portion of the law which limited the term of the lease to ten years was rescinded by Regulation v. of 1812; and Regulation xviii. of 1812 distinctly declared that “samíndárs are at liberty to grant táluks or other leases of land, fixing the rent in perpetuity, at their discretion, subject, however, to the liability of their being dissolved on sale of the grantor’s estate for arrears of Government revenue.” This patni tenure was first created by the Mahárájá of Bardwán, and subsequently adopted on the estates of other proprietors. The nature of this tenure is, that it is held by the lessee and his heirs at a rent fixed in perpetuity; the holder is called upon to furnish collateral security for the rent and for his conduct generally, or he is excused from this obligation at the samíndár’s discretion. The tenure is liable to sale; and if the sale proceeds are insufficient to liquidate the arrears of rent, the defaulter’s other property may be sold in order to make up the deficiency. In the event of the sale proceeds exceeding the amount of arrears, the tenure-holder is entitled to the balance. The lessee has the power of subletting his táluk, on the same conditions as those by which he is bound to the proprietor. The tenure is transferable and hereditary, and answerable for the personal debts of the tenant; it has been declared not voidable for arrears of rent, and the lease cannot be cancelled by the samíndár, who must sell the property in order to recover his arrears. The samíndár cannot object to the right of the lessee to sublet his tenure, and is bound to sanction a transfer on the payment of a certain fee.

‘To facilitate the realization of arrears of rent due from the patni táluks, the samíndár has been invested by Government with a summary process for realizing arrears by sale of the tenure, on presentation of a petition to the Collector, accompanied with a schedule of the amount due. This schedule is posted in some conspicuous place in the revenue court (kachári), together with a notice to the effect that, if the amount claimed is not paid by a specified date, the
tenure will be sold by auction. The sale purchaser acquires the entire rights and privileges possessed by the late holder, in the state in which they were acquired by him from the zamindar, free from all encumbrances which may have accrued by any act of the defaulting proprietor or his representatives; unless the right of making such encumbrances shall have been expressly conferred on the holder, by a stipulation to that effect in the written engagements under which the taluk was originally held (vide section 11 of Regulation viii. of 1819). Nothing, however, authorizes the purchaser to eject a khudkasht rayat (resident and hereditary cultivator), or to cancel bona fide engagements made with such tenants by the late incumbent or his representative, except a regular suit. If the superior tenant, with a view to injure his inferior, purposely withholds the rent due to the zamindar, the inferior holder can stay the sale of the taluk by depositing in court the amount due. Should the amount so lodged be due as rent from the inferior talukidar, it should be so stated at the time of making the deposit, and the amount will be credited to his rent account with his superior holder. If no rent is due from the depositor, then the amount is to be treated as a loan, the taluk itself being the security for the repayment of the sum. In this case the depositor is entitled to obtain immediate possession of the estate, and to retain it until he has recouped himself for the amount advanced out of the profits.

'Mukarraridars or chukandars.—By section 18 of Regulation viii. of 1793, all mukarraridars holding land of which they were not the actual proprietors, whose grants were obtained since the Company's accession to the diwanli, and had never received the sanction of the Supreme Government, were dispossessed, and the Land Settlement was made with the actual proprietors of the soil. In cases where such mukarraridars had been in possession of their estates for upwards of twelve years, they received a life allowance. Mukarraridars, therefore, of an antiquity anterior to the Permanent Settlement are now no longer in existence. Mukarraridars created by the zamindars subsequent to the Permanent Settlement are not very numerous in Rangpur District. They hold their lands subject to the payment of a fixed rate of rent, and their rights are generally defined in written documents. Mukarrari leases are generally given by landlords for small plots of land, on which dwelling-houses, factories, or other permanent buildings are erected, or for gardens, plantations, tanks, wells, and burning and burying grounds. The
hereditary nature of the tenure is almost invariably secured by ex-
press stipulation in the lease. The tenure is not liable to enhance-
ment of rent.

Istimiridars.—Istimirari tenures are very rare in Rangpur. The
nature of the tenure is laid down in sections 49 and 50 of Regula-
tion viii. of 1793. In its character and in the rights and privileges
of the holders, it is almost identical with the mukarrari tenure last
described. The holders, however, are liable to enhancement of
rent, unless the contrary is stipulated in their agreements. If an
istimirari or mukarrari tenure has been held at a fixed rate of rent
from the time of the Permanent Settlement, the holder is not sub-
ject to ejectment, even by the purchaser at auction sale of an entire
estate for arrears of revenue.

Upanchaki.—The tenures known by this name are very numerou-
s in Rangpur. They are created by the zamindars, and bear date,
some anterior and some subsequent to the Permanent Settlement.'
According to the Deputy-Collector, "nowhere else in Bengal have
the zamindars and proprietors succeeded in alienating such an
extent of land as in Rangpur District. The upanchaki tenures are
held subject to the payment of a nominal quit-rent, the rate of
which is fixed in perpetuity; they are transferable and hereditary,
and are generally granted to Brâhmans and Muhammadan priests
for religious or beneficiary purposes. They consist principally of
debottar, sivottar, brâhmottar, bhogottar, pîrpâl, chirâgi, masjîdi, and
fakirânâ lands. A debottar estate consists of lands granted for the
support of a Hindu temple, or for the worship of the gods generally;
sivottar are lands for the support of a temple dedicated especially to
Siva or Mahâdeva; brâhmottar are lands for the maintenance of
Brâhmans; bhogottar are lands for the maintenance of men of
respectable Hindu castes other than Brâhmans; pîrpâl lands are
endowments in memory of Muhammadan saints; chirâgi lands are
grants for the purpose of keeping a light continually burning in a
mosque; masjîdi lands are grants for the support of a masjid;
fakirânâ lands are endowments for the maintenance of indigent
persons. These upanchaki tenures are saleable, but not voidable
for arrears of rent.

Majkuri is a tenure peculiar to Rangpur. It resembles the
upanchaki tenures in every respect, except that it is liable to
enhancement of rent.

Jotdârs.—In other parts of Bengal the word jotdâr signifies an
actual cultivator; but in Rangpur District it is used to denote a middleman between the zamindār and the actual cultivator, who has a right of occupancy, but is liable to enhancement of rent. This tenure is common in Rangpur, especially towards the east of the District. In parganā Baharband are several very large jotdārs, some of them being in receipt of an income of Rs. 50,000 or £5,000 a year. The term of the lease by which the rent is fixed is usually for five or ten years. The tenure is transferable and hereditary. A superior jotdār can sublet his tenure to an inferior holder, transferring all the rights and privileges he himself enjoys from the zamindār. A jotdār cannot be ousted from his holding, even on the expiration of his lease, except under a decree of the civil court; but when arrears of rent are adjudged against him, his tenure is liable to sale, and the lease can be annulled.

‘Ijārāddārs or thikāddārs are common farmers, having no right of occupancy in the land beyond the term of their leases. The tenure is not liable to enhancement of rent during the continuance of the lease, but is voidable in the event of its falling into arrears. In some instances the proprietors, on granting the leases, receive a bonus of a year’s rent in advance. In other cases they create mortgages by means of this tenure, which is then called thikā-sar-i-peshgt. They borrow considerable sums of money, and lease out their villages to the lender as security. The holder of a thikā-sar-i-peshgt retains possession of the villages made over to him until the amount advanced has been repaid, with interest, out of the proceeds. This tenure prevails largely throughout Rangpur District. An ijārāddār cannot relinquish his tenure without the consent of the proprietor.

‘Subordinate Intermediate Tenures.—The holders of the superior intermediate tenures above mentioned can underlet their holdings to inferior tenants or farmers, and also transfer all the rights and privileges they themselves derive from the proprietors. These sub-tenants or farmers have the power of again subletting their lands to holders of the third degree, and so on. The prefix “dar” generally implies an under-tenant of the second degree; “se,” one of the third; and “chahāram,” one of the fourth degree. The rights of these under-tenants are of course limited by those of the persons from whom they derive their title.

‘Tenures Held by Actual Cultivators.—There are several descriptions of cultivators in Rangpur District, with separate rights
and privileges, namely,—(1) cultivators (rayats) holding lands at fixed rates in perpetuity; (2) cultivators with a right of occupancy, but not holding at fixed rates; (3) tenants-at-will; (4) ādhiārs, or halvers; (5) korfā prajās, or cultivators of the samāndār’s private lands; (6) khudkāshtī, or resident and hereditary cultivators; (7) paikdāshtī, or non-resident migratory cultivators; (8) chukanār, or under-cultivators; (9) mukarrari rayats; (10) maurusi rayats; and (11) jangalburi rayats.

Cultivators holding lands at a fixed rate of rent in perpetuity, and who have so held them since the Permanent Settlement, form about five per cent. of the actual cultivating class. Their holdings are known as “rayati jōt;” they are transferable and hereditary, and are frequently sold in execution of decrees. The tenant cannot be ousted so long as he pays his rent. In case of dispute as to the right of the tenant to hold his land at a fixed rate of rent, if the holder can prove that the rent at which he holds his lands has not been changed for a period of twenty years before the commencement of the suit, there is a presumption of law that the land has been held at that rent since the Permanent Settlement, unless the landlord proves the contrary. *If a cultivator holding land at fixed rates disposes of his tenure by private sale, gift, or otherwise, the new incumbent generally makes a nazardānā, or customary present, to have his name registered on the superior holder’s rent-roll. Cultivators with a right of occupancy in the soil, but liable to enhancement of rent, are such as have cultivated or held the same land for a period of twelve years, and number about twenty-five per cent. of the total cultivators. The superior holder can call on the tenant to pay enhanced rates, but only under certain restrictions, thus defined in section 19 of Act x. of 1859:—First, if the rate of rent paid by the tenant is below the prevailing rate paid by the same class of cultivators for adjoining lands of a similar description and with similar advantages; second, if the value of the produce or the productive powers of the land have been increased otherwise than by the agency or at the expense of the cultivator; third, if the quantity of land held by the tenant is proved by measurement to be greater than the quantity for which rent has been previously paid by him. Similarly, on the other hand, the tenant can claim an abatement of rent, (1) if the area of his holding has been diminished by diluvion or otherwise; (2) if the productive powers of the land have been decreased by any cause beyond the
CULTIVATING TENURES.

power of the cultivator; and (3) if the quantity of land held by the tenant proves on measurement to be less than that for which he has previously paid rent. Ordinary tenants-at-will are estimated to number about forty per cent. of the agricultural population. As implied by the name, they have no right of occupancy in the soil; they can be ejected at the will of the landlord, and are subject to any enhancement of rent the proprietor may choose to impose. Adhiárs, or halvers, are a species of metayer tenantry who cultivate the lands of others, principally those who hold land at fixed rates of rent or with rights of occupancy, the produce being divided between the cultivator and the owner of the land. The proprietor of the land generally supplies the seed, which he receives back at harvest time, with interest, before the division of the crop is made. About ten per cent. of the cultivators of Rangpur District are estimated to belong to this class. Korfa prajás are those who cultivate the private lands of the proprietor, such as khámár, níj jót, or sir land. They pay a rent to the owners according to the terms agreed upon, but they have no rights in the land. Whatever may have been the period of their occupancy, they can be ejected at any time, and their rent enhanced at the will of the proprietor. About five per cent. of the Rangpur cultivators belong to this class. Chukandárs are under-tenants who hold their lands from cultivators of a higher class, and can be ejected at the will of the superior tenant. This class comprises about fifteen per cent. of the whole cultivating body. Khudkásht rayats are hereditary husbandmen, who cultivate the lands attached to the village in which they reside. Paikásht rayats are husbandmen who cultivate lands attached to a village other than that in which they reside.

In estates managed by the proprietors themselves, the cultivators hold their lands direct from the zamindárs; but in estates let out in farm, from middlemen. Every cultivator is entitled to a lease (pátí) from the person to whom the rent is payable, setting forth the quantity of land comprised in his holding, the amount of annual rent payable, the instalments in which it is to be paid, the special stipulations and conditions on which he holds, and, if the rent is payable in kind, the proportion of the produce to be delivered, and the time and manner of payment. Mukarrári rayats hold their tenures under a special lease (pátí), according to which their rent is subject neither to enhancement nor abatement. The nature of the tenure is hereditary; but unless it is distinctly stipulated
in the lease that the rent is to be fixed in perpetuity, the right of occupying the land at an unaltered rent is confined to the tenant during his lifetime, and does not extend to his heirs. A salāmī or nazarānā (customary present) is usually offered to the samīndār on the occasion of his granting such leases. There are, however, very few of this class of cultivators in Rangpur District. A maurūsi rayat holds his lands under an hereditary tenure. He is liable to enhancement of rent, unless otherwise stipulated in the lease; but, as a matter of fact, almost every lease is made to provide for the permanent fixity of the rent. Very few of this class of cultivators are found in Rangpur. Jangalburi rayats also are very rarely met with in the District. As their name implies, they are cultivators who clear jungle and waste lands for tillage. For the first few years they pay no rent at all; and afterwards a low rental, which is gradually increased to the full rate payable by other tenants in the neighbourhood.

Revenue-Free Holdings.—By the ancient law of the country, the ruling power is entitled to a certain portion of the produce of every bigha of land, unless it gives up its rights in this respect either for a term or, in perpetuity. Under native rule, grants were frequently made of the Government rights in the land, for the support of families of persons who had performed public services, for the maintenance of troops, or for religious purposes, etc. The British Government continued to the grantees or their heirs such of these grants as were hereditary, and were made prior to the Company's accession to the diwānī. These are known by the name of badshahī or imperial grants. Hukumī grants are those other than badshahī, and were also numerous before the Company took over the financial administration of the country. Numerous grants of this description were made, not only by the samīndārs, but by the officers of Government appointed to the temporary superintendence of the collection of revenue, under the pretext that the produce of the land was to be applied to religious and charitable purposes. Had the British Government acted strictly according to the principles laid down, these grants, having been given by persons other than the sovereign power, could not be deemed valid. Lenity, however, induced the Government to adopt as a principle, that grants of the latter description previous to the date of the Company's accession to the diwānī (12th August 1765), made by whatever authority, and whether by a writing or without writing, should be deemed valid,
provided that the grantee actually had bonâ fide obtained possession of the land so granted previous to the date above mentioned, and the land had not been subsequently rendered subject to the payment of revenue by the orders of Government. In the resumption proceedings of this District, 313 grants were declared valid, and entered in the register of revenue-free tenures; while 125 were resumed and settled with Government. A vast number of lâkhirâj tenures below 100 bighâs, which might have produced a revenue of Rs. 94,177, have been struck off; and the register is said to have once contained 20,000 entries of this description. The lâkhirâj lands thus struck off without inquiry were of the nature of hukumi grants, not exceeding 100 bighâs in area, and were included within the limits of the parganâ, mausâ, or other division of estates, for which a settlement was made with the owners. The right of assessing them in the event of their being found invalid was reserved to the samindâr with whom the Permanent Settlement was concluded. The grants were originally intended as endowments for religious and charitable institutions, but the present holders scarcely conform to the intention of the original grantors. In several instances, too, the samindârs gave fictitious grants, in the name of their relatives and dependents, under pretext of charitable purposes, with a view to procure a livelihood from this resource in the event of their losing their samindârs. The samindâr of Bhitârband had nearly 100 of such grants, which were all adjudged invalid, and resumed by the Resumption Court. Most of these hukumi rent-free tenures, granted by persons incompetent by law to grant them, would have been proved invalid had they been investigated by the courts of competent jurisdiction, but the samindârs to whom the right of suing was reserved, having neglected to adopt in due time proper measures for their resumption, these grants have in a manner, owing to the expiry of the period fixed by the law of limitation, become valid tenures.

‘Rent-Free Tenures.—The rent-free tenures which are still granted by the samindâr are chakrân or service lands, made over for the maintenance of servants or dependents. Nearly every wealthy and influential samindâr in the District makes over land in this way to his servants, who support themselves and their families out of the produce. The custom of remunerating servants by grants of land instead of by money wages has prevailed in India from time immemorial. Each menial domestic servant ordinarily receives
from 12 to 16 bighás of land (4 to 5\frac{1}{2} acres); the dhobá, or washerman, from 10 to 12 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 4 acres); nápit, or barber, from 10 to 12 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 4 acres); mall, or gardener, from 4 to 5 bighás (1\frac{1}{2} to 1\frac{3}{8} acres); kumár, or potter, from 10 to 20 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 6\frac{3}{8} acres); sutradáár, or carpenter, the same; páth, or messenger, from 10 to 12 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 4 acres); sardár, or head domestic servant, from 18 to 24 bighás (6 to 8 acres); kahár, or palanquin bearer, 4 bighás (1\frac{1}{2} acres); mirdhá, or land-measurer, from 10 to 12 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 4 acres); dafadárs, from 10 to 20 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 6\frac{3}{8} acres). These men hold their lands so long as they continue to perform the services in consideration of which they received them. Another kind of rent-free holding, known as beján káchá, is common in some parts of Rangpur, and consists in the grant of a small plot of land rent-free to each cultivator to serve as a nursery for his seedlings. The quantity thus granted usually amounts to one káthá or 3 poles for every 2 bighás (two-thirds of an acre) held by the cultivator.

**Rates of Rent.**—The following statement, showing the prevailing rates of rent in 26 different parganas of Rangpur District, paid by the actual cultivators for the ordinary descriptions of land growing various crops, is taken from a special return furnished to the Government of Bengal in August 1872. The size of the bighá varies in different parganas; and the following list exhibits the rates per local bighá and also per standard English acre:

(1) **Patiladahá** (size of bighá, 80 cubits, i.e. the Government standard bighá of 14,400 square feet): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 1. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 1. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; khesári land, Rs. 1. 1. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; jute land, Rs. 3. 8. 0 per bighá, or £1. 1s. od. per acre; tobacco land, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. per acre; sugar-cane land, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 10s. od. per acre; mustard land, Rs. 1. 1. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; onion land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; báigun (solanum melongena) land, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 10s. od. per acre.

(2) **Baharband** (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; khesári, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; jute, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; tobacco, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre;
betel-nut, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3, or from 9s. to 13s. 6d. per acre; pán, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4, or from 13s. 6d. to 18s. per acre; mustard, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; onion, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; baígun, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre.

(3) Mukhtipur (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesári, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 6 per bighá, or £1, 7s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 7 per bighá, or £1, 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; baígun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(4) Islamabad (size of local bighá, 80 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; khesári, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; baígun, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(5) Warigachha (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; khesári, 12 annás per bighá, or 3s. 4½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 7 per bighá, or £1, 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; baígun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(6) Tulsighat (size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 12. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 9s. 7½d. to 11s. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; khesári, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 16s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 16s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 16s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; baígun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre.

(7) Palasbari (size of local bighá, 96 cubits): one-crop rice land, 12 annás to Rs. 1 per bighá, or from 3s. 9d. to 5s. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; khesári, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre;
tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 15s. to £1 per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per bighá, or 12s. 6d. per acre; pán, from Rs. 9 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from £2, 5s. od. to £2, 15s. od. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; báignore, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre.

(8) Siksahar (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 12 annás to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 3d. to 10s. 0d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 6. 0 to Rs. 2. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 7s. 11d. to 14s. 4d. per acre; khesári, from Rs. 1. 6. 0 to Rs. 2. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 7s. 11d. to 14s. 4d. per acre; jute, from 12 annás to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 3d. to 10s. 0d. per acre; tobacco, from Rs. 1. 6. 0 to Rs. 2. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 7s. 11d. to 14s. 4d. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 2. 8. 0 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 14s. 4d. to £1, 3s. od. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per bighá, or from £1, 3s. od. to £1, 8s. 9d. per acre; pán, from Rs. 10 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from £2, 17s. 6d. to £3, 3s. 3d. per acre; báignore, Rs. 1. 6. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 11d. per acre.

(9) Bajitpur (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesári, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; báignore, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.

(10) Bajitnagar (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesári, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; báignore, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.

(11) Poladasi (9 annás share; size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 8s. 7d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 0d. per acre; khesári,
RATES OF RENT.

Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 8s. 7½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 0½d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 0½d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 0½d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 0½d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 8s. 7½d. per acre.

(12) POLODASI (7 annās share; size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; khesārī, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 6d. per acre; jute, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 6d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; ginger, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; pān, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; mustard, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 6d. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre; onion, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 6d. per acre; bāigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. per acre.

(13) IDRAKPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesārī, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 7. 8. 0 per bighá, or £1, 13s. 9d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; bāigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(14) PERRI KHALISHA (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; onion, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre.

(15) PERRI (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; jute, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; onion, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre.
(16) **Alihat** (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; jute, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; sugarcane, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; onion, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre.

(17) **Amdahar** (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7¼d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7¼d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7¼d. per acre; bāigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(18) **Aligaon** (size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 4 annás to 6 annás per bighá, or from 1s. 4½d. to 2s. 0½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from 15 annás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; khesāri, from 15 annás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; jute, from 15 annás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; mustard, from 15 annás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; onion, from 4 annás to 6 annás per bighá, or from 1s. 4½d. to 2s. 0½d. per acre.

(19) **Barisakpala** (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre; khesāri, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; jute, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; pān, Rs. 5 per bighá, or 1s. 2½d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7¼d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7¼d. per acre.

(20) **Maimunthpur** (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre; khesāri, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; jute, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7¼d. per acre; pān, Rs. 5 per bighá, or 1s. 2½d. per acre;
mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre.

(21) Babunpur (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesári, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.

(22) Khamar Mahal (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesári, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; onion, R. 1. 0. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; and báigun, Rs. 2. 0. 0 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.

(23) Bahaman Kunda (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 9 per bighá, or £2, 0s. 6d. per acre.

(24) Sherpur (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. 0 per bighá, or from 2s. 6½d. to 7s. 0½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2. 4. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 1½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2. 4. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 1½d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2. 4. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 1½d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 5. 8. 0 per bighá, or £1, 4s. 9d. per acre; mustard, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. 0 per bighá, or from 2s. 6½d. to 7s. 0½d. per acre; onion, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. 0 per bighá, or from 2s. 6½d. to 7s. 0½d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2. 4. 0 per bighá, or 10s. 1½d. per acre.

(25) Paika (size of local bighá, 96 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 12 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 3s. 9d. to 5s. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; khesári, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 15s. to £1 per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per
bighá, or 12s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 9 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from £1, 5s. od. to £1, 15s. od. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre.

(26) Amlagachhi (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 6 annás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 1s. 8½d. to 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

Rents are paid in money, except in cases where the land is held under a bhág or metayer tenure, when payment is made in kind. The Collector states that there is no reason for supposing that Act x. of 1859 (the Rent Law of Bengal) has resulted in a general enhancement of rents in Rangpur, nor have the operations of that Act been specially noticeable in any particular part of the District. This is accounted for by the fact that only a small proportion of the husbandmen are possessed of rights of occupancy. It is estimated that at least three-fourths of the cultivators hold their lands on terminable leases, and on the expiry of their engagements have to make the best bargain they can with their landlords. There is reason to believe, however, that enhanced rents are more generally obtained through the execution of irregular cesses (abwáds) on the part of the proprietors, than by any attempts to change long existing rates. The tenant's fear of being dragged into a lawsuit with his landlord causes him to bear a considerable amount of pressure in silence. The irregular cesses reported to be most commonly levied at the present day are as follow:—(1) Mangan, a cess levied by the zamindár on the marriage or death of any member of his family; (2) agámunt, a cess levied on the occasion of the zamindár visiting his estates; (3) annáprásán, a cess levied on the occasion of the weaning of the zamindár's children; (4) sádhi salámí, a cess levied on the occasion of the marriage of the zamindár; (5) sádhunkul, a cess levied on the occasion of the conception of the zamindár's wife; (6) battá, exchange on coin paid in as rent; (7) narnáná, fee paid to the zamindár on the tenant's clearing waste land, and also if it is shown by measurement that the latter holds more land than is specified in his engagements; (8) marchá, a present to the zamindár on the occasion
of the marriage of the tenant or of his children; (9) **ḥūrāḍārī**, a cess levied by farmers of estates as their perquisite, and sometimes also by the proprietors.

**MANURE.**—Manure is only in general use in the cultivation of the more valuable crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, jute, oil-seeds, **pān**, etc. The substances used are cow-dung and oil-cake, either singly or mixed together in the proportion of three parts of the former to one of the latter, together with indigo-weed and decaying vegetable matter obtained from the marshes and rivers. Eighteen to twenty **maunds** of cow-dung, if used alone, is considered a liberal allowance of manure for a standard **bighā** of land (equal to from about 40 to 44 hundredweights per acre); or, if mixed with oil-cake, from twelve to fourteen **maunds** per **bighā** (equal to from 26 to 30 hundredweights per acre). For sugar-cane lands, as much as fifteen **maunds** of oil-cake is sometimes allowed per **bighā** (about 33 hundredweights per acre). In **pān** gardens, ten **maunds** of oil-cake mixed with fresh earth are allowed per **bighā** (22 hundredweights per acre). Indigo-weed is chiefly used for manuring lands which grow tobacco and oil-seeds, but the supply is scarce. Four cart-loads are sufficient for a single **bighā**. House refuse, consisting principally of ashes, and decaying vegetable matter from the marshes and swamps, are also spread upon the land, the quantity being regulated according to the amount that can be procured without pecuniary outlay. In the same way, cow-dung is not bought and sold in Rangpur District, but what remains in the homestead after supplying the family with fuel is spread upon the fields. Four **maunds** (3 hundredweights) of oil-cake or forty cart-loads of indigo-weed sell for about Rs. 3 (6s.). The only other methods adopted for invigorating the soil are burning jungle or stubble on it (a common practice); or allowing it to remain fallow, which is seldom done, except in the case of land growing ginger, turmeric, or sugar-cane. Ginger or turmeric land is allowed to remain fallow for two, three, or even five years, and in this state it is called **khil**. It is not customary to grow tobacco for two consecutive years on the same land, but otherwise no system of rotation of crops is known or practised in Rangpur District. Each cultivator sows his crops at the dictates merely of custom or prejudice, and will not vary the traditional routine for a crop to which he has not been accustomed, even though to do so would procure him certain gain. Owing to the moist nature of the soil, artificial irrigation is not necessary in this
District. The only crop which is irrigated at all is tobacco, and this but to a very small extent, from shallow wells or water-pits.

Natural Calamities.—Blight are of frequent occurrence in Rangpur, but fortunately they are partial in their operation, destroying only a few particular crops, and do not attack rice, the great staple of the District. The crops which principally suffer are kaláí and mustard, which are attacked by insects called mendá and áchá. In 1870 the kaláí crop throughout the eastern portion of the District was completely destroyed by these caterpillars. The cultivators attributed their misfortune to the unusually heavy rains in June and July 1870. In the same year, the mustard crop was also attacked, and in many parts was completely destroyed. Of late years the mango crop has been blighted by a small insect, which appears to be generated inside the fruit, and to eat its way out on the mango ripening. Locusts also occasionally visit the District, committing great damage on the crops in the course of their progress.

Floods.—Rangpur District is liable to floods, but it is seldom that they cause any very serious injury to the crops. The last occasion on which inundation resulted in actual famine was in the disastrous year 1194 B.S. (1787-88 A.D.) An account of the great flood and subsequent calamities of that year will be found on a subsequent page. Floods occur when heavy rains in the Himalayan ranges to the north are supplemented by continued wet weather in the District itself. Although in 1870 the local rains are said to have been almost unprecedentedly heavy, and the rivers and water-courses were all brim full, no damage whatever was done, and the winter rice crop of the year was an unusually fine one. It is the eastern part of the District which is principally subject to river inundation. It lies comparatively low, and is intersected by numerous rivers. The largest of these rivers, the Brahmaputra, Dharlá, and Tistá, are continually shifting their channels, and frequently overflow the country. Unfortunately, unlike the Nile, the matter held in suspension by these rivers, and annually deposited on the land on the abatement of the floods, is a sandy silt, which only becomes productive in course of time. It is the local rainfall which fertilizes the soil, and on this alone depends the productiveness of the crops. Rangpur is fortunate in its natural configuration; it has a good proportion of high as well as of low lands, with different species of rice growing on each. By this distribution, the injury
caused by the heaviest local rainfall to the crops in the lower levels can to a considerable extent be counterbalanced by the increased fertility of the higher lands. The experience of this District seems to show that famine is only to be dreaded as the result of inundation, when it is the joint result of excessive local rainfall combined with the swelling of the mountain torrents to the north. As above stated, the only year in which it has been ascertained that the injury from this cause was so serious as to produce famine, was in 1787-88. About thirty years ago, some heavy floods took place, but they do not appear to have seriously affected the general harvest. In 1856, the crops on the low-lying parts of Rangpur were destroyed by inundation, but the produce from the other tracts was sufficient to avert any extreme distress.

There are no important embankments in Rangpur District, or any other protective works against floods; and, in the opinion of the Collector, 'it is most fortunate that there are none, as such works generally effect more mischief than they obviate. They prevent the river water reaching land where it may be essential that it should go, and when an emergency does occur, they generally give way to the flood, and render the violence of the pent-up water ten times more destructive than it would have been had the river been allowed to spread gradually over the whole surface of the country.'

DROUGHTS.—The Collector, in 1871, in his report to me, instanced only three cases of drought having occurred within the previous forty years. These were in 1857-58, 1862-63, and in 1866-67, but in none of these years was the damage such as to affect seriously the general harvest of the District. Prices of food, however, rose greatly, and considerable distress was experienced by the poorest classes, but this was caused more by the demand from other Districts, and the consequent exportation of rice, than by any real deficiency in the out-turn of the local crops.

THE CALAMITIES OF 1787-88.—As far as can be ascertained from the Collectorate records, the only instance of actual famine having been experienced in Rangpur District during the period which they cover, was in the Bengali year 1194 (1787-88 A.D.). Unfortunately the correspondence relating to 1770 (the year of the great Bengal famine) is not to be found, and no information is obtainable showing the extent to which the terrible scarcity of that year was felt in this District; nor do the records give any information as to whether the famine of 1783-84 extended to Rangpur. The following ac-
count of the calamities of 1787-88 is furnished to me by the Collector from information derived from the District records. I quote almost verbatim from the Collector's report:

'The first intimation disclosed in the records of the disasters of 1787-88, is that on the 28th May the zamindārs of Kochwārā attended in a body on the Collector, and presented a petition to him, while he was engaged in forming a Land Settlement for the year. Their petition set forth that three months' incessant rain had entirely destroyed the rabi or spring harvest, and that they were utterly unable to enter into fresh engagements for their lands based upon the amount of revenue paid by them in previous years. They besought the Collector that an investigation might be made into their losses, and that the new assessment should be made according to the actual state of their lands. Their application, however, does not appear to have been very favourably received in the first instance; and repeated petitions of a similar nature were subsequently made, representing that the rain continued unceasingly, and the cultivators were in great distress and were abandoning their fields in large numbers, while the cultivation of the kharif or winter rice crop was hardly possible, owing to the overflow of the rivers. On the other hand, the Collector maintained that as there were high as well as low lands in the District, and as some parts, such as Idrākpur, were composed almost exclusively of high lands, the profits from these should counterbalance the losses on the others. The answer of the petitioners was, that the low lands were entirely under water, and that even in the higher low lands the crops were destroyed after a few days' submersion. They alleged that the incessant rain prevented the seed from germinating, and that even the high lands, which they had attempted to bring under cultivation, could not be properly attended to or weeded, and that, in consequence of the growth of weeds and jungle, which had choked the rice, all such lands had been turned into pasture for the cattle. Although, under the circumstances, exaggeration must be looked for in the statements made by the zamindārs, yet the large remissions of revenue finally made, even where there were high as well as low lands, show that they contained a considerable amount of truth. The zamindārs in the central part of the District alone demanded to be allowed deductions from their revenue to the extent of Rs. 80,000, in respect of their losses on the rabi or spring crops only.
The whole matter was referred to the Board of Revenue. The first letter of the Board on the subject, which bears date the 15th June, states that they did not apprehend any distress to the zamindârs from the excessive rains, and that even if such should prove to be the consequence, they could not consider inclemencies of season as an admissible plea for an abatement of the land revenue. The violence of the rains, however, continued; the zamindârs refused to accept the settlement of their lands at the terms offered to them, and no one would come forward to farm the District. Accordingly a staff of surveyors (âmins) was deputed to inquire into the extent of the losses sustained, and the zamindârs continued to hold their estates on the understanding that they would be allowed remissions corresponding to their losses, on the termination of the inquiry. On the 29th July the Collector wrote to the Board that the unseasonable rains, which had commenced on the 26th March, and which had continued with unabated vehemence to the destruction of the whole rabi crops on the low lands, had entirely ceased for the past ten or twelve days, allowing the inundation to subside, otherwise the most disastrous consequences would have ensued. He reported that in all parts of the District the cultivators had been obliged to construct platforms to save themselves and their families from drowning, but that many lives had been lost. Since the rains had abated, however, the rayats generally had commenced the cultivation of the kharif or winter crop. The Collector added that, through fear of driving them away, he was collecting the revenue with great moderation, and was granting the zamindârs extension of time to make their payments beyond the period allowed by the Regulations, being persuaded that in such an unusual emergency he might depart from general rules, an adherence to which would be detrimental to the public welfare.

The fair weather was of short duration. The rains set in again with renewed violence on the 1st August, just as the cultivators, were transplanting the young rice; the rivers again overflowed their banks, and in a few days the country was in the same state of distress as that which in the earlier part of the season had caused so much alarm. The Board of Revenue at length recognised the critical state of affairs, acknowledged it to be their duty to show the renters and landholders every reasonable indulgence in their power, and authorized the Collector to grant any suspension of the revenue he might find necessary. Indeed, it was beyond his
power to do otherwise than grant suspensions, as the land revenue collections for the year were at an utter stand-still, except in a few places which from their elevated situation had escaped the general wreck.

'But the worst was yet to come. The Tistá, at all times an erratic river, had for long rolled its main stream through the western part of Rangpur and through Dináipur, till it mingled its waters with the Atraí and other streams, and finally made its way into the Padma or Ganges. At the same time it threw off a small branch in the northern part of Rangpur, which found its way by a circuitous course past Ulipur to the main stream of the Brahmaputra, a little farther north than the place where the waters of the Ghaghát found an exit into the same river. Suddenly the main branch of the Tistá, swelled by the incessant rains, swept down from the hills such vast masses of sand as to form a bar in its course, and, bursting its banks, the Tistá forced its way into the Ghaghát. The channel of this latter stream was utterly inadequate to carry off this vast accession to its waters; the water of the Tistá, accordingly, spread itself over the whole District, causing immense destruction to life and property, until it succeeded in cutting for itself a new and capacious channel, through which the river now flows. This great inundation occurred on the 27th August; and on the 2d September the Collector reported to the Board of Revenue that "multitudes of men, women, children, and cattle have perished in the floods; and in many places whole villages have been so completely swept away, as not to leave the smallest trace whereby to determine that the ground has been occupied." These calamities culminated in a famine. The coarsest rice, which had before been extraordinarily cheap, rose rapidly in price to from 23 to 20 polders per rupee (from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 9d. per hundredweight), and was difficult to procure even at this rate. The Collector endeavoured to alleviate the distress by stopping all exportation of grain, and caused large quantities of rice to be transported from the large grain marts into the interior of the District, where it was most wanted; but this embargo was taken off by order of the Board of Revenue early in October. Collections of revenue were suspended for a period of two months; and provision was made for feeding the starving poor who were daily flocking into the town.

'The waters at last subsided, leaving the kharif crop, which at first had given promise of an excellent harvest, considerably injured, but
not wholly destroyed, as had been anticipated. Six weeks of fine weather and the most careful attention to the young crop raised the expectation that the harvest yet might be a fair one. But the calamities of the season were not yet over, and a cyclone next swept over the stricken country. Early on the morning of the 2d November, just as the rice was getting into ear, the wind began to blow with great violence from the north-east, attended by heavy rain, and continued to increase in force until the afternoon, when the wind suddenly changed to the east, and came on to blow a furious hurricane, which lasted for about ten hours. Hundreds of trees were blown down or torn up by the roots; the bungalows of the Europeans were almost all unroofed, and there was scarcely a thatched house left standing. Upwards of six thousand poor were at this time in receipt of daily rations of rice at the Civil Station, and of these, forty died in the course of the night near the Collector's house. The mortality in the town of Rangpur was much greater. It was estimated that in the course of this disastrous year Rangpur District lost one-sixth of its inhabitants. In pargana Pangá half the population were gone.

"The assessment of the District was finally settled with a fair consideration for the losses proved to have been actually sustained. The District records make no mention of any other important occurrence in Rangpur in this year, except the carrying into execution of the orders of the Governor-General in Council "to obviate the difficulties said to arise from the excessive dearness of grain." The Collectors of Rangpur and other distressed Districts were instructed to ascertain the amount of grain in store in the various marts and granaries of their Districts, and to transmit fortnightly prices-current to the Board of Revenue, to be laid before the Governor-General in Council. Every impediment in the way of free exportation of grain on the part of the merchants was directed to be removed, but at the same time penalties were proclaimed against monopolists. The Collectors were instructed, upon complaints of the refusal of any one having grain in store to sell it at current prices, to ascertain whether he had more than was necessary for his own consumption and the probable wants of the locality; and if so, to put up the grain to auction in small lots. It was not till the 4th June 1788 that the Collector was directed to desist from interfering in any way with the purchase, sale, or transport of grain. The investigations made into the losses of the year
resulted in the remission of Government revenue to the extent of sikka rupees 234,622, or £25,417, out of a total assessment of sikka rupees 1,242,484, or £134,602.'

The Bengal scarcity of 1866 did not reach famine point in Rangpur District, although the high prices which prevailed in that year, owing to the demand from other Districts, caused considerable distress and inconvenience. At the beginning of November 1866, just before the gathering of the winter rice harvest, prices were at their highest, and ordinary rice was selling at eight sans for the rupee, or 13s. 8d. per hundredweight; while the very cheapest description was as dear as 9½ sans for the rupee, or 11s. 6d. a hundredweight. These extreme prices only lasted for a short time, and dropped immediately on the gathering in of the new crop. The scarcity never amounted to famine, so as to render it necessary to invoke Government aid; and in 1871 the Collector reported to me that local grain-prices had quite returned to what were regarded as ordinary rates prior to 1866, if indeed they were not somewhat lower than the former rates. The famine of 1874, however, was felt much more severely; but prompt Government aid, in the shape of relief works to provide labour for the able-bodied whose crops had been destroyed, and charitable food depots for the gratuitous distribution of food to the aged and sick, kept actual starvation away from even the very poorest.

Famine Warnings.—In 1871 the Collector reported to me that he was of opinion, judging from his experience of the year 1866, that if the price of rice should rise as high as eight sans for the rupee, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight, in January or February, shortly after the reaping of the great winter rice crop, the prospect would have become sufficiently serious to justify the intervention of Government. With such rates prevailing, the winter crop must have been very scanty, and the chances of a spring crop very poor. The Collector states that if prices remained for any length of time at such a peak as eight sans for the rupee, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight, and if there were not an absolute certainty that importations would take place and cause rates to fall, it would in his opinion be the duty of the Government to take immediate measures to provide grain for those who would shortly become dependent on State relief. The Collector thinks that were Government relief operations confined to buying food in the District and distributing it among the starving, it would probably have the effect of enhancing prices still further.
This might induce neighbouring Districts to pour in supplies; but unless there was certain knowledge of the existence of such stores, and of their becoming available for the District, the Collector considers that it would be the duty of Government to import sufficient food from other Districts, to keep prices at an equilibrium till succour could be obtained from more distant parts. If it imported too much, prices would fall, and the confidence of the merchants might be shaken, and private enterprise brought to a stop. If it did not import at all, the scarcity might turn into famine even for the provident portion of the community, and irretrievable disaster might ensue.

The surest signs of approaching famine in Rangpur District would be the high prices of food-grain, taken in conjunction with the events of the season. Crime and mendicancy would become more frequent, and the price of all articles convertible into food by sale would quickly fall. Wages would also fall at the same time; and the Collector would expect, under the circumstances, to see a very considerable emigration to neighbouring Districts, where labour is dearer and in more demand. The chief food of the people is rice. The agriculturists who raise áus rice retain it mostly for their own consumption. All other classes are mainly dependent on the áman or winter rice crop for their food supply, which forms the great harvest of the year. The áman or winter rice crop, even if only a moderate one, would suffice for the subsistence of the people in the event of the total loss of the áus or autumn crop, provided they had not exported the whole surplus stocks. The value of the áus crop, if it were a good one, would probably be sufficient to procure food for the people, and avert actual famine, even in the event of the total failure of the áman or winter crop. The crops grown, however, being of a very miscellaneous nature, the local produce would have to be exchanged for the cheapest form of food obtainable from other Districts.

To avert impending famine, the Collector considers that one of two things must be done, and that quickly. Either the food must be taken to the people, or the people to the food; and that in practice both courses would have to be followed, but that neither would be practicable in Rangpur unless the means of communication were improved. In certain parts of the District nothing but disaster could be anticipated. The navigation of the rivers is difficult, and, with the exception of the Brahmaputra, Tistá, and Dharlá,
is only practicable during a very short period of the year. In the
rains, too, the current of the large rivers is so strong that ordinary
boats can hardly make any way against stream, unless assisted by
favourable winds. In the case of floods resulting in a more com-
plete destruction of the áman rice crop than occurred in 1787, the
Collector expresses his opinion that importation would be imprac-
ticable, except with such delays as would render it fruitless. He
states that not a single road in the District would be passable, as
sufficiently proved by their condition during the rains of ordinary
years. The bridges, with but few exceptions, are constructed of
timber, and are very frail. In a serious inundation they would be
washed away; and the roads being only slightly embanked and of a
sandy soil, would in all probability be scarcely traceable. In such
an emergency, the existence of a high causeway, amply provided
with masonry bridges, would be the means of greatly mitigating the
inevitable distress. Better road accommodation would also be very
valuable in years of drought. The Collector states (1871) that
notwithstanding the large surplus revenue of the District, the sum
allowed for public works barely suffices to keep up the roads,
even in their present decayed condition. The Collector's report
to me was written in 1871, but since then much has been done
towards improving the state of the communications. During the
scarcity of 1874, road-making formed the principal work provided
by the State as a means of relief for the labouring and cultivating
classes. The Northern Bengal State Railway, now in course of
construction, will also run through the west of the District from
north to south, with a branch line running from west to east to
Rangpur town. By this means, any needful quantity of grain can
be thrown into the District in time of need. The great safeguard,
however, of Rangpur against famine lies in its climate, which is
peculiarly favourable to rice cultivation. Rain which would be con-
sidered excessive in other Districts causes no harm here, and long-
continued droughts are almost unknown.

As a preventive against famine, the Collector states that the first
object which should be kept in view is the increase of the area from
which the food supply of the District is obtained in ordinary years;
and to provide for its rapid extension in case of emergency, by means
of improved roads and communications, as explained above. The
second object should be to decrease the number of useless mouths,
by transporting surplus labour to Districts where it can be remune-
relatively employed; and to diminish the proportion of those incapacitated from labour by disease, by improving the sanitary condition of the District in ordinary years before the famine comes. The Collector also suggests that the indigent should be collected into centres of industry, and that the energies of the husbandmen should be directed to the cultivation of the most remunerative crops which the land is able to produce,—in fact, to raise their standard of living, so as to leave a margin for them to fall back upon in times of adversity. The last suggestion offered by the Collector, although he considers it not by any means the least in importance, is the establishment of 'Anné Savings Banks' at each post office, and he refers to the success of the 'Penny Savings Banks' in the agricultural districts of Scotland as an illustration. The Collector remarks, that as the poor of Bengal carry their money about with them, the temptation to spend it would be greatly diminished were they possessed of the means of safely depositing their surplus earnings. The measures suggested would, however, require to have been years in force previous to any emergency like a scarcity. As the main obstacle to taking proper measures in the case of actually impending famine is the difficulty of obtaining correct information in Districts where the cultivators are in communication with the superior landholders only, and Government officials have hardly any opportunity of becoming acquainted with their wants, the Collector suggests that it would be desirable to warn all landholders of their duties towards their tenantry, and to impose heavy penalties in cases of death by famine occurring on their lands, unless they could show that there had been no failure on their part to give timely notice of impending want. It must be borne in mind that in the foregoing paragraphs I merely reproduce the Collector's views without endorsing them. Most of his remedial measures belong to the general improvement of the country in ordinary times, rather than to the direct mitigation of suffering during famine.

Foreign and Absentee Proprietors.—No European landholders are registered as proprietors on the rent-roll of Rangpur; and the Muhammadans, although comprising no less than sixty per cent. of the District population, furnish only a small proportion of the landed proprietary class. In 1871 the Collector furnished me with a return, showing that 555 estates, paying a revenue direct to Government of £107,510, were distributed as follows:—No less than 460 estates, paying a total revenue of £97,578, 16s. od., were held
by 699 Hindus, while only 52 estates, paying a revenue of £3083, 8s. od., were owned by 93 Muhammadans. The remaining 43 estates, paying a revenue of £6947, 16s. od., were held jointly by 256 Hindus with 150 Musalmans. In 1873 the number of Muham\-madan proprietors amounted to 346. A considerable portion of the District is held by absentee proprietors. Pátiládahá pargáná belongs to the wealthy Tagore family of Calcutta; and Baharband, Gay- bári, and part of Bhitárband are in the possession of Ráni Swarnamayí of Murshidábád. The zamíndáír of Balihár in Rájsháhi Dis- trict also owns a part of pargáná Bhitárband. Chaklá Purubbhág belongs to the Mahárájá of Kuch Behar, who likewise holds the large pargánás of Bodá and Baikunthpur, which in 1869 were sepa- rated from Rangpur and annexed to the adjacent northern District of Jalpágíri. Bátásun pargáná has passed into the hands of patni- dáírs who reside at Murshidábád.

ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—The local roads, with the exception of those which are contained within the municipal limits of the town and station of Rangpur, are under the manage- ment of the Collector, who administers the amalgamated District Road Fund. A yearly assignment is made by Government for the maintenance of the roads from the General Road Fund of the whole of the Lower Provinces. Under the Collector is a road overseer, who supervises the repairs of the roads, and holds besides the post of town overseer, and in that capacity has charge of the town roads also. The expenses of the town roads are defrayed out of the municipal funds. There are no imperial lines of road in Rangpur District under the management of the Public Works Department.

The Annual Report of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhi Division for the year 1871-72 gives the following return of the roads of Rang- pur District, their length, the amount allotted for their maintenance and repair in 1871-72, together with the amount actually expended on them in that year:—(1) Rangpur to Koláhátí (the Dinajpur road), 20 miles in length; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £140; amount actually expended, £109, 5s. od. (2) Rangpur to Padáhárá (the Bográ road), 30 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £100; amount actually expended, £116, 19s. 6d. (3) Rangpur to Bhawániganj (Káliganj), 45 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £929, 18s. od.; amount actually expended, £793, 1s. 9d. (4) Rangpur to Bagwá, 30 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £197, 6s. od.; amount actually expended, £107, 16s. 7d.
(5) Rangpur to Mughulhát (the Kuch Behar road), 28 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £100; amount actually expended, £172, 5s. 3d. (6) Rangpur to Chilákhál, 13 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £30; amount actually expended, £16, 6s. 8d. (7) Rangpur to Rangápání (the Jalpaiguri road), 54 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £240; amount actually expended, £23½, 8s. 1d. (8) Roads within the limits of the town and station of Rangpur, and maintained out of municipal funds, 20 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £25; amount actually expended, £3, 1s. 3d. Total length of District roads, 240 miles; total allotment for maintenance and repairs, £1762, 4s. od.; total amount actually expended, £1550, 19s. 10d.

With regard to the condition of the roads, I quote the following from the Annual Report of the Commissioner of the Division for 1871-72:—'With respect to the allotments made for roads and bridges, the Collector states that they have been hitherto so small, that the roads fell into a state of utter disrepair, and no repairs of large bridges could be undertaken. As, however, the local collections from roads and ferries will henceforth be all allotted to the District, and spent on the roads and communications, great improvements ought to be made in future years. The chief road in the District is the one from Rangpur to Kálíganj, a distance of 45 miles. A special grant of £929, 18s. od. was made for this road during the year, as Kálíganj (Bhawaníganj) is now the place where the Assam steamers stop, and all Government and private stores conveyed by the steamers are brought to Rangpur by this road. The road was thoroughly repaved during the year. The bridges in Rangpur are mostly wooden ones,—the brick bridges being very few, as the Collector states that the late low state of the funds did not allow of such being built. The only large bridge which is being reconstructed this year is the Kisoríganj one, on the Jalpaiguri road. The number of new bridges built and of old ones repaired during the year is as follows:—(1) Dináipur road; 1 new bridge built, and 11 old ones repaired. (2) Bográ road; 5 new bridges built, and 14 old ones repaired. (3) Kálíganj road; 5 new bridges built, and 12 old ones repaired. (4) Bagwá road; 1 new bridge built, and 20 old ones repaired. (5) Kuch Behar road; 4 new bridges built, and 3 old ones repaired. (6) Chilákhál road; 1 new bridge built, and 6 old ones repaired. (7) Jalpaiguri road; 2 new bridges built, and 27
old ones repaired. Total, 19 new bridges built, and 93 old ones repaired. With respect to ferries, the Collector states that there are 118 ferries in the District, which were assessed during the year (1871-72) in the sum of £2257; adding to which the balance of previous years, namely, £106, 17s. od., the total amount for collection was £2367, 17s. od., of which £2193, 18s. od. was collected during the year. A sufficient number of boats and boatmen are stated to be employed at the different ghâts (landing-places).

The Northern Bengal State Railway, now (1875) in course of construction, will pass through the western portion of Rangpur District, running north and south, with a short branch line from west to east to Rangpur town. No canals or artificial water-courses exist in the District. Besides the roads, the only other means of communication at present available are the rivers. No important seats of commerce or large trading villages have lately sprung up upon the routes of traffic; the marts which are now the principal seats of trade appear to have been so far back as the records of the District extend. Kálîganj, a river-side village on the Brahmaputra, is the only place which appears to have recently risen into importance. It has been found more suitable as a port of call for the Assam steamers than Bagwá, the former station. Kálîganj is simply used for transhipping goods, and its local trade does not seem to have extended.

Manufactures.—Rangpur being almost a purely agricultural District, only a very small proportion of the people live by manufactures. The making of satrânjis (a thick striped cotton carpet) affords employment to a number of persons, principally in the vicinity of the headquarters town and in the village of Nisbetganj. The weavers are all Muhammedans. The carpets, when manufactured, are purchased by Márwári traders, who take them to Dacca and other places for sale. The Musalmán peasantry also manufacture for their own use a description of coarse silk cloth (endí), woven from the cocoon of a worm which feeds on the leaves of the castor-oil plant. This shrub is to be seen around nearly every cultivator’s house, providing the inmates with oil for their lamps, as well as supplying food for the worms. In the southern parts of the District, silk culture is carried on to a certain extent, but the cocoons are chiefly exported in a raw state to Bográ and Rájsahí, where the silk is wound off. The Collector estimates that in a fair year some four hundred maunds (say 296 hundredweights) of cocoon
and about seventy mounds (say 51 hundredweights) of raw silk are thus exported from Rangpur. Basket and mat making is extensively carried on. The ordinary mats are used for walling the houses. A hundred mats, each about a yard square, sell for about Rs. 6 or 12s. Besides the quantity needed for local use, large quantities of these mats are exported to neighbouring Districts. In the north and eastern parts of the District, fine mats of kusá grass are made for export. At Chilmári, the kánsáris (braziers) manufacture good brass utensils, bell-metal plates and cups for cooking or eating from. At Barábári, in pergand Pangá, a few families subsist by carving ivory and buffalo horn. They prepare fine ivory combs, chessmen, boxes, toys, etc. The manufacture is greatly on the decrease, owing, it is said, to a falling off in the supply, and consequent dearness, of ivory tusks. At Nisbetganj and Jafarganj a considerable number of persons are employed in making cart-wheels and other rough carpentry work. Boat-building is also carried on on the banks of the Tistá and Dharlá.

The most important manufacture at present carried on in Rangpur District is paper-making, in which industry about 130 manufactories were engaged in 1872. The paper made is of a coarse kind, and is used by natives for book-keeping, and in the District courts for writing notices, etc. The manufactories are situated in the village of Bhágni in pergand Pairáband; in Paniálághát, pergand Muntháná; in Durgápur and Balákandi, pergand Baharband; and in Kursá, pergand Udásí. The largest of these manufactories is not able to produce more than one ream of paper per diem. About one-half of the paper prepared is used locally, the remainder being exported to Bográ and Jálpáguri. Jute fibre forms the material of which it is made, instead of hemp, as in other Districts. The process of manufacture is thus described:—Twenty sers (40 lbs.) of jute are mixed with ten sers (20 lbs.) of lime, and steeped in a masonry vat for one day under water. A vat is usually three cubits long, two and a half cubits broad, and two cubits deep. On the second day the jute is taken out, twisted to squeeze out the water, and kept in the shade for four days. On the sixth day it is exposed to the sun; and on the seventh it is again mixed with two sers (4 lbs.) of lime, and kept in the vat under water for four or five days more; after which it is again dried, cut into pieces about six inches long, and well cleaned. When the jute becomes decomposed, it is pounded continually for three days in a mortar (dhenki). Six persons work
at the dhéngi pestle, which is raised by means of a lever worked by
the foot; and two others are employed to turn the stuff in the
mortar. When the stuff has been well pounded, it is carried near a
sheet of water, laid on a bamboo mat with a layer of grass under it,
and then trodden upon for a day by two persons, whilst a third
pours water on the mass. The mat is laid over grass in order to
prevent the stuff from being soiled with mud. This process is known
by the name of kuchbd. When it is over, the stuff is deposited in
a second masonry vat filled with water, and beaten with a stick for
one day. A little oil is poured on the water, to enable the pounded
substance to settle down at the bottom of the vat. The stuff is
then gently stirred with a stick until a thin layer rises to the surface.
This layer is taken out by means of an instrument called a chándch,
and deposited on the ground. The chándch is made of split pieces
of bamboo, tied together so as to form a sieve. When the succes-
sive layers taken out from the vat have accumulated so as to form
ten or twelve quires of paper, they are pressed for the purpose of
squeezing out the water, after which they are suspended sheet by
sheet on a tatti or bamboo mat to be dried. When the sheets
become sufficiently dry, they are taken down from the tattès,
brushed on both sides with a glaze made from rice, and exposed in
the sun. The quantity of materials above given is sufficient to
produce four reams of coarse paper, each ream weighing five sers
(10 lbs.). The value of the paper is not stated, but the cost of
manufacturing four reams is returned at Rs. 7. 5. 0 or 14s. 7½d.

**Condition of the Manufacturing Classes.**—No well-marked
distinction has taken place in Rangpur District between capital
and labour. Manufactures are principally carried on by the people
on their own account and in their own homes. Some of the more
fortunate, however, have been led by their success to extend their
operations, and either give out work to be done by others at their
homes, or employ labourers to join their family and to live and
work with them. Such service is generally entered into for a fixed
term, and the greater portion of the wages is usually advanced to the
labourer on the commencement of his engagement. The Collector
states that this practice reduces the labourer to a state of virtual slavery,
as the improvident are continually compelled to enter into fresh en-
gagements in order to clear off their old liabilities. Monthly engage-
ments are not uncommon in some trades,—the wages of the artisans
varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 (10s. to 16s.) per mensem. These are
the rates commonly paid to country carpenters. The social condition of the manufacturing classes is stated by the Collector to be about the same as that of the general run of the peasantry. It is not an uncommon circumstance for some of the members of an artisan's family to cultivate land, in which he also may be a part sharer. In other cases, an artisan or manufacturer has his own plot of ground, which is cultivated for him by another, who receives a share of the produce in return for his labour. There is no class of labourers in Rangpur District hereditarily attached to a manufacture in a manner which affects their personal freedom.

The following table shows the numbers of skilled workers, mechanics, and artisans in Rangpur, as returned by the Census of 1872, under their respective trades, making a total of 14,930 men:

**Manufacturing Classes and Artisans of Rangpur District, 1872.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indigo manufacturers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bricklayers (rājānīstrā)</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>7599</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brickmakers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sawyers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>385</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>1376</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thatchers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>5475</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacksmiths</td>
<td>1083</td>
<td>742</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braziers</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kānārśis</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kālāgārśis</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldsmiths</td>
<td>1982</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potters</td>
<td>2124</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mat makers</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basket makers</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Carry forward</strong></td>
<td>7599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>14,930</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Trade and Commerce.—** The chief articles exported from Rangpur District are rice, tobacco, ginger, jute, turmeric, mustard seed, indigo, silk cocoons, chilies, potatoes, oats, bamboos, raw sugar, clarified butter (gūhī), hides, fish, cotton carpets (satrānjīs), bamboo mats, praying mats of kusā grass, tejpāt fruit, etc. The principal articles of import obtained in exchange are cotton, salt, opium, gānjā, liquors, manufactured cotton goods, silk, timber, iron, lead, brass and bell-metal vessels and household utensils, refined sugar, Birmingham ware, cattle, horses, up-country
sheep, etc. The produce of the District available for export is chiefly bought up by brokers, who travel about the country making advances to the cultivators on the crops, and, after the harvest, ship the produce to large grain marts, principally to Dacca and Sirajganj. Large stores and warehouses are situated along the banks of the principal rivers, such as the Brahmaputra, Tistá, Dharlá, etc., where the goods are stored until they can be conveniently shipped. The tobacco trade is almost entirely in the hands of the Maghs, who ship the produce to Calcutta and Chittagong. Mustard seed and rice are exported to Assam, and to the eastern Districts of Bengal, by way of Sirajganj. Almost the whole of the jute produced in the District also goes to Sirajganj. Silk cocoons are exported to Bográ and to Théthpur, or other parts of Rájsháhi. Dacca takes chilies, potatoes, satránjás, and oats, while Calcutta takes indigo. Of the imports, cotton is chiefly imported from the Gáro hills, through Goálpárá District. A considerable quantity is brought to Sálmári and other markets on the eastern borders of the District, and thence finds its way into the interior. The foreign and manufactured goods are nearly all imported from Calcutta by country boats or river steamers, but some also come by rail up to Rájmahal, whence they are carried across country. From the northern hills, the imports consist of timber, Bhutiá ponies, and blankets. The Nepális yearly bring down large quantities of ghi (clarified butter) for sale in the District. The most important of the permanent seats of commerce is Mahéganj. A large number of Márwári merchants reside here, and carry on a thriving trade in every description of produce. Banking operations are also carried on by one or two houses. The table on the next page gives a list of the remaining principal trading villages or produce depôts, showing the principal articles of trade, the tháná or police circle in which each is situated, and the name of the nearest river.

Two annual trading fairs of considerable importance are held in the District, one at Rangpur town and the other at Darwáni, at which cattle and horses form the principal articles of sale. No statistics exist showing the relative value of the exports and imports of the District.

Capital and Interest. — Accumulations of coin are either hoarded or lent out at interest, hardly ever expended in the improvement of estates. In small loan transactions, where ornaments or household utensils are pledged as security for the debt, the
### Trading Villages and Produce Depots in Rangpur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trading Village or Depot</th>
<th>Description of Trade carried on.</th>
<th>Police Circle (Thana) within which the Village is situated</th>
<th>Name of nearest River</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goramara</td>
<td>Jute, tobacco, and ginger,</td>
<td>Barun, do.</td>
<td>Tista</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhottmari</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Pharanbari, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanikina</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhulgaok</td>
<td>Jute and lime,</td>
<td>Dimla, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gajghantia</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>Pharanbari, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borakaria</td>
<td>Rice, mustard, jute, and</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunabandar</td>
<td>Jute and tobacco,</td>
<td>Sadullapur, do.</td>
<td>Ghaghata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dakupur</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betragari</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, mustard,</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundarganj</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, mustard, jute,</td>
<td>Ulipur, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nisbetganj</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, satrani, and mats,</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>Jamunawar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badarganj</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, mustard,</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahibganj</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Kumaorganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taragani</td>
<td>Rice, jute, and tobacco,</td>
<td>Kumarganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulaghat</td>
<td>Jute, tobacco, and ginger,</td>
<td>Malang, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parshagachi</td>
<td>Jute and mustard,</td>
<td>Kumaorganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belka</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>Nageswar, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhanhi Mirkang</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, and jute,</td>
<td>Jatpur, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamrarim</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Ulipur, do.</td>
<td>Manas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nageswar</td>
<td>Jute and mustard,</td>
<td>Ulpur, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chilmari</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, and jute,</td>
<td>Bhawaniganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nageswar</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Phulkumar, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gagla</td>
<td>Jute, tobacco, and ginger,</td>
<td>Chilmar, do.</td>
<td>Brahmaputra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sattibari</td>
<td>Rice, paddy, and mustard,</td>
<td>Bhawaniganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kajirpar</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Nageswar, do.</td>
<td>Sankosh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingorангi</td>
<td>Rice, jute, and tobacco,</td>
<td>Pirganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hazaribargar</td>
<td>Do. do. do.</td>
<td>Bagdar, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amirganj</td>
<td>Amirganj, do. do.</td>
<td>Darwan, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burahat</td>
<td>Tobacco,</td>
<td>Nisbetganj, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nek Muhammad</td>
<td>Jute,</td>
<td>Ulipur, do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The usual rate of interest charged is 6 pie in the rupee per mensem, or at the rate of 37½ per cent. per annum; where personal security alone is given, the usual rate is 9 pie in the rupee per mensem, or 50 per cent. per annum. In large loan transactions, the rate of interest is usually 12 per cent.; the rate, however, varies according to the circumstances of the case and the exigencies of the borrower. The most usual way in which the agriculturists of Rangpur obtain loans is by taking advances on the value of their crops from produce brokers. The amount advanced in money is repayable in kind without any stated rate of interest, but this is covered by the produce to be delivered being valued at a low rate, considerably below the
market price. Thus, an indigo manufacturer would receive indigo at the rate of six bundles to the rupee from cultivators to whom he had made advances, while he might only be able to get three bundles for a rupee from free producers. Again, while jute in 1870 was selling in the market at Rs. 3, Rs. 4, and Rs. 5 a maund (from 8s. 2d. to 13s. 8d. a hundredweight), the agriculturists were selling their produce to the brokers from whom they had received advances at the rate of Rs. 1. 8. 0, Rs. 1. 12. 0, and Rs. 2 per maund (from 4s. 1d. to 5s. 5d. a hundredweight). This system of agricultural advances is chiefly followed in the case of jute, sugar, tobacco, and indigo cultivation. Small money loans and agricultural advances are granted by village merchants or by produce brokers. Large sums, i.e. amounts of upwards of Rs. 100 or £10, are borrowed from the native bankers at Mahiganj.

Native Institutions.—Besides the educational and medical institutions, which will be described at length in a subsequent section of this Statistical Account, there are public libraries at Rangpur town and Kánkiná, and also a literary debating club at the latter place. There is but one printing press in the District, which prints only in Bengali. From this press issues the only newspaper published in the District, the Rangpur Dik Prakás, a weekly journal with a circulation estimated at about 200 copies in 1871.

Estimated Income of the District.—The Collector, in 1871, returned the estimated income of Rangpur District, as calculated for the purposes of the Income Tax Act of 1871,—that is to say, the total of all incomes over £50 a year,—at about £384,000. This appears to have been too low an estimate. It would yield an income tax of £11,950 at the then rate of 3½ per cent.; but the net amount of tax actually realized in 1870-71 was £13,220. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the tax was reduced to 1½ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75. The net amount of income tax realized in that year was £4157, 6s. od.

History.—The following brief historical sketch is quoted in a condensed form from Mr. Glazier's Report on the District of Rangpur, who expresses his indebtedness to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton for the greater part of the information:—'Rangpur was originally included in the kingdom of Kámrúp, the Karátoyá river forming the boundary between Kámrúp and Matsuýa or Bengal. The Rájá Bhagadattá, in the war of the Mahábhárata, espoused the side of Dharjyudan, and was slain by Arjun. Besides Rangpur, the
kingdom of Kámrúp included Assam, Manipur, Jayántiyá, Cáchár, and parts of Maimansinh and Sylhet. The name of Rangpur—the place of pleasure, or abode of bliss—is thought to arise from the circumstance that Rájá Bhagadattá possessed a country residence here on the banks of the Ghaghát. There is another Rangpur to the west of Gauhati, the chief town of the present District of Kámrúp, which also lays claim to the same distinction. Pargáná Pairábánd, which lies south and west from the Ghaghát, a few miles only from Rangpur town, is called after Pairavátí, a daughter of Bhagadattá, who held it as an estate. According to the authority of the Aín-i-Akbarí, Bhagadattá had twenty-three successors in his dynasty; and the Yaginí Tantrá gives some very mystic accounts of subsequent kings. Among them is Jalpeshwar, who built the temple of Siva at Jalpesh in the Dwárs. But putting aside these legends, probably made up according to the fancy of the annalist, we have genuine local traditions of three dynasties that reigned in Rangpur previous to the close of the fifteenth century.

Of the earliest dynasty, there are traces only of one Prithu Rájá. The ruins of his city lie half in chahlá Bodá and half in pargáná Baikunthpur, in the present District of Jalpáiguri. The city consisted of four enclosures, one within the other, the innermost containing the Rájá’s palace. In both the inner and middle cities were subdivisions, separated from each other by ramparts and ditches, dividing each city into several quarters. The outermost city of all was tenanted by the lowest classes of the populace. The place was strongly fortified for the times in which it was built. The defences were lofty earthen ramparts, with wide moats on the outer sides; and advantage was taken of a small river, the Talmá, to form a deep fosse under the embankment, between the middle and outer cities. In some places the earthen defences were faced with brick and surmounted by brick walls. The Rájá’s house had also a wall round it. The only remains left are portions of the ramparts and heaps of bricks in various places. (Vide Statistical Account of Jalpáiguri.) This Prithu Rájá met a tragical fate. He was attacked by an impure tribe of kichoks or gipsies, and, afraid of having his purity sullied by contact with them, he jumped into a large tank near his palace, whither he was followed by his guards, and the town was given up to plunder. The place is supposed to be still occupied by his spirit; and when Buchanan Hamilton visited it, a flag was hoisted on the ground between the tank and the palace, which was overgrown
with jungle, to indicate that the spot was holy, and the guides bowed down low and called upon the Mahárájá Prithu by name.

The next dynasty is that of the Páls, of which we have notices of four kings, Dharmá Pál being the first. There seems reason to suppose that he was descended from or connected with the Pál princes who preceded the Vaidya dynasty in Bengal, and reigned in parts of Dinájarur and Bogré. One of this family was reigning in Kámrúp, in Assam, in A.D. 1175. A few miles south of Dimlá are the remains of a fortified city, which still retains the name of Dharmá Pál. It is in the form of an irregular parallelogram, rather less than a mile from north to south, and three-quarters of a mile from east to west in the centre, diminishing towards the north and increasing in breadth towards its southern extremity. It consisted of an inner and an outer city, with raised ramparts of earth and ditches on the outer sides. (Vide Statistical Account of Jalpaíguri.)

Dharmá Pál's domain must have been extensive, and included the greater part if not the whole of the present District of Rangpur; for in Buchanan Hamilton's time tradition pointed to a house at Oyari, east of Ulipur, near the Brahmaputra, as that of his successor Gopí Chandra, and there are still the remains of the palace of Gopí's son, Bhará Chandra, at Udáipur, in parganá Baghdwár, far to the south. Dharmá Pál had a sister-in-law, Minavatí, the remains of whose fort, consisting of an inner and an outer enclosure, still exist, two miles to the east of Dharmá Pál's city. Her husband was dead, but she fought against her brother-in-law on behalf of her son Gopí Chandra, and defeated his troops in a battle near the Tistá, after which Dharmá Pál disappeared. Gopí Chandra succeeded to the vacant throne, but he did not govern; Minavatí would not so readily part with her authority. She provided him with a hundred wives, and, when he grew tired of them, persuaded him to dedicate his life to religion. He accordingly accepted a Jogí or religious mendicant as his spiritual instructor, and the two are locally believed to be still wandering about in the forests. A poem called Sibárgit, sung by Jogí minstrels, recounting the lamentations of Gopí's numerous wives at his departure, was said to be popular in Kámrúp at the beginning of this century,—an indication that the rule of the Páls included that Province as well as Rangpur.

Gopí's son Bhavá Chandra succeeded him. He is also called Udái Chandra, whence the name of his city, Udáipur. Bábú Bepin
Behári Chandra, a resident of Baghdwár pargañá, has recently made some investigations among the ruins of Udáipur, which are situated in almost impenetrable jungle. Nothing of special interest was discovered, the ruins of the palace and other buildings and tanks being the main features. The Bābu, however, collected some curious traditions of Bhavá Chandra, of which the following may be mentioned:

‘Rájá Bhavá Chandra and his mantri or minister are the heroes of the Hindu nursery version of the wise men of Gotham, and are renowned far and wide throughout Bengal. The Rájá and his minister were bereft of common sense by the curse of the Rájá’s favourite goddess, whom he offended by visiting her temple at a forbidden time. They did nothing like other people,—slept by day, and kept awake throughout the night. The mantri took up his abode in a box, and only emerged from his retreat when called upon by the Rájá to deliberate with him on some hard matter. One or two of these judgments may be noted. The Rájá and his minister, in the plenitude of their wisdom, sentenced the potters to compensate the merchants for loss by wreck, on the ground that the high mounds raised by the former brought the clouds which had caused the storm. On another occasion, the people brought a fine wild hog to them, that they might decide what strange animal it was; and after deep cogitation on the knotty point, they concluded that it must either be an overgrown rat or an elephant gone into a consumption. But their last judgment gives the climax to their fame. Two travellers were discovered one afternoon digging a cooking-place in the ground by the side of a tank for the preparation of their evening meal. The Rájá, who discovered them, at once concluded that the men were engaged in effecting a burglarious entry in order to steal the tank, and he sentenced them to be impaled as robbers. The poor travellers, driven to desperation, made each of them seemingly frantic endeavours to be impaled on the taller of the two poles; and when the Rájá inquired the reason of their extraordinary rivalry, they informed him that they had learned, by the power of their enchantments, that whoever was impaled on the taller pole would in the next birth become the sovereign of the whole world, while the other would be his minister. Bhavá Chandra, thinking that it would be far from consistent with justice that such low people should acquire supreme dignity, forthwith had himself impaled on the coveted pole, and his faithful
mantri followed his master, and expired on the shorter one. Bhavá
Chandra's successor, Pala, was the last of the line. A state of
anarchy followed; Kámrúp being overrun by rude tribes, the Koch,
Mech, Gáro, Bhot, Lepchá, and others.

The next dynasty had three Rájás,—Niládwáj, Chakradwáj,
and Nilámbhar. The first Rájá founded Kamátapur, the ruins of
which are situated in Kuch Behar territory, on the eastern bank of
the Dharlá river. The city was very extensive. Buchanan Hamilton
found it to be nineteen miles in circumference, five of which were
defended by the Dharlá, and the rest by a rampart and ditch. These
old cities all present the same features,—enclosure within enclosure,
wall within wall, the king's palace occupying the centre of the
whole.

The third king of this dynasty, Nilámbhar, attained to great
power. His dominions included the greater part of Kámrúp, the
whole of Rangpur as far as Gorághát to the south, where he built
a fort, and part of Mástyá or Bengal. The struggles of the Afghan
kings of Bengal to retain their independence of the Dehli emperors
must have afforded the opportunity to this energetic prince to extend
his dominions in that direction. He laid out a magnificent road
from Kamátapur to Gorághát, much of which is still in good preserva-
tion, and forms part of the main road between Kuch Behar, Rangpur,
and Bográ. Several isolated forts scattered over the District are
called by Nilámbhar's name. The fall of this monarch is attributed
to the vengeance of his prime minister, a Bráhman named Sochí
Patra. He had ordered the son of this man to be killed for some
misconduct, and part of his flesh to be cooked, of which he contrived
that the father should partake. The Bráhman went to the court
of the Afghan kings at Gaur, and procured the invasion of Rangpur
by the Muhammadans, which is their first appearance in this direc-
tion. The Muhammadan commander gave out that he despaired
of taking the place, and proposed a peace. He asked and obtained
permission for Musalmán ladies to go and pay their respects to the
Hindu queen; but in the litters armed men were concealed, who
captured the town. Nilámbhar was taken prisoner, and put into an
iron cage to be carried to Gaur; but he escaped by the way, and
has ever since remained concealed. Buchanan Hamilton says that
the people of Kámrúp look for his restoration, when the usurpers,
Bhutiás, Assamese, Kochs, and Yavanás (western barbarians), shall
be driven out of the land.
The Afghán king who made this conquest is supposed to be Husán Sháh, who reigned A.D. 1497–1521. There is an account of a disastrous expedition made by him into Assam, which probably slackened the hold of the Muhammadans on the whole of the country they had occupied in Rangpur; for we subsequently find the limit of their possessions northward to be an irregular line drawn from the Karatóyá on the west, crossing the Ghaghát and Tistá midway, extending to the Brahmaputra on the east, and including Pairáband and other pargánás which were comprised in sarkár Gorághát. The succeeding Rangpur dynasty, the Koch, built a line of fortifications all along this boundary, many parts of which are still in excellent preservation. The Musálmán possessions to the south of this boundary-line were consolidated in the time of Husán’s successor, Nasrát Sháh, by Ismáíl Ghází, the governor of Gorághát.

Among the wild tribes that had overrun Assam and driven back the Afghán Husán Sháh, the Koch came to the front, and, uniting under Hájo, founded the Koch or Kuch Behar dynasty, which exists to the present day. Hájo had two daughters,—Hirá, who married a Mech, and had a son, Visu; and Jirá, who also had a son, Sisu. Visu is reckoned as the first of the Kuch Behar Rájás. Sisu is the ancestor of the Baikunthpur family known as the Jalpáigúri Rájás, who obtained Baikunthpur as an appanage of Kuch Behar.

Visu introduced Bráhmans from Silhet, and by their help his Mech father was thrown aside, and a divine origin was manufactured both for himself and his cousin Sisu, and his descendants adopted the title of Náráyan Deo. The Koch also gave up their tribal name, and assumed that of Rájbonsí—literally, of the royal kindred. The race speedily became effete, and offered an easy prey to the Mughuls when they had leisure to turn their attention to this quarter. Visu divided his realm among his two sons, giving to Sukládwáj all to the east of the Sankos and both sides of the Brahmaputra, and to Nar Náráyan the western portion, lying between the Sankos and the Mahánandá rivers. Division brought weakness in its train; and Parikshit, the grandson of Sukládwáj, became tributary to the Mughul governor at Dacca. In 1603, twenty-seven years after Bengal had been wrested from the Afgháns by Akbár’s generals, the Mughuls conquered and annexed nearly the whole of Parikshit’s dominions for arrears of tribute. He was
allowed, however, to retain a small patch of territory as a vassal, and his brother Ballit was confirmed in the governorship of Durrung. The rest of the country was divided by the conquerors into four sarkârs, which they retained for over half a century; but in 1662 Mir Jumlâ met with defeat in attempting to penetrate farther into Assam, and he had to cede much of the land previously occupied. The Muhammadans retained one sarkâr, Bengal-bhûm (comprising Baharband and Bhitârband), and portions of two others, namely, Goalbârî in Dhenkiri, or Uttarkul sarkâr, and Goalpârâ and Rângamâlî in Dakhinkul sarkâr. A Muhammadan officer was stationed at Rângâmâlî, whose duty it was to encourage the growth of forests and reeds, in order that the fierce Assamese might not penetrate farther to the east and south. The reduced realm held by Parikshit’s descendants is known in our old records as the State of Bijnî, tributary both to the English, as the successor of the Muhammadans, and to the Bhutiâs, who about this time began encroachments on the country to the south of their hills. Ballit’s descendants still continued to hold Durrung under the Assam Government. With regard to the western division of Visû’s dominions, made over to his son Nar Náráyan, a line of fortifications was erected all along its southern borders as a defence against Muhammadan invasion; it consisted of lofty earthen ramparts with wide moats on the outer sides, and was constructed soon after the division of the kingdom, probably in the time of Nar Náráyan or his successor. The eastern extremity of this line of defences was turned, when parganâ Baharband and the rest of the dominions of Parikshit were taken possession of by the Muhammadans. Some time preceding the final conquest of Rangpur, the Muhammadans also turned the western extremity, and took possession of parganâ Kundî, lying north of Pairâband, between the Ghaghát on the east and Swarûppur on the west.

Rangpur proper, otherwise Kuchwárâ or sarkâr Kuch Behar, is that portion of the old Province of Rangpur which was last conquered by the Musalmâns from the Kuch Behar Râjâs. It included six chaklâs or divisions. The three smaller ones, Bodâ, Pâtgrâm, and Purubbhág, form the zamindârí of the Kuch Behar Râjá; of the other three, Fathipur and Kâzîrhât are parcelled out among a number of zamindârs, and Kánkinâ is still held as an undivided estate. In the Bengal year 1094, or 1687 A.D., in the reign of Aurangzeb, the Mughuls, under the leadership of Ebadat Khán, advanced from Gorâghát and occupied the three central chaklâs of Fathipur,
Kázsírhát, and Kánkiná. These three chaklás appear to have been conquered without much difficulty; they consisted of open country, fairly populous, and offering no natural obstacles. The main current of the Tístá did not then divide Kánkiná from Kázsírhát and Fathípur, but ran south-west, separating Bodá from the rest of Kuchwárá. The three other chaklás, namely, Bodá beyond the Tístá to the north-west, Pátgrám to the extreme north-east, and Purubbhág beyond the Pangá jungles and across the river Dharlá to the east, offered a desperate resistance. Faujddár (governor) after faujddár was appointed to Rangpur in quick succession. The struggle lasted for twenty-four years, and towards the close became a three-cornered fight. Jag Deo, and Bhog or Phoj Deo, of the Baikunthpur family, invaded Kuch Behar on the death of Rájá Mahendrá Náráyan. They laid waste the country where the war was going on, and kept the Muhammadans at bay; but ultimately Shántá Náráyan, a cousin of the new Rájá, Rúp Náráyan, drove out the Baikunthpur family, and concluded a peace with the Muhammadans in 1711 A.D. The chaklás of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág were nominally ceded to the Muhammadans, but still continued to be held in farm by Shántá Náráyan on behalf of the Kuch Behar Rájá.

The fact that, although the Mughuls forced the cession, they never wrested the chaklás out of the hands of the Kuch Behar Rájá, accounts for the irregular nature of the boundary which exists between them and Kuch Behar proper. A long narrow strip of Kuch Behar territory extends from the north of Pátgrám, crossing the present Tístá, and divides Kázsírhát from Bodá. This would no doubt have been included in the ceded tract if the boundary had ever been regularly laid down. In Pátgrám the very fields are intermixed, one forming part of the chaklás, and the next belonging to Kuch Behar territory, to the great confusion of the administration.

In the larger chaklás first occupied, the Mughul conquerors seem to have pursued the same policy of leaving in possession, as chaudhars, the persons who had previously been in charge of the collections under the Kuch Behar dynasty; and so far as is known, no change took place up to the acquisition of the diwání or financial administration of the country by the East India Company in 1765. Kázsírhát was then divided among five, and Fathípur among four sharers. The Muhammadans appear to have at first called their new conquest Fákír-kundí, from the name of the pargána which
confronted them across the Ghaghát opposite Kundíf, which they already held, and where the town of Mahíganj now stands. Here they probably made their first entry.'

Under Mughul administration, the District was always farmed out to revenue contractors; the samindárs never paid their revenue direct to Government. After the assumption of the financial administration of the country by the East India Company, regular engagements were made with the samindárs. The first Settlement made with the British Government was in the year 1172 (1765–66). Some years afterwards, a return was made to the system of farming out the District, but the exactions of the revenue farmer caused an insurrection on the part of the cultivators (described in the first pages of this Account). In 1783 the samindárs were again invited to enter into direct engagements with the Government. In 1790 a Settlement for ten years was made with the samindárs; and three years later this Decennial Settlement was declared permanent and unalterable in perpetuity.

Mr. Glazier, in his Report on the District of Rangpur above cited, describes the condition of the samindárs at the time of the Permanent Settlement, and the effect of that measure on Rangpur District, in the following words:—'In considering the position of the samindárs prior to the Permanent Settlement, it must be borne in mind that the term samindár is a very wide one, including different classes of owners, the origin of whose rights is very various. Thus in Rangpur we have what, for want of better terms, may be styled the semi-feudatory estates, such as Baikunthpur, and the chaklás of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág, held by the Rájá of Kuch Behar; the sub-feudatory estates, or the rest of Kuchwárá, held by descendants of Kuch Behar officers, who had a century before been inducted by the Mughuls into their estates as samindárs; the new purchasers, such as the Baharband and Swarúppur samindárs, who could pretend to no rights beyond any limitations the Government might have chosen to have entered in their deeds of possession; the large samindárs, owners of what had been principalities, such as Idrákpur and Dinájpur; and lastly, the smaller samindárs, who were generally holders of tálûks which had been separated from the larger estates. It was the position of the fourth of these classes, whose principalities had parcelled out Bengal, that determined the question of the position of the samindárs in general.

'The samindárs were more than mere contractors for the revenue.
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That term rightly defines the position of the farmers, who, under the Muhammadans and under the first Settlements of the English, leased the Districts from Government. The Committee of Revenue, in their order on the Baharband measurement case in 1786, speak of the "zemindar's office," and of his being "vested with the superintendence and collection of the revenues of a zemindari." This gives a closer view of the zemindars' real position: they held an administrative office, which had become hereditary by long custom, and they possessed an estate in that office with certain vague and undefined rights. The superior right of Government as the sole owner of the soil was unequivocally maintained and admitted. During the calamitous year 1194 Bengal era (1787-88 A.D.), the Collector reported, that in order to induce the zemindars to engage for the previous year's revenue without deduction, he had represented to them that a zemindar had a right to his land no longer than he continued a good and useful subject to the State; and that, if they insisted on withholding their services, he should insist on their relinquishing, by a regular deed, all right and title to their zemindaris. Again, a petition from the zemindars relating to the Settlement of 1195 Bengal era (1788-89 A.D.) commences with the following words:—"The country belongs to the Company, and we, the zemindars, are only appointed for the purpose of transacting the business of it." The zemindars could not make a fresh measurement or assessment on their rayats without the permission of Government. Mr. Purling, the Collector who commenced the Decennial Settlement, writes in 1790:—"Government in this country is not the participator according to exigency in the produce of the land, but the positive possessor of the whole of the profits of the soil, allowing but a maintenance to those whose duties are devoted to the State."

'On the other hand, the hereditary character of the zemindars, and their preferential right to a settlement "on terms sufficiently moderate to enable them to maintain a degree of respect among their dependents," was recognised by the Directors in 1777. When dispossessed of their zemindaris, owing to the collections being leased to farmers, they were granted a mushahar, or proprietary allowance of ten per cent. upon the revenue derived from their lands; and they were also declared entitled to hold a moderate amount of land not included among the Settlement assets. Two incidents of a distinctly proprietary character attached to their status. One was
that they could grant sub-tenures or tālūks, by gift or sale, out of their zamīndārs. For a long time previous to the English occupation, they had been in the habit of making these grants, and they continued to do so subsequently, in spite of prohibitions. Several such grants, where the revenue had been secured by a proper assessment of the tāluk, were made with the sanction of the Collectors, and are recorded in their proceedings; but the right had been so much abused, that the action of the zamīndārs in this respect had seriously curtailed the Government revenue. Secondly, their lands were liable to be sold for arrears of revenue. This itself is a distinct admission of their possession of some saleable rights; and this liability is enunciated in our earliest records. In the instructions for the Settlement of 1777, it is laid down "that for all lands let to the zamīndārs as above directed, it be expressly stipulated in their kabuliyaats that in case of their falling into arrears they shall be liable to be dispossessed, and their zamīndārs or portions of them sold to make good the deficiency." This liability to sale is repeated over and over again. Mr. Goodlad, the Collector in 1789, reports that he had tried every means except corporal punishment to recover the balances from the zamīndārs; and he applied to the Board of Revenue for permission to proceed to the sale of their lands. Threats of sale constantly occur, which were not carried into effect, owing to the balances being otherwise recovered; and instances are not wanting of actual sales. In fine, we may conclude that, while the zamīndārs held these scraps of proprietary right which had naturally developed out of the hereditary character of their office, their position altogether was so very vague and undefined, and the authority of Government as a recent conqueror was so freely allowed, that any conditions of settlement and limitations of their authority whatever, short of absolute deprivation, would not have borne the character of unjustness or harshness. The Permanent Settlement which gave the proprietary right to the zamīndārs—with some uncertain reservations in favour of the rayats, which were never enforced—was a pure gift, a splendid one to those who had brains and money to make good use of it, but a fatal one to those who had neither.

'It is interesting to observe the very gradual working out of the idea of the Permanent Settlement. In 1776 the Board of Directors write: "Having considered the different circumstances of letting your lands on leases for life or in perpetuity, we do not, for many weighty reasons, think it advisable to adopt either of these modes." But
they approved of a proposition for letting the Province of Dinájpur to the Rájá for life, as an experiment, the issue of which would in some measure enable them to judge of the propriety of adopting a general system on similar principles. These instructions were repeated year by year; and in 1783, on receiving information of the fixed leases granted for Baharband and other tracts, they wrote indignantly: "We repeat our orders, that you do not grant fixed leases on any pretence whatever. The expediency of letting the lands for a longer period than one year, or in perpetuity, is a great political question, on which, in the present critical situation of our affairs, we cannot at this time come to any determination." In 1788 the Rájá of Kuch Behar applied for a fixed lease for his zamindári of Bodá, etc., but the proposal only met with a contemptuous notice from the Board. A change of policy, however, suddenly took place. In the spring of the same year (1788), orders were sent to make a five years' Settlement; and the Bodá zamindár, after a second ineffective attempt to get a permanent Settlement, agreed to accept the short term. As it was the year following the famine, none of the other zamindárs of the District entered into similar engagements.

'The arrangements for the Decennial Settlement commenced in 1790; and how that Settlement was merged by a word into a permanent one is matter of history. So far as the interests of the Government were concerned, no worse time could have been chosen for bringing the measure into operation in Rangpur. The country required years of rest to recover from the effects of the disasters of 1787; and the zamindárs very unwillingly entered into their engagements, with the exception of those of Baharband, Bodá, and Baikunthpur. Two years elapsed before the Settlement was finally arrived at; and instead of the hoped-for increase of Rs. 139,000 on the revenues of 1196 Bengal era (1789-90 A.D.), in order to attain to the standard of 1193 Bengal era (1786-87 A.D.) for Kázírkhát and Bodá, and of 1187 Bengal era (1780-81 A.D.) for the rest of the District, the total increase obtained was between Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 20,000. The permanently assessed revenue on Kuchwárá was about the same as the demand of 1190 Bengal era (1783-84), the year following the insurrection, the lowest rate at which it had ever stood since the acquisition of the country by the English. Among the Kuchwárá estates, Bodá and Baikunthpur alone were kept up to the standard.
A temporary Settlement of say twenty or thirty years would have given sufficient stability of possession for the encouragement of cultivation, and at its close a rich increase would have accrued to the Government revenue; or a life Settlement like that of Dinápur might have been made. As it was, Rangpur was on the whole very lightly assessed, Baharband especially so. In several instances in which the samíndárs sold (with the Collector's sanction) tálukks for the payment of their balances, purchasers were readily found willing to take them at more than their proportionate share of the Government demand, and withal to pay a premium exceeding two years' revenue as purchase money. The total permanently assessed revenue of Rangpur was sikká rupees 819,621, or £88,792. This did not include Bodá, the revenue of which amounted to a lákh, or £10,833, where the settlement had been made by the Commissioner then appointed for Kuch Behar.'

Before proceeding to treat in detail of the administrative statistics of Rangpur under British rule, it may be as well to give the following brief sketch of the origin and subsequent history of the large samíndáris, which I quote from Mr. Glazier's valuable report above cited:

'BAHARBAND.—The conquest of Baharband and other tracts by the Muhammadans from the Kámrip Rájá Paríkshít, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, has been already related. Baharband was included within Rangpur in 1772, and has ever since continued to form a portion of the District, with the exception of one year, 1786-87, when, together with Idríkpur, it was formed into the small District of Gorághát. It includes the parganás of Baharband and Goálbári or Gaibári, and also a portion of Bhitárband. Baharband, with Bhitárband, had been a part of the Nattor Rájá's estate; but the latter did not come into this District from Rájsháhir until after the Permanent Settlement. From an account sent to the Committee of Revenue by Mr. Goodlad when Collector of Gorághát, it appears that Baharband, though nominally entered in the name of the Nattor Rájá, was from time to time held as a jágír by Muhammadans, and that in 1782 one Bishen Charan Nándí obtained a five years' farm of it. His successor, Loknáth Nándí, from whom the present owner, Mahárání Swarnamayí of Murshidábád, is descended, is spoken of as being the samíndáár, having ousted the old nominal possessors. It does not appear whether any purchase money was paid for the property. Loknáth was the first of the samíndárs of this District.
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who succeeded in obtaining a Permanent Settlement for his estate. It came to pass in this wise. The average collections from the estate during the five years it was farmed by Bishen Charan Nandi were Rs. 95,781. At the expiration of this period, the settlement was offered to Loknath at the average of the three preceding years' collections; but this he declined, and for two years the estate was managed by a saséwal, or attaching officer, who only collected Rs. 80,525 the first year, and Rs. 82,639 in the second. Loknath then came forward and offered to take the estate at the latter rate on a permanent lease; and the offer was accepted by the Governor-General in Council in a letter of October 20, 1779, signed by Hastings, Barwell, Francis, Wheeler, and Coote. The sanad or deed of grant recites Baharband, Bhitárband, and Gábárí as included in the grant.

'The Directors in London were very wroth at the granting of such permanent leases, and sent out peremptory orders that they were to be forthwith cancelled, but nothing of the kind was done. The Baharband zamindár was the only landed proprietor in Rangpur with a large private fortune, and he began at once that course of scientific administration which has rendered this zamindári one of the best managed in the District. During 1189 and 1190 Bengal era (1782-84 A.D.), Loknath carried out a new measurement and assessment of his estate. This relieved the lesser rayats at the expense of the more powerful ones, who had in various ways obtained possession of the best land at the lowest rates of rent, while the deficiency caused by these unfair practices had been made up by taxes, which fell most heavily on the poorer rayats. The principal men went to Calcutta to complain of the new assessment, and laid the matter before the Committee of Revenue. The following decision of the Committee in the matter is interesting, as illustrating what were then considered as the position and rights of zamindárs:—"The Committee, advertiring to the nature of a zamindár's office and the deed by which he is vested with the superintendence and collection of the revenues of a zamindári, are of opinion that he does not derive a right from either of making a hastábud of a zamindári by measurement, or of changing the ancient mode or rate of collecting the revenue, without the previous permission of Government." Notwithstanding this apparently adverse ruling, the zamindár in the end made good his point. In 1862-63, the test year of Act x. of 1859 (the Law of Landlord and Tenant), when the three years' limita-
tion began to run out, out of a total of 3133 suits for arrears of rent which took place throughout the whole District, 959 appertained to this estate.

'I DRAKPUR AND DINÁJPUR.—Idrákpur and Dinájpur, known formerly as the nine ándás and the seven ándás shares of Gorághát, were the remains of the large zamindári of that name, which at one time comprised, in its two shares, the greater part of Dinájpur District; a portion of the south of Rangpur, and nearly the whole of the present Districts of Maldah and Bográ. In the time of the emperor Aurangzeb, a century before, it also included Swarúppur and Kundí; but the former parganá afterwards became a portion of the Nattor zamindári, and Kundí became a separate estate divided among several sharers. The city of Gorághát was once the capital of the eastern Mughul Government, with a circle of collection of ninety lakhs of rupees; but the seat of Government was afterwards removed to Dacca in the reign of Jahangír. Gorághát formed the Muhammádan basis of operations whence the Rangpur chaklás were overrun by the Mughuls at the close of the seventeenth century. The site of the city is in Dinájpur District, on the west bank of the Karántyá, and extensive ruins of the place still exist, buried in thick jungle. The division of the large Gorághát estate into two shares of nine-sixteenths and seven-sixteenths is said to have been brought about by fraud. It is alleged that one of the zamindárs, Rájá Bhágwán, being an idiot, his manager (diwán), who had the same name, took advantage of the coincidence, and managed to obtain a grant of the zamindári from the Dacca Governor. A long contest ensued, which resulted in the division above mentioned,—the diwán retaining possession of the seven-sixteenths share, that of Dinájpur.

'The Dinájpur estate was put under the general charge of the Collector of Rangpur during the two years of Rájá Debi Sinh's farm, 1781-83; and the Collector was directed to reside occasionally at Dinájpur, in order to be a check on the farmer. After the interval of a single year, Dinájpur was again under Rangpur for two years more, 1784-86. In May 1786 a separate Collector was appointed for Dinájpur, and the two Districts have ever since remained distinct.

'Idrákpur, the nine-sixteenths share, was included within Rangpur in 1773, when Mr. Purling was Collector of the District. It was afterwards separated, but in 1781 was again brought into this Collectorate. It has ever since remained a part of Rangpur,
with the exception of one year, 1786-87, when it formed a portion of the Gorághát District. The revenue assessed on this zamindári fluctuated between Rs. 185,612 in 1778 Bengal era (1771-72 A.D.), Rs. 130,529 in 1181 Bengal era (1774-75 A.D.), and Rs. 160,196 in the time of Rájá Debi Sinh, at which last amount it continued. After the inundation of 1194 (1787 A.D.), a deduction of Rs. 15,000 was allowed up to 1196 (1789-90 A.D.), but discontinued on the formation of the Decennial Settlement. The Idrákapur estate has now disappeared from the map. Its sixty-nine pargáns were sold in lots early in the present century for arrears of revenue; only a few small portions remain to the descendants of the former Rájás, paying not more than an annual revenue of Rs. 2000. The Dinájpur Rájá still retains a considerable although a much reduced estate, paying an annual revenue to Government of a lákh and three-quarters of rupees.

'Swarúppur and Rangamati.—Swarúppur formed part of the Nattor zamindári in Rájsháhí, and lay as an Alsatia on the road between Rangpur and Dinájpur, a convenient refuge for evildoers. It was sold at Calcutta in 1787 for arrears of revenue, and was then transferred to this District, and has been included within it ever since. The revenue assessed on Swarúppur was sikká rupees 45,000, increasing to sikká rupees 58,680. Rangamati included what now forms the Assam District of Goálpárá. It was formed into a separate Collectorate, and transferred from Rangpur anterior to the Decennial Settlement. Included in its collections were the tributes of two small states, Bijní and Bidyágálón, which paid their tribute to the Company in elephants. There was a very great mortality among these tribute elephants. Out of seventy or eighty captured every year, seven or eight only arrived at Rangpur, and the tribute was afterwards changed into a cash one.'

Revenue and Expenditure.—Under this heading, in my Accounts of other Districts of Bengal, I have usually had to caution the reader against accepting the figures as absolutely correct. The returns furnished to me of the revenue and expenditure of Rangpur at different dates are of such a character that I think it better not to give them at all. They yield no information as to the cost of the several departments of the administration at different periods, and very little information regarding the productiveness of the various branches of the revenue. Without a large amount of manipulation, based in some cases on pure guess-work, it is impossible for me to
extract from the figures supplied to me by the local treasury any facts either of administrative or of historical value. Thus, while the details supplied to me for a single year cover twenty folio pages of manuscript, they do not enable me to ascertain the cost of the police, or of the jails, or of education, or of the administration of justice. They are, in fact, merely cash entries of 'disbursements' or 'receipts' to or from individual persons; and, however complete as a list of payments at the treasury, are not capable of being used as a record of the administrative facts of the District. I have therefore been compelled to exclude the balance-sheets thus furnished to me from the list of trustworthy materials for this Account of Rangpur District. By separate investigations and inquiries, I have arrived at the cost of the principal branches of the administration since the last years of the Company's rule. Thus, in the sections devoted respectively to education and jails, I furnish the comparative statistics as far back as 1856. No one can regret more than myself the incompleteness of my information as regards the administrative statistics of the District at different periods since it passed under our rule. But, with the single exception of the land revenue (fortunately a very important exception), I have in Rangpur had to choose between an unsafe attempt to evolve comparative statistics from materials incomplete in themselves and not susceptible of comparison, or to pass over this section of my Account altogether. I have thought the latter course the more honest one.

LAND REVENUE.—Sub-infeudation of estates has gone on rapidly under British rule. At the time of the formation of the Decennial Settlement, Rangpur District comprised 75 estates, owned by 76 separate registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total revenue to Government of Company's rupees 838,664, or £83,866, 8s. od.; average land revenue payable by each proprietor or coparcener, Rs. 11,182, or £1118, 4s. od.; average amount payable by each estate, Rs. 11,035, or £1103, 10s. od. By 1850-51 the number of estates in the District had increased to 525, owned by 1426 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total Government land revenue of Rs. 1,129,425. 8. 0, or £112,942, 10s. od.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, Rs. 2151, or £215, 2s. od.; average payment by each estate, Rs. 792, or £79, 4s. od. In 1870-71, although the actual amount of land revenue paid showed a slight decrease, owing to transfers, the number of estates and proprietors continued to show an increase. In that year there were
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555 estates, held by 1757 registered proprietors and coparceners, paying a total Government revenue of Rs. 1,075,100, or £107,510; average payment by each proprietor, Rs. 1955. 2. 0, or £195. 10s. 3d.; average payment by each estate, Rs. 611. 14. 0, or £61, 3s. 9d. In 1873 the number of estates, etc., is thus returned in Mr. Glazier's District Report already cited:—'The present number of estates on the rent-roll is 563, made up as follows:—Original number of estates settled, 72; deduct estates transferred to other Districts, 13, leaving 59 old estates remaining; new estates acquired by resumption proceedings, 125; new estates from sales, 152; new estates from partitions, 172; new estates in dried-up river beds, 23; estates transferred to Rangpur from other Districts, 32: total number of estates, 563. The present (1873) revenue-roll amounts to Rs. 974,089, or £97,408, 18s. od., of which £97,153 is derived from permanently settled and £255, 18s. od. from temporarily settled estates. The revenue payable by different classes of estates is as follows:—8 estates, with a Government assessment of less than £1 per annum, pay £3, 10s. od.; 184 estates, assessed at between £1 and £10, pay £866, 16s. od.; 215 estates, assessed at between £10 and £100, pay £9377, 8s. od.; and 156 estates, assessed at upwards of £100, pay £87,161, 4s. od. Of the whole 563 estates, 463 are held by 1229 Hindus, paying a Government rental of £87,418, 14s. od.; 54 are held by 160 Muhammadans, paying £3254, 14s. od.; 45 are held jointly by 261 Hindus and 186 Muhammadans, paying £6730, 10s. od.; and 1 is a Government estate, assessed at a revenue of £5.'

Operation of the Rent Law.—The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act x. of 1859 (the Rent Law of Bengal), or of subsequent Acts based upon it, is returned by the Collector as follows:—In 1861-62 there were 3887 original suits, besides 1051 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63, 3133 original suits and 2979 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 3597 original suits and 2534 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868-69, 3247 original suits, and 3813 miscellaneous applications.

Protection to Person and Property.—In 1850 there were four magisterial and fifteen civil and revenue courts in Rangpur District; in 1862 there were four magisterial and thirteen civil and revenue courts; in 1862, six magisterial and fourteen civil and revenue courts; and in 1870, five magisterial and fourteen civil and revenue courts. Since 1850 the administration of the District has
been conducted by three covenanted European officers. I have no statistics showing the number of courts or of European officers stationed in the District prior to 1850.

Police Protection has been steadily increased. At the time of the Permanent Settlement in 1793, the local police consisted of 38 native officers and 268 footmen; in 1840, of 45 native officers and 312 footmen; and in 1860, of 44 native officers and 322 footmen, besides 5304 village watchmen or chaukídárs. I have no returns of the number of these rural police in the District prior to 1860. The cost of officering the District police, from the rank of jamádáár (head constable) upwards, amounted in 1860 to Rs. 16,980 or £1698.

At the present day, Rangpur District is divided into sixteen police circles or thánás, as follows:—(a) In the Head-quarters Subdivision—(1) Mágiganj; (2) Nisbetganj; (3) Darwání; (4) Jaldháká; (5) Dimlá; (6) Phurubári; (7) Barábári; (8) Nágéswarí; (9) Alipur; (10) Kumárganj; (11) Malangá; (12) Pirganj. In the Bhawániganj Subdivision—(13) Bhawániganj; (14) Chilmári; (15) Sadullápur; and (16) Gobindganj. The present police force of Rangpur consists of three distinct bodies, namely, the regular or District police; a municipal police for the protection of the towns; and a village watch or rural constabulary. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies is as follows:—

The Regular Police consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—1 superior European officer, maintained at a salary of Rs. 500 a month, or £600 a year; 6 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, and 58 lower-class officers, maintained on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2715 a month, or £3258 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 42. 6. 9 a month, or £50, 18s. 1d. a year, for each subordinate officer; together with 350 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2259 a month, or £2710, 16s. od. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 7. 3 a month, or £7, 14s. 1od. a year, for each constable. The other expenses connected with the District police are—a sum of Rs. 150 a month, or £180 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent; Rs. 166. 10. 8 a month, or £200 a year, for pay and travelling allowances of his office establishment; and Rs. 685. 14. 8 a month, or £823, 2s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses,—bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Rangpur District in 1872 to Rs. 6476. 9. 4 a month, or £7771, 18s. 1od. a year, and
the total strength to 415 men of all ranks. The area of the District, as taken for the purposes of the Census of 1872, is 3476 square miles, with a total population of 2,149,972. According to these figures, the total strength of the regular police is equal to one man to every 8.37 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 5180 of the District population. The cost of maintaining this force in 1872 was equal to Rs. 22. 5. 9 or £2, 4s. 8d. per square mile of area, or 6½ pies or 3½d. per head of the population.

The Municipal Police is a small body, consisting in 1872 of 3 officers and 56 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 356 a month, or £427, 4s. od. a year. The Census Report of 1872 returns only one town as containing a population of upwards of five thousand souls, namely Rangpur, with a population of 14,845, or an average of one policeman to every 251 of the town population. The cost of the municipal police as compared with the population protected, amounted in 1872 to 4½ annas or 6½d. per head of the population.

The Rural Police or Village Watch consisted in 1872 of 5268, maintained by the villagers at an estimated total cost of Rs. 85,757 or £8575, 14s. od., equal to Rs. 24. 10. 8 or £2, 9s. 4d. per square mile of area, or to 7 pies or nearly one penny per head of the population; the strength of the force is equal to one man to every 66 of a square mile of area, or one man to every 408 of the population. Each village watchman has on an average the charge of 48 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 1. 5. 8 a month, or £1, 12s. 6d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Rangpur District consisted, at the end of 1872, of a total force of 5742 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 60 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 374 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining this force amounted in 1872 to Rs. 13,979 a month, or a total for the year of £16,774, 12s. od., equal to a charge of Rs. 48. 4. 0 or £4, 16s. 6d. per square mile of area, or 1½ annas or 1½d. per head of the population.

Working of the Police.—During the year 1872, 1928 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 915 were discovered to be false, and 330 not inquired into under section 117 of the Criminal Procedure Code. Convictions were obtained in 355
cases, or 51.97 per cent. of the 'true' cases, the proportion of 'true' cases being one to every 3148 of the population, and the proportion of cases convicted, one to every 6056 of the population; proportion of persons convicted of 'cognisable' offences, one to every 3213 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 1777 were instituted during the year, in which process issued against 1308 persons, of whom 773, or 59.09 per cent., were convicted, the proportion of persons convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences being one to every 2181 of the population.

The following details of the cases and convictions for different crimes and offences in 1872 are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases were as follow:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice—Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 1 case, no conviction, 2 persons tried; harbouring an offender, 1 case, no conviction, 1 person tried; offences against public justice, 8 cases and 5 convictions, 10 persons tried and 5 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 158 cases and 16 convictions, 116 persons tried and 79 convicted; personating a public servant or soldier, 2 cases and 1 conviction, 1 person tried and convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Murders, 6 cases and 4 convictions, 19 persons tried and 9 convicted; culpable homicide, 20 cases and 4 convictions, 31 persons tried and 7 convicted; rape, 23 cases and no conviction, 3 persons tried; unnatural offences, 1 case, 3 persons tried but none convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, 1 case, 4 persons tried but none convicted; attempt at or abetment of suicide, 4 cases and 1 conviction, 4 persons tried and 1 convicted; causing grievous hurt for the purpose of extorting property or confession, 1 case and 1 conviction, 6 persons tried and 5 convicted; grievous hurt, 50 cases and 9 convictions, 43 persons tried and 23 convicted; causing hurt by dangerous weapons, 13 cases and 6 convictions, 11 persons tried and 9 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 19 cases and 2 convictions, 18 persons tried and 8 convicted; wrongful confinement and secret restraint, 7 cases and 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and 2 convicted; selling, letting, or unlawfully obtaining a woman for prostitution, 1 case and 1 person tried, but no conviction; criminal force to public servant or woman, 16 cases and 5 convictions, 34 persons tried and 20 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, 1
case and 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and all convicted. Class III. Serious offences against person and property—Dakdiit or gang robbery, 21 cases and 4 convictions, 34 persons tried and 24 convicted; robbery in a dwelling-house, 1 case, no conviction; other robberies, 12 cases and 1 conviction, 5 persons tried and 3 convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 31 cases and 1 conviction, 21 persons tried and 1 convicted; lurking house-trespass or housebreaking with intent to commit an offence, or after having made preparation for hurt, 126 cases and 19 convictions, 37 persons tried and 24 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 2 cases, 11 persons tried but none convicted; habitually receiving stolen property, 1 case and 1 conviction, 10 persons tried and 4 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Wrongful restraint or confinement, 135 cases and 24 convictions, 137 persons tried and 55 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Lurking house-trespass or housebreaking, 7 cases and 3 convictions, 7 persons tried and 4 convicted; cattle theft, 37 cases and 24 convictions, 52 persons tried and 32 convicted; ordinary theft, 922 cases and 118 convictions, 278 persons tried and 174 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 46 cases and 3 convictions, 22 persons tried and 3 convicted; receiving stolen property, 51 cases and 51 convictions, 109 persons tried and 96 convicted; criminal or house-trespass, 170 cases and 27 convictions, 133 persons tried and 51 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Vagrancy and bad character, 8 cases and 8 convictions, 10 persons tried and 8 convicted; offences under the excise law, 20 cases and 12 convictions, 19 persons tried and 14 convicted; public and local nuisances, 5 cases and 3 convictions, 4 persons tried and 3 convicted. Total, 1928 cases and 355 convictions; percentage of cases convicted to total 'cognisable' cases, 18.41 per cent.: 1203 persons tried and 669 finally convicted; percentage of persons convicted to persons tried, 55.61 per cent.

The number of cases instituted and of persons tried and convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice, 138 cases, 217 persons tried and 176 convicted; offences by public servants, 30 cases, 34 persons tried and 17 convicted; false evidence, false complaints, and claims, 37 cases, 35 persons tried and 8 convicted; offences relating to weighing and measuring, 1 case, 2 per-
sons tried and 1 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, etc., 12 cases, 18 persons tried and all convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Causeing miscarriage, 4 cases, 1 person tried, no conviction. Class III. Serious offences against property—Extortion, 52 cases, 41 persons tried and 13 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Hurt, 71 cases, 67 persons tried and 21 convicted; criminal force, 948 cases, 583 persons tried and 356 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Cheating, 25 cases, 23 persons tried and 17 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 3 cases, 2 persons tried but none convicted; simple mischief, 98 cases, 83 persons tried and 31 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Offences relating to marriage, 234 cases, 50 persons tried and 7 convicted; offences against religion, 1 case, 5 persons tried and 4 convicted; defamation, 14 cases, 18 persons tried and 12 convicted; intimidation and insult, 5 cases, 14 persons tried and all convicted; public and local nuisances, 1 case, 1 person tried but no conviction; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii. of the Criminal Procedure Code, 44 cases, 61 persons tried and 48 convicted; offences under the Police Act, 16 cases, 15 persons tried and 12 convicted; offences under the Arms and Ammunition Act, 3 cases, 4 persons tried and 1 convicted; offences under the Census Act, 3 cases, 3 persons tried and 1 convicted; offences under the Pound Act, 37 cases, 19 persons tried and 15 convicted. Total, 1777 cases, 1297 persons tried and 773 convicted; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 59.60 per cent.

Excluding 915 'false cases,' and 330 others which were not inquired into, the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Rangpur District in 1872 was 2560, in which 2500 persons were tried and 1442 convicted, or one person convicted of an offence to every 1490 of the District population; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried in both classes of offences, 57.69 per cent.

Jail Statistics.—There are two prisons in Rangpur District, namely, the principal jail at the Civil Station of Rangpur, and a lock-up at the Subdivisional town of Bhawaniganj. The following are the statistics of the jail population of Rangpur for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. As explained in my Accounts for other Districts, owing to defects in the form in which the returns were prepared, the figures for the two former years must be received
with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness. Since 1870, however, an improved form of preparing the return has been introduced, and the figures for that year and for 1872 may be accepted as correct.

In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Rangpur jail was 413; the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 976. The discharges were as follows: — Transferred, 67; released, 775; escaped, 6; died, 65; executed, 4: total, 917. In 1860-61 the prison returns show a daily average number of 316 prisoners, the total admissions during the year being 733. The discharges were — transferred, 191; released, 621; escaped, 1; died, 39; executed, 1: total, 853. In 1870 the daily average jail population was 303, the total number of prisoners admitted during the year being 884. The discharges were — transferred, 113; released, 1043; escaped, 3; died, 35; executed, 1: total, 1195. Rangpur has always been considered an unhealthy jail, but its sanitary condition has materially increased of late years. In 1857-58 the proportion of prisoners admitted to the jail hospital amounted to 130·02 per cent., and the deaths to 65, or 15·73 per cent. of the average prison population; in 1860-61 the admissions to hospital amounted to 181·64 per cent., and the deaths to 39, or 12·34 per cent. of the average jail population; in 1870 the admissions to the jail hospital amounted to 137·29 per cent., and the deaths to 35, or 11·55 per cent. of the average jail population. In 1872, out of an average prison population of 256, the number of deaths was only 9, or 3·59 per cent., being nearly two per cent. less than the average prison death-rate throughout Bengal.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in Rangpur jail, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all other charges except the prison police guard, is returned as follows: — In 1854-55 it amounted to Rs. 39. 12. 4, or £3, 19s. 6d. per head; in 1857-58, to Rs. 40. 15. 0, or £4, 1s. 10d.; in 1860-61, to Rs. 41. 0. 7, or £4, 2s. 1d.; and in 1870-71, to Rs. 43. 4. 8 or £4, 6s. 7d. per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 10 or £1 per head, making a gross average charge to Government for that year of Rs. 53. 4. 8 or £5, 6s. 7d. per prisoner. The Inspector-General of Jails, in his report for 1870, returns the total 65+ in that year of the Rangpur jail and Bhawaniganj lock-up
(including prison police guard, but excluding cost of alterations and repairs) at Rs. 14,466, 1. 2, or £1446, 12s. 2d. Excluding the cost of the jail police guard, which is included in the general police budget of the District, the cost of the Rangpur jail in 1870 amounted to Rs. 11,725. 6. 3, or £1172, 10s. 9d.

Jail manufactures and industries have been carried on in Rangpur for over thirty years, and the work thus performed by the hard-labour prisoners now materially contributes to the maintenance of the jail. In 1854-55 the receipts arising from the sale of prison manufactures, together with the value of stock remaining on hand at the close of the year, amounted to £219, 18s. 0d., and the charges to £120, 8s. 5d., showing an excess of receipts over charges, or profit, of £99, 9s. 7d.; the average earning of each prisoner employed in manufactures amounted to Rs. 4. 8. 4, or 9s. 0½d. In 1857-58 the total receipts amounted to £191, 15s. 6d., and the charges to £119, 19s. 9d., leaving a profit of £71, 15s. 9d.; average earning of each prisoner employed on manufactures, Rs. 6. 2. 2, or 12s. 3½d. In 1860-61 the receipts amounted to £268, 15s. 7d., and the charges to £202, 5s. 2d., leaving a surplus or profit of £66, 10s. 5d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged on manufactures, Rs. 4. 9. 11, or 9s. 3d. In 1870 the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £982, 6s. 1d., and the total debits to £670, 13s. 2d., leaving a surplus or profit of £312, 1s. 11d.; average earning of each prisoner employed on manufactures, Rs. 43. 14. 3, or £4, 7s. 9d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the total cost of the jail, the net cost to Government of the Rangpur jail and lock-up in 1870 amounted to £860, 17s. 10d.

In 1872 the statistics of the jail and lock-up were as follow:—
The daily average number of civil prisoners in jail was 1,54; under-trial prisoners, 25'24; labouring convicts, 213'79; non-labouring convicts, 15'93: total, 256'50, of whom only 11'18 were females. These figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 8382 of the District population. The deaths in 1872 amounted to 9, or 3'59 per cent. of the average prison population. The total cost of the jail and lock-up in 1872, excluding public works, manufacture department, and prison guard, amounted to £1256, 19s. od., or an average of Rs. 49 or £4, 18s. od. per head of the jail population. The financial results of prison industries during the year were as follow:—The total credits amounted to £1232, 14s. 9d., and the
total debits to £933, 8s. 8d., leaving an excess of credits over debits of £299, 6s. 1d. The amount of cash remitted to the treasury, however, was only £700, 1s. od., while the actual money cost of the manufacture department amounted to £722, 15s. 7d. Out of the 21379 labouring prisoners, 92 55 were employed in manufactures, the remainder being engaged in prison duties, or were in hospital, or were weak and old and unable to labour. The prisoners actually employed in remunerative labour were distributed as follows:—Gunny weaving, 75; gardening, 13 40; cloth weaving, 4 53; brickmaking, etc., 7 19; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 15 20; oil pressing, etc., 11 93; string and twine making, 23 48; flour grinding, 3 40; carpentry, 8 90; iron works, 8 2; yarn and thread spinning, 6 8; miscellaneous, 2 27: total, 92 55.

**Educational Statistics.**—The table on the two following pages illustrates the progress of education in Rangpur District for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71. The figures must be received with caution, and are only approximately correct. I have taken every care in preparing the table, but in the Appendices to the Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction from which it has been compiled, it happens that the names of some schools are given without any details of expenditure or receipts, and of others without details of the pupils, the average monthly attendance being only given as a total. Subject to this explanation, the following table shows that the total number of Government and aided schools in the District has increased from 21, with a total of 971 pupils, in 1856-57, to 230, with a total of 5361 pupils, in 1870-71. The greatest increase is in the number of aided vernacular schools, which increased in number from 8 to 203 within the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71, and the pupils from 259 to 4242 within the same period. Since 1870 the number of these schools has been still further augmented under the system of primary instruction inaugurated by Sir George Campbell, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. This further development will be treated of on a subsequent page. The cost of education to Government has increased from £298, 18s. 9d. in 1856-57, to £2811, 3s. 1d. in 1870-71; while the amount derived from schooling fees, private subscriptions, and other local sources, has risen from £246, 19s. 8d. in 1866-67, to £1757, 18s. 1d. in 1870-71. The total expenditure on Government and aided schools, therefore, has increased from £587, 4s. 8d. [Sentence continued on page 338.
## Return of Government and Aided Schools in Rangpur District, for the Years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71.

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<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government English Schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Training School</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided English Schools</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Girls' Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*For one of these schools, no returns are given of the number of pupils or of the receipts and expenditure. In four others, no detailed return of the number of pupils is given, but simply the total monthly average. There is consequently a discrepancy between the column showing the total number of pupils and the columns of details.
## Return of Government and Aided Schools in Rangpur District—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Cost to Government</th>
<th>Amount realized by Fees and Private Contributions</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government English Schools,</td>
<td>£ 47 18 9</td>
<td>£ 120 13 11</td>
<td>£ 261 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Vernacular Schools,</td>
<td>£ 153 1 8</td>
<td>£ 106 10 10</td>
<td>£ 156 9 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Training School,</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>£ 637 12 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided English Schools,</td>
<td>£ 60 0 0</td>
<td>£ 261 0 0</td>
<td>£ 356 16 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Vernacular Schools,</td>
<td>£ 37 18 4</td>
<td>£ 7 0 0</td>
<td>£ 1290 0 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Girls' Schools,</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>£ 108 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>£ 298 18 9</td>
<td>£ 495 4 9</td>
<td>£ 2811 3 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in 1856-57, to £4509, 17s. 9d. in 1870-71. A noticeable feature in the table is the rapid extension of education among the Muhammadans in this District of late years. In 1860-61 only 287 Muhammadan lads are returned as attending the Government and aided schools, while in 1870-71, out of a total of 5361 pupils, 2574 were Musalmáns,—a considerably larger proportion of Muhammadans than in other Districts. For instance, in Rájsháhi District, where the Muhammadans form 77·7 per cent. of the population, the proportion of Musalmáns in the pupils of the Government and aided schools was only 36·8 per cent.; while in Rangpur, where the Muhammadans form 60 per cent. of the population, the proportion of Musalmán lads attending the Government and aided schools is 48 per cent. of the total number of pupils. (Vide table on the two previous pages.)

Schools in 1871-72 and 1872-73.—It must be remembered that the foregoing table only includes the Government and aided schools, but a large number of unaided schools also existed, which were uninspected by the Education Department, and from which no returns were received. Under Sir George Campbell’s improved system of primary education, a large number of these indigenous village schools, which had previously received no assistance from the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Education Department furnished statistics of 251 Government and aided schools, and of 12 private schools, attended on the 31st March 1872 by 5227 pupils; average attendance throughout the year, 3742. In 1872-73 the number of Government and aided schools was returned at 348, and the unaided schools at 66; total, 414 schools, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 7808 pupils; average attendance throughout the year, 5504. Although the number of schools has been increased more than sixty per cent., and the number of pupils nearly fifty per cent., in a single year, this improvement has been effected without appreciably augmenting the cost of education to the Government. In 1871-72 the contribution of the State for this purpose amounted to £2775, while in the following year it amounted to £3255.

The subjoined table exhibits the number, attendance, cost, etc., of each class of school in Rangpur District in 1871-72 and in 1872-73.
## Educational Statistics of Rangpur District for the Years 1871-72 and 1872-73.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils on 31st March</th>
<th>Average Attendance</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Higher Schools</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaided</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Middle Schools**      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Government              | 6       | 7       | 164     | 231     | 113     | 162     | 144     | 0       | 156     | 0       |
| Aided                  | 39      | 43      | 1187    | 1333    | 731     | 760     | 778     | 7       | 1044    | 16       |
| Unaided                | 5       | 5       | 169     | 212     | 122     | 141     | 135     | 18      | 133     | 18      |
| Total                  | 50      | 55      | 1520    | 2676    | 966     | 1063    | 1310    | 7       | 1209    | 14      |

| **Primary Schools**     |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Government              | 1       | 1       | 64      | 86      | 46      | 62      | 50      | 16      | 35      | 37      |
| Aided                  | 196     | 286     | 3163    | 4760    | 2399    | 3325    | 353     | 18      | 83      | 24      |
| Unaided                | 5       | 60      | 123     | 838     | 87      | 557     | 88      | 80      | 68      | 17      |
| Total                  | 202     | 347     | 3350    | 5713    | 2532    | 4142    | 395     | 10      | 1308    | 10      |

| Normal School           | 1       | 1       | 54      | 62      | 50      | 54      | 573     | 3      | 551     | 17      |

| Aided Artisans' School  |         |         | 9       | 9       | 5       | 5       | 3       | 0       | 3       | 0       |

| Girls' Schools          | 7       | 7       | 64      | 88      | 43      | 58      | 83      | 0       | 65      | 16      |
| Aided                  |         |         | 10      | 10      | 50      | 50      | 83      | 0       | 66      | 16      |
| Unaided                | 8       | 7       | 74      | 88      | 43      | 52      | 83      | 0       | 66      | 16      |
| Total                  | 15      | 14      | 138     | 176     | 86      | 110     | 166     | 15      | 140     | 15      |

| Grand Total            | 253     | 474     | 5297    | 7808    | 3742    | 5504    | 3775    | 12      | 3855    | 9      |

From other Sources: £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.
Total: £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.  £ s. d.
The following paragraphs are quoted almost verbatim from the Inspector's Report (pp. 136-137 of the Annual Report of the Education Department) for 1872-73:

'Higher-Class Schools.—There are three higher schools in this District,—the Government District school, the aided Tusbandar school, and the unaided Ulipur school, which is supported entirely by Mahárání Swarnamayí of Kásimbázár in Murshidábád, who owns large estates in Rangpur. 'The zilá or District school was founded in 1832 by the local zamíndárs, who subscribed £2500 for the purpose, the Rájá of Kuch Behar giving a large two-storied house for the school building. In 1862, Government took the school in hand, and the balance of the old subscriptions of the zamíndárs, between £1800 and £1900, was invested so as to form a permanent endowment. The Vice-President of the District School Committee says that the school did well when under its European master. It then sunk for a time, but is again rising under its present native head-master. The Government grant to the school was somewhat reduced during 1872-73, and the number of classes was also diminished by one. The District Committee propose to reduce one class more, by amalgamating the last two classes into one, to be taught by a better-paid teacher than at present. The roll number of the school is 160, and the average attendance 114. At the last entrance examination for the Calcutta University, four boys from this school passed, namely, one in the first, two in the second, and one in the third division. Two of the successful candidates obtained second-grade scholarships.

'The aided school at Tusbandar became a high school only in the course of 1872-73. The Government grant to this school is £4 per month, the zamíndárs' subscriptions being £14, 8s. od. per month. This school sent up three candidates at the last entrance examination, but they all failed to pass. Better results may be looked for when the school is older. The Ulipur higher-class school has 44 pupils on its rolls. It is entirely supported by Mahárání Swarnamayí, but has long been under Government supervision.

'Middle Schools.—Of the fifty-five middle-class schools in this District, nine only teach English. These schools seem to have but small success at the minor scholarship examinations, and to do but indifferently on the whole. This is attributed to the difficulty of obtaining qualified teachers of English on small pay. The middle-class vernacular schools are spoken of more favourably. They do
not, however, send up a sufficient number of candidates to the vernacular scholarship examinations, a fact which the Deputy-Inspector accounts for by stating that "as soon as the boys reach the highest class, they take posts as patwários or gumáshítás." These posts are very seldom given to or sought after by schoolboys in other Districts. The Vice-President of the District Committee proposes to move some of these schools to the parts of the District which are at present most backward in education. The aided vernacular schools are also doing well. They are generally under Normal School pupils, who are reported to be much respected by the people. The proportion of Muhammadan pupils is also said to be increasing in these schools. Regarding the attendance at middle-class aided schools, the District Committee's Report states: "The attendance does not exceed 69 per cent. This is not as it should be, but is owing to the boys being kept away in large numbers during the sowing season and other emergencies of agricultural life, and also on the occasions of festivals." It would seem, therefore, that in Rangpur our middle schools succeed in attracting a large percentage of the children of agriculturists. Five unaided vernacular schools of the middle class are under inspection by the Education Department. These are also doing well, especially the Kailás Ranján school at the Civil Station, which was at first a Government school, but is now entirely supported by the zamindár of Kánkiná. Two páthsálás—one an old "5-rupee páthsálá," and the other the model páthsálá attached to the District training school—are also reckoned as middle schools. The 5-rupee páthsálá passed one boy, and the model páthsálá three boys, at the last vernacular scholarship examination.

'Primary Schools.—There are 178 old 5-rupee páthsálás in the District, regarding which the Vice-President of the District School Committee reports as follows:—"The teachers are trained men from the Rangpur Training School, and are, as a rule, well up to their work. I have visited some of the schools, and was satisfied with the teaching. The schools, however, are often short-lived; the interest of the villagers wears away, and the teachers go elsewhere. To counteract this tendency, good and constant supervision is needed. . . . The attendance is irregular, as the bulk of the pupils belong to the agricultural population." There are 28 night páthsálás for day-labourers. The teachers are the same as those in the day páthsálás, who get an extra monthly allowance of one rupee (2s.) for every ten scholars. The progress of these night schools is
not good. The number of new primary schools opened out under the orders of Sir George Campbell in September 1872 is 81, which on the 31st March 1873 had a roll of 1595 pupils. Almost the whole number of these pupils belong to the lower classes, and the Muhammadan pupils outnumber the Hindus. The teachers appointed are 30 ex-pupils of the Training School, 25 gurumahāsyaśs, 17 ex-pupils of normal and vernacular schools, 5 postmasters, and 5 patwāрис.

'INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.—There are a great number of indigenous schools in the District. At present (March 1873), 60 have been visited. Of these, 36 are maktabs or Muhammadan schools, where Persian and Arabic are taught; and 24 are called chaupāрис, six of them taught by Muhammadans and the rest by Hindus. The Vice-President thinks that these schools do not constitute a tenth part of those actually at work in the District.

'NORMAL SCHOOLS.—There is one school in the Civil Station for the training of village teachers. It was opened in 1865, and has sent out 255 pupils. "The majority of those who have passed from this school," says the Vice-President, "are at work as teachers. We have 177 schools taught by them in this District, and there are some more of them in Jalpāgurū and Bogrā. Some, however, have betaken themselves to other pursuits. . . . As Government has gone to a considerable expense in training these men, some security should be obtained that they devote themselves to teaching for a few years at least. . . . The school has done excellent work, and most of the spread of mass education in the neighbourhood of the Civil Station may fairly be ascribed to its influence; but there remains a still larger work to be done in the future."

'ARTISAN SCHOOL.—An artisan's school received a grant-in-aid late in the year. It does not seem to be yet (March 1873) fully at work. The zamindārs have made a donation of £50 for the construction of a schoolhouse, and they contribute subscriptions to the extent of £6, 10s. od. a month for the support of the school. The teaching consists of reading, writing, and accounts, together with carpenters', tailors', and blacksmiths' arts. I hope that ere long some connection may be established between this school and the District Training School, both of which have for their ultimate object the improvement of the working classes. Perhaps the success of this one artisan school may lead to the opening of schools of the same kind in other Districts.'

POSTAL STATISTICS.—There has been a very considerable increase
POSTAL STATISTICS.

in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62, the earliest year for which trustworthy statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books received at the Rangpur post office has more than doubled. In 1861-62, the total letters, newspapers, books, etc., received at the Rangpur post office was 97,992, which in 1870-71 increased to 201,207. The number despatched was 80,627 in 1861-62, and 94,407 in 1865-66. I have not been able to obtain the number of letters, etc. despatched from the District post office in 1870-71. The revenue and expenditure of the local post office have both doubled since 1860-61. The total postal receipts amounted to £786, 16s. 7d. in 1861-62, and £1583, 19s. 11d. in 1870-71, exclusive of £135, 9s. 11d., receipts from sale of stamps for official correspondence, making a total revenue from the Rangpur post office in 1870-71 of £1719, 9s. 10d. The postal expenditure amounted to £743, os. 2d. in 1861-62, and to £1408, 16s. 10d. in 1870-71. In the latter year, therefore, the postal service of the District resulted in a profit of £310, 13s. 6d. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, newspapers, books, etc., received at and despatched from the Rangpur post office, together with the postal receipts and expenditure, for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices:—

Postal Statistics of Rangpur District.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Despatched</td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Despatched</td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Despatched</td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Despatched</td>
<td>Received</td>
<td>Despatched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letters,</td>
<td>85,722</td>
<td>75,862</td>
<td>72,925</td>
<td>89,843</td>
<td>186,141</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Newspapers,</td>
<td>8,287</td>
<td>4,074</td>
<td>8,031</td>
<td>3,124</td>
<td>7,994</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parcels,</td>
<td>2,820</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>1,207</td>
<td>1,013</td>
<td>4,435</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books,</td>
<td>1,163</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>1,143</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>2,637</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>97,992</td>
<td>80,627</td>
<td>83,306</td>
<td>94,407</td>
<td>201,207</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sale of postage stamps,</td>
<td>£339 9 11</td>
<td>£628 9 2</td>
<td>£720 9 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash collections,</td>
<td>447 6 8</td>
<td>922 11 6</td>
<td>863 10 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total postal receipts,</td>
<td>786 16 7</td>
<td>1551 0 8</td>
<td>1583 19 11*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total postal expenditure,</td>
<td>743 0 2</td>
<td>1525 16 7</td>
<td>1408 16 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Exclusive of receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £135, 9s. 11d. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.
Savings Bank.—A District savings bank was established in Rangpur town in 1871-72. The amount of deposits during the first year it was open amounted to £702, 18s. od. from 21 depositors; the withdrawals amounted to £59.

Money Order Office.—There is also a money order office at the Civil Station. The particulars of the transactions in 1871-72 are as follow:—Number of orders issued, 2151; amount of orders issued, £14,121, 12s. 9d.; amount of commission received, £149, 1s. 3d.; number of orders paid, 495; amount of orders paid, £4213, 2s. 10d.

Political Divisions.—For administrative purposes, Rangpur District is divided into the two following Subdivisions. The population figures are derived from statements IA and IB to the Appendix to the Census Report of 1872. The administrative statistics are taken from the special report furnished to me by the Collector:—

The Sadr or Headquarters Subdivision contained in 1872 a total area of 2687 square miles, and a total population of 1,718,226 souls, residing in 2970 villages or townships, and inhabiting 256,527 houses. Out of the total subdivisional population, 994,320 or 57'9 per cent. were Muhammadans, namely, 510,184 males and 484,136 females; proportion of males in the total Musalmán population, 51'3 per cent. The Hindus numbered 723,076, or 42'1 per cent. of the subdivisional population, namely, 364,559 males and 358,517 females; proportion of males in total Hindus, 50'4 per cent. The Buddhist population comprised 50 souls, namely, 36 males and 14 females; proportion of males in total Buddhist population, 72'0 per cent. The Christians numbered 71, namely, 34 males and 37 females; proportion of males in total Christian population, 47'9 per cent. The remaining population, consisting of people belonging to other denominations, and not classified separately in the Census Report, is returned at 709, namely, 105 males and 604 females; proportion of males in total 'others,' 14'8 per cent. Proportion of males of all denominations in total subdivisional population, 50'9 per cent.; average density of the population, 639 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1'11; average number of persons per village, 579; average number of houses per square mile, 95; average number of persons per house, 6'7. The Subdivision comprises the twelve police circles (thá纳斯) of Máihsganj, Nisbetganj, Darwáni, Jaldháká, Dimlá, Phuranbári, Barabári, Nágéswarí, Alipur, Kumárganj, Malángá, and Pírganj. In 1870-71 it contained twelve magisterial and revenue courts, a
regular police force of 337 men, and a rural constabulary of 4326 men.

**Bhawaniganj Subdivision** was constituted in 1857. In 1872 it contained a total area of 789 square miles, and a total population of 431,746 souls, residing in 1236 villages or townships, and inhabiting 74,552 houses. Out of the total subdivisional population, 297,145 or 68·8 per cent. were Muhammadans, namely, 151,959 males and 145,186 females; proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 51·1 per cent. The Hindus numbered 134,222, or 31·1 per cent. of the population, namely, 68,002 males and 66,220 females; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 50·7 per cent. The Buddhist population consisted of 10 males and 1 female; and the Christians of 2 males and 2 females. The remainder of the population was made up of other denominations not separately classified in the Census Report, numbering 366, namely, 135 males and 231 females; proportion of males, 36·8 per cent. Proportion of males of all denominations in total subdivisional population, 51·0 per cent.; average density of population, 547 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1·57; average number of persons per village or township, 349; average number of houses per square mile, 94; average number of persons per house, 5·8. The Subdivision comprises the four police circles of Bhawáníganj, Chilmári, Sadullápur, and Gobindganj. In 1870-71 it contained two magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 77 men, and a village watch of 1001 men.

**Fiscal Divisions.**—The Fiscal Divisions (*pargands*) comprised in Rangpur District, with the area in acres, amount of land revenue, and crops in each, have been given in detail, in a tabular form, at pp. 256-259.

**Medical Topography: Climate, etc.**—The climate of Rangpur is generally malarious, owing to the numerous stagnant swamps and marshes filled with decaying vegetable matter. Diseases are most prevalent in the winter and rainy months, but during the remainder of the year the atmosphere is clear and dry, and the District is not then unhealthy. The interior tracts are said to be far more healthy than the neighbourhood of Rangpur town. The Civil Surgeon, in 1870, returned the average temperature of the District to be as follows:—Maximum, 87°; minimum, 76°; mean, 81·5°. The average annual rainfall for the ten years previous to 1872 was 88.45 inches. The Meteorological Department returns the follow-
ing as the total monthly rainfall at the Civil Station of Rangpur in 1871:—January and February, nil; March, 2'30 inches; April, 1'40 inch; May, 7'90 inches; June, 21'40 inches; July, 27'80 inches; August, 13'40 inches; September, 19'50 inches; October, 0'45 inch; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 94'15 inches. In the following year, 1872, the monthly rainfall at the Civil Station was returned as follows:—January, nil; February, 0'10 inch; March, 0'61 inch; April, 1'73 inch; May, 10'89 inches; June, 16'49 inches; July, 16'56 inches; August, 13'54 inches; September, 17'64 inches; October, 8'69 inches; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 86'25 inches. In the same year, 1872, the rainfall at the Headquarters of the Bhawániganj Subdivision was returned as follows:—January, February, and March, nil; April, 3'40 inches; May, 4'23 inches; June, 15'57 inches; July, 25'78 inches; August, 5'49 inches; September, 18'23 inches; October, 6'87 inches; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 79'57 inches.

DISEASES.—The prevailing diseases of Rangpur District are malarious fever and elephantiasis. The fever is lingering, usually attended with spleen and liver complications, and although sometimes of a very obstinate character, is not particularly fatal. Elephantiasis is the result of the humid condition of the country, and generally appears in the form of glands among the females, and hydrocele among the males. Within the past few years there have been repeated outbreaks of cholera; at every police station and outpost cholera-pills are kept for distribution to the patients, and in special cases native doctors are sent into the villages to render assistance. The Civil Surgeon, in his report on the health of the District in 1871, states that in that year 'there was a great deal of cholera, and an unusual prevalence of fever. Cholera prevailed in two seasons under two different conditions of the atmosphere, namely, in April and May, when the vicissitudes of temperature are extreme between the days and nights, and in November and December, when the sudden setting in of wet and dewy nights affects the badly housed and insufficiently clothed people. In April and May the mean daily range of the thermometer was 30'66° and 63'01°, and the deaths from cholera were 262 and 242 respectively. Again, in November and December, the mean of the daily minimum range of the thermometer was 63'90° and 54'48°, while the deaths from cholera were 55 and 112 respectively.' The next year, 1872, was also a
very unhealthy one, and was marked by several severe outbreaks of cholera in different parts of the District. The following tables and paragraphs regarding the mortality and principal diseases prevalent in 1871-72 are taken from the Report of the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Krishna Dhán Ghosh, published in the Report on the Charitable Dispensaries under the Government of Bengal for the year 1872:

**TABLE SHOWING THE REGISTERED MORTALITY IN RANGPUR DISTRICT IN 1872 AS COMPARED WITH 1871.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Cholera</th>
<th>Small-pox</th>
<th>Fevers</th>
<th>Bowel Complaints</th>
<th>Injuries, Accidents</th>
<th>All other causes</th>
<th>Total Deaths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First half-year of 1871</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>1796</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First half-year of 1872</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3401</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>3958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second half-year of 1871</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2174</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second half-year of 1872</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3008</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>5325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deaths of 1871</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>3970</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>5492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deaths of 1872</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>6409</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>9283</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Civil Surgeon makes the following comments upon the foregoing table:—"Even if allowance is made for better arrangements and greater accuracy in the registration in 1872 than in 1871, still it can be inferred that the year under report was more unhealthy than the year previous to it, the total number of registered deaths being 9283 in 1872 against 5492 in 1871. The greater unhealthiness in 1872 is due to the prevalence of cholera and fevers, while the deaths from bowel complaints and injuries show a striking sameness in number in the two years. Deaths from fevers in 1872 were nearly twice as many, and those from cholera nearly three times as many, as in 1871. Comparing the mortality from the two prevalent diseases, cholera and fevers, month by month, as in the following table, it will be seen that cholera, like fever, is an endemic of the District; that in certain seasons of the year it breaks out in the form of an epidemic, and causes much havoc in certain localities. In 1871 there were two such outbreaks. The first began suddenly in April, and lasted till the middle of June; and the second occurred in November, and lasted till the end of January 1872. Last year (1872) the disease showed some signs of an outbreak in May, but did not really become active until July, after
which it has been regularly changing site, and is still (1873) prevailing in the north of the District on the borders of Kuch Behar. Fever also displayed greater virulence in 1872 than in the previous year. It increased about the end of the rainy season of 1871, and prevailed till the middle of the following February, after which the disease began to subside. About the middle of September it again became very prevalent, and raged during the whole of the cold weather of 1872.'

**TABLE SHOWING MONTHLY MORTALITY FROM FEVERS AND CHOLERA DURING EACH MONTH IN 1871 AND 1872.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONTHS</th>
<th>Cholera.</th>
<th>Fever.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1871</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>747</td>
<td>2020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Civil Surgeon gives the following brief history of the outbreaks of cholera in 1871 and 1872:—'Towards the close of the year 1871, cholera was raging badly in the eastern parts of the District between the Brahmaputra and Tístá, comprising the police stations of Bhawaníganj, Chilmári, Ulípur, and Nágèswarí; but it raged with the greatest virulence on the borders of the Brahmaputra and in the country situated between the junction of the Dharlá with that river above Bagwá, and that of the Tístá near Kámárjaní below, and here it remained almost till the end of February 1872. The disease then subsided for a time. An increased number of cases began to be reported from Bhawaníganj, Chilmári, and Kámárjaní in May, but it did not assume the shape of an outbreak until the second week of July, when it broke out at Solmári, upon the ri...
MEDICAL CHARITIES.

Tístá, lying between the adjoining police stations of Pharunbári and Jaldháká. From this point it branched off and extended to the east about 13 miles to Pharunbári, and about 10 miles to the west and south to Kisoríganj. This western extension not only caused much havoc in the villages lying between Jaldháká and Kisoríganj, but propagated itself and affected the neighbouring tháns of Máchíganj, Nisbetganj, and Kúmárganj on the south, Darwání on the west, and Dimlá on the north. This outbreak lasted four months and a half, within which time there were 391 cases reported from the jurisdiction of Jaldháká alone. Although the disease subsided, a few cases continued to be reported from every one of these police stations up to the end of the year. When the disease was subsiding in the west, another outbreak was reported from the eastern part of the District at Bhawaníganj, and a third from the north-east at Nageswárf and the adjoining outpost of Phulkumár. In the former outbreak, which has now passed away, the disease raged in nine villages, all within a radius of two miles from the police station of Bhawaníganj, and lasted about nine weeks, the number of cases reported being 513. In the latter, 429 cases were reported up to the end of 1872; but the disease is still (1873) continuing rather badly, and a native doctor is giving relief to the people affected.

MEDICAL CHARITIES.—The table on the next page illustrates the relief afforded by the charitable dispensaries of the District in the year 1872, showing also the proportion of the cost borne by Government, together with the amount realized by private subscriptions or from other local sources.

The following paragraphs exhibit in fuller detail the amount of medical relief afforded by the charitable dispensaries mentioned in the foregoing table. The information is derived from the Charitable Dispensaries Report for the years 1871 and 1872:

RANGPUR DISPENSARY: established in 1847. This institution is supported by the proceeds of endowments invested in Government securities, yielding a fixed annual income of £68, 14s. od., supplemented by local subscriptions. Government pays the salary of the native doctor, and furnishes European medicines free of charge. The hospital building is a two-roomed brick house with thatched verandahs all round, two sides of which are converted into rooms by means of mat walls. The house is the property of the Dispensary Committee, but is stated to be too small for the purposes

[Sentence continued on p. 351.]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dispensaries</th>
<th>When Established</th>
<th>Total Patients Treated</th>
<th>In-door Patients</th>
<th>Out-door Patients</th>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>Total income, excluding value of medicines, etc., supplied by Govt., of charge, and Salaries of native doctors at Rangpur and Māhīganj</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Paid from other sources</th>
<th>Total Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Rangpur Dispensary</td>
<td>1847</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>139 ...</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15'69</td>
<td>9'32</td>
<td>5378</td>
<td>33'48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Bhawānīganj Dispensary</td>
<td>1863</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... ...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>4'9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Māhīganj Branch Dispensary</td>
<td>1868</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... ...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4373</td>
<td>27'9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Bātāsun Dispensary</td>
<td>1867</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... ...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2117</td>
<td>18'7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Ulpur Branch Dispensary</td>
<td>1867</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... ...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2643</td>
<td>47'03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Kānkīna Dispensary</td>
<td>1871</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3'7</td>
<td>3'51</td>
<td>3612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14'08</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>18459</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHARITABLE DISPENSARIES.

Sentence continued from p. 349.] for which it is designed. In 1872 a sum of £360 was collected by the Civil Surgeon for the purpose of adding a large general ward. He hopes also to be able to provide proper arrangements for seeing out-door patients, better accommodation for females, a separate place for moribund patients, and a good deadhouse. In 1871 the total number of in-door patients treated amounted to 155, of whom 125 were cured or relieved, 26 died, and 4 remained in hospital at the close of the year; average daily number of sick, 9.12. The out-door patients receiving treatment in the same year amounted to 5965, the average daily attendance being 29.93. In the following year, 1872, the figures of relief were as follow:—Total in-door patients treated, 172; cured, 139; died, 27; remaining in hospital at close of the year, 6; daily average number of sick, 9.32. The out-door patients numbered 5378 in 1872, the average daily attendance being 38.48. The high death-rate in the hospital department, namely, 16.7 per cent. in 1871, and 15.7 per cent. in 1872, is owing to the fact that most of the fatal cases were patients who were brought in in a moribund state.

Mahiganj Branch Dispensary: established in 1868. The Civil Surgeon reports of this institution in 1872 as follows:—'This is an out-door dispensary situated in the heart of the old town of Rangpur, in the neighbourhood of a large market; its distance from the Civil Station is only four miles. As the dispensary is an important one from its situation, I visited it twice a week throughout the year, and this caused a considerable improvement in the attendance. The financial condition is very fair; and the local subscriptions for the year not only sufficed to meet the increasing demands of the institution, but left a surplus of a few hundred rupees.' The salary of the native doctor is paid by Government, and European medicines, etc. are supplied free of charge. There is no accommodation for in-door patients. The total out-door patients treated in 1871 amounted to 3809, the average daily attendance being 18. In the following year the number of patients who received treatment increased to 4373, the daily average attendance being 27.9. The management of the dispensary is in the hands of a committee, composed of the Magistrate, Civil Surgeon, and some zamindārs and bankers residing in the town.

Kankina Dispensary: established in June 1871 by the late zamindār of Kānkina, and now maintained by his brother and suc-
cessor, who meets all the expenses of the institution, Government supplying only the European medicines. In the seven months of 1871 subsequent to its establishment, 3023 patients received treatment at this dispensary, the average daily attendance being 41.21. In 1872 an in-door department was added, in which, during the last six months of the year, 27 patients were treated, of whom 21 were cured, 2 were not improved or ceased to attend, 1 died, and 3 remained in hospital at the end of the year; average daily number of sick, 3.51. The out-door patients receiving treatment in 1872 numbered 3612, with an average daily attendance of 36.62.

ULIPUR BRANCH DISPENSARY: established in 1867 by Maháráni Swarnamayi, and since maintained at that lady’s entire expense. The management of the Dispensary is conducted by the superintendent of the Maháráni’s Rangpur estates, with the assistance and advice of the Civil Surgeon. In 1871 there was no accommodation for in-door patients. The number of out-door patients receiving treatment in 1871 was 3887, the average daily attendance being 54.50. In the following year an in-door department was added, but was not finished by the end of the year. The in-door patients receiving treatment in 1872 numbered 2643, the average daily attendance being 47.03.

BHAWANIGANJ DISPENSARY: established in 1863. It only provides out-door relief, the number of patients receiving treatment being 256 in 1871, the average attendance being 3.96. In the following year 336 out-door patients received relief, the average daily attendance being 4.9.

BATASUN BRANCH DISPENSARY: established in 1867, and since maintained by the liberality of the local zamindár, Government only supplying European medicines and surgical instruments, etc. It has no accommodation for in-door patients. In 1871 it afforded out-door relief to 2105 patients, the daily average attendance being 16.95. In 1872, 2117 persons were treated; average daily attendance, 18.71.
STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

of

THE DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR
STATISTICAL ACCOUNT
OF THE
DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR.¹

DINAJPUR, the north-westernmost District of the Rájsháhi Kuch-Behar Commissionership or Division, is situated between 24° 43' 40" and 26° 22' 50" north latitude, and between 88° 4' 0" and 89° 21' 5" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, as

¹ My Account of Dinájpur District is chiefly derived from the following sources:—
(1) Answers to my five series of questions, furnished by successive District Officers.
(3) Bengal Census Report of 1872, by Mr. H. Beverley, C.S., with subsequent District Compilation by Mr. C. F. Magrath, C.S.
(4) Reports of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhi Division for 1871-72 and 1872-73.
(6) Special Report by the Collector on the Rates of Rent prevailing for land growing ordinary crops, dated 31st July 1872.
(11) Annual Reports of the Meteorological Department for 1871 and 1872.
(12) Medical Report furnished by the Civil Surgeon of the District in 1870.
(13) Annual Reports on the Charitable Dispensaries of Bengal for 1871 and 1872.
(14) Statement of Areas, Latitudes, and Longitudes, etc., furnished by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal and the Surveyor-General.
(15) Resolution by the Government of Bengal on the Boat Traffic of Bengal, dated 18th October 1875.

The valuable materials contained in the ms. compilations of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton have not been used in this Account, as they have been reserved for a separate publication by Mr. E. V. Westmacott, C.S., the present Collector of the District.
returned by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal in November 1874, of 4095.14 square miles, exclusive of the basins of the large rivers. The area as taken for the purposes of the Census was 4126 square miles, but that estimate was only an approximate one. For the sake of uniformity, however, I have adopted the Census area in all my calculations of percentages and averages based upon the population. The total population of Dinajpur District, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,501,924 persons. The Civil Station and Administrative Headquarters of the District is at Dinajpur town, situated on the east bank of the Purnabhâbâ river, just below the point of its confluence with the Dhâpâ river, in 25° 38' 0" north latitude and 88° 40' 46" east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—Dinajpur District is a triangular tract of country, with the acute angle towards the north, lying between the Districts of Jalpaiguri and Rangpur on the east and Purniah on the west, and in the south bordering on parts of Maldah, Râjshâhî, and Bogrâ Districts. The details of the boundaries were returned to me by the Collector in 1870 as follows:—On the north-east it is bounded by chakhâ Bodâ in Jalpaiguri District, and by parganâs Káziññât, Kundí, Batásun, and Barâbâl in Rangpur District, the rivers Sulâ, Bholâr, Tistâ, and Karatóyan forming successively the boundary-line; on the south-east by parganâs Mukhtipur, Gorâghât, Khângâon, Sagunâ, and Fathijangpur in Bogrâ District; on the south by parganâs Bárâbâkpur and Jiáisindhu in Râjshâhî, and by parganâs Bánisdol-Paltapur, Shikárpur, Ajhôr, Kásimpur, Râjnagar, and Bhaleswarî in Maldah District; and on the west by parganâs Surjyâpur, Bârâr, and Hâtandâ in Purniah District, the rivers Nâgâr and Mahánandâ forming a natural boundary-line.

THE JURISDICTION of Dinajpur has undergone considerable changes. When, by the transfer to the East India Company of the diwâni or financial control of Bengal, this District came under British administration, it was notorious for the lawlessness of its inhabitants. In order to enable the administration to cope successfully with the dakhís or gang robbers who infested the roads and rivers, the limits of the District were gradually circumscribed. Mr. Sisson, who administered Dinajpur in 1814, has left his name as the first founder of order. He put down crime and established a night watch.

Certain differences have always existed between the revenue, magisterial, and civil jurisdictions. The cause of this arises from
the fact that the criminal jurisdiction is regulated by the natural boundaries of the District, and the revenue jurisdiction by the old division of the land into parganas. The numerous fluctuations in the jurisdiction are set forth in the following statement of the various fiscal changes which have taken place in Dinajpur District between 1787 and 1870, as ascertained from the Collectorate records:—(1) In 1787-88, several mahals or estates, yielding a Government revenue of £14,625 per annum, were transferred to Dinajpur from Murshidabad. Of the estates thus transferred, pargana Silbarsá is now in part subject to the Maldah Collectorate and in part to that of Rájsháhi. Most of these estates are at present in Rájsháhi District, a portion of Bárbakpur pargana alone being now included within Dinajpur. (2) In 1789-90, certain other estates, yielding an annual Government rental of £647, 6s. od., were transferred to Dinajpur from Murshidabad. All these, however, have since been annexed to Rájsháhi District. (3) In 1793-94, considerable changes were effected. Dinajpur received from Murshidabad several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £27,578, 2s. od.; from Rájsháhi, estates assessed at £851, 6s. od.; from Bhágalpur, estates assessed at £7303, 16s. od.; and from Purniah, estates assessed at £12,234, 4s. od. All these annexations still form part of the District. (4) In the following year, 1794-95, several transfers were made from Dinajpur to other Districts. To Rájsháhi were transferred certain estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £17,720, 18s. od.; to Purniah, estates yielding £6695, 4s. od.; to Rangpur, estates yielding £902, 12s. od.; and to Bardwán, estates yielding £30. (5) In 1797-98, several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £3132, 16s. od., were separated from Dinajpur and annexed to Purniah. (6) In 1799-1800, several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £11,853, were annexed to Dinajpur District from Rangpur. In the same year, estates yielding a revenue of £2237, 6s. od. were separated from Dinajpur and transferred to Rájsháhi. (7) In the following year, 1800-1, the process was reversed, and Dinajpur made over to Rangpur several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £16,549. (8) A long pause followed this change, for it was not till 1833-34 that further transfers appear to have taken place. In that year Dinajpur transferred to Bográ estates yielding an annual Government rental of £519, 4s. od.; and to Maldah, estates yielding a revenue of £4146, 6s. od. (9) In 1834-35, Bográ received from
Dinajpur a further transfer of estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £602, 6s. od. (10) In 1864-65, pargana Khattá, with 122 estates and a Government land revenue of £4715, 12s. od., was detached from Dinajpur and annexed to Bográ. (11) In 1868-69, Bográ received a further addition from Dinajpur, by the transfer of several other estates, yielding an annual Government land revenue of £1674, 8s. od. (12) At the date of the Collector’s Report (March 1870), the last change had occurred in 1869-70, when a number of estates, yielding an annual Government land revenue of £1023, 1os. od., were separated from Dinajpur and attached to Maldah District.

General Aspect of the District.—Dinajpur District presents no special natural features. The country is generally flat, but towards the south becomes undulating, some of the elevations being about a hundred feet in height. These undulations continue beyond the southern limits of the District as far as the Ganges, and are even reproduced on the southern bank of that river. The Collector thinks it probable that they were caused by the same volcanic action which produced the range known as the Rájmáhal Hills. There are also some undulations to the north of the town of Dinajpur, and again to the north-west, running in a line parallel with the Kulik river. The District is traversed in every direction by a network of rivers and water-courses, but, except in the neighbourhood of the Kulik river, presents no picturesque scenery. Along the course of that stream, the undulating ridges alluded to above, and the long lines of mango trees which have been planted, give the face of the country an aspect of beauty which is not found in other parts of the District. There are not many large bils or marshes in Dinajpur, except those which are caused by the overflow of the rivers during the rains, and which at that time are in actual connection with the rivers. They become quite dry, however, about the end of February. The shallow valleys, through which run the numerous rivers traversing the District, have a width of about two or three miles. The soil of these valleys consists of a rich loam resting on clay of a light colour, which at various points along the course of the Karatóyá gives place to a reddish-coloured clay. The whole District forms part of the rich arable tract lying between the Ganges and the southern slopes of the Himálayas. As might be expected from its vicinity to the sub-Himálayan ranges, the country has a gradual slope from north to south.
RIVER SYSTEM.—Although essentially a fluvial District, Dinájpur does not possess any river navigable by boats of a hundred *maunds*, or between three and four tons burden, throughout the year; but the following rivers are navigable by such boats during the rainy season:—(1) Mahánandá, (2) Nágar, (3) Kulik, (4) Tángan, (5) Chhirámati, (6) Purnabhábá, (7) Dhápá, (8) Bráhmání, (9) Atrái, (10) Garbheswarí, (11) Kánkra, (12) Jamuná, and (13) Karátoyá. About thirty other rivers are navigable by boats of fifty *maunds*, or two tons burden, during the rainy season. The rivers, as a rule, run in the cold weather through comparatively deep and narrow channels, and at this time are fordable at a great number of points. In the rains they frequently overflow their banks, and give the District the appearance of a succession of long narrow marshes. At this season, boats of fifty *maunds* burden penetrate into almost every part of the District, and carry away the surplus crops of the previous cold weather to the markets farther to the south. The following is a brief description of each of the principal rivers:

The Mahánandá, after flowing through Purniah District, touches on Dinájpur near the small village of Mokundpur in the police circle (*thánda*) of Hémtábád, and, running southwards, forms the western boundary of Dinájpur for a distance of from twenty-five to thirty miles, leaving the District at its extreme south-west corner. Its principal tributaries on the Dinájpur bank are the Nágar, swollen by the waters of the Kulik, and the Hingalbhágá. The bed of the Mahánandá is sandy, and its banks are alternately sloping and abrupt, as the current sets from one side of the river to the other. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the course of the river, are reported to have taken place. The river is nowhere fordable during the rains, but in the cold weather may be crossed on foot at several points. The large grain mart of Churáman is situated on the east or left bank of the Mahánandá.

The Nágar approaches Dinájpur District from Purniah at its extreme northernmost point, and flows southwards for about ninety miles, marking the boundary between Dinájpur and Purniah, till it falls into the Mahánandá at the point where the latter river first touches on Dinájpur. The Nágar is navigable by large cargo boats during the rainy season, and by small boats and canoes throughout the year. Its principal tributaries on the eastern or
Dinajpur bank are the Pátki, Singiá, Tiláí, Nuná, Gandar, Kayá, and Kulik rivers, the last being by far the most important. The bed of the river is rocky near the northern extremity of the District, but becomes sandy as the stream proceeds southwards; its banks are sloping, and for the most part are waste and uncultivated. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the river course, are reported to have taken place. The stream is fordable in the cold and hot seasons, but not during the rains.

The Kulik is the principal tributary of the Nágar. It takes its rise in a marsh in the north-west of the police circle (tháná) of Thákurgáon, and after running a course of thirty-six miles through the thánás of Ráníshankál, Pirganj, and Hemtábád, falls into the Nágar near the village of Goráháír, near the point where the latter river joins the Mahánandá. It receives on its east bank the Kalái, which flows into it from the north-west. The important grain-mart of Ráigánj is situated on the Kulik. Its bed is sandy, and its banks, which are sloping, are almost entirely under jungle, and uncultivated.

The Tángan enters Dinajpur District from Jalpaiguri on its extreme northern boundary, near the village of Pánbárá, and, after intersecting the thánás of Thákurgáon, Pirganj, and Hemtábád, and marking the boundary between the thánás of Bángsíháírí and Gangárámpur, passes into Maldah District after a course through Dinajpur of about eighty miles, finally falling into the Mahánandá about ten miles below Maldah town. Its principal tributaries in Dinajpur are the Lok river on its west or right bank, which falls into it in the tháná of Thákurgáon, and the Tuláí on the east or left bank, in the tháná of Bángsíháírí. During the rains, the Tángan is navigable by large boats throughout its entire course in Dinajpur District; during the remainder of the year, boats of two or three hundred maund, or from seven to ten tons burden, can proceed up the river for about fifty miles, and small boats and canoes the entire distance. The bed of the river is sandy; and the channel is confined to narrower limits than with other rivers of equal importance. Its banks are for the most part jungly and uncultivated.

The Chhiramati takes its rise in a marsh in Hemtábád tháná, and after running a course of about thirty miles through Hemtábád and Bángsíháír thánás, leaves Dinajpur near its south-western corner, and passes into Maldah District, where, after a further
course of a few miles, it falls into the Mahánandá river. The bed of the river is sandy, and its banks sloping; the banks are for the most part jungly and uncultivable. It has no tributaries.

The Purnabhába takes its rise in a large marsh or bil called the Brahmanpukur in Thákurgón tháná. After passing through the thánás of Bīrganj and Rájárámpur, it receives, near the town of Dinájpur, a considerable tributary called the Dhápá; it thence passes in a southerly direction through Gangarámpur tháná, where it sends off a branch called the Brahmání river, and, continuing its southward course through Porshá tháná, passes into Maldah District after a course through Dinájpur of about seventy-two miles, finally falling into the Mahánandá near Rohanpur. The principal tributaries of the Purnabhába in Dinájpur District are the Nartá, Sáldángá, Dhápá, Ghágrá, Hánchá-katákhál, and Harbhángá on its east or left bank, and the Núna on its west or right bank. The river is navigable throughout its course for large boats during the rains; for boats of two hundred maunds, or about seven tons burden, as far as Nayábandar from the setting in of the rains up to the end of the year; and for small boats and canoes throughout its entire course during the whole dry season. The bed of the Purnabhába is sandy, and its banks are sloping or abrupt according as the current sets from one side of the river to the other. Generally speaking, its banks are jungly and uncultivated. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the river course, are reported. During the rainy season, the stream overflows its banks and spreads out into a large bil or marsh below Nítpur, at the point where it leaves the District.

The Dhápá takes its rise in a marsh called Saselápiálá in the Thákurgón tháná, about six miles north of the source of the Purnabhába. It runs southwards through Thákurgón tháná, and when nearing Bīrganj tháná it receives a large addition of water from the Atrái, by means of an artificial canal called the Málíjol; it then passes through Kántánagar tháná, and, as above stated, joins its waters with the Purnabhába near the town of Dinájpur. Its tributaries, besides the Málíjol canal, are the Bholári river on its east or left bank, and the Sarsúá on its west or right bank, both of which fall into it in the northern part of Bīrganj tháná. The bed of the river is sandy, and its banks either sloping or abrupt according to the set of the current. As a rule, the banks are jungly and uncultivated.
THE BRAHMANI, as above stated, is an offshoot from the Purnabhâbâ near Gangârâmpur, which, after a course of about eighteen miles, rejoins the parent stream. It has no tributaries or offshoots, and resembles in all respects the river of which it is a branch.

THE ATRAI is the channel by which the waters of the Tistâ found their way into the Ganges before the change of course of the latter river in 1787-88; and although the Atrâi has been thus deprived of its main source of supply, it is said to be still the most important stream in the District. It enters Dinâjpur from Rangpur District on the north-east, near the village of Jáïganj, and takes a southward course through the thanâs of Bîrganj, Pâtirâm, Patnîtâlâ, and Porshâ, till it leaves the District on its extreme southern border, after a course of eighty-four miles in a straight line, and passes into Râjshâhî District, finally emptying its waters into the Ganges in Pâbîná District under the name of the Baral. To the east of Kântânâgar, the Atrâi sends off a branch called the Gâbhurâ or Garbheswarâ from its western bank, which, after a course of fifteen miles, rejoins the parent stream near Sâhibganj. About five miles below the departure of the Gâbhurâ, it throws off from its opposite bank another branch called Kânkârâ, which also rejoins the Atrâi about seven miles below the rejunction of the Gâbhurâ. The chief tributaries of the Atrâi within Dinâjpur District are the Kastuâ-khârî, Sâtkhâriâ, Khârî, and the Dharâ khâl on its west or right bank; and the old Tistâ or Karto, Bholi, old Atrâî, Jamunâ (not the river mentioned below, but another of the same name), and Ichhâmâtâ on its east or left bank. The Atrâi is navigable throughout its course in Dinâjpur District during the rains, and by small boats and canoes in the dry season. It is a sluggish stream, running in a sandy bed, with a wide channel, which at the time of the Revenue Survey of the District, concluded in 1863, was stated to be constantly changing its course. In 1870, however, the Collector reported to me that no instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes of course in the channel of the river, had of late taken place. The Atrâi being the more direct course of the old Tistâ, whose waters were diverted into the Brahmaputra in 1787-88, has suffered considerably as a navigable channel in consequence; and Major Sherwill, in his Revenue Survey Report, dated January 1863, states that the large grain-marts in the north of Dinâjpur had declined in proportion.

THE JAMUNA, one of the channels of the Tistâ, enters Dinâjpur
in the north-east from Rangpur District. It passes through the thanas of Birganj, Rájárámpur, Hábrá, and Chintámán, and, after a course of about sixty-five miles, enters Bográ District, finally emptying itself into the Atrá in Rájsháhí District. The principal tributaries of the Jamuná in Dinájpur District are the Chitá and the Taláí, which both fall into it on its east or left bank. The river is navigable for large boats during the rains, and for small boats during the dry season. The river bifurcates at Jáipur, and re-unites at Itákátá; the eastern channel is called the chhotá or little, and the western the bará or great Jamuná.

The Karatóya forms the eastern boundary of the District for above fifty miles, separating Dinájpur from Rangpur. The numerous changes which have taken place in the course of this river, and its frequent change of name, render it very difficult to trace its waters. It is a sluggish and tortuous stream, navigable for large boats during the rains, and for small boats and canoes during the dry season. Its principal tributaries on its western or Dinájpur bank are the Kálá-nádi, the Narsilá, and the Mará-nádi. The bed of the river is sandy; the banks are sloping or abrupt according to the current, and are, generally speaking, jungly and uncultivated. The principal grain-marts situated on this river in Dinájpur are Ráníganj and Gorághát. The town of Nawábganj is situated on the banks of the old Karatóya. A further account of the Karatóya river will be found in my Statistical Account of Rangpur and Jalpáiguri District.

None of the rivers mentioned above are fordable during the rains; but in the cold months and hot season they are all capable of being crossed, the larger rivers at certain particular points, and the smaller streams anywhere. None of the rivers form islands or permanent lakes. There are few permanent large marshes in Dinájpur, although some are found in the northern parts of the District, the configuration of the country and the general drainage-slope being unfavourable to their formation. In the rainy months, shallow marshes and pools are formed by the spill water of the rivers, but this gradually drains off, and by February these inundated low-lying tracts are generally quite dry.

Major Sherwill, in his Revenue Survey Report for Dinájpur, dated January 1863, after a brief account of the principal streams in the District, makes the following remarks respecting the effects of the change of course of the Tistá in 1787 upon the rivers of
Dinajpur, and the future prospects of the small streams:—"These rivers, together with numerous minor ones and endless small streams and khóls, all of which have a more or less southerly course, and flow eventually into the great Ganges, are so connected with each other as to form a complete network over the entire District; but since the waters of the Tístá have been turned into the Brahmaputra from their original course, the Atrái, Purnabhábá, Jamúná, and Karátoyá rivers have diminished very considerably, and are rendered of less importance for commercial purposes, and the trade in many of the largest grain-marts in the north of the District has fallen off. The beds of many small rivers have become silted up and choked; but independently of the loss of a large body of water formerly brought down by the old Tístá, the natural inclination of the rivers in this District, as everywhere else in Bengal, is to silt up, and it is probable that in the course of a few years the number of perennial streams will have considerably lessened. Half filled-up beds of former rivers may now be seen all over the District, forming long stagnant marshes and pools, the feeding places of numerous kinds of aquatic birds and wild fowl. Where the beds have become entirely filled up, rich crops of rice are grown; and where only partially filled up, they are very favourable to the growth of spring crops of marsh rice, known as boro dhán, and also to the pithy water plant called solá (Aschynomene paludosa), so extensively used in India for the manufacture of light hats."

Canals.—Dinajpur District also contains several canals; but some of them appear to have been dug more with a view to facilitate religious processions than as a means of assisting traffic. The principal of these canals are:—(1) The Máljol, which unites the Atrái and Dhápá rivers; (2) Rámdárá No. 1, 12 miles in length; (3) Rámdárá No. 2, 1½ mile in length; (4) Bráhmaní canal; (5) Bháduriákhárí; and (6) Bunákhárá. Of these, the first-named four are artificial. The Máljol, Bráhmaní, Bháduriákhárí, and Bunákhárá are navigable for ordinary trading boats during the rains. The Máljol and Bráhmaní are both very ancient, and were originally excavated for mercantile purposes. The two Rámdárá canals were dug by Rájá Rám Náth of this District. One extends along the east side of the Dárjiling road for a distance of twelve miles from Pránnagar to Gobindnagar, where it falls into the Tángan river. The Collector states that it was dug for the purpose of allowing the Rájá to visit the Gobindnagar temple, containing a
family idol. The second Rámdárá canal is only one and a half mile long, and extends from the Rájá's house to a tank named Anandaságár, where there is another family idol.

**RIVER TRAFFIC.**—In the rains there is a considerable river traffic to and from every part of the District. The want of roads in the interior tracts, and the heavy cost of land transport even where roads exist, compel the holders of grain and other staples to wait until the rivers are open before they can send their produce to market. The principal river-side trading villages and produce depôts in Dináipur District are the following:—(1) On the Mahánandá—Churáman, in the police circle (thánda) of Kálíaganj, is a village of considerable importance as a seat of trade. (2) On the Nágar, the principal trading villages are the following:—Atwári, also a police outpost station; Kálíaganj, Madanmálá, Jagádal, Harípur, Kásimpur, and Udáipur. (3) On the Kulik, the principal seats of trade are Ráíganj in Hmtábdá thánda, and Bhowánípur in Ránísankáil thánda. (4) On the Tángan—Thákurgáon, Rániganj, Asání, Kálkámárá, Sóbpur, Nischintípur, and Bangsibári. (5) On the Chhirámatí—Abkarnagar on the eastern, and Dhánkáil on the western bank of the river. (6) On the Purnabhábá—Dináipur town, Bírganj, Kankánagar, Damdama, Champátalá, Nawábázár, Chaluáptí, Ghughudándá, Nayábandar, Gangárámpur, Khardáha, and Nítpur. (7) On the Dhápá—Bírganj, also the headquarters of a police circle, and of the jurisdiction of a Subordinate Civil Judge (Munsíj), and Kántánagar. (8) On the Kánkrá—Kálíganj and Chhiríbandar. (9) On the Jamuná—Berámpur, Kántlá, Jáipur, Jamálganj, Phulbári, Khayerbári, and Muhammadpur. (10) On the Tiláí, a tributary of the Jamuná—Hábrá. (11) On the Atráí—Jáiganj, Khánsámáganj, Bhusí, Sáhibganj, Názigánj, Samjhiá, Kumárganj, Pátirám, Páglí, Rángámáti, Patnítálá, Masidhá, Mákhebpr, Fákírganj, Tárá, Kumárganj, Chándganj, Chák Gopál, Brahmapur, and Bálughát. (12) On the Karátoyá—Nawábganj, Ráníganj, Gorághát, Fákírganj, Narangábad, Madanganj, Kayáganj, Bhowánípur, and Gümáníganj. The principal trade carried on at these large market villages is in rice, tobacco, gunny-cloth, sugar, and jute.

**FISHERIES.**—Two large villages, namely, Ráíganj on the Kulik, and Dhánkáil on the Chhirámatí, are the principal fishing villages, and contain a considerable population, who subsist almost exclusively by fishing. The rivers and canals abound in fish; but the Collector, in his Report to me in 1870, states that it is impossible
to form any estimate of the value of the fisheries, or of the proportion of the inhabitants that live by fishing only, as almost all the agricultural population catch fish, either for food or for sale, when opportunities offer. The Census Report of 1872 returns the total number of Hindu fishing and boating castes at 31,206, or 2'08 per cent. of the total District population. The Muhammadans, however, form 52'8 per cent. of the District population; and supposing the proportion of fishing and boating classes to be the same among the Muhammadans as the Hindus, the proportion of the total population maintained by fishing and boating would be about 5 per cent. A list of fishes is given on the opposite page.

None of the rivers or marshes in Dinajpur District have been embanked with a view to their reclamation and the extension of cultivation, nor are they utilized as reed or cane-producing grounds. The long-stemmed varieties of rice are not cultivated in the marshes of this District.

**Forests and Jungle Products.**—Sāl forests are scattered here and there. The tree is found principally along the course of the Karátoyá river, in parganas Gorághát, Khás Taluk, and Swaráppur, growing in small forest patches, called by the natives sāl-báns; outlying patches of sāl forest are also found in other parganas. The Collector states that although these small forests yield a considerable revenue to the landholders, the trees are stunted in growth and the wood of an inferior quality. The forests generally bear the name of the villages near which they are situated. The jungle products are bees-wax, anantimul and sātāmul, indigenous vegetable drugs, and the flowers of a tree called singáhár, from which a dye is made. No castes or tribes subsist entirely by collecting and trading in jungle products. Large breadths of pasture-land are scattered throughout the District. These pay no rent; and some of the peasantry engage in pasturing cattle in these tracts as an additional means of subsistence.

**Ferae Naturæ.**—The following paragraphs regarding the ferae naturæ of Dinajpur District are extracted from Major Sherwill's Revenue Survey Report:—'The following wild animals are found in Dinajpur District—the tiger, leopard, civet cat, tiger cat, pole cat, ordinary wild cat, buffalo, wild hog, bárd singha or large deer, hog deer, jackal, fox, mongoose, alligator, badger, tortoise, etc. Tigers, leopards, and pigs are found all over the District. Buffaloes are common, but are confined to the dense jungles to the south. In
jungly tracts, the villagers will never remain out late in the evening, or move out early in the morning, for fear of wild animals; nor will they willingly enter the jungles,—seeing no reason, they say, why they should give their lives to the tigers and pigs. Tigers mostly infest the dense tangled jungle and grass patches; leopards are found everywhere, and numbers of cows and goats are annually destroyed by them; buffaloes and pigs commit great havoc amongst the sugar-cane and rice cultivation. Doms and other low-caste Hindus hunt tigers, leopards, deer, and boars with packs of pariah dogs. Their weapons are guns, spears, clubs, and bows and arrows. Some zamindârs keep shikâris or huntsmen for the purpose of keeping down wild hogs, which would otherwise overrun the cultivation, and drive away the tenants. Water-fowl, snipe, land and water rails, hares, peacocks, partridges, quail, and plovers, all of which are plentiful, are almost disregarded, and made no use of by the native population. Birds are numerous, and many of the species are very beautiful. The following are amongst those most popularly known:—Common wild duck, shoveller, widgeon, common teal, whistling teal, merganser, Brâhman goose, common Indian wild goose, coot, diver, gull, shearwater, cormorant, large crane, demoiselle crane, stork, green heron, paddy-bird, sand-piper, sand-martin, numerous varieties of wader, and web-footed birds of all sorts, jackdaw, jay, magpie, woodpecker, kingfisher, water-wagtail, hoopoe, skylark, green and blue pigeon, dove, starling, crow, raven, sparrow, kite, vulture, osprey, kestrel, sparrow-hawk, eagle, black partridge, quail, snipe, lapwing, golden plover, peacock, and night birds of various kinds. One of the latter, which is very common, makes a noise all night long closely resembling the blow of a woodman’s hatchet on the trunk of a dry tree. Ortolans are very abundant when in season.7 The principal varieties of fish met with in the District are thus returned:—Air, bâchá, bâghâir, bâghduli, bâim, bhangnâ, baliá, bâus, batkyâ, bhedâ, bôdil, chandá, chelâ, chingri, chîtal, dari, dankoná, gagar, guchar, hîlîâ, ichhá or bará chingri, kái, kánklâ, kâtîl, khayrâ kharsalá, kharki, kunchi, mirgal, nadan, pâbdá, punthî, pangás, ruhi, saranphuli, saul, and urât.

The cost to Government of keeping down wild beasts at different periods is returned as follows:—In 1800-1 the sum of £266 was paid on this account; from 1824 to 1829 the payments averaged £63. 4s. od. per annum; from 1844-45 to 1848-49, £4, 10s. od. per annum; and from 1867-68 to 1869-70, £19, 12s. od. per annum.
The number of deaths from wild beasts reported to the police averaged 37 per year for the five years ending 1869-70; the loss of life from snake-bite during the same period averaged 147 per year. No reward has ever been given for the destruction of venomous snakes in Dinajpur District. There is no trade in wild-beast skins; and with the exception of the fisheries and a little traffic in ortolans, which are caught and sold to the European residents during the cold and hot-weather months, the fauna do not contribute towards the wealth of the District.

Population.—The earliest recorded attempt at an enumeration of the population of Dinajpur appears to have been made in 1808 by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in his Statistical Survey of the District. At that time Dinajpur comprised a considerably larger area than at present, and apparently included the police circles (thānās) of Maldah and Gajol in the present district of Maldah, and of Khetlal, Panchbibi, and Badalgachhi, now within Bogra District. Buchanan Hamilton returns the area of Dinajpur District in his time at 5374 square miles; and estimated the population at three million souls, giving an average pressure of 558 persons to the square mile. This is considerably in excess of the average density of the population as ascertained by the Census of 1872, the results of which are fully detailed in the following pages.

At the time of the Revenue Survey of the District (1857-61), the area included within the Dinajpur Survey (which included certain tracts belonging to neighbouring Districts) was returned at 4586 square miles. The number of houses within this tract were counted, and estimated to contain a population of 1,042,832 souls, or an average pressure on the soil of only 227 persons per square mile. The Survey estimate was probably below the mark, as Buchanan Hamilton’s appears to have been above it.

A careful and exact Census of the population was taken by authority of Government in January 1872. The arrangements for taking the Census of Dinajpur were elaborated beforehand with great care, and are thus described at pp. 19, 20 of the Bengal Census Report of 1872:—‘In Dinajpur, the officers in charge of thānās (police circles) were furnished with tracings from the inch-to-the-mile map, each village being distinguished by its survey number, and corresponding catalogues of the villages were prepared for each thānā. “About a year before,” writes the Joint Magistrate, “the chaukidāri (police) registers had been thoroughly revised and the
METHOD OF TAKING THE CENSUS.

population roughly counted, without any anticipation of a Census. The police at each thänd were furnished with the catalogue of villages agreeing with the map and with the traced map, and told to re-write their chaukidári registers according to them, reporting where they could not find the villages, or where they found villages not shown in the catalogues. This may seem a simple matter, but in practice it was found very difficult. For instance, I found at Patnitálá police station that there were six villages named Chak Gobind. The clerks who had traced the maps had made several blunders, which could easily be corrected by the map; but neither the darogá (Sub-Inspector of Police) of Patnitálá, nor any other darogá in the District, had any idea how to use a map for the purpose. Moreover, the real names differed frequently from those given in the map. How the officers who made the survey and maps settled the boundaries, I know not. But although, as far as regards Purniah and Rangpur and most of the internal thänds, I found the boundaries correct, yet when we came to the borders of Maldah and Bográ, which originally formed part of this District, and also the borders of Rájsháhl, the number of villages we had to take over or to make over was found to be very great. In the case of Patnitálá, originally a large thánd, the number of villages taken over from Bográ has been so great that it will be necessary to divide the thánd in two. We took the map supplied to us as our standard, and altered all our boundaries to agree with it. When the chaukidári registers were ready, we found it was a universal rule that the chaukidár had only to do with one samíndár, and that the patwári who collected the rent for the samíndár had always under him the beat of one or more chaukidárs entire. This simplified matters greatly. There is not a single household in the District which is not included in a chaukidár's beat, or which is not included in the rent-roll of a patwári. We communicated, therefore, with the patwáris through the chaukidárs, warning the samíndárs courteously that their servants must assist Government in taking the Census."

'The Magistrate remarks: "The entire work has been performed by indigenous agency, and performed creditably and without any difficulty. I was on tour while the Census was being taken, and everywhere found the patwáris at work in the most natural manner. The patwáris in this District are nearly all mandals or heads of villages, and possessed, therefore, of the requisite local knowledge.}
Their co-operation was heartily given, and made the taking of the Census a comparatively easy matter."

The plan of taking the Census simultaneously throughout the District, as elsewhere in the Division, was found difficult of execution in Dinajpur, and was therefore abandoned, the enumeration being made on different days in different parts of the District. As regards accuracy, the Joint Magistrate states: 'I think it will be a fair enumeration of the resident population, though not worth much as regards sojourners and wayfarers.' The results of the Census disclosed a total population of 1,501,924 souls, dwelling in 7108 villages, and inhabiting 264,526 houses; average density of the population, 364 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 211; average number of persons per house, 5·7. The total cost of taking the Census of the 1,501,924 inhabitants of Dinajpur District amounted to £176, 1s. 8d.

The table on the opposite page, exhibiting the density of the population, with the number of villages, houses, etc. in each police circle (thanda) of Dinajpur District, is reproduced verbatim from the Census Report of 1872.

**Population classified according to sex and age.**—The total population of Dinajpur District consisted in 1872 of 1,501,924 souls, namely, 776,431 males, and 725,493 females. Proportion of males in the total population, 51·7 per cent.; average density of the population, 364 to the square mile. Classified according to religion and age, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus—under twelve years of age, males 133,819, and females 109,839; total 243,658; above twelve years of age, males 228,248, and females 230,329; total 458,577. Total of Hindus of all ages, males 362,067, and females 340,168; grand total 702,235, or 46·8 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 51·6 per cent. Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 158,661, and females 122,199; total 280,860; above twelve years, males 252,174, and females 260,181; total 512,355. Total of Muhammadans of all ages, males 410,835, and females 382,380; grand total 793,215, or 52·8 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 51·8 per cent. Buddhists—under twelve years of age, males 62, and females 56; total 118; above twelve years, males 89, and females 88; total 177. Total of Buddhists of all ages, males 151, and females 144; grand
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<th>Police Circle (Thana)</th>
<th>Area in square miles</th>
<th>Number of villages, hamlets, or townships</th>
<th>Number of houses</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th>Averages according to the Census Officers</th>
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<td>Persons per square mile</td>
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<td>16,925</td>
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<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pírganj,</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>16,274</td>
<td>89,296</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ránísmíkáil,</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>15,567</td>
<td>78,606</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thákurgón,</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>38,059</td>
<td>219,865</td>
<td>593</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District total,</td>
<td>4126*</td>
<td>7108</td>
<td>264,526</td>
<td>1,501,924</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This is only the approximate area, as taken for the purposes of the Census; but, for the sake of uniformity, I have adopted it in all calculations of percentages and averages, etc., based upon the population. The exact area of Dinajpur District, as returned to me by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal in November 1874, is 4095.14 square miles.
total 295; proportion of males in total Buddhist population, 51.2 per cent. Christians—under twelve years of age, males 51, and females 42; total 93; above twelve years, males 87, and females 91; total 178. Total of Christians of all ages, males 138, and females 133; grand total 271; proportion of males in total Christian population, 50.9 per cent. Other denominations not separately classified, and consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes and races—under twelve years of age, males 1102, and females 990; total 2092; above twelve years, males 2138, and females 1678; total 3816. Total of ‘others’ of all ages, males 3240, and females 2668; grand total 5908, or 4 per cent. of the total District population; proportion of males in total ‘other’ population, 54.8 per cent. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 293,695, and females 233,126; total 526,821; above twelve years, males 482,736, and females 492,367; total 975,103. Total population of all ages, males 776,431, and females 725,493; grand total 1,501,924; proportion of males in total District population, 51.7 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population of different religions is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Hindus—proportion of male children 19.1 per cent., and of female children 15.6 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 34.7 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans—male children 20.0, and female children 15.4 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35.4 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Buddhists—male children 21.0, and female children 19.0 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 40 per cent. of the total Buddhist population. Christians—male children 18.8, and female children 15.5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 34.3 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other denominations not separately classified—male children 18.6, and female children 16.8 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35.4 per cent. of the total ‘other’ population. Population of all religions—male children 19.6, and female children 15.5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35.1 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same age, is probably due to the fact that natives consider girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than
boys reach manhood. The proportion of the sexes of all ages, namely, males 51.7, and females 48.3 per cent., is probably correct. The excess of males over females is explained by the fact that there is an insufficiency of local labour, and during the reaping season (the time of the year at which the Census was taken) large bodies of labourers flock to Dinajpur from neighbouring Districts.

Infirmities.—The number and proportion of insane and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Dinajpur District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes—males 379, and females 144; total 523, or 0.0348 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males 31, and females 15; total 46, or 0.0031 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males 327, and females 131; total 458, or 0.0305 per cent. of the population. Blind—males 522, and females 264; total 786, or 0.0523 per cent. of the total population. Lepers—males 475, and females 98; total 573, or 0.0382 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirms amounts to 1734, or 0.233 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirms 652, or 0.0899 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirm of both sexes is 2386, or 0.1588 per cent. of the total District population.

I omit the returns of the population according to occupation, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

Ethnical Division of the People.—The great mass of the population (99.6 per cent.) consists of Hindus and Muhammadans, with a small sprinkling of Buddhists, Christians, and aboriginal tribes, which make up the remaining .4 per cent. of the population. The Hindus are somewhat fewer in point of numbers than the Muhammadans, but as a body they occupy a more respectable social position. The larger landholders are nearly all Hindus, as also are the wealthy traders and merchants. A few among the Muhammadan population are the descendants of the original Musalmán conquerors of the country, but the great bulk of them are descended from the low-caste Hindus, who were converted by force or otherwise to the faith of Islám, and are known as Nasyá Muhammadans. The Census Report ethnically divides the population as follows:—Europeans, 27; aboriginal tribes, 4431; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 505,527; Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin (including native Christians), 198,730; Muhammadans, 793,615. Total, 1,591,924.

I take the following details from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District
Census Compilation for Dinajpur. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged in a different order to that given here, according to the rank in which they are held in local public esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I.—NON-ASIATICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2. Semi-Hinduized Aborigines—continued.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Dom</td>
<td>1,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Turi</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotch</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dosadh</td>
<td>948</td>
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<tr>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Har</td>
<td>35,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL OF NON-ASIATICS,</strong></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Kargood</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Khuyen</td>
<td>2,714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Koch</td>
<td>30,605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pall</td>
<td>326,971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rajbansi</td>
<td>86,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mahili</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Maja</td>
<td>1,446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mitaar</td>
<td>1,336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bhuiwal</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Musahar</td>
<td>114</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pasi</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>505,527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II.—ASIATICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Natives of India and Burmah.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Aboriginal Tribes.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kol</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santal</td>
<td>1,039</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhangan</td>
<td>2,907*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nat</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bakhro</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telengha</td>
<td>94*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pahariyq</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhar</td>
<td>125*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>4,431</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Semi-Hinduized Aborigines.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bagdi</td>
<td>152</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bheelia</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buri</td>
<td>384</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bediyia</td>
<td>1,704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunh</td>
<td>3,139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chien</td>
<td>337</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chamar and Muchi</td>
<td>3,119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuri</td>
<td>900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandal</td>
<td>7,371</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>8,117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(ii.) INTERMEDIATE CASTES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kayaath</td>
<td>.4,523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Baidya</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total,</strong></td>
<td>5,108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 172 of these are erroneously entered in the General Census Report as Uriyas.
2 Transferred from xiv. of Hindu castes.
3 Transferred from Semi-Hinduized Aborigines.
4 This total differs from that given in the General Census Report, by the transfer of 125 Bhars to aboriginal tribes, by the inclusion of 4 Pasis from non-Asiaties, where they were erroneously returned as Parsis, and by the transfer of 160 unspecified Hindus erroneously included under the heading of Chammar and Muchi, and 237 unspecified Hindus erroneously included under the heading 'Others.'
### ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(iii.) TRADING CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
<td>(viii.) ARTISAN CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agarwálá and Márwári.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Kámár (blacksmith)</td>
<td>3,659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khatri.</td>
<td>1,258</td>
<td>Kânsári (brazier)</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oswál.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sonár (goldsmith)</td>
<td>612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Báisbaniá,</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sutradhár (carpenter)</td>
<td>678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gandhábanik,</td>
<td>1,331</td>
<td>Rájmístri (mason)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subarnábanik,</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>Kumár (potter)</td>
<td>6,408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>3,601</td>
<td>Sánhári (shell-cutter)</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv.) PASTORAL CASTE.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Láheri (lac-worker)</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goálá.</td>
<td>4,280</td>
<td>Telí (oilman)</td>
<td>5,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td></td>
<td>Kalu (ditto)</td>
<td>1,684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v.) CASTES ENGAGED IN PREPARING COOKED FOOD.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sunrí (distiller)</td>
<td>6,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gánrár.</td>
<td>1,082</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>25,578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halwání.</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>(ix.) WEAVER CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>1,628</td>
<td>Tántí,</td>
<td>12,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi.) AGRICULTURAL CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Jogi,</td>
<td>7,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaíbaríta,</td>
<td>38,301</td>
<td>Ganesh,</td>
<td>3,281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadgop.</td>
<td>2,316</td>
<td>Kápáli,</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aguri.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Dhuniyá,</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chásá Dhopá,</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>23,969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basiá,</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>(x.) LABOURING CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hákrár.</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>Beldár,</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Báru,</td>
<td>2,606</td>
<td>Chunárí,</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Támbuli,</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Matiyáí,</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Máli,</td>
<td>2,184</td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koéri,</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>(xi.) CASTE ENGAGED IN SELLING FISH AND VEGETABLES.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurmi.</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>Kandári,</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>46,533</td>
<td>(xii.) BOATING AND FISHING CASTES.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii.) CASTES ENGAGED CHEARLY IN PERSONAL SERVICE.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Jaliá,</td>
<td>10,296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhoábá,</td>
<td>2,177</td>
<td>Pátní,</td>
<td>1,906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hájjám and Nápít.</td>
<td>11,653</td>
<td>Málá,</td>
<td>675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behárá,</td>
<td>5,776</td>
<td>Mánjhi,</td>
<td>528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Káhrár,</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>Pod,</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhánuk,</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>Tior,</td>
<td>17,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>20,498</td>
<td>Muriyári,</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Surahiyá,</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1. x46 too many were erroneously included in the Census Report.
2. Differs from General Census Report, by 1680 unspecified Hindus erroneously returned under this head.
3. r10x wrongly given in excess in the General Census Report.
### Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(xii.) Boating and Fishing Castes—contd.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machúa</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourhi</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathuá</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>31,206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(xiii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Báiti</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mirási</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>619</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(xiv.) Persons enumerated by Nationality only.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urvá</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutiá</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>15</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Castes</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9,783</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vaishnav</td>
<td>16,710</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aghori</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanyásí</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gosain</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Christians</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>17,180</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Muhammadans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juláhá</td>
<td>74</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mughul</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathán</td>
<td>574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayyid</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaikh</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>792,053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>793,215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total of Hindus</td>
<td>181,550</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>1,501,924</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Immigration and Emigration

Immigration and Emigration.—A little immigration is attracted to the District, but it is mostly of a temporary character. At harvest time a number of labourers come to Dinajpur from neighbouring Districts as reapers, and readily obtain 4 dund (6d.) a day for their work. Day-labourers also come from Rajmahal to the large riverside marts, from January to March, to husk rice for the grain merchants. Dhângar cóolies also come regularly every year to Dinajpur to work on the roads, or to clear jungle for the samindârs. They usually return to their homes about April or May; but many are willing to remain all the year round if assured of permanent good wages, i.e. not less than Rs. 5 (10s.) a month. Apart from the above, there are no internal movements of labour. The trade centres remain the same, and the people who come for work resort usually to the same places year after year. Emigration from the District there is none.

Castes.—The following is a list of 89 Hindu castes met with
in Dináipur District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public esteem, and showing their occupa-
pation, etc. The figures indicating the number of each caste are
taken from Mr. C. F. Magrath’s District Census Compilation for
Dináipur. It should be mentioned that, in addition to the special
occupation of each caste, nearly every household follows agricul-
ture as an auxiliary means of subsistence,—cultivating small plots of
land themselves if poor, or by means of hired labour or by under-
tenants if well off. The following eight castes rank highest:—(1)
Bráhma; members of the priesthood, landholders, traders; and
also employed in Government or private service. The Bráhmans
are traditionally said to have settled in Dináipur in comparatively
recent times, but are now distributed generally throughout the Dis-
trict. The principal family names among them are Mukhápádhyá,
Chatápádhyá, Gangápádhyá, Bandápádhyá, Chakrabartti, Bhattach-
charjyá, Maitrá, Sandyál, and Bágchi. The Census Report of 1872
returned the number of Bráhmans in Dináipur District at 6269. (2)
Kshattriya; the second or warrior caste in the ancient Hindu social
organization. At the present day it is believed that there are no
pure Kshattriyas in Bengal, although several castes aspire to the
dignity. The caste returned as ‘Khatrī’ in the Census Report is
the great trading class of Northern India. Their number in Diná-
pur in 1872 is returned at 1258. (3) Rájput; employed in military
service, and as guards, policemen, and doorkeepers. They claim
to be Kshattriyas. Number in Dináipur District in 1872, 1813.
(4) Ghátwál; not a separate caste, but a class claiming Kshattriya-
hood, whose profession it was in olden days to keep the roads
and paths open and free from robbers, in return for which service
they received rent-free grants of land. At the present day they
are employed in ordinary police service. Number in Dináipur
District in 1872, 35. (5) Baidyá; hereditary physicians by caste
occupation, but many of them are now engaged in other pursuits,
and are landholders, merchants, clerks, etc.; 585 in number. (6)
Káyasth; the writer caste of Bengal, employed as Government
servants and clerks; many are also merchants and landholders;
4523 in number. (7) Agarwála and Márwári; up-country traders
and merchants, claiming to belong to the Vaisya or great trading
caste of ancient India, but which is now believed to be extinct;
100 in number. (8) Oswál; also an up-country trading caste; 14
in number.
Pure Sudra Castes.—The following thirteen represent the pure Súdra castes, from whose hands a Bráhman may receive water or uncooked food without injury to his caste. Originally these respectable Súdra castes were only nine in number, called the nabásákṣ; but some of them have split up into subdivisions, all of which hold equal rank, while others, by virtue of their wealth or numbers, have succeeded in forcing themselves upwards from a lower grade into a position of social respectability. (9) Nápit; barbers; 11,653 in number. Nearly every village contains one household at least belonging to this caste. Besides his occupation as barber, the Nápit performs certain special ceremonies on occasions of marriages and other ceremonies. (10) Kámár or Karmán-kár; blacksmiths; 3659 in number. On occasions of sacrifice, it is the Kámár who slays the offering. (11) Kumán or Kumbhákár; potters and makers of earthenware idols. The Kumárs in Dinájpur District also work as well-diggers, which is not the case elsewhere. The reason of this probably is, that they make the great earthenware cylinders with which the wells are lined. Number in 1872, 6408. (12) Sadgop; the highest of the cultivating castes. This caste is divided into two,—the Sadgops proper, who are engaged solely in agriculture, and the Pála Gops, who also trade in dairy produce. Number in 1872, 2316. (13) Támbuli or Támlí; pán growers and sellers by caste occupation, but most of them have now taken to trade and money-lending, and have raised themselves to the rank of well-to-do shopkeepers and merchants; 13 in number. (14) Barú; pán growers and sellers, who still follow their hereditary employment; 2606 in number. (15) Tell or Tíll; originally oil-pressers and sellers, and not considered as one of the respectable Súdra castes. Most of them, however, have now abandoned their ancient occupation and taken to trade, and by their wealth and numbers have succeeded in pushing themselves upwards in the social scale. Number in Dinájpur District in 1872, 5271. (16) Máll; gardeners, flower sellers, and workers in pith (sólá); 2184 in number. (17) Gandhábanik; traders, shopkeepers, and dealers in spices and drugs; 1331 in number. (18) Básibání; traders and merchants; 10 in number. (19) Sánkhárá; shell-cutters and makers of shell bracelets and ornaments; 179 in number. (20) Kánsáí; braziers, coppersmiths, and workers in bell-metal; 313 in number. (21) Agúr; a respectable mixed cultivating caste; 57 in number.

Intermediate Sudra Castes.—The following eighteen form the
intermediate Sudra castes; they are neither esteemed nor despised, but have some claim to respectability. (22) Goálá; milkmen and cowherds; many are also employed as domestic servants in respectable families; 4,280 in number. (23) Kaibarta; cultivators, fishermen, and boatmen; 38,301 in number. (24) Gánár; sellers of parched and cooked vegetable food, such as chirá, etc.; 1,082 in number. (25) Halwai; sweetmeat-makers and confectioners; 546 in number. (26) Vaishnav; not a separate caste, but a sect of Hindus professing the principles inculcated by Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the sixteenth century. Although its main doctrine is the renunciation of caste and the declaration of the equality of man, caste principles are said to be now creeping into the sect, and the higher class of Vaishnavs, many of whom are well-to-do men, will not intermarry nor mix in any way with the lower class. The sect now includes large numbers of wandering religious mendicants, who desire to lead a life free from the restraints imposed by the caste system. A great many prostitutes style themselves Vaishnavs. The number of this sect in Dinajpur District in 1872 is returned in the Census Report at 16,710. (27) Gosán; priests and religious instructors of the Vaishnavs; 30 in number. (28) Sanyási; not a caste, but a class of Sivaite religious mendicants who reject caste; 187 in number. (29) Chásá Dhopá; cultivators; 28 in number. (30) Hákar; cultivators; 207 in number. (31) Tántí; weavers; 12,800 in number. (32) Basiá; cultivators; 210 in number. (33) Gánesh; weavers; most numerous in the west of the District; 3,281 in number. (34) Koérí; cultivators; 211 in number. (35) Kurmi; cultivators; 400 in number. (36) Sonár or Swarnákar; goldsmiths and jewellers; 612 in number. (37) Subarnábanik; merchants, bankers, and dealers in gold and silver; 888 in number. (38) Sutradhár or Chhutár; carpenters; 678 in number. (39) Rájmístri; brick-mason; 1 in number.

Low Castes.—The following thirty are low castes, and are despised:—(40) Páli; an offshoot of the Koch tribe, and by far the most numerous of the Hindu castes in Dinajpur District. As with many other tribes and castes of aboriginal descent, they claim to be Kshatriyas, and assert that their appellation of Páli (Bengali, paláyan, to flee) is derived from their ancestors having fled from the wrath of Puráusrám, the Bráhman warrior incarnation of Vishnu, in his war of extermination against the Kshatriyas. A Páli, when asked as to his caste, will probably state that he is a Rájbansí—literally,
of the royal kindred. Their chief occupation is agriculture. The Census Report quotes a communication from the Assistant Magistrate of Dinajpur regarding these people, as follows:—'The Koch and Pális or Páliyás, as they are indifferently called, are a people peculiar to this part of the country, and are distinguished from all other Bengalis by their broad faces, flat noses, and projecting cheekbones, as also by their appearance and different style of dress. They profess to be Hindus; but while they follow the Hindu religion in the main, they also practice some ceremonies borrowed from Musalmáns and others, which are apparently remnants of an older superstition. . . . The Pális are subdivided into three classes,—the Sádhu, Bábu, and Desí Pális. The Bábu or Byambahári Pális, as they are also called, eat pigs and fowls and drink spirits; the Desí Pális eat shell-fish. Both the Sádhu and Bábu Pális use cows in ploughing. The Sádhu Pális for the most part follow the tenets of Chaitanya, the Vishnuvite reformer of the sixteenth century. The Koch are the palanquin-bearers of the District, and seem to be about on an equality with the Pális in respect of caste. They drink spirits and eat fowls. No Bráhman will take water from either a Pál or a Koch.' The Kochs, Pális, and Rájbangsís may be taken as one and the same people; and indeed, in the Census, the two latter are given as offshoots of the former. The District Census Report of 1872 returns the number of these people as follow:—Koch, 30,605; Pálí, 326,971; and Rájbangsí, 86,351. (41) Jogí; weavers; 7741 in number. (42) Kapálí; cotton spinners and weavers; 86 in number. (43) Dhuniyá; weavers; 61 in number. (44) Kálu; oil-pressers and sellers; 1684 in number. (45) Surí or Sunrí; wine sellers and distillers by caste occupation; but many of them have now abandoned their hereditary employment, and have taken to rice-dealing and to general trade; 6685 in number. (46) Dhánuk; domestic servants, cultivators, and labourers; 134 in number. (47) Káhár; an up-country caste from Behar, principally employed as palanquin-bearers and as domestic servants; 758 in number. (48) Dhoí; washermen; 2177 in number. (49) Behárá; palanquin-bearers and domestic servants; 5776 in number. (50) Láherí; lac-workers; 88 in number. (51) Beldar; labourers; 348 in number. (52) Chunári; lime-burners; 201 in number. (53) Matiyal; cultivator and labourer, principally employed in digging and earth-work; 1 in number. (54) Kandári; sellers of fish and vegetables; 65 in number. (55) Khyen; labourers and domestic
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servants; 2714 in number. (56) Chandál; cultivators, fishermen, and labourers; 7371 in number. (57) Baiti; mat-makers and musicians; 600 in number. (58) Jāliá; fishermen and boatmen; 10,296 in number. (59) Málá; fishermen and boatmen; 675 in number. (60) Mánjhi; not a separate caste, but a class of men who act as boat-steerers; 528 in number. (61) Gounhi; fishermen who hunt with the harpoon; 27 in number. (62) Pod; fishermen and boatmen; 24 in number. (63) Tior; fishermen and boatmen; 17,364 in number. (64) Páni; ferrymen; 1906 in number. (65) Muríyári; fishermen and boatmen; 38 in number. (66) Suráhiyá; fishermen and boatmen; 156 in number. (67) Machhuá; fishermen; 179 in number. (68) Bathuá; fishermen and boatmen; 13 in number. (69) Miráí; musicians and wandering beggars; 19 in number.

Semi-Aboriginal Castes.—The following are all semi-aboriginal castes, or rather aboriginal tribes which have crept within the pale of Hinduism. They are utterly despised by all Hindus of higher social rank than themselves:—(70) Bágdi; cultivators, labourers, and fishermen; 152 in number. (71) Bāheliá; labourers and cultivators; 44 in number. (72) Baurí; labourers and cultivators, and also sellers of sweetmeats; 384 in number. The Collector states that the Baurí of Dinájpur hold a position superior to that of the semi-aboriginal Baurí of Chhotá Nágpur, and he doubts whether they are the same people. (73) Buná; labourers; 3139 in number. (74) Bind; labourers; 117 in number. (75) Cháin; labourers and cultivators; 337 in number. (76) Chámár and Muchí; two distinct castes following the same occupation, that of skinners, leather-dealers, and shoemakers, but returned as one in the Census Report; 3119 in number. (77) Kurí; leather-dealers, etc.; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Chámár caste; 900 in number. (78) Dom; mat-makers, fishermen, and village watchmen; 1242 in number. (79) Turí; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Dom caste; 66 in number. (80) Dosádh; labourers, fishermen, and mat-makers; 948 in number. (81) Pási; toddy-sellers; 94 in number. (82) Máhíllí; labourers; 3 in number. (83) Mál; snake-charmers; 1446 in number. (84) Musáhar; labourers; 114 in number. (85) Karángá; labourers; 253 in number. (86) Bediyá; a wandering, gipsy-like tribe, half-Hindus half-Muhammadans, who live by the sale of petty trinkets, drum-beating, cattle-gelding, juggling, and fortune-telling, and also by theft when opportunity offers; the women are
frequently employed as midwives. The Census returns the number of Bediyás in Dinápur at 1704. Several small villages of Bediyás are situated in the south of the District; but at the time of the Nekmard fair they throng together in gangs as professional thieves, and are about the worst class met with at the gathering. (87) Hárí; swineherds and sweepers; 35,325 in number. (88) Mihtár; sweepers; 1336 in number. (89) Bhuimálí; sweepers; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Mihtár caste; 792 in number.

Aboriginal Tribes.—The Census Report returns the following eight as aboriginal tribes; many of their members, however, have now embraced some form of Hinduism:—(1) Kol; 116 in number. (2) Santál; 1039 in number. (3) Dhángar; 2907 in number. (4) Nat; 20 in number. (5) Bakko; 20 in number. (6) Telengá; 94 in number. (7) Paháriyá; 110 in number. (8) Bhar; 125 in number.

Religious Division of the People.—The great bulk of the population are Muhammadans and Hindus, the remainder consisting of a very few Bráhma Samáj followers, Jains, Buddhists, Christians, and a handful of aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive forms of faith. The Census Report of 1872 returns the population of the different religions as under:—Muhammadans—males 410,835, and females 382,380; total 793,215, or 52·8 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Musalmáns, 51·8 per cent. The mass of the Muhammadan population are the descendants of converts from Hinduism. The religion of Islám has now ceased to make any further progress in the District. Wahábí and Faráizís are known to exist among the Muhammadan population, but the Collector reports that they are not actively fanatical. The Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes) consist of 362,067 males, and 340,168 females; total 702,235, or 46·8 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Hindus, 51·6 per cent. Most of the wealthy traders and the principal landholders are Hindus; and as a rule, the Collector is of opinion that throughout the agricultural population the Hindus occupy a somewhat higher social position than the Muhammadans. The members of the Bráhma Samáj, or reformed theistic sect of Hindus, are included in the Census Report with the general Hindu population; but the Collector in 1870 reported that they numbered about 25. At that time the Samáj had only been in existence for three or four years. Its members did not belong to
Dinajpur; but came mostly from Dacca and the eastern Districts, and were employed in the Educational Department, or in the upper subordinate ranks of the police. The Jains are represented by about a dozen banking families in the station of Dinajpur, together with their servants and retainers. The Buddhist community consists of 151 males and 144 females; total 295. They are only met with in the Porshá police circle (tháni). In 1870 there were three small communities of native Christians in Dinajpur District. Two were located in the villages of Sádá Mahal and Baburhát on the Tângan river, the members belonging to the lower class of agriculturists. The third was at Dinajpur town, and comprised among its members one wealthy family and several domestic servants in comfortable circumstances. In 1872 the Census Report returned the Christian population of Dinajpur as follows:—Males 138, and females 133; total 271. Deducting 21 as the number of Europeans, there remains a balance of 250 as representing the native Christian population of Dinajpur. The remainder of the population are not separately classified in the Census Report according to religion, but are returned under one heading as ‘others.’ They consist almost entirely of immigrant hill-tribes and races who still adhere to their primitive aboriginal faiths. The District Census Report returned their numbers in 1872 as follows:—Males 3240, and females 2668; total 5908, or 14 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total ‘other’ population, 54.8 per cent.

Distribution of the People into Town and Country.—Dinajpur is a purely agricultural District; and no tendency is perceptible on the part of the people to collect themselves together into towns. Indeed, the Census Report of 1872 returns only a single town as containing upwards of five thousand souls, namely, Dinajpur, the Headquarters of the District; population, 13,042. The smaller towns or large villages are of importance only as marts or outlets for the agricultural produce of the District. They are almost invariably situated on the river banks, and consist of a number of warehouses, nearly all constructed of bamboo and matting, in which the country produce, collected from the village markets of the interior, and conveyed to the rivers in bullock-carts or on pack oxen, is stored previous to being exported by water. The importance of a town depends upon the number of golís or warehouses it contains. The merchants or warehouse-keepers are generally persons belonging to neighbouring Districts, such as
Maldah, Rájsháhí, Murshidábád, and Pábná. A list of the principal of these river-side trading towns is given on a previous page of this Statistical Account.

The District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages and towns:—There are 4927 small villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1585 with from two hundred to five hundred; 418 with from five hundred to a thousand; 135 small towns with from one thousand to two thousand; 35 towns with from two thousand to three thousand; 6 with from three thousand to four thousand; 1 with from four thousand to five thousand; and 1 with from ten thousand to fifteen thousand inhabitants: total, 7108 villages.

Dinajpur, the principal town and Administrative Headquarters of the District, is situated on the east bank of the Purnabhábá, just below the point of its confluence with the Dhápá river, in 25° 38' 0" north latitude and 88° 40' 46" east longitude. This town seems to have declined in importance of late years. In 1808 it was estimated to contain 5000 houses; but the Census of 1872 showed only 3031 houses. The details of the population of the town are as follow:—Muhammadans—males 3728, and females 3288; total, 7016. Hindus—males 3861, and females 1986; total 5847. Christians—males 47, and females 52; total 99. 'Others'—males 64, and females 16; total 80. Total of all denominations—males 7700, and females 5342; grand total 13,042. The great disparity in the proportion of the sexes in the town population arises from the fact that many of the shopkeepers and traders have houses in the country, where they leave their wives and children. Dinajpur is the only municipality in the District. In 1869-70 the municipal income amounted to £885, and the expenditure to the same amount. For 1871 the gross municipal revenue of the town is returned at £627, 4s. od., and the expenditure at £758, 10s. od.; average rate of municipal taxation, 7 annás and 8 pie or 11½d. per head of the population. The municipality supports a police force, which in 1872 consisted of 2 native officers and 40 constables, maintained at a total cost of £334, 6s. od. The remainder of the municipal income is expended chiefly on conservancy purposes.

Village Officials.—The only representatives of the ancient indigenous village corporations at present existing in Dinajpur District appear to be the patwári or village accountant, and the
mandal or village head-man, but their powers and duties have become greatly circumscribed under a more regular system of administration. They still retain, however, considerable vitality, and have much influence among the villagers. The extent to which the co-operation of these officials simplified the taking of the Census in Dinájpur has been described on a previous page. The following paragraphs regarding the position and duties of patwáris and mandals in this District are taken almost verbatim from a report of the Collector, embodied in a volume of Papers regarding the Village Indigenous Agency employed in taking the Bengal Census of 1872.

'The management of zamindáris in the interior, is much in the hands of these officials; and without their co-operation a zamindár finds a difficulty in collecting his rent. These officers form a remnant of the system for the collection of the revenue and internal management of the country, which existed prior to the accession of the English to the government. At the present day, their duties have become merged and lost in newer forms of administration; their powers have decayed, and their influence has diminished. Under Muhammadan rule, the patwári occupied an important position among the subordinate agents employed by Government for collecting the land rent. The patwári was the village accountant, to whom, on the one hand, the cultivators looked for the proper record of their payments in satisfaction of the zamindár's demand, and, on the other hand, the zamindár looked for the proper realization of his dues. The mandal or head-man had also an interest in promoting and extending cultivation. Both these classes of persons were paid in former times either by fixed money salaries, or by being allowed to hold their lands at a reduced rental,—the former method being the usual custom in this District. The patwáris had power and authority only as civil officers; the mandals exercised criminal powers as well: they fined persons for petty thefts and other minor offences, and generally settled the disputes of the community over which they presided. In Dinájpur District, where there is still plenty of waste land available for cultivation, and where the powers of the zamindárs have not become so centralized as elsewhere, traces of the old system still exist.

'At the present day, the patwáris are appointed by the zamindárs, and their duties are to keep the accounts, each of his own village. The patwári is 'not always a resident of the village; but it frequently happens that the same person is patwári as well as mandal.
The *patwāri* is generally paid by a percentage on the collections; and being now simply the *samindār's* agent, he exercises no authority except what he derives from virtue of that office. The villagers have no voice in his election. But the *mandal*, who is to be found in every village, large or small, is the representative of a particular community, and also a resident in the village of which he is the representative. He is appointed by the villagers, subject to the confirmation of the *samindār*, who, however, rarely refuses to confirm a person chosen by the popular voice. The appointment is neither hereditary nor permanent, the villagers having the right to nominate another person to the office, if not satisfied with the conduct of the existing incumbent. The *mandal* is remunerated by a small yearly money payment from the *samindār*, and has also the privilege of holding his land at a fixed rent, and exempt from the payment of any cess to the *samindār*. In return for this, it is his duty to assist the *patwāri* in collecting the rent, to encourage the villagers to bring waste lands into cultivation, and to give information to the police of any crimes or suspicious deaths in the village. The villagers are not bound to pay him anything; but, as a token of respect for his position, they often make him small presents of money or produce. Disputes regarding land are referred to the *mandal*, who decides the matter himself; but in all other cases he generally calls in the aid of a *panchāyat* or arbitration court, composed of those villagers who bear, in the general estimation of the community, the highest character for respectability and trustworthiness. The cases usually brought before this tribunal are those relating to caste disputes, or involving matters of family honour. When the case has been heard and decided in the presence of the assembled villagers, if either party is fined, the *mandal* realizes the amount, and expends it in providing a feast for the principal villagers. With respect to Dinajpur, it is the opinion of the Collector that the authority which the *mandals* and the village *panchāyats* exercise has kept the criminal courts free from a multitude of petty cases which encumber the courts of other Districts; and he trusts that it may be long before the powers of these officials are curtailed. In his belief, a *panchāyat* is more likely to become acquainted with the real facts of a case, and to do substantial justice, than any criminal court.  

Fairs and Religious Gatherings.—Numerous annual fairs and religious gatherings are held in Dinajpur, of which the follow-
The Nekmard fair takes its name from a Muhammadan pir or saint who is buried there, and whose tomb is frequented by large numbers of pilgrims. The fair is held in the village of Bhawanipur, parganá Salbári, about six miles north of Ránísankál police station, and one mile west of the river Kulik. The tomb of the saint is in a mat hut in the centre of a mango grove. The fair is opened on the first day of the Bengali year, corresponding to the 10th or 11th April. It lasts for six or seven days, and is frequented by about a hundred thousand persons from all parts of the country. It is principally a cattle fair, but all varieties of articles are brought there for sale. Major Sherwill, the Revenue Surveyor, gives the following description of the business carried on:—'Oxen come principally from Purniah and surrounding Districts, and are bought up by agents from Maimansinh, Sylhet, and other places. Ponies, mostly from the Bhután hills, are brought down by the Bhutiás. The horses are Cabuls, or country-bred animals from Arrah and the neighbouring Districts of Behar. Elephants are brought from the Darjiling taráí and from Assam, and are purchased by rich samindárs. A few camels also arrive, laden with goods from the north-west; after the packs have been disposed of, the animals are generally sold to wealthy Muhammadans, who eat them on occasions of great feasting. People from all parts of Northern India frequent the fair. Mughuls and Afgháns bring dried fruits, embroidered saddlery, daggers, swords, looking-glasses, etc. Sikhs may be seen manufacturing combs out of ivory and sandal-wood. The hill tribes bring down blankets, woollen cloths, walnuts, musk, ponies, and yak tails. The Nepális sell kukris (heavy bill-hooks, the national weapon of the Gurkhás) and chirétá leaf. Quantities of real and imitation coral beads are exposed for sale by the bankers of Dinájpur. Besides the above, there are English piece goods, brass pots of all sorts and sizes, hookahs, etc. A limited supply of grain is also offered for sale, but probably not more than is required for actual consumption.'

The Alawarkháwá fair is held at the village of the same name, in parganá Salbári, on the occasion of a Hindu religious festival called Ráspumimá, in the month of Kartik (October—November) of each year. The fair continues for eight days, and is frequented by about forty thousand persons. The Dhadghí fair is held at the village of the same name, near the police station of Gangárámpur. It commences on the 1st day of Phálgun, and continues for eight days,
(corresponding to the latter half of February); attendance about twenty thousand. (4) The Sontápur fair commences on the 13th Baisákñ, and also lasts for eight days (corresponding to the last week of April); attendance about twenty thousand.

Material Condition of the People.—Almost the whole population live by agriculture; and even among the shopkeepers and artisan classes, nearly every household supplement their ordinary means of livelihood by cultivating a small patch of land, either by their own hands, or, if sufficiently well off, through others, who receive a share of the crop in return for their labour. Generally speaking, a cultivator’s entire holding is under rice, with the exception of a small patch around the homestead, on which he raises crops of vegetables. The material condition of the people of Dinájpur District is said to be, as a rule, superior to that of the peasantry of the more advanced Districts of the Gangetic delta. The people here are much more simple in their mode of living than those in the Districts to the south. As a rule, every husbandman (chásd) has two wives, and many of them three or four. The husband does all the work of cultivation, while the wives stay at home and weave clothing and sackcloth, the surplus of which, after providing for home consumption, is disposed of at the nearest hát or market.

Dwellings.—The dwelling-houses of cultivators are generally built of straw and matting, as in the southern Districts. But in the khiár tracts (stiff clay lands) mud huts are very common, which are rarely met with in the Gangetic Districts. The framework of these huts is of bamboo or timber, the walls being composed of khiár, a peculiarly tenacious description of clay, which dries to a hardness about half that of an ordinary brick. The dwellings of a well-to-do shopkeeper and of an average husbandman are of the same description, and about the same size. The dwelling for a family of either of these classes generally consists of four apartments, namely, a principal sleeping-room (griha ghar), a cooking-room (páker ghar), a barn or storehouse (golá ghar), and a sitting-room (khánkhá). The first-named room is furnished with a bamboo bedstead, and a large chest for clothing, household utensils, jewellery, etc., the lid of which also serves as a sleeping-place at night. The house of the village mandal or head-man is, as might be expected, usually by far the best house in the village. Some mandals’ houses, indeed, are built of brick, and boast the addition of a tank, plantain and vegetable gardens, etc.
CLOTHING.—Of late years there has been a considerable influx of higher-caste natives from other Districts, who came here in the service of the zamindārs or for mercantile purposes, and have settled down. With the exception of these, and a few persons living in Dinajpur town and at the large river-side produce depots, the dress of all classes in Dinajpur District is the same. At home, the clothing of a man consists simply of a nāngā, a small waist-cloth, barely sufficient for purposes of decency; when abroad, he wears a dhūri or cotton girdle, falling over the thighs, and a gāmchā or small cotton shawl, worn over the shoulders. Formerly the ordinary dress of a woman was a fotā, and a piece of sackcloth. The fotā is a piece of coarse country-made cloth, about a yard and three-quarters in length by about a yard in breadth. It is worn wound round the body under the arms and across the bosom, and descends to the knee, leaving the head, arms, and feet bare. The practice of wearing the khānri, a cloth fastened round the waist, and the end thrown over the head and upper part of the body, as worn by the women of the southern Districts, is gaining ground among Muhammadan females, but very slowly.

FOOD.—The ordinary articles of food eaten by all classes are the same, with the exception that a well-to-do shopkeeper or prosperous cultivator has a greater variety at a single meal than a poor peasant or labourer. The staple article of food, of course, is rice. This is eaten with fish, milk, curds, pulse (dāl), potatoes, kumrā or pumpkin, kadhu or bottle gourd, onions, and other vegetables. The leaves of the jute plant are also commonly used as a vegetable. The following is an estimate of the monthly living expenses of a middling-sized household of the well-to-do shopkeeper class, consisting of a man, two wives, and four children:—Rice, 3 maunds (2½ hundredweights), value Rs. 4. 8. 0 or 9s.; dāl or pulse, 15 ser (30 lbs.), Rs. 1. 4. 0 or 2s. 6d.; sugar, 2 ser (4 lbs.), 3 ánnás or 4½d.; vegetables and chilies, R. 1 or 2s.; fish, R. 1 or 2s.; oil, R. 1 or 2s.; salt, 8 ánnás or 1s.; feed of milch cow, 8 ánnás or 1s.; clothing, R. 1 or 2s.: total, Rs. 10. 15. 0 or £1, 1s. 10½d. per month. The same-sized family of an ordinarily prosperous husbandman would require all the articles mentioned above; which, however, would cost but little in actual money. Rice, pulses, mustard-seed for oil, sugar-cane, and vegetables, he cultivates in his own fields; the fish he requires is caught by himself or his family in a neighbouring marsh or tank; his cattle graze on his own land, and cost him nothing for food; and
nearly all the clothing required by the family is woven by the women of his household.

Agricultural.—The great crop of Dinájpur District is rice. The Collector reports that the following twenty-four varieties are sown in marshy land in June or July, afterwards transplanted, and finally reaped in November or December. They constitute the great áman or winter rice harvest of the year:—(1) Indra sáil; (2) kátí sáil; (3) chandán chur; (4) sindur katuá; (5) chíni dumbar; (6) surjyá ujál; (7) kának chur; (8) saliná; (9) baghán bichí; (10) ulkdábar; (11) sádá saliná; (12) katar bhog; (13) karam; (14) dáfud khání; (15) bánjhu; (16) kálá dhání; (17) kálá níná; (18) búná; (19) chingá; (20) gajal suryá; (21) kandí bansí; (22) mal sirá; (23) bet; and (24) kásáú. The two last-named varieties may be either transplanted or not; but if not transplanted, they must be sown on land sufficiently moist to have water at their roots during the whole of the rainy season. The following eight varieties comprise the áus or autumn rice crop. They are sown broadcast in May on lands which are dry at the time of sowing, but which must be moist when the plant gets into ear and during the time when the grain is being formed. The crop is reaped in August or September:—(1) Abar sáil; (2) bará sáhi; (3) dvní; (4) jamá; (5) dudd hálam; (6) niniá; (7) chhótá sáni; (8) áus. Boro or spring rice is sown in February and reaped in May. No improvement seems to have taken place in the quality of the rice grown in Dinájpur; but the Collector reports that a great deal of march land, formerly waste, has been brought under rice cultivation within the last twenty-five years. The soil appears to have decreased in productive power by over cropping; and it is said that the land now produces less by one-fifth than what it did twenty-five years ago. The following are the principal preparations of rice, and their current price as reported to me by the Collector in 1870:—Bhát; boiled rice; not sold. Muri; paddy, first soaked, then husked, and afterwards parched; sold at from 1½ to 2 ánnás a ser, or from 1¼d. to 1½d. per lb. Khái; paddy parched and fried in hot sand till the grains swell and burst their husks; sold at from 1 to 1½ ánnás a ser, or from ¾d. to 1d. per lb. Chira; paddy boiled, then fried in the husk, and afterwards husked; sold at from 1 to 1½ ánnás a ser, or from ¾d. to 1d. per lb. Pachwádi; rice beer; sold at from 1 to 1½ ánnás a ser liquid measure, or about 2d. a quart bottle.

Other Cereal Crops.—Oats (jáí) and barley (jáb) are cul-
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Cultivated only to a very small extent, the soil not being suitable for their production; sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April; not transplanted. Maize or Indian corn (bhutta or makhai); sown in moist but not too wet land in April, and cut in July or August; not transplanted. *Kauñ*, a species of millet, is sown on moist but not marshy land in March or April, and cut in June or July; not transplanted.

**Oil-seeds.**—Rape-seed (*sarishá*); sown on dry land in August or September, and cut in January or February. Mustard-seed (*rái*); sown on dry land in August or September, and cut in January or February. *Til* seed; sown in moist but not marshy land in July or August, and cut in November.

**Green Crops.**—*Thikri kaláï*; sown in moist but not too wet land in August, and cut in November. *Mug*; sown on moist but not marshy land in August, and cut in November. Peas (*maltar*); sown in moist land in September, and gathered in March. *Khesári* and gram (*bít*); grown in the same description of soil, and sown and gathered at the same season as peas. Gram is only cultivated in the western portion of the District. *Musúri*; sown in dry land in August, and cut in April. *Arhar*; sown in dry land in May or June, and cut in February or March. *Rórá*; sown on dry land in August, and cut in March.

**Fibres.**—Jute (*koshtá pát*); sown in moist land in May or June, and cut in September. China or rhea grass (*kankhurd*); sown on dry, shady, and well-manured land. Cultivated in small quantities only by fishermen, who use it for making nets. Cotton.—*The cultivation of cotton in Dinajpur,* states the Revenue Surveyor, *is almost extinct. In former years it was grown to some extent, when the Government had an agency at Dam-damá, in parganá Khangor, for the purchase of cotton piece-goods. The cultivation might be extended; but Dinajpur can never become a large cotton-producing District, owing to the nature of the soil.*

**Sugar-cane (ikshu);** sown in dry land in April or May. The cane which is reserved for eating is cut when young and tender, in December, while that intended for sugar-making is not cut till the following February or March. Sugar-cane cultivation appears to have declined in Dinajpur District; and on this subject I extract the following remarks from the Revenue Surveyor's Report:—*In former years the cultivation of the sugar-cane was carried to a much greater extent than it is now in Dinajpur. Various reasons are
assigned for its decline. Amongst others, it is asserted that the land has become less favourable to its growth since the waters of the old Tistá have left this part of the country. However this may be, the deterioration of the cane is unquestionable. Mr. G. R. Payter has kindly furnished me with the following account of the introduction of the Otaheitean and Bourbon canes into the southern portion of the District, and their subsequent decay:—"The late Mr. J. W. Payter introduced the Otaheitean and Bourbon varieties of cane into the Saguná estates about the year 1840. At first the people were unwilling to accept them, on account of the novelty. Some of the wisest, however, tried the cultivation, and when its superiority in yield and quality became known, it was eagerly sought after. The yield per bighá was fully double that of the indigenous plant, and the gur made from it was so superior in quality as to command an enhanced price in the market. In short, those who cultivated it in any quantity became comparatively rich. The species introduced consisted of several varieties of the white and purple Bourbon cane; but in the course of a few years it all became of a uniform purple colour, caused, I suppose, by some peculiarity of soil. In the season 1857-58 the cane manifested symptoms of decay, and ultimately it all rotted in the fields. Since 1858 it has entirely disappeared, so that at the present time (1861) not a single cane of these varieties is to be found; and the people have reverted to the cultivation of the native cane, which, though of a fair kind, is not to be compared to the Bourbon. The failure has been a source of much regret and pecuniary loss to the cultivators. I am unable to suggest any reason for its decay, which in this District and in Rangpur has become complete. In the latter District, the Bourbon cane was also much grown. The disease first showed itself in Rangpur two or three years previous to its appearance in Dinajpur; in fact, the progress of the disease was from north to south, the cane in parandá Gilábari dying off the year previous to the disease manifesting itself in Saguná, fifteen or twenty miles farther south. It may have been worn out by high cultivation, or the soil and climate combined may have caused it to deteriorate and decay." The land selected for the cultivation of sugar-cane is always raised above the level of inundation, either naturally, or by excavating ditches all round it, and using the excavated earth for this purpose. The cane is planted in straight furrows. The juice is extracted in a circular mill, working on the principle of a pestle and mortar.
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One mill is often owned by several different parties, who may have cultivated the cane in the same or adjoining villages, and who club together, share the expenses, and assist with men and bullocks in the operations of pressing the cane and boiling the juice, in proportion to the quantity of cane grown by each party.'

Betel Leaf (pán); sown from cuttings in moist land about May, the leaves being fit for plucking when the plant is a year old. Regarding this crop the Revenue Surveyor states: ‘The cultivation of pán in Dináipur District is a little in excess of the local wants; the surplus is principally sold in the town of Dináipur. The average size of a pán boroj or gárden is about eighteen káthás, or nine-tenths of a bighá; but the dimensions vary considerably. A boroj, generally speaking, consists of an oblong enclosure of bamboo framework covered with reeds and grass, and roofed over with the same materials, sufficiently high as to admit a man standing. The plants are neatly arranged in parallel rows about two feet apart, and are made to trail over an upright framework of split bamboos and reeds. The soil best adapted to the growth of the pán is of a stiff yellow kind. The ground requires to be manured annually with oil-cake. There are fifty-two pickings every year, or one a week; a certain number of rows are picked daily, by which a continual supply of fresh leaves is kept up. The annual expense of maintaining a pán garden of the above size, exclusive of the labour performed by the proprietor and the members of his family, is from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 (£2 to £3). The average price of 100 leaves at the village market is one ánñá (1½d.) in the rainy months, and from two to four ánñás (3d. to 6d.) at other seasons of the year.’

Tobacco is cultivated in all parts of the District in sufficient quantities to meet the local demand. It is mostly grown in small patches of rich, highly-manured land on the low banks of rivers, or in the immediate vicinity of the village, being sown in July, transplanted in November, and the leaves plucked in April. The Revenue Surveyor returns the expense of cultivation at about Rs. 5 or Rs. 5. 8. 0 a bighá, or from £1, 10s. od. to £1, 13s. od. an acre. The produce of an average crop is about five maunds of leaf per bighá, or eleven hundredweights per acre, the dried leaf being worth from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 per maunad, or from 10s. 11d. to 19s. 1d. per hundredweight. The leaf is retailed in all the village markets for about 2½ or 3 ánñás a ser, or from 1½d. to 2½d. per lb.

Miscellaneous Crops.—Potato (áhu); sown in dry lands in
September, and dug up in March. Sweet potato (_sakarkand ḍalu_); sown in dry lands in September, and dug up in March. Capsicum (_lanká marich_); sown in dry lands in September; transplanted and gathered in March or April. Onion (_piyāj_); two varieties are grown,—one, which is transplanted, is sown in March or April, and gathered in June or July; the other, which is not transplanted, is sown in September or October, and gathered in February or March. Both varieties are grown on dry lands. Garlic (_rasun_); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in February or March. Ginger (_addā_); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in March or April. Turmeric (_haldi_); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in March or April.

**Area, Out-turn of Crops, etc.—** The present area of Dinajpur District, after recent transfers, is returned by the Boundary Commissioner at 4095.14 square miles, or 2,620,889 acres. In 1870 the Collector estimated that 2,032,287 acres were actually under cultivation, namely, 1,016,148 acres under rice, 201,801 acres under jute, and 841,338 acres under other crops. A good average yield from land paying a rent of Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 9s. an acre, is stated by the Collector to be from 8 to 10 maunds of paddy per bighá, valued at from Rs. 5 to Rs. 7, equal to from 17½ to 22 hundredweights per acre, worth from £1, 10s. od. to £2, 2s. od. Exceptionally good land, which pays as high as Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. an acre, should yield 16 or 17 maunds of paddy per bighá, worth from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12, equal to from 35 to 37 hundredweights per acre, worth from £3 to £3, 12s. od. an acre. Upon some lands a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds is grown, the average value of the produce being from Rs. 5 to Rs. 7 per bighá, or from £1, 10s. od. to £2, 2s. od. per acre. Khūr land, which is let at rents varying from 2 ḍannās to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 9d. to 12s. an acre, produces only one rice crop in the year; but _pali_ land, renting at from R. 1 to Rs. 3. 8. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. to £1, 1s. od. per acre, produces the _dūs_ or autumn rice, together with a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds. It is impossible to estimate the value of these cold-weather crops, owing to their variety and different prices. Perhaps an average of Rs. 5 to Rs. 7 a bighá (£1, 10s. od. to £2, 2s. od. an acre) might be accepted as the fair value of their out-turn. The Collector considers that a good return from land yielding both crops, and paying a rental of Rs. 1. 8. 0 a bighá, or 9s. an acre, would be 9½
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to 12 maunds of produce per bigha, of the value of from Rs. 9 to Rs. 13, equal to from 20 to 26 hundredweights per acre, of the value of from £2, 14s. od. to £3, 18s. od.; and from land at Rs. 3 per bigha, or 18s. an acre, 18 to 20 maunds of produce per bigha, valued at from Rs. 15 to Rs. 19, equal to from 39 to 44 hundredweights per acre, valued at from £4, 10s. od. to £5, 14s. od. These estimates are based upon the standard bigha of 14,400 square feet.

POSITION OF THE CULTIVATORS.—A farm of five 'ploughs,' or about twenty-five acres in extent, is considered a large holding for a peasant; but some of them cultivate as much as twelve 'ploughs,' or sixty acres. Three 'ploughs,' or fifteen acres, is considered a comfortable holding; and indeed a cultivator could maintain a small family from a single 'plough' or five acres of land, although he would not be so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper. As a class, the husbandmen are generally in debt. The land is chiefly held by tenants-at-will; the proportion of cultivators with occupancy rights in the soil does not, in the opinion of the Collector, exceed one in every five of the general body of cultivators. There are very few husbandmen, indeed, who hold their lands under a right of occupancy, and who are at the same time exempt from enhancement of rent. No class of small proprietors exists in Dinajpur District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands themselves, without either a zamindâr or superior landlord of any sort above them, or a sub-tenant or labourer of any sort below them.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—Buffaloes and oxen are the only animals made use of in agriculture. The animals reared or kept for purposes of trade or as food are ponies, oxen, sheep, goats, pigs, geese, ducks, fowls, and pigeons. The Collector reports the price of a fairly good milch cow to be from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 (£2 to £2, 10s. od.); of a pair of small plough oxen, from Rs. 12 to Rs. 16 (£1, 4s. od. to £1, 12s. od.); of a pair of cart oxen, from Rs. 80 to Rs. 150 (£8 to £15); of a score of wether sheep, from Rs. 40 to Rs. 45 (£4 to £4, 10s. od.); of a score of ewe sheep, from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 (£1, 10s. od. to £2, 10s. od.); of a score of kids six months old, from Rs. 15 to Rs. 16 (£1, 10s. od. to £1, 12s. od.); and of a score of full-grown pigs, from Rs. 80 to Rs. 160 (£8 to £16). The Revenue Surveyor in his report states: 'Horned cattle are very plentiful, but unusually small and feeble. Whether the cattle were originally of the present diminutive type
is not clear; but they bear the impress of great deterioration, more especially in the southern part of the District. The horns of these pigmy creatures are so ill-developed, that they have the least possible resemblance to horns, and consist of an unnatural-looking excrescence, thicker at the extremities than at the base, and growing in any direction but the natural one. Pasturage is plentiful, but deficient in nourishment. Milk is everywhere very scarce. The villagers complain that the cows give less milk now than formerly. The consequence is that the calves are deprived of the little nourishment their mothers are able to supply; and the apathetic cultivator looks placidly on at the deterioration of his sickly cattle, and attempts nothing to improve the breed. Notwithstanding that many thousand head of cattle have been destroyed by murrain, and the havoc committed among them by tigers, they are very abundant. In the northern parts of the District the cattle are stronger, and in the adjoining District of Purniah a very superior breed is obtained. Goats are very plentiful, but in the south of the District are exceedingly small."

**Agricultural Implements.**—"The agricultural implements used by the peasantry are of the most primitive description. The plough is a solid piece of wood, tipped sometimes with a point of iron, and fixed to a pole or bamboo, to which are yoked a couple of small lean oxen. No kind of harness is necessary to yoke them to the plough, which is very light, and is generally left on the ground after the day's work; if required to be moved, it is easily carried away on the ploughman's shoulders. In the north of the District, where the soil is light and free, the iron tip to the plough is dispensed with." The following is a list of the various implements used in ordinary agriculture:—(1) *Nángal*, or plough; (2) *joyáž*, or yoke; (3) *lohr phál*, iron ploughshare; (4) *mádi*, a harrow and clod-crusher, constructed of bamboo in the form of a ladder, and dragged by oxen, the driver standing upon the implement to give it weight; (5) *biddá*, a scarifier, made of a bamboo framework with iron teeth, used to thin the plants when they are newly sprung up; (6) *kódáli*, or hoe; (7) *kásté or káchi*, reaping-hook; (8) *pásan*, weeding-hook; (9) *kuráli*, axe; (10) *dáo*, bill-hook; (11) *kasawá*, small bill-hook; (12) *khunti*, iron-shod stick for making holes. For the tillage of a single 'plough' of land, little is required beyond a plough, a pair of oxen, and a sickle, with perhaps one or two of the implements mentioned above; the total
value of the plough, cattle, and implements being about Rs. 20 or £2.

Wages.—In 1870 the current rate of wages in Dinajpur District was returned by the Collector as follows:—Coolies and agricultural labourers received Rs. 2 (4s.) per month with food, or Rs. 4. 8. 0 (9s.) per month without food; smiths earned from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 (£1 to £1, 10s. od.) per month; bricklayers and carpenters from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 (12s. to 16s.) per month. No record exists showing the ordinary rate of wages for years prior to 1870.

Prices.—The Collector returns the ordinary price of food-grains and other produce, in 1870, as under:—Best cleaned rice, Rs. 1. 7. 0 per maund, or 3s. 11d. a hundredweight; common rice, R. 1 per maund, or 2s. 9d. a hundredweight; best unhusked rice, R. 1 per maund, or 2s. 9d. a hundredweight; common unhusked rice, 9 annás a maund, or 1s. 6d. a hundredweight; unhusked barley, Rs. 2. 13. 0 a maund, or 7s. 8d. a hundredweight; barley flour (chhata), Rs. 5 per maund, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight; gur (unrefined sugar), from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per maund, or from 8s. 2d. to 13s. 8d. a hundredweight; chint (refined sugar), from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 a maund, or from £1, 7s. 4d. to £2, 1s. od. a hundredweight; common distilled rice spirits, 10 annás or 1s. 3d. per quart bottle.

Weights and Measures.—The local weights and measures, with their English equivalents, are returned as follows:—Weights: 6 dhán = 1 rati or 0.683 dram; 6 rati = 1 ánnda or 0.41 dram; 4 ánnda = 1 sikkí or 1.64 drams; 4 sikkí = 1 tolá or 180 grains troy or 6.56 drams avoirdupois; 5 tolá = 1 chháták or 2.05 oz.; 16 chháták = 1 ser or 2.05 lbs.; 5 ser = 1 pasuri or 10.25 lbs.; 8 pasuri = 1 maund or 82 lbs. This is the standard weight, but is not by any means in common use. No kind of uniformity of weight prevails in Dinajpur. The weight of the ser varies in different parts of the District. In the south of the District the ser is 58 or 60 tolá weight, while in the northern tracts it is 96; in the town of Dinajpur the ser varies from 90 to 96 tolás. Again, particular commodities are sold by different standards. Thus, rice is ordinarily sold by the ser of 60 tolá weight, instead of the standard ser of 80 tolás; and sugar by the ser of 68 tolás. All my calculations in this Statistical Account are based upon the standard ser of 80 tolás and the maund of 82 lbs. avoirdupois. The different denominations of measures of quantity, liquid or dry, are as follow: 4 kanchhá = 1
CHHATÁK; 4 CHHATÁK = 1 POYÁ; 4 POYÁ = 1 SER; 40 SER = 1 MAUND. Rice is bought and sold wholesale according to the following standard of quantity:—5 SER = 1 KÁTHÁ; 20 KÁTHÁ = 1 BIS; 16 BIS = 1 PAUTÍ. Square measure: 1 DHL = 36 SQUARE FEET; 1½ DHL = 1 CHHATÁK OR 45 SQUARE FEET; 16 CHHATÁK = 1 KÁTHÁ OR 720 SQUARE FEET; 20 KÁTHÁ = 1 BIGHÁ OR 14,400 SQUARE FEET. This is the Government or standard bighá, and all my calculations regarding the out-turn of crops, etc. are based upon it. The bighá, however, varies in extent in different parts of the District. Long measure: 12 ANGULÍ OR FINGER-BREADTHS = 1 BIGHÁT OR SPAN; 2 BIGHÁT = 1 HÁTH OR CUBIT; 80 HÁTH = 1 RASI OR 6¼ POLES; 100 RASI = 1 KOS OR 2 MILES. Measure of time: 1 ANUPÁL = ½ OF A SECOND; 60 ANUPÁL = 1 PÁL OR 24 SECONDS; 60 PÁL = 1 DANDÁ OR 24 MINUTES; 7½ DANDÁ = 1 PHRAHAR OR THREE HOURS; 8 PHRAHAR = 1 DIBAS OR DAY AND NIGHT OF 24 HOURS.

LANDLESS LABOURING CLASSES.—At harvest and seed-time, gangs of labourers come to Dinajpur from Purniah and other Districts for field work, and are paid in money either by the day or month. Many permanent labourers are employed on the holdings of the larger agriculturists; they are paid a small money wage in addition to their food, but never by a share of the crop. Many husbandmen who have a larger holding than they can cultivate with their own hands, instead of employing hired labour for the purpose, make over the land on a MÉTAYÉR tenure to another person to cultivate. The landholder advances the seed, the tenant finding labour, oxen, and implements. At harvest time, after the crop has been gathered in, the seed-grain originally advanced is repaid, and the balance shared equally between the proprietor and the cultivator. Occasionally the oxen are provided by the landlord, who in this case receives a larger share of the crop than if the cultivator had to find them. Occasionally, also, it happens that the landlord makes a money advance as well, but such instances are extremely rare. Women and children are largely employed in field work.

LAND TENURES.—The following account of the different varieties of land tenures met with in Dinajpur District is quoted in a condensed form in a report on the subject drawn up by BÁBU HARI MOHAN CHANDRA, Deputy-Collector, dated 15th January 1875:—

ZAMINDÁRIS.—The following is a list of the number of zamindáris, or estates paying revenue direct to Government, in each of the 79 PARGANÁS of Dinajpur District, as returned by the Deputy-Collector:—(1) ALIHÁT, 1 estate; (2) ALIGÁON, 5 estates; (3) AMBÁRI, 1 estate;
(4) Andalgón, 1 estate; (5) Amdahar, 1 estate; (6) Apail, 20 estates; (7) Babanpur, 1 estate; (8) Bador, 5 estates; (9) Bahá-mankunda, 1 estate; (10) Bájitpur, 17 estates; (11) Bárbakpur, 1 estate; (12) Baráigón, 5 estates; (13) Batásun, 6 estates; (14) Behinnagar, 17 estates; (15) Bhitarband, 2 estates; (16) Bhúínhará, 11 estates; (17) Bijainágár, 37 estates; (18) Bindhárá, 3 estates; (19) Chálnun, 9 estates; (20) Charkái, 1 estate; (21) Chatnagar, 1 estate; (22) Chanrá, 11 estates; (23) Debikot, 9 estates; (24) Dehatá, 17 estates; (25) Delwarpur, 9 estates; (26) Deora, 38 estates; (27) Dhánjor, 10 estates; (28) Fathijangpur, 1 estate; (29) Ghagra, 1 estate; (30) Gorághát, 41 estates; (31) Gilábári, 52 estates; (32) Hansiá Bangalipur, 1 estate; (33) Hatindá, 1 estate; (34) Jahángírpur, 13 estates; (35) Jhapartáil, 10 estates; (36) Kánkhol, 1 estate; (37) Kantánagar, 1 estate; (38) Karábári, 5 estates; (39) Khalára, 2 estates; (40) Khálslí, 8 estates; (41) Khán-gor, 2 estates; (42) Kháral, 3 estates; (43) Khardaha, 46 estates; (44) Khás Táuluk, 5 estates; (45) Khet Lál, 1 estate; (46) Khupí, 1 estate; (47) Kunj Gorághát, 2 estates; (48) Lalbári Jágír, 1 estate; (49) Lalbári Khalisá, 4 estates; (50) Madnábati, 3 estates; (51) Mahásinchpur, 5 estates; (52) Mahásá, 22 estates; (53) Mahánagar, 2 estates; (54) Malďwar, 2 estates; (55) Maligáon, 4 estates; (56) Masidhá, 5 estates; (57) Mathurápur, 1 estate; (58) Nurpur, 23 estates; (59) Panjrá, 34 estates; (60) Poládasi, 3 estates; (61) Phulbári, 7 estates; (62) Pustál, 7 estates; (63) Rádhabállabhpur, 4 estates; (64) Rájnagar, 26 estates; (65) Sálbári, 74 estates; (66) Santosh, 53 estates; (67) Sarhattá, 7 estates; (68) Sásbír, 17 estates; (69) Sáripur, 1 estate; (70) Sikarpur, 3 estates; (71) Siksañ, 1 estate; (72) Sújápur, 2 estates; (73) Sultañpur, 9 estates; (74) Surahar Maniker, 12 estates; (75) Sújánagar, 2 estates; (76) Swarráppur, 4 estates; (77) Taherpur, 1 estate; (78) Tájpur, 2 estates; (79) Uchannasta, 1 estate. Total, 779 estates, paying a land revenue to Government of Rs. 1,712,605, or £1,171,260, 10s. od. These 779 estates are classified as follows, according to the amount of assessment paid by them:—238 estates, comprising a total of 21,000 acres, pay an annual assessment below Rs. 100 or £10; 400 estates, comprising 1,161,000 acres, pay between Rs. 100 and Rs. 500 (from £10 to £500); 100 estates, comprising 1,850,000 acres, pay between Rs. 500 and Rs. 50,000 (from £500 to £5000); and 1 estate, comprising 88,000 acres, pays upwards of Rs. 50,000 (£5000). The whole of these
estates are permanently settled. Besides these, there are 10 small estates, comprising an area of 1719 acres, and assessed at Rs. 215 or £21 10s. od. a year, known as 'resumed mahals;' and also 4 Government estates, comprising an area of 295 acres, and assessed at Rs. 42 or £4 4s. od. a year. These petty estates were the property of private individuals, who held them revenue-free previous to 1819. Under Regulation ii. of that year—the Resumption Law—they were resumed by Government, and the tenures made liable to assessment, the title-deeds by which the holders claimed to hold their lands rent-free having been found to be invalid. Some of the dispossessed holders of these estates appeared before the authorities, and agreed to pay the revenue assessed upon their estates, which have since been permanently settled with them. The estates of the recusant proprietors are still in the hands of Government. Under the present Regulations, they can neither be sold nor permanently settled with other persons than the original proprietors. They are therefore managed either directly by the Collector, or are let out in farm for various periods. Of the four Government estates, one has been purchased by Government at a sale for arrears of revenue; the remaining three are escheats. The number of revenue-free estates in Dinajpur is 133, comprising a total area of 32,920 acres. These were also attached under the Resumption Law; but the deeds on which the proprietors claimed the land were declared to be valid, and the tenures were recognised by Government as revenue-free. They are principally brāhmottar, devottar, and ṁarpāl lands, granted before the British accession to the dīwānī, either by the emperors of Dehli or by the Dinajpur Rājās. At the time of the Revenue Survey of the District, in 1858-61, several petty estates were brought to light, the existence of which was unknown before. These are known as izād or surplus estates; they number 68, and comprise a total area of 10,588 acres. They are held revenue-free, but if not protected by the Limitation Statute, are considered to be liable to resumption and settlement.

The Deputy-Collector returns the total area in the possession of the samindârs and the number of their estates as follow:—Total area of the District, according to the Revenue Survey, 3,167,864 acres, divided into 994 estates. Deducing from this total 2014 acres and 14 estates for the resumed and Government estates, 33,920 acres and 133 estates for the revenue-free tenures, and
10,588 acres and 68 estates as ḭadd or surplus estates, there remains a balance of 3,122,308 acres as the approximate area in the possession of the zamīndārs, divided into 779 estates. The total area given above, namely, 3,167,864 acres or 4950 square miles, probably represents the revenue area, or the tract the Government land revenue of which is paid into the Dinajpur treasury; and does not correspond with the magisterial or geographical area of the District, which was returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874 at 4095.14 square miles. A zamīndār either keeps his estate in his own management, or lets out his land in parcels on lease (patni) or on farm (ijārā). Patnis and ijārās are the only two important tenures immediately under the zamīndār.

There are also istimrārī tāluks held directly from the zamīndār, existing from a period anterior to the Permanent Settlement, but these tenures are few in number in Dinajpur. The Deputy-Collector mentions the following as the principal reasons for a zamīndār letting out his estate in patni or ijārā:—(1) The difficulty and expense of realizing his rents. (2) The loss which he suffers owing to the desertion of the cultivators without paying their rent, just after the cold-weather crop has been cut. This is particularly the case with the Pāliyā rayats in the south of the District. (3) The indolent habits of some zamīndārs. (4) The distance of a zamīndār's residence from his estate. It is estimated that about five-eighths of the area of the District is let out, principally in patni or ijārā; the remaining three-eighths being under the khāś management of the zamīndārs.

SUBORDINATE TENURES.—The rent-paying tenures held immediately under the zamīndār are, as stated above, istimrārī tāluks, patnis, and ijārās, each of which has a variety of under-tenures of its own. The nature and peculiarities of these tenures are described by the Deputy-Collector as follow:—(1) Istimrārī or mukarrārī tāluks. These tenures are those which were created by the zamīndārs or others having a proprietary right in the soil, before the Permanent Settlement of Lord Cornwallis in 1793. They were granted to the lessees, their heirs and successors, in perpetuity, at a fixed rate of rent. The holders of these tenures can transfer or sublet their tāluks in patni, ijārā, or otherwise. The tenures are liable to sale only for arrears of rent, and by a decree of a civil court, under the provisions of Act viii. of 1869. In the case of the sale of the parent estate, under Act xi. of 1859, VOL. VII.
for arrears of Government revenue, the holders of\textit{ istimrāri tāluk}s are protected from ejectment or enhancement of rent on the part of the auction purchaser. The number of\textit{ istimrāri tāluk}s in Dinájpur cannot be ascertained, but it is comparatively small.

(2)\textit{ Patni tāluk}. This tenure had its origin on the estates of the Mahārājā of Bardwān, but has since become common throughout Bengal. It is a tenure created by the\textit{ zamindār}, to be held by the lessee and his heirs for ever, at a rent fixed in perpetuity. A\textit{ salāmi} or present, equal in value to from three to five times the annual rent, is paid by the lessee to the\textit{ zamindār} on the creation of the grant. The grant once made, the\textit{ zamindār} is divested of connection with the property, the\textit{ patnidār} acquiring every right of proprietorship which the\textit{ zamindār} possessed. On failure to pay the rent, however, the\textit{ zamindār} has power to sell the tenure under the provisions of Regulation viii. of 1819. Fifty-four of such tenures are registered in the Collector's office under sections 40 and 41 of Act xi. of 1859. There are probably others which have not been registered, but not many, for the tenure is such a valuable one, that the holder is not likely to neglect this precaution against losing it. The fifty-four registered\textit{ patni} estates in Dinájpur District are scattered over twenty-two\textit{ parganā}s. The Deputy-Collector returns the number of these estates found in each\textit{ parganā}, together with the rent they pay to the\textit{ zamindār}, as follows:—

(1) Dearā, 4 estates, average rent \textbf{L}46, 14s. od.; (2) Phulbārī, 2 estates, average rent \textbf{L}247, 16s. od.; (3) Gilābārī, 7 estates, average rent \textbf{L}198, 10s. od.; (4) Polādāsī, 8 estates, average rent \textbf{L}58, 6s. od.; (5) Santosh, 3 estates, average rent \textbf{L}75; (6) Gorāghāt, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}141, 6s. od.; (7) Aligāon, 2 estates, average rent \textbf{L}25, 8s. od.; (8) Bījānagar, 7 estates, average rent \textbf{L}390, 16s. od.; (9) Karāibārī, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}210, 16s. od.; (10) Khardaha, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}130, 2s. od.; (11) Dehattā, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}29, 10s. od.; (12) Shikārpur, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}49, 10s. od.; (13) Kāntānagar, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}3000; (14) Behinnagar, 2 estates, average rent \textbf{L}324, 10s. od.; (15) Chaura, 2 estates, average rent \textbf{L}40, 4s. od.; (16) Jahāngīr pur, 3 estates, average rent \textbf{L}285; (17) Sāsbārī, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}47; (18) Khās Tāluk, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}16, 2s. od.; (19) Panjra, 3 estates, average rent \textbf{L}1806, 4s. od.; (20) Deorā, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}753, 14s. od.; (21) Rādhāballabhpur, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}40, 18s. od.; (22) Jhāpārtāl, 1 estate, rent \textbf{L}229, 10s. od. A\textit{ patnidār} has the power of sub-
letting his tenure, the sub-tenant acquiring the same rights as the patnīddār himself possesses from the zamīndār. A patnī when sublet becomes a dar-patnī; a dar-patnī when sublet becomes a se-patnī. Arrears of rent from these sub-tenures are recoverable under Act viii. of 1869. The Deputy-Collector is unable to state the number of such subordinate patnī tenures existing in Dinájpur District.

(3) Ijárd. An ijárd is a temporary lease or farm. The ijárdādār has no permanent interest in the estate, and his sole object is to make as much as possible out of the cultivators during the term of his lease. He is, however, debarred from ousting the tenants, or from enhancing their rents. In some cases a zamīndār makes over his estate in ijárd to a person to whom he owes money, in order to liquidate the debt. These latter are called dai sud ijárdás, but they are very few in number in Dinájpur District. Ijárdás are generally granted for a term of four or five years, sometimes for eight or ten years, but very seldom for a longer period than twenty years. A zamīndār cannot oust an ijárdādār, except by a decree of the civil court for arrears of rent under Act viii. of 1869. In the event of a sale of the estate for arrears of Government revenue, the purchaser can oust the ijárdādār, except in the case of an ijárd granted for a term of twenty years or upwards, and duly registered under the provisions of Act xi. of 1859. An ijárd is sometimes sublet, and becomes a dar-ijárd,—the term, of course, being limited by that of the ijárd itself. The dar-ijárdādār enjoys all the rights and privileges of the ijárdādār. The District records give no information as to the number of ijárdás or dar-ijárdás existing in Dinájpur.

Cultivating Tenures or Jots.—These are of the following descriptions, namely:—(1) Maurūsi jots are holdings created by a zamīndār, to be held by cultivators in perpetuity, at a fixed rate of rent. These tenures are transferable; and the purchaser acquires all the rights and privileges of the original holder. (2) Is-timrārī jots are cultivators' holdings, the rents of which have not been altered for a period of twenty years, and the owners of which have thus acquired the right of holding them free from liability to enhancement. These tenures, like the foregoing, are saleable by the holders. (3) Jots of cultivators with occupancy rights are holdings of at least twelve years' standing. The owners of these jots cannot be ejected, but the rent can be enhanced by a suit in the civil court. (4) Jots of tenants-at-will are the holdings of culti-
vators who do not possess a right of occupancy, and are liable to ejectment and to the payment of enhanced rents. Generally speaking, the written leases of this class of tenants are limited to a term of two or three years, but in Dinajpur District very few of these holdings are granted on written engagements. (5) Thiká jots are holdings granted for a specified term, generally one or two years, on payment of a stated sum as rent, which is fixed without reference to the quantity of land cultivated. (6) Rasudi jots are holdings, generally of newly-cultivated land, granted at progressive rates of rent for a specified period. Very few of these holdings, however, are met with in Dinajpur District. (7) Adhi jots are lands cultivated by persons other than the holders, on condition of retaining a share in the produce. The cultivator usually finds the plough-bullocks and all the needful agricultural implements, and retains a half-share of the crop at harvest time. (8) Nij jots are the home farms of the zamindârs. (9) Chákran lands are holdings held rent-free in return for services performed to the zamindár, usually by village watchmen, barbers, washermen, or domestic servants, who are remunerated in this manner instead of by money wages. Such tenures are only temporary, and are liable to be resumed by the zamindár when the services of the holders are no longer required.

Lakhiraj or Rent-free Holdings.—These tenures obtain all over the District, and are principally of the following kinds:—

(1) Brâhmottar and Vaishnavottar, for the maintenance of Brâhmans and Vaishnavs; (2) Debottar, for the worship of the gods; (3) Pir-pâl, for the maintenance of mosques, raised to the memory of Muhammadan pîrs or saints; (4) Aimá lákhirâj, lands granted in charity, or as a reward for services rendered, etc. These rent-free holdings are of very small extent, being generally from 1 to 5 bighâs, and not exceeding 40 or 50 bighâs. Lâkhirâj estates of all sorts are exempted from any payments to their donors. Most of the present holders of these tenures are purchasers from the original grantees. These lákhirâj lands must not be confounded with the revenue-free lands mentioned in a previous page. The distinction is that the lákhirâj lands are only rent-free, being still liable to Government revenue, which is charged on the estates to which they originally belonged, while the 'valid revenue-free tenures' are altogether exempted from Government assessment.

Soils.—Cultivable land is divided into two classes, known as
pali and khiår. Pali lands are of a light sandy loam, and produce crops of every description. Khiår lands are a much stiffer soil, and produce only rice crops. These, again, are subdivided as follows:—Bástu, land on which the cultivator’s homestead is situated; ud-bástu, land immediately surrounding the homestead, and generally used as a kitchen garden; niná, low land, inundated during the rainy season; dangá or karpá, high land, producing sugar-cane, cotton, etc.; sarishá, land producing mustard-seed; dhání or salí, rice land; káchá, nursery land for seedlings; bhar chhayalápi, low, marshy land, which remains under water nearly all the year round; bhar dangá, high land, which is never or very rarely under water. These lands are all of four qualities,—awal or first class, doem or second class, soem or third class, and chharam or fourth class land.

Rates of Rent.—The table on the two next pages, showing the rates of rent payable for different descriptions of land in various parganás of Dinajpur District, is quoted from a return submitted by the Collector to the Government of Bengal, dated 31st July 1872. It will be observed that there are four varying bighás in vogue in different parganás, namely, one of 80 háths of 18 inches (the standard bighá) = 1600 square yards; one of 90 háths of 18 inches = 2025 square yards; one of 83 háths of 21 inches = 2304 square yards; and one of 84 háths of 21 inches = 2401 square yards. The table shows the rate of rent paid per local bighá, and also the proportionate rent per English acre of 4840 square yards, the amount being expressed in sikká or in Company’s rupees, according to the denomination in which it is payable. In many parganás the old sikká rupee is still retained; and where rents are paid according to that standard, a charge for bálté or exchange is levied by the zamindár.

These rates do not include mangan, karchá, and other irregular cesses, which are levied more or less all over the District. In the southern parganás of the District the rates are somewhat higher than in other parts. This is accounted for by the vicinity of such lands to the large rice-mart of Nitpur, and to Samjjá or Kunwárganj, villages possessing a considerable export trade. Rents have increased of late years throughout the District, but the Collector doubts if this result is attributable to the operations of Act x. of 1859.

Manure is used on khiår rice lands, and also on such pali lands

[Sentence continued on page 408.]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Pargana.</th>
<th>Description of Lands.</th>
<th>Measure of each Bigha.</th>
<th>Rent payable per local Bigha.</th>
<th>Proportionate Rent per Acre of 4840 English Square Yards.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rs. a.</td>
<td>Rs. a. g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dehattach</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>84 cubits of 21 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 6 to 0 9 sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 to 1 2 3 sikkė</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sālbāri</td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 2 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurpur</td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
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<td>2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behinnagar</td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
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<td>1 0</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 2 4 &quot;</td>
</tr>
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<td>Tājpur</td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 10 &quot; 1 0 &quot;</td>
<td>1 4 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 12 &quot;</td>
<td>0 8 1 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bil or Bund,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 6 &quot; 0 12 &quot;</td>
<td>0 8 1 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
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<td>0 8 1 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 12 &quot; 1 0 &quot;</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bil or Bund,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 6 &quot; 0 12 &quot;</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahasha</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahinagar</td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilāpur</td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 8 &quot; 0 12 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bil or Bund,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 10 &quot; 1 8 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dāngā,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 12 &quot; 0 12 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bil or Bund,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 10 &quot; 1 8 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kardahā</td>
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<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>1 2 3 Co.'s</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasbhā</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>1 2 3 Co.'s</td>
<td>2 0 5 &quot; 4 0 10 sikkė</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jahangirpur</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>0 4 &quot; 0 10 &quot; sikkė</td>
<td>0 12 2 &quot; 1 8 3 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santos</td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>24 inches, i.e. 240&quot;</td>
<td>1 2 3 Co.'s</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 2 0 5 &quot;</td>
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</table>
## Rates of Rent for Ordinary Land in Dinajpur District—continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Pargana.</th>
<th>Description of Lands.</th>
<th>Measure of each Bigha.</th>
<th>Rent payable per local Bigha.</th>
<th>Proportionate Rent per Acre of 4840 English Square Yards.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rs. a.</td>
<td>Rs. a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pustáil,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>{ 90 cubits of 18 inches, <em>i.e.</em> 2025 } square yards.</td>
<td>1 8 to 3 0 sikká.</td>
<td>3 97 to 7 2 14 sikká.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 0 &quot; 2 0 &quot;</td>
<td>2 6 4 &quot; 4 12 8 &quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khet Lál,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>{ 84 cubits of 21 inches, <em>i.e.</em> 2401 } square yards.</td>
<td>1 12 Co.'s</td>
<td>3 8 8 Co.'s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>0 12 Co.'s</td>
<td>1 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot; Jungle lands,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>0 12 &quot; 1 8 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 3 0 7 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khás Táluk,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>0 12 2 0 sikká</td>
<td>0 8 1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
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<td>2 0 sikká</td>
<td>3 8 8 Co.'s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1 0 &quot; 1 4 &quot;</td>
<td>1 0 2 &quot; 4 0 10 &quot;</td>
</tr>
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<td>1 8 3</td>
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<td>1 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>3 8 8 Co.'s</td>
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<td>Kánché,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
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<td>1 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awal,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 12 2 0 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doem,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 12 2 0 &quot;</td>
<td>1 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sultánpur,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 12 Co.'s</td>
<td>3 8 8 Co.'s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apail,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 12 Co.'s</td>
<td>3 8 8 Co.'s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deará,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>{ 80 cubits of 18 inches, <em>i.e.</em> 1600 } square yards.</td>
<td>1 11 1 6 &quot;</td>
<td>3 8 &quot; 4 2 11 &quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>{ 84 cubits of 21 inches, <em>i.e.</em> 2401 } square yards.</td>
<td>1 6 &quot;</td>
<td>2 12 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ambáír,</td>
<td>Pali,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>0 9 &quot; 1 9 1agr.C.'s</td>
<td>1 2 3 &quot; 3 3 12 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panjrá,</td>
<td>Khiar,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>0 9 &quot; 1 4 sikká</td>
<td>1 2 3 &quot; 1 12 4 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Báishazári,</td>
<td>Pali and Khiar,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1 0 &quot; 1 10gr. to Rs. 2 Co.'s</td>
<td>2 0 5 sikká</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bijainagar,</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>{ 83 cubits of 21 inches, <em>i.e.</em> 2304 } square yards.</td>
<td>0 11 9 2 12 Co.'s</td>
<td>1 8 3 &quot; 4 3 4 Co.'s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
as produce sugar-cane and other valuable crops. Cow-dung is most commonly used; and the Collector reports that this manure is employed to a greater extent in Dinajpur than in other Districts of Bengal. About twenty maunds per bighá (equal to 44 hundredweights per acre) would be considered a liberal allowance of cow-dung manure for rice land; and eighty maunds per bighá (equal to 175½ hundredweights per acre) for sugar-cane lands. Clay dug from pits is also used as a fertilizer, and is mixed with the surface soil at the time the crop is taken off the field. Cow-dung is never bought and sold; and the Collector states that it is impossible to form an estimate as to the cost of manure.

Irrigation is hardly practised at all in Dinajpur except for boro rice, for which it is absolutely necessary. This crop, however, is only grown in one small part of the District. In a very dry season, or when the rains set in late, the seed rice and young plants may occasionally require irrigation. In such a case the water is raised from a neighbouring well or tank by means of a lever. The cost of irrigation to the cultivator is not easily estimated. The wells are constructed by kumárs or potters, who dig them as well as make the circular earthenware rings which are placed round the side of the well one above the other, in order to prevent it from falling in. The cost of constructing a well in pali land is from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 (45. to 10s.), and in khidr land from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30 (£1 to £3). In the former, water is reached within from 12 to 25 feet of the surface; in the latter, water is seldom met with in less than 40 feet from the surface, and the soil being firmer, the earthenware rings are not always used. Khidr or rice land is never allowed to remain fallow. Pali land receives an occasional rest, being usually allowed to remain uncultivated one or two years in every five or six. No system of rotation of crops is practised or understood by the people.

Natural Calamities.—Dinajpur does not suffer from blights or floods to any appreciable degree. During the rainy season, a great portion of the District is under water, caused both by the rising of the rivers and by heavy local rainfall. The inundation, however, does little or no harm. Drought is the only calamity which exercises any serious prejudicial effect on the crops; but even this seldom does more than increase the selling price of rice about fifteen per cent. The Collector reports (1871) that no demand exists for canals or irrigation works.
Famine Warnings.—The maximum prices of rice during the famine year of 1865-66 were, for best cleaned rice, Rs. 4. 7. 0 per maund, or 12s. 1d. a hundredweight; and for common rice, Rs. 4. 1. 6 a maund, or 11s. 2d. a hundredweight. In January 1871 the Collector reported to me that prices had then returned to what were considered as their ordinary rates before 1866. The áman or winter rice is the principal crop of Dinajpur; and if this failed, the dus or autumn rice crop would not suffice to feed the people. Fortunately, however, the Collector states that the áman harvest has never been known to fail altogether. This opinion was recorded in 1871; but the protracted drought in the autumn of 1873, which destroyed the áman crops generally in the north of Bengal, was severely felt even in Dinajpur. The scarcity that resulted was so great as to compel the Government to undertake relief operations on a grand scale. The total amount expended on public works and charitable distributions connected therewith in Dinajpur District in that year, as returned in the District Road Fund Report, amounted to £162,188.

Foreign and Absentee Proprietors.—In 1871 there were only two Europeans registered as proprietors on the rent-roll of the District. The number of Musalmán proprietors in the same year was 573, out of a total of 739; the amount of land revenue paid by them being £19,144, out of a total of £173,454. Of the total land revenue of Dinajpur District, 45 per cent., or £79,472, is derived from the estates of absentee proprietors.

Roads and Means of Communication.—In 1871 the Collector returned the principal roads and traffic routes as follow:—(1) An imperial line of road running from south to north, from Barbampur through the town of Dinajpur on to Darjiling. The length of this road within Dinajpur District is about 130 miles. The Collector is unable to return the cost of maintenance and repairs expended on this road, as it is under the management of the Public Works Department. The following are the roads under local management:—(2) Gangárnámpur road, 18 miles in length; average cost of maintenance (1871), £10. (3) Rangpur road, 24 miles; average cost of maintenance, £30. (4) Bográ road, 36 miles; average cost, £25. (5) Maldah road, 40 miles; average cost, £40. (6) Purniah road, 48 miles; average cost, £15. (7) Nekmard Fair road, 36 miles; average cost, £5. During the Bengal scarcity of 1874, which was felt with considerable severity in Dinajpur District, the famine
relief operations, which were undertaken in order to provide labour and food for the distressed, were chiefly directed to repairing existing lines of road, constructing new roads, tank digging, etc. The amount expended under the District officers on the local roads in 1874 is returned as follows in a report by the Collector on the Dináipur Road Fund for the year 1874, dated 10th July 1875, and published in the Calcutta Gazette of 29th September 1875, part i. p. 1245 et seq.:

—Repairs to old roads—Maldah road, £1054, 13s. 6d.; Rangpur road, £141, 15s. 3d.; Bográ road, £189, 16s. 3d.; Purniah road, £2126, 19s. 9d.; Murshidábád road, £3095, 16s. 9d.; Gangarámpur road, £11, 19s. 10d.; Dájriling road, £1361, 13s. 3d.; tools and plant establishment, etc., £311, os. 10d.; total, £8283, 15s. 5d. New roads constructed as feeders to the Northern Bengal State Railway—Road from Gorághát to Hílí, £1451, 3s. 11d.; road from Phulbári to Pirganj in Rangpur, £223, 8s. 6d.; road from Phulbári to Samjija, £325, 9s. 9d.; road from Phulbári to Bauchandá in Rangpur, £175, 4s. 11d.; road from Phulbári to Pátrám, £520, 14s. 2d.; road from Kachudánga to Berámpur, £168, 18s. 10d.; road from Nitpur to Síbpur, £729, 8s. 8d.; road from Síbpur to Dam-damá, £1773, 11s. 8d.; road from Síbpur to Sitáhár in Bográ, £590, 13s. 2d.; road from Párbatipur to Rangpur, £50, 10s. 10d.; road from Gorághát to Samjija, £11, 5s. 6d.; tools, plant, etc., £162, 3s. 1d.; total, £6182, 13s. 0d. Total of repairs and of new roads, £14,466, 8s. 5d. Besides this large sum, a very much greater amount was assigned to the special famine officers appointed to the District, for road making, tank digging, and other works of local improvement. For this purpose the District was divided into sixteen circles. The total amount thus spent by the relief officers is returned in the accounts of the District Road Fund at £162,188; but the materials before me do not show how much of it was expended upon road making as distinguished from tank digging, purchase of grain, or any of the other items connected with famine relief.

The new Northern Bengal State Railway will intersect the eastern tract of Dináipur District for a distance of about thirty miles. The five canals existing in the District have been described in a previous section of this Statistical Account. As already mentioned, they have been constructed by rājás and wealthy zamindárs for the purpose of religious processions, and not with any view to traffic.

Manufactures.—Dináipur is purely an agricultural District,
TRADE AND COMMERCE: RICE EXPORTS. 411

and manufactures are very few. A little coarse cotton cloth is made for home use; and in some parts a coarse but very durable cloth called mekli is made from the wild rhea grass. Gunny cloth is woven in the northern part of the District to a considerable extent, but this is a manufacture of the very coarsest description.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—Rice, tobacco, jute, gunny cloth, salt, and molasses are the chief articles of trade in this District. The principal seats of commerce are Ràiganj, Nitpur, Gorâghát, and Kumârganj, but there are numerous large produce depôts scattered throughout the District along the river banks. Besides the permanent markets, a considerable proportion of the District trade is carried on at the large annual fairs, the principal of which are the Nekmard, Alawá Khâwá, Dholdighí, and Sontâpur fairs, described on a previous page. No complete statistics exist, showing the relative value or total amount of exports and imports of Dinájpur; but since 1872 a system of registration of boat traffic has been established on certain of the main water-channels, by which the produce of Bengal finds its way either to the sea or to the Districts of Behar and the North-Western Provinces. From the statistics afforded by these registration stations, a fair estimate may be made of the exports and imports of the Districts whose traffic is chiefly carried on by means of the Ganges or its tributaries and branches. The following paragraphs, illustrating the river-borne trade of Dinájpur, are collated from an elaborate minute on the boat traffic of Bengal, published by the Government, dated the 18th October 1875:

RICE EXPORTS.—The trade of Dinájpur with the North-Western Provinces consists almost entirely of the export of rice. The registration station at Sáhibganj returns only the actual shipping marts; and as a great portion of the grain produced in the rice-fields of Dinájpur is shipped from large river-side produce depôts in Maldah, it is necessary to combine the Sáhibganj returns for both Maldah and Dinájpur, in order to learn the total exports from the latter District. In 1872 the total quantity of rice which passed Sáhibganj from Dinájpur and Maldah Districts amounted to 1,628,794 maunds or 59,625 tons; and in 1873, to 1,538,898 maunds or 56,334 tons. In the famine year of 1874, the exports, even from a great rice-producing District like Dinájpur, almost entirely ceased. In that year the exports of rice from Maldah and Dinájpur combined amounted only to 53,275 maunds or 1950 tons. In ordinary years,
the great bulk of all the rice sent up country from Bengal is despatched from Maldah and Dinajpur, by far the greater portion being grown in the latter District. The principal marts are Nptpur on the Purnabhába, which in 1873 exported 337,928 maunds or 12,370 tons; Rohanpur, 407,489 maunds or 14,917 tons; Ráiganj on the Kulik, 80,462 maunds or 2945 tons; Asáni on the Tángan, 95,151 maunds or 3483 tons; and Kálkámára on the Tángan, 71,223 maunds or 2607 tons; and Champátálá, Dinajpur, Nawábázár, and Nayábandar, all on the Purnabhába. Besides these, there is the large mart of Gopálganj, which does not appear in the Sáhibganj returns, but from which a former Collector, Mr. Robinson, estimated that the exports could not be less than 180,000 maunds or 6589 tons. Mr. Robinson estimated that the quantity of rice exported from Dinajpur up country was 1,700,000 or 1,800,000 maunds, or from 62,232 to 65,892 tons, exclusive of the Maldah rice, which the late Collector of that District estimated at 250,000 maunds or 9151 tons. Mr. Robinson is of opinion that the Sáhibganj returns very much underestimate the quantity of the exports from Dinajpur; but this probably arises from the difficulty of distinguishing between Maldah and Dinajpur rice, under the system hitherto in force. A more accurate system of registration has now been established.

Of the total surplus rice of Dinajpur, it is roughly estimated that one-half is exported to the North-Western Provinces by way of the Tángan, Kulik, Purnabhába, and other streams, into the Mahánandá, and so into the Ganges; and that the remaining half is exported southwards. Most of the exports to Calcutta come by way of the Atrái into the Matábhángá. A little also finds its way down the Mahánandá and on to Calcutta by way of the Jalangi route. The traffic from the Atrái river to Calcutta goes almost entirely down the Matábhángá till the middle of October; after which, if the Matábhángá gets dry, it goes round by the Sundarbans, or by way of the Eastern Bengal Railway. The returns of traffic from the Matábhángá during 1872 and 1873 give a detailed account of exports to Calcutta of rice from the under-mentioned marts, as follows:—

1. Pátirám—rice exported in 1872, 115,491 maunds or 4227 tons; in 1873, 112,021 maunds or 4100 tons. (2) Kumárganj—exports in 1872, 94,875 maunds or 3473 tons; in 1873, 114,818 maunds or 4203 tons. (3) Chándganj—exports in 1872, 59,000 maunds or 2159 tons; in 1873, 82,034 maunds or 3003 tons. (4) Kálíganj—
exports in 1872, 44,294 maunds or 1621 tons; in 1873, 57,733
maunds or 2113 tons. (5) Chak Gopál—exports in 1872, 42,004
maunds or 1537 tons; in 1873, 43,365 maunds or 1542 tons. (6)
Fakírganj—exports in 1872, 77,162 maunds or 2824 tons; in 1873,
54,921 maunds or 2010 tons. (7) Jíban Bázár or Gorághát—ex-
ports in 1872, 67,600 maunds or 2474 tons; in 1873, nil. (8)
Rángámáti—exports in 1872, 63,350 maunds or 2319 tons; in 1873,
58,815 maunds or 2153 tons. (9) Págli-bandar—exports in 1872,
46,050 maunds or 1685 tons; in 1873, 49,669 maunds or 1818 tons.
(10) Samjiá—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 56,478 maunds or 2067
tons. (11) Madanganj—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 12,780
maunds or 467 tons. (12) Brahmapur—exports in 1872, nil; in
1873, 20,370 maunds or 745 tons. (13) Bálughát—exports in 1872,
nil; in 1873, 34,383 maunds or 1258 tons. (14) Híli—exports in
1872, 234,598 maunds or 8587 tons; in 1873, 38,283 maunds or
1401 tons. (15) Small places—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873,
53,750 maunds or 1967 tons. Total in 1872, 844,424 maunds or
30,822 tons; in 1873, 789,420 maunds or 28,898 tons. The whole
of this, however, is not Dinápur produce. A great deal of the
rice of the west and south-west of Rangpur District is collected
at the Dinápur marts on the Atrái and Karatóyá, and so sent to
Calcutta.

Of the foregoing marts, Pátirám, Kumárganj, Chándganj, Káli-
ganj, Chak Gopál, Fakírganj, Rángámáti, Págli-bandar, Samjiá,
Brahmapur, and Bálughát are all on the Atrái river and in Diná-
pur District. Jíban Bázár or Gorághát is on the Karatóyá. Híli
is on the Jamuná, and in Bogra District, but largely exports
Dinápur rice, and is therefore returned here. All these marts
are in close proximity to each other. Mr. Robinson seems to
consider these returns of exports to be understated. When Col-
lector of the District in 1873, he estimated that the total export
of rice from these marts could not be less than 1,500,000 maunds
or 54,910 tons. Of this amount, it appears that from 800,000 to
1,000,000 maunds, or from 29,285 to 36,607 tons are consigned
down the Matábánhá river to Calcutta; it is known that at least
200,000 maunds or 29,285 tons are conveyed by the Eastern Bengal
Railway; a small quantity, probably from 10,000 to 20,000 maunds,
or from 366 to 722 tons, follows the canal route; and the remainder
probably finds its way into Districts south of the Ganges for local
consumption. In the winter of 1873 the crops of this large rice-
producing tract failed, and the registered exports in 1874 did not exceed 10,000 maunds or 366 tons altogether. The rice exported by way of the Mahánnándá and Jalangi amounted in 1873 to 25,000 maunds or 915 tons from Dinájpur, 53,000 maunds or 1940 tons from Maldah, and 120,000 maunds or 4392 tons from the large mart of Híli in Bográ.

Other Exports.—Jute also is largely exported from Dinájpur. From Bhusí mart, 16,225 maunds or 594 tons were exported by way of the Atrái and Matábhángá in 1872, 19,983 maunds or 731 tons in 1873, and 19,850 maunds or 726 tons in 1874. From Ráiganj, 28,310 maunds or 1036 tons were exported in 1873, and only 1990 maunds or 72 tons in 1874. Jute is also exported from Dinájpur by way of Sirájjganj, but no separate statistics show what proportion of the jute from Sirájjganj belongs to Dinájpur. Gunny bags, to the extent of about 40,000 maunds or 1464 tons per annum, are exported from Dinájpur by way of the Matábhángá. The exports of tobacco in 1874 amounted to 6200 maunds or 226 tons from Bhusí vidá the Matábhángá.

Imports.—The only import into the District concerning which the Government minute gives any statistics is salt, of which 7869 maunds or 288 tons were imported from Calcutta by way of the Matábhángá, Jalangi, and Bhágirathí rivers in 1874. The other imports into Dinájpur, concerning which I have no information, are sugar, pulse, wheat, oats, ghi or clarified butter, metal utensils, etc.

Capital and Interest.—The current rate of interest in small transactions, where ornaments or household utensils are pawned as security for the repayment of a loan, is usually half an ánndá in the rupee per month, or 37½ per cent. per annum. In large loan transactions, where a mortgage is given upon moveable property, the ordinary rate is 24 per cent. per annum; or when houses or lands are mortgaged, from 12 to 18 per cent. It is not customary in Dinájpur to make small money advances to the cultivators with a lien upon the crops. The mahájans, or grain merchants, however, make advances to the husbandmen for the purchase of their crops for trading purposes. No interest is charged on such advances, but the merchant receives the grain—at harvest time at something less than the market rate. Ten per cent. per annum is considered a fair return for money invested in the purchase of an estate. There are large native banking establishments in Dinájpur; but loans are also conducted by shopkeepers and others, who combine ordinary
trading with money-lending. No newspapers are published in the District, nor in 1871 was there any printing press.

Income of the District.—The estimated total of incomes in Dinajpur District over £50 a year, as far as indicated by the operation of the Income Tax Act of 1870, is about £450,000. The net amount of tax realized in Dinajpur District in 1870-71, at the rate of 3½ per cent., was £12,473, 8s. od. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the tax was reduced to 1¾ per cent.; and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum. The net amount of tax realized in that year was £2056, 14s. od.

Revenue and Expenditure.—I have endeavoured to present a comparative statement of the revenue and expenditure of Dinajpur District for the years 1787-88, 1820-21, 1850-51, 1860-61, and 1870-71; but the deficiencies in the materials at my disposal, the many alterations in area which have taken place, and the changes in the method of keeping District accounts, render any really trustworthy comparison impossible. Returns of revenue and expenditure have been furnished by the Collector; but for the early years they are manifestly deficient in many respects, many items being omitted altogether, such as jails, police, etc., while others are included which are only matters of account, such as the advance to the Commercial Resident of Maldah, which appears in the table for 1820-21. I therefore simply print the tables for 1787-88, 1820-21, 1850-51, and 1860-61, as furnished to me by the Collector. The table for 1870-71, however, I have been enabled to make tolerably complete, and the balance sheet for that year may be taken to fairly represent the net civil revenue and expenditure of the District. The tables on the following pages, although of not much value for comparative purposes, to show the growth in the total revenue and expenditure of the District, may be useful as indicating the increase under certain specific heads, despite of a diminished area. (Vide pp. 416–421.)

Land Revenue.—In the great agricultural District of Dinajpur, the land furnishes a larger proportion of the Government revenue than, probably, in any other District of Bengal. In 1870-71 it contributed no less than 81½ per cent. of the total revenue of the District. Sub-infeudation of estates has gone on rapidly under British rule, although not to the same extent as in the eastern Districts of Bengal, where the land is split up into little handbreadths. In 1787-88, the first year for which records are available, Dinajpur

[Sentence continued on page 422.
### Statistical Account of DinaJPUR.

#### Balance Sheet of DinaJPUR District for 1787-88.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>REVENUE</strong></th>
<th><strong>EXPENDITURE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land Revenue</td>
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<td>Moiety of Collector's Pay and House Rent</td>
<td>1,276 3 0</td>
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<td>Amount of Fines levied</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Collection Charges</strong></th>
<th><strong>General Charges</strong></th>
<th><strong>Zemindari Charges</strong></th>
<th><strong>Allowance to Pensioners</strong></th>
<th><strong>Draft in favour of Judge of DinaJPUR</strong></th>
<th><strong>Total</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3,448 5 6</td>
<td>1,969 7 10</td>
<td>33 15 0</td>
<td>405 12 0</td>
<td><strong>£114,657 6 4</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revenue</td>
<td>Expenditure</td>
<td>Revenue Charges General</td>
<td>Judicial Charges</td>
<td>Remittance Charges</td>
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<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Land Revenue,</td>
<td>£175,637 7 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Revenue from all other sources, (excluding remittances received from other treasuries, and matters of deposit),</td>
<td>6,704 12 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total,</td>
<td></td>
<td>£182,342 0 4</td>
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</table>

* These items are matters of account, and not expenditure upon the District Administration. Deducting them from the total, there would remain a net civil expenditure of £15,227, 1s. 9d.
## Balance Sheet of Dinajpur District for 1850-51.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land Revenue,</td>
<td>1. Revenue Charges General,</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Excise,</td>
<td>2. Judicial Charges General,</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Stamps,</td>
<td>3. Excise,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Judicial Remittances,</td>
<td>4. Stamps,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Judicial Charges General,</td>
<td>5. Sayer Compensation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Revenue Remittances,</td>
<td>6. Collection Charges,</td>
</tr>
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<td>7. Misfassal Charges of Collection,</td>
<td>7. Post Office,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Post Office,</td>
<td>8. Purchase of Land,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Profit and Loss,</td>
<td>9. Pensions,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Civil Buildings,</td>
<td>10. Profit and Loss,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Civil Suits,</td>
<td>11. Remittance Charges,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Local Funds,</td>
<td>12. Interest on Government Promissory Notes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Local Funds, etc.,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total, £23,765 14 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total, £205,695 12 6
### Balance Sheet of Dinajpur District for 1860-61.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land Revenue,</td>
<td>1. Judicial Charges,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Malikáná,</td>
<td>2. Revenue Charges,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Excise,</td>
<td>3. Malikáná,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stamps,</td>
<td>4. Revenue Charges (a second entry),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Judicial Receipts,</td>
<td>5. Stamps (discount to vendors),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Revenue Receipts,</td>
<td>6. Public Works Department,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Public Works Department,</td>
<td>7. Sayeer Compensation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Profit and Loss,</td>
<td>8. Education,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Education,</td>
<td>10. Law Charges,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Income Tax,</td>
<td>11. Interest on Government Promissory Notes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Local Funds,</td>
<td>12. Fines and Refunds,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Local Funds,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total: £196,217 1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total: £46,150 0 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

- **Revenue:**
  - Land Revenue: £176,904 5 11
  - Malikáná: 320 11 11
  - Excise: 5,932 14 1
  - Stamps: 5,092 0 7
  - Judicial Receipts: 1,703 19 2
  - Revenue Receipts: 14 15 2
  - Public Works Department: 721 2 8
  - Profit and Loss: 1,138 11 11
  - Post Office: 726 2 0
  - Education: 97 17 10
  - Income Tax: 1,081 2 0
  - Local Funds: 2,483 17 9

- **Expenditure:**
  - Judicial Charges: £16,734 15 8
  - Revenue Charges: 12,391 2 0
  - Malikáná: 318 8 0
  - Revenue Charges (a second entry): 744 3 11
  - Stamps (discount to vendors): 453 12 10
  - Public Works Department: 11,604 1 8
  - Sayeer Compensation: 539 10 6
  - Education: 873 5 3
  - Post Office: 1,081 8 9
  - Law Charges: 159 17 3
  - Interest on Government Promissory Notes: 404 16 6
  - Fines and Refunds: 1 14 0
  - Local Funds: 843 3 9

**Total:**

- Revenue: £196,217 1 0
- Expenditure: £46,150 0 1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Balance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Land Revenue</td>
<td>£723,454 26 9</td>
<td></td>
<td>£33,230 10 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Excise, exclusive of Opium</td>
<td>£5,678 5 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Opium</td>
<td>£3,577 16 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stamps</td>
<td>£1,657 15 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Police</td>
<td>£30 14 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Jails (Manufacture Department)</td>
<td>£993 1 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Post Office</td>
<td>£1,290 8 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Income Tax (net)</td>
<td>£12,473 8 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Public Works Department</td>
<td>£491 14 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Registration</td>
<td>£22 16 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Sale of Medicines</td>
<td>£266 8 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Rate for managing Wards' Estates</td>
<td>£1,369 8 8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Process Fees</td>
<td>£796 18 0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Miscellaneous</td>
<td>£862 1 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Education</td>
<td>£1,944 3 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Salary of Civil Surgeon</td>
<td>£639 1 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Items marked * have been obtained from the different departmental reports. All other items are as furnished in a special return by the Collector.
### Balance Sheet of Dinajpur District for 1870-71—continued.

#### Revenue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Funds</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. 1 per cent. Road Fund,</td>
<td>£37 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Town Fund,</td>
<td>612 18 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Zamindâri dâk,</td>
<td>543 11 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Pound Fund,</td>
<td>721 17 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Staging Bungalow,</td>
<td>19 7 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Circuit House,</td>
<td>11 12 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Toll and Ferry Collections,</td>
<td>482 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Wards' Rate Fund,</td>
<td>107 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Miscellaneous,</td>
<td>271 7 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£212,340 18 9</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Expenditure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Funds</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brought forward,</td>
<td>£33,220 10 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Charitable Dispensaries and Vaccination,</td>
<td>246 11 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Wards' Estates,</td>
<td>47 7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Pensions,</td>
<td>106 5 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Interest on Promissory Notes,</td>
<td>547 19 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Interest on Savings Bank Deposits,</td>
<td>17 8 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Gratuities,</td>
<td>36 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Discount on sale of Stamps,</td>
<td>367 0 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Miscellaneous Charges,</td>
<td>13 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£36,839 18 8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Local Funds.

25. District Roads,                     | £583 1 3 |
26. Town Fund,                          | 820 18 8 |
27. Zamindâri dâk,                      | 600 16 6 |
28. Pound Fund,                         | 189 5 2 |
29. Staging Bungalow,                   | 28 14 0 |
30. Circuit House,                      | 14 7 4 |
| **Total**                              | **2,237 2 11** |

Note: The figures represent the financial statements for the fiscal year 1870-71 for Dinajpur District, showing both revenue and expenditure details with specific funds and local accounts.
District consisted of 28 estates, owned by as many registered proprietors or coparceners, who paid a total land revenue to Government of £160,669; average amount paid from each estate and by each proprietor, £5738, 3s. 6d. In 1800, the number of separate estates had increased to 400, and the proprietors or coparceners to 397; total land revenue paid, £174,082, 2s. od.; average payment from each estate, £435, 4s. 1d.; average payment by each individual proprietor, £438, 9s. 10d. In 1850-51 the separate estates borne on the District rent-roll numbered 762, and the individual proprietors or coparceners 1957; total land revenue paid, £181,731; average payment from each estate, £238, 9s. 10d.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, £92, 17s. 3d. In 1870-71 a decreased area caused the land revenue to fall slightly to £173,454, 16s. od., and the number of estates to 739. The number of proprietors, however, continued to increase, and in 1870-71 stood at 2035; average payment from each estate, £234, 14s. 3d.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, £85, 4s. 8d. The Collector states that the general average indicated above fairly represents the state of landed property in Dinajpur District.

Rent Cases instituted under Act x. of 1859.—The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act x. of 1859, or of subsequent laws based upon it, are returned by the Collector as follow:—In 1861-62 there were 844 original suits, and 806 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63, 797 original suits, and 746 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 615 original suits, and 1664 miscellaneous applications; and in 1866-69, 821 original suits, and 1799 miscellaneous applications.

Protection to Person and Property has steadily increased. —In 1787-88 there were only two magisterial and three civil and revenue courts in the whole District; in 1800-1 there were two magisterial and four civil and revenue courts; in 1850-51, seven magisterial and sixteen civil and revenue courts; in 1860-61, six magisterial and sixteen civil and revenue courts; and in 1870-71, seven magisterial and fifteen civil and revenue courts. The number of covenanted European officers constantly stationed in the District was, three in 1787-88, five in 1800-1, five in 1850-51, three in 1860-61, and four in 1870-71.

Police Protection has also been rendered more complete. In 1840, the force for the protection of person and property consisted
POLICE STATISTICS.

of 53 native officers and 242 foot constables, with 7224 village watchmen. In 1860, there were 60 native officers and 242 foot constables, with 6501 village watchmen. The present District police force was constituted in 1861.

At the present day, Dinajpur District is divided into seventeen police circles or *thānds*, as follows:—(1) Dinajpur; (2) Rājārāmpur; (3) Bīrganj; (4) Kāliāganj; (5) Hemtábād; (6) Bangsīhārī; (7) Gangārāmpur; (8) Pātirām; (9) Patnītālā; (10) Porshā; (11) Chintāman; (12) Hábrā; (13) Nawābganj; (14) Gorāghāt or Rānīganj; (15) Pīrganj; (16) Rānīsānkāl; and (17) Thākurgāon. The present police force consists of the regular District police, a municipal police for the protection of the towns, and a village constabulary. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies in 1872 were as follow:—

The Regular Police consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—1 superior European officer or District Superintendent, maintained at a salary of Rs. 600 a month, or £720 a year; 5 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, and 54 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2465 a month, or £2958 a year, equal to an average pay of Rs. 41. 12. 5 a month, or £50, 2s. 7½d. a year, for each subordinate officer; and 328 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2193 a month, or £2631, 12s. od. a year, equal to an average pay of Rs. 6. 10. 11 a month, or £8, 1s. 4d. a year, for each man. The other expenses connected with the regular police were,—an average sum of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent; Rs. 194. 5. 4 a month, or £233, 4s. od. a year, for pay and travelling allowances for his office establishment; and an average of Rs. 508. 14. 8 a month, or £610, 14s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses. The total cost of the regular police of Dinajpur District in 1872 amounted to Rs. 6061. 4. 0 a month, or £7273, 10s. od. for the year; total strength of the force, 388 men of all ranks. The present area of Dinajpur District is 4126 square miles, and the total population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,501,924 souls. According to these figures, there is one policeman to every 10·63 square miles of the District area, and one to every 3870 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance of the force is equal to Rs. 17. 10. 0 per square mile of area, and R. 0. 0. 9 or 1½d. per head of the population.
The Municipal Police is a small force, which consisted at the end of 1872 of 2 native officers and 40 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 278. 9. 4 a month, or £334. 6s. od. a year. This force is for the protection of the municipality of Dinajpur, the headquarters town of the District; and its cost is defrayed by means of a house rate, levied upon the householders and shopkeepers carrying on business within municipal limits. The population of Dinajpur is returned at 13,042, giving one policeman to every 310 inhabitants. The cost of the municipal police in 1872, as compared with the town population, amounted to 4 annas 1 pie or 6½d. per head of the population.

The Village Watch or rural police numbered 5297 in 1872, maintained either by the samindârs or by service lands held rent-free, at an estimated total cost of Rs. 81,088 or £8108, 16s. od. Compared with the area and population, there is one village watchman or chaukidâr to every 77 of a square mile of the District area, or one to every 283 of the population, maintained at an estimated cost of Rs. 19. 10. 8 or £1. 19s. 4d. per square mile of area, or 10½ pies or about 1½d. per head of the population. Each village watchman has charge of 37 houses on an average, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 1. 4. 3 a month, or £1, 10s. 4½d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal police, and the village watch, the machinery for protecting person and property in Dinajpur District consisted at the end of 1872 of a total force of 5727 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 72 of a square mile as compared with the District area, or one man to every 262 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost of maintaining this force, both Government and local, and including the value of the rent-free lands held by the chaukidârs, in 1872 amounted to Rs. 13,097. 2. 8 a month, or £15,716, 12s. od. for the year, equal to a charge of Rs. 38. 1. 5 or £3, 16s. 2d. per square mile of the District area, or R. o. 1. 8 or 2½d. per head of the population.

Working of the Police.—During the year 1872, 2884 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 351 were discovered to be false, besides 193 which the police declined to take up. Convictions were obtained in 1726 cases, or 73.76 per cent of the 'true' cases; the proportion of 'true' cases being as one to every 641 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 850 were instituted, in which process issued in 742, in which 453 persons
were convicted; the proportion of persons convicted being as one to every 3315 of the population.

The following details of the number of cases, convictions for different crimes and offences, in 1872, are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases were as follow:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice—Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 1 case, no convictions, 1 person tried, none convicted; harbouring an offender, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; other offences against public justice, 6 cases, 6 convictions, 19 persons tried, 19 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 18 cases, 8 convictions, 84 persons tried, 69 convicted; personating public servant or soldier, 4 cases, 3 convictions, 5 persons tried, 3 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Murder by dakhits, 2 cases, no convictions, no person tried, none convicted; murder by poison, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried, 1 convicted; other murders, 6 cases, 3 convictions, 25 persons tried, 8 convicted; culpable homicide, 6 cases, 4 convictions, 11 persons tried, 11 convicted; rape, 26 cases, 11 convictions, 21 persons tried, 11 convicted; unnatural offences, 7 cases, 5 convictions, 7 persons tried, 5 convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; attempt at and abetment of suicide, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; grievous hurt for the purpose of extorting property or confession, 1 case, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; grievous hurt, 75 cases, 12 convictions, 45 persons tried, 29 convicted; hurt for purpose of extorting property or confession, 1 case, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; hurt by dangerous weapon, 1 case, 1 conviction, 4 persons tried, 1 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 13 cases, 4 convictions, 29 persons tried, 11 convicted; wrongful confinement, restraint in secret, or for purposes of extortion, 13 cases, 3 convictions, 21 persons tried, 7 convicted; selling, letting, or unlawfully obtaining a woman for prostitution, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; criminal force to public servant or woman, or in attempt to commit theft or wrongfully confine, 8 cases, 7 convictions, 12 persons tried, 10 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Class III. Serious offences against person or property, or against property only—Dakhiti, 22 cases, 7 convictions, 76 persons tried, 54 convicted; other robberies,
48 cases, 6 convictions, 36 persons tried, 12 convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 60 cases, 27 convictions, 55 persons tried, 29 convicted; lurking house-trespass or house-breaking with intent to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 518 cases, 33 convictions, 66 persons tried, 37 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 6 cases, 5 convictions, 11 persons tried, 10 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Wrongful restraint and confinement, 77 cases, 14 convictions, 104 persons tried, 31 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Lurking house-trespass or house-breaking, 15 cases, 4 convictions, 14 persons tried, 4 convicted; theft of cattle, 10 cases, 5 convictions, 12 persons tried, 9 convicted; ordinary theft, 375 cases, 106 convictions, 251 persons tried, 161 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 21 cases, 6 convictions, 15 persons tried, 6 convicted; receiving stolen property, 71 cases, 64 convictions, 120 persons tried, 104 convicted; criminal or house-trespass, 50 cases, 13 convictions, 55 persons tried, 19 convicted; breaking closed receptacle, none. Class VI. Vagrancy and bad character, 71 cases, 39 convictions, 71 persons tried, 39 convicted; offences against religion, 1 case, no convictions, 2 persons tried, none convicted; cognisable offences under the Gambling Act, 4 cases, 2 convictions, 23 persons tried, 7 convicted; excise laws, 7 cases, 6 convictions, 15 persons tried, 13 convicted; Stamp Act, 2 cases, no convictions, 3 persons tried, none convicted; public and local nuisances, 1326 cases, 1311 convictions, 1323 persons tried, 1311 convicted; other special and local laws cognisable by the police, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 7 persons tried, 4 convicted. Total of cognisable cases reported during the year, 2884, of which 351 were declared to be false by the Magistrate, and 193 were not taken up by the police. Deducting these, there were altogether 2340 'cognisable' cases investigated, in which convictions were obtained in 1726, or in 73.76 per cent. The total number of persons actually tried in 'cognisable' cases was 2558, of whom 2037 or 79.63 per cent. were finally convicted, either summarily by the Magistrate or by the Sessions or High Court.

The number of cases instituted and of persons tried and convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc. etc.—Offences against public justice, 108 cases, 112 persons tried, 94 convicted; offences against public servants, 24 cases, 50 persons
tried, 19 convicted; false evidence, false complaints and claims, 20 cases, 22 persons tried, 12 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, 12 cases, 25 persons tried, 14 convicted. Class II. Nil.

Class III. Serious offences against property—Extortion, 91 cases, 125 persons tried, 13 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Hurt, 12 cases, 19 persons tried, 18 convicted; criminal force, 292 cases, 297 persons tried, 98 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Cheating, 6 cases, 8 persons tried, 3 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 3 cases, 8 persons tried, 4 convicted; criminal breach of trust by public servants, bankers, etc., 8 cases, 8 persons tried, 8 convicted; simple mischief, 95 cases, 130 persons tried, 88 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Offences relating to marriage, 60 cases, 69 persons tried, 13 convicted; defamation, 5 cases, 6 persons tried, 5 convicted; public and local nuisances, 3 cases, 3 persons tried, 1 convicted; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii., Criminal Procedure Code, 16 cases, 11 persons tried, 7 convicted. Special laws not cognisable by police in detail—Police Act (section 29), 14 cases, 14 persons tried, 12 convicted; breach of Arms Act, 25 cases, 25 persons tried, 25 convicted; Cattle Trespass Act, 29 cases, 34 persons tried, 12 convicted; Income Tax Act, 24 cases, 3 persons tried, 3 convicted; Ferry Act, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Total of 'non-cognisable' cases, 850, in which 970 persons were tried and 453 convicted; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 46.70 per cent.

Excluding 351 'false' cases, declared to be such by the Magistrate, and 193 cases refused to be taken up by the police, the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Dinajpur District in 1872 was 3190, in which 3528 persons were tried, 2490 were convicted either by the Magistrate or by the Sessions or High Court; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 70.57 per cent., or one person convicted of an offence to every 603 of the District population.

JAIL STATISTICS.—The only jail in Dinajpur District is the one at the Civil Station. The following are the statistics of the jail population of Dinajpur District for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. As explained in the Statistical Accounts of other Districts, the figures for the two earlier years are defective, owing to faults in the manner of preparing the returns; they should therefore be received with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness.
An improved form of preparing the return was introduced in 1870, and the figures given for that year may be accepted as accurate.

In 1857-58, the earliest year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Dinajpur jail was 931; the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 784 (sic). The discharges were as follow:—Transferred, 182; released, 561; escaped, 4; died, 148: total, 895. In 1860-61 the jail returns show a daily average number of 464 prisoners, the total admissions during the year being 791. The discharges were—transferred, 213; released, 659; escaped, 3; died, 98; executed, 1: total, 974. In 1870 the daily average prison population was 348; the total number of admissions during the year being 903. The discharges were—transferred, 74; released, 833; died, 24; executed, 1: total, 932. Although this is an unhealthy jail, the death-rate has considerably fallen of late years. In 1857-58 the proportion of prisoners admitted into the jail hospital amounted to 140.60 per cent., and the deaths to 148, or 15.89 per cent. of the average prison population. In 1860-61 the proportion of admissions to hospital rose as high as 249.60 per cent., and the death-rate to 21.12 per cent.; the total number of deaths during the year being 98. In 1870 the admissions to hospital were 164.94 per cent., and the deaths 24, or 6.89 per cent. of the average prison population. In 1872 the death-rate fell as low as 3.62 per cent., or 1.72 per cent. less than the average prison death-rate throughout Bengal.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in the Dinajpur jail at various periods, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all items except that of the prison police guard, is returned to me by the Inspector-General as follows:—In 1854-55 the cost of maintenance amounted to Rs. 36. 6. 8 or £3, 12s. 10d. per prisoner; in 1857-58, to Rs. 42. 6. 3 or £4, 4s. 9d. per head; in 1860-61, to Rs. 47. 1. 0 or £4, 14s. 1d.; and in 1870, to Rs. 42. 14. 8 or £4, 5s. 10d. per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 8. 7. 0 or 16s. 10½d. per head, making a gross charge to Government of Rs. 51. 5. 8 or £5, 2s. 8½d. per prisoner.

Jail manufactures and industries have been carried on in Dinajpur jail for about thirty years. In 1854-55 the receipts arising from the sale of jail manufactures amounted to £300, 2s. 6d., and the charges to £107, 11s. 9d., leaving a surplus or profit of £192, 10s. 9d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 9. 1. 3
or 18s. 1½d. In 1857-58 the receipts from jail industries amounted to £450, 12s. 10d., and the charges to £193, 3s. 1d., leaving a surplus of £257, 9s. 9d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 9. 4. 5 or 18s. 6½d. In 1860 the receipts from prison industries amounted to £724, 19s. 6d., and the charges to £238, 9s. 6d., leaving a surplus or profit of £486, 10s. 6d.; average earnings of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 28. 7. 2 or £2, 16s. 11d. In 1870 the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £1815, 18s. 9d., and the debits to £2380, 6s. 4d., leaving this year a deficit or loss of £565, 4s. 7d.

The statistics of the Dinajpur jail and lock-up in 1872 are as follow:—Average daily number of civil prisoners, 2'25; undertrial prisoners, 39'75; labouring convicts, 336'70; non-labouring convicts, 8'30: making a total of 387, of whom 5'69 were females. According to the results of the Census of 1872, these figures give one prisoner always in jail for every 3880 of the total population, and one male prisoner to every 2036 of the male population of the District. The total cost of the Dinajpur jail in 1872, excluding public works and the manufacture department, amounted to £1947, 16s. 10½d., or an average cost of Rs. 48. 2. 2, or £4, 16s. 3½d. per head. The results of the manufacture department during the year were as follow:—Total credits, £1922, 12s. 9d.; debits, £1529, 2s. 6d.; surplus, £393, 10s. 3d. The actual cash account, however, resulted in a loss, the cost of the manufacture department being set down at £1369, 10s. 4d., and the amount of cash actually remitted to the treasury, to £1279, 19s. 6d., leaving a cash deficit of £89, 11s. 4d. Out of the 336 labouring prisoners, 80'80 were employed on an average in jail duties, or on public works, or by municipalities. Of the remainder, 24 were sick, old, or unable to work. The numbers employed on each branch of manufacture were occupied as follow:—Gunny weaving, 25'08; gardening, 28'09; manufacturing cloth, 24'04; brick making, etc., 9'46; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 17'13; oil pressing, 18'29; string and twine making, 47'39; flour grinding, 2'54; carpet making, '89; carpentry, 3'40; iron working, 2'33; grinding pulses, 2'04; tailoring, '41; baking, 1'35; pottery, 5'21; miscellaneous, 3'20: total, 189'37.

Educational Statistics.—The table on the next two pages illustrates the diffusion of education in the Government and aided schools in Dinajpur District for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to

[ Sentence continued on p. 432. ]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Pupils</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government English School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>343</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aided English Schools, Aided Vernacular Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>...</td>
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<td>67</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Girls' Schools</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Training School</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>2412</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>3399</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification of Schools</td>
<td>Cost to Government.</td>
<td>Fees, Contributions, etc.</td>
<td>Charges incurred during the Year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>£ 228 2 2</td>
<td>£ 238 11 7</td>
<td>£ 261 12 0</td>
<td>£ 91 2 1</td>
<td>£ 76 17 4</td>
<td>£ 155 14 3</td>
<td>£ 319 4 3</td>
<td>£ 315 8 11</td>
<td>£ 417 6 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Vernacular Schools,</td>
<td>158 3 2</td>
<td>189 2 0</td>
<td>201 13 3</td>
<td>25 5 10</td>
<td>26 12 0</td>
<td>60 16 8</td>
<td>183 9 0</td>
<td>215 14 0</td>
<td>262 9 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided English Schools,</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 70 12 0</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 129 10 0</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 196 10 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Vernacular Schools,</td>
<td>9 0 0</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1348 12 4</td>
<td>9 12 9</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>968 3 5</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>17 13 7</td>
<td>... 2314 6 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Girls' Schools,</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 83 14 0</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 75 14 6</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 159 5 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided Training School,</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 511 0 0</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 58 18 8</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>... 569 18 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>395 5 4</td>
<td>427 13 7</td>
<td>2477 3 7</td>
<td>126 0 8</td>
<td>103 9 4</td>
<td>1448 17 6</td>
<td>520 6 10</td>
<td>531 2 11</td>
<td>3919 16 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sentence continued from p. 429.]

1870-71. It will be seen that the number of schools in the District has increased from 10, attended by 532 pupils, in 1856-57, to 247, attended by 5723 pupils, in 1870-71. The greatest increase is in the number of aided vernacular schools, which rose from 1 to 215 within the fifteen years, while the number of their pupils rose from 46 to 4836 in the same period. A still more rapid increase in the number of these schools has taken place since 1870, under the system of primary instruction inaugurated by Sir George Campbell, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. This further development will be explained in detail in a subsequent paragraph. An interesting circumstance in the following comparative table is the large increase in Muhammadan pupils attending the schools which has taken place of late years. In 1860-61 only 111 Muhammadan lads were returned as attending the Government or aided schools; while in 1870-71 they numbered 3399. The Musalmáns form 52.8 per cent. of the District population; in 1870 they comprised 59.4 per cent. of the scholars attending the Government and aided schools. The total cost of education has increased from £520, 6s. 10d. in 1856-57, to £3919, 16s. 1d. in 1870-71, of which the Government contribution has risen from £395, 5s. 4d. in 1856-57, to £2477, 3s. 7d. in 1870-71. It must be borne in mind that the following table only includes the Government and aided schools under the supervision of the Education Department. There is a large number of private schools in addition, which do not come under inspection, and, as a rule, do not furnish any returns.

Schools in 1871-72 and 1872-73. Under Sir George Campbell’s improved system of primary education, a large number of indigenous village schools, which had previously received no assistance from the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Education Department furnished statistics of 284 Government and aided schools, attended on 31st March 1872 by 6267 pupils. In 1872-73, after Sir George Campbell’s scheme had been brought into operation, the number of Government and aided schools was returned at 456, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 8174 pupils. Although the number of schools thus brought under the supervision of the Education Department had increased by sixty-five per cent. in a single year, this was effected at a merely nominal cost to the State, the Government grant having only increased from £2495 in 1871-72 to £2568 in 1872-73.
**EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.**

The subjoined table exhibits the number, attendance, cost, etc. of each class of school in Dinajpur District in 1871-72 and 1872-73:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Higher—Government—Total</th>
<th>Middle—Government—Aided</th>
<th>Primary—Government—Aided</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Normal School—Girls Aided</th>
<th>Grand total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>1 123</td>
<td>7 283</td>
<td>31 43</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 43 49</td>
<td>5 153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Pupils on 31st March.</td>
<td>93 102</td>
<td>620 618</td>
<td>530 569</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>105 69</td>
<td>115 769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Attendance</td>
<td>9 7 16</td>
<td>6 20 16</td>
<td>5 16 16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2 8 12</td>
<td>2 10 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Expenditure.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1871-72</th>
<th>1872-73</th>
<th>Other Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>139 18 0</td>
<td>191 18 0</td>
<td>48 18 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided</td>
<td>139 18 0</td>
<td>191 18 0</td>
<td>48 18 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1871-72</th>
<th>1872-73</th>
<th>Other Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>139 18 0</td>
<td>191 18 0</td>
<td>48 18 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aided</td>
<td>139 18 0</td>
<td>191 18 0</td>
<td>48 18 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The numbers in the table represent the costs in rupees and fractions thereof.
Postal Statistics.—There has been a marked increase in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62, the earliest year for which statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books has increased from 63,028 to 157,701 in 1870-71, or by nearly two and a half times. The number of letters, etc. despatched from the District post office was 58,677 in 1861-62, and 88,050 in 1865-66. I have not received the returns of the letters, etc. despatched in 1870-71. The total postal receipts increased from £652, 16s. 2d. in 1861-62, to £1050, 8s. 6d. in 1870-71; and the expenditure from £1124, 5s. 5d. in 1861-62, to £1944, 5s. 5d. in 1870-71. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, newspapers, books, etc. received at and despatched from the District post office, together with the postal receipts and expenditure for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices:—


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Received.</td>
<td>Despatched.</td>
<td>Received.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letters,</td>
<td>52,111</td>
<td>57,391</td>
<td>80,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers,</td>
<td>7,898</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>7,748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parcels,</td>
<td>2,767</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>1,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books,</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total,</td>
<td>63,028</td>
<td>58,677</td>
<td>90,633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sale of postage stamps,</td>
<td>£250 3 11</td>
<td>£320 6 10</td>
<td>£458 4 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash collections,</td>
<td>402 12 3</td>
<td>475 9 0</td>
<td>592 4 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total receipts,</td>
<td>652 16 2</td>
<td>795 15 10</td>
<td>1050 8 6 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure,</td>
<td>1124 5 5</td>
<td>1426 5 9</td>
<td>1944 5 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Subdivisional system of administration has not yet been introduced into Dinajpur District.

1 Exclusive of receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £24, 8s. od. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.
FISCAL DIVISIONS.—The following list of Fiscal Divisions is compiled from the Board of Revenue’s paraganā statistics. The figures given are not always trustworthy, and must be accepted subject to the statement at the end of the list. I have also incorporated the information obtainable from the Revenue Survey Report; but for Survey purposes, in many cases two or three paraganās were reckoned as one, and in some instances paraganās which either wholly or in part belong to other Districts have been included. The paraganā statements in the Revenue Survey Report quoted below do not, therefore, correspond with the Board of Revenue’s statistics.

(1) Ajhor comprises an area of 86 acres, or 1/3 of a square mile, contains 1 estate, and pays a Government land revenue of £3, 4s. od.

(2) Aligaon: area, 12,631 acres, or 19.73 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £705, 2s. od.

(3) Alihat: area, 4824 acres, or 7.53 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £119, 4s. od.

(4) Ambari: area, 12,650 acres, or 19.76 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £921, 8s. od.

(5) Amdahar: area, 208 acres, or 1/32 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £18, 18s. od.

(6) Andalgaoon: area, 15,657 acres, or 24.46 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £942, 16s. od.

(7) Apail: area, 21,802 acres, or 34.06 square miles; 20 estates; land revenue, £1455, 18s. od.

(8) Babanpur: area, 9874 acres, or 15.42 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £528, 18s. od. This tract is returned with paraganā Gorāghat in the Revenue Surveyor's Report, which returns the total area at 36,844 acres, or 57.57 square miles. The Revenue Surveyor states (1863): 'The principal place in this tract is Fakirganj on the Karātoya river. The Karātoya forms the eastern boundary of the tract, and divides it from paraganā Mukhtārpur. A cart-road leading from Gorāghat to Bogrā enters its northern limit, and traverses it throughout its entire length. The southern portion is open, flat, and well cultivated; the northern is more jungly, particularly along the Karātoya, where there are some large patches of dense tree and thorn jungle, full of tigers, leopards, wild buffaloes, and hogs. The principal hāts or village marts are at Chapurā Hát, Fakirganj, and Kāmdiyā Hát. The lands are much intermixed, there being portions of a dozen paraganās in this tract. Rice is the
staple produce; sugar-cane, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are sparingly cultivated, the land being liable to inundation. This entire tract has (1863) recently been transferred to Bográ District.'

(9) Badar: area, 14,691 acres, or 22'95 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £794, 10s. od.

(10) Bahamankunda: area, 32,786 acres, or 51'22 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £1702, 2s. od.

(11) Bajitpur: area, 51,229 acres, or 80'04 square miles; 19 estates; land revenue, £2482, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor (1863) states: 'The principal villages in this parganná are Chausá, Kismat, Fathipur, and Ratanáir. Other market villages—Káranji, Pánisálá, Pungáón, and Dhánkáil. This tract is situated to the west of the town of Dinápur. It is watered by the Tángan river, which flows through the centre of it from north to south. The south-eastern portion is traversed by the Maldah high road. The soil is sandy and the country low; during the rains almost the entire tract is inundated. The Tángan river runs through a stiff yellow clay soil, and has a narrow and deep bed. During the rains it is navigable for boats of the largest size; for eight months of the year by boats of 100 maunds or about 3½ tons burden; and at all times for small boats and canoes. Rice is the staple product, the variety known as boro dhán being here extensively cultivated. Other crops—oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and gram. Leopards and pigs are the chief wild animals.'

(12) Baragaon: area, 30,973 acres, or 48'39 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £1696, 12s. od. This parganá is returned along with parganás Maldwár and Dehattá in the Revenue Surveyor's Report, which gives the total area of the tract as 180,457 acres, or 281'96 square miles, and describes it in the following remarks:—

'This tract is the most north-western portion of the District, and is separated from Purniah District by the Tángan river. It is traversed by the Tináí and other minor streams, and also by cart-roads in various directions. The principal villages are Tariá, Beliá, Udáipur, Baháman Kumár, Kásimpur, Rás-bázár, Purán, Pátakátá, Kuch Beharí, Ganjáir, Murmálá, Kálganj, Dogáchhi, etc. The famous annual Nekmard fair, in honour of the memory of a Muhammadan pír or saint, is held in the southern portion of parganá Barágáon.'

(13) Barbakpur: area, 887 acres, or 1'38 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £45, 2s. od.

(14) Batasun: area, 11,558 acres, or 18'05 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £139, 2s. od.
(15) Behinnagar: area, 40,463 acres, or 63'32 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £2914, 4s. od. The Revenue Surveyor (1863) states:—'This parganá is a long tract running north and south, the southern extremity being parallel with, and three miles distant from, the town of Dinájpur. The eastern boundary follows the course of the Purnabhábá, and the western of the Tuláí river. The parganá contains some large jhils and grass patches, but the level of the country is higher than in the south. The following are the principal villages in which periodical markets are held:—Suráhár, Bhundkhállí, Upúrpuri, Harípur, Shikárpur, Dhukárjháí, and Berol.'

(16) Bhuinhará: area, 27,163 acres, or 42'44 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £1779, 8s. od.

(17) Bijainagar: area, 99,561 acres, or 155'56 square miles; 39 estates; land revenue, £9545, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor in his Report returns the area of this parganá (probably including also that of minor parganás) at 119,550 acres, or 186'80 square miles, and describes the tract as follows:—'This parganá is situated in the centre of the District, and contains the town and headquarters station of Dinájpur. It is bounded on the east by the Atrái river, and on the west by the Tuláí nála. The high road to Darjiling traverses its whole extent from north to south. Raised earthen roads diverge from the town and Civil Station, leading to Rangpur, Bográ, Maldah, and Purniah. The country is mostly inundated during the rains, but the sites of the native town and Civil Station on the banks of the Purnabhábá are high, and above inundation mark. The soil is hard, friable, and sandy, and produces a richer crop of rice than that of any other parganá in the District. The tract is almost entirely owned by the Rájá of Dinájpur; and besides rich crops of rice, yields oil-seeds, sugar-cane, vetches, grass, etc. The principal grain-marts are Sáhibganj on the Atrái to the south-east, Nayábandar, and Nawábandar. The latter is eighteen miles south of the town of Dinájpur, and forms the emporium of that place during the dry months of the year, when large boats cannot reach Dinájpur. Principal market villages—Chak Kanchan, Máchhabpur, Debpur, and Kásiádángá on the Purnabhábá; Ishánpur, Násipur, Mahádebpur, and Sukhdebpur on the Dhápá; Chak Párchatípur on the Atrái; and Tájpur, Baránái, Berol, Gopínáthpur, Palásbári, Básuriá, and Sáidebpur. Tanks are very abundant throughout the parganá, and amongst them are some very fine ones,—two near the Rájá's residence to the east of the town, called Anand.
Ságar and Mathá Ságar, and one at Rám Ságar, six miles south of the Civil Station on the Calcutta high road. The latter is a favourite resort and bathing-place of the European community of Dinajpur during the hot weather and rains. Apart from a few leopards, the parganá is little infested by wild animals, except at one or two localities in the vicinity of the station well known to sportsmen as the resort of tigers. Three annual fairs are held, the principal of which takes place in the month of November, at Nímtárá, two and a half miles south of the Civil Station, in honour of Rádháballabh Thákur. It is patronised by the Rájá of Dinajpur, and is attended by two or three thousand persons."

(18) Bindhara: area, 5936 acres, or 9'26 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £286, 14s. od.
(19) Chalun: area, 9238 acres, or 14'43 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £383, 2s. od.
(20) Charkai: area, 9833 acres, or 15'36 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £365, 2s. od.
(21) Chatnagar Mulgaon: area, 129 acres, or '20 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £8, 18s. od.
(22) Chaura: area, 18,835 acres, or 29'42 square miles; 11 estates; land revenue, £444. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a small parganá in the south-western extremity of the District. It lies a little to the east of the Dárjiling road, nearly surrounded by Rájshálí District, and is divided into two distinct portions. It is an open, flat, rice-producing country. A cart-road leading to Nítpur mart traverses the southern portion of the parganá. There are a great many tanks. The market villages are Kasbá Chaurá, and Barágáon.'
(23) Debi-kot: area, 32,986 acres, or 51'54 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £2305, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a small parganá situated to the north of parganá Madnábáti, its south-east corner abutting on Maldah District. It is low-lying, and contains several large marshes, the principal of which are the Man, Siklá, Hárípur, and Kutámái bils. The climate is unhealthy in consequence of these marshes. Boro rice is cultivated in the swamps when they dry up in March or April. The Purnabhába runs through the parganá from north to south; and the Tángan river forms its boundary for a few miles at its south-east corner, where the parganá is traversed by the Maldah high road. The principal village is Dam-damá, which contains an old fort; near
the village are two large tanks, called the Dhul *dighi* and the Kall *dighi*. The market villages are Gangárámpur and Sibpur, the latter being a considerable grain-mart on the Tángan. Belhári and Jáipur are also places of note.'

(24) DEHATTA: area, 75,694 acres, or 118.27 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £4216, 28. od. This *parganá* is returned in the Revenue Survey Report along with *parganás* Barágáon and Maldwár. For a brief description of the tract, see No. 12.

(25) DELWARPUR: area, 54,118 acres, or 84.55 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £1880, 28. od.

(26) DEORA: area, 101,337 acres, or 158.33 square miles; 37 estates; land revenue, £9307, 1 os. od. The Revenue Surveyor describes the *parganá* as follows:—'The principal place is Jetmalpur, at the confluence of the Kánkrá and Chiri streams on the Rangpur high road; the village contains a grain-mart and a bázár. The market villages are Binyakuri, Phiringi, and Jessáí. Phiringi, situated on the Atrái, has also a large grain-mart. Remains of old indigo factories are found at Chak Jaidebpur and at other places. The eastern boundary of the *parganá* follows the course of the Jamuná, and the western that of the Atrái river, with occasional breaks. The Ichhámátí flows through it from north to south; also the Kánkrá, a branch of the Atrái, which bifurcates at Shágórá and reunites with the parent stream at Dhakaer. The Chiri enters the *parganá* at its south-west corner, and unites its waters with the Kánkrá at Jetmalpur. The Rangpur high road passes through the centre of the *parganá* east and west. The country generally is flat and open, and produces fine crops of rice.'

(27) DHANJOR: area, 37,442 acres, or 58.50 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £2249, 12s. od. The Survey Report returns the area of this *parganá* at 60,759 acres, or 94.93 square miles, and describes it as follows:—'The principal villages are Bangsihári, Painálá, Galchorá, Mangalbári, Aonagar, Galdíghi, Tilái, Harrámpur, etc. The *parganá* is bounded on the east by the Tángan river, on the west by the Chirámatí, and to the south by Maldah District. The Bálá *nálá*, which intersects it from north to south, divides it into two equal portions. The country lies low, and is subject to inundation during the rains.'

_Parganás_ Dhanjor, Suráhar Maniker, Rádháballabhpur, Tájpur, Mahása, Khalárá, Jhapartál, and Behinnagar form the south-western portion of Dinájpur District, comprising at the time of the
Survey an area of 752.31 square miles. These parganás all possess the same general features; and the following quotation from the Revenue Survey Report is applicable to the whole tract:—'Nature of the country.'—The surface is undulating, with a perceptible inclination to the south-west, and is elevated about 150 feet above sea-level. The land is well cultivated, but encumbered with extensive patches of coarse grass and marshes covered with reed-jungle. During the rains the rivers overflow their banks, and render a large extent of country a sheet of water. Productions.—The crops raised are rice, sugar-cane, Indian corn, and pulses of many kinds; tobacco is grown principally in the vicinity of villages. The rice harvest is carried on very carelessly. The ears alone are cut off; the straw is not always considered worth removing, and is left on the field. The grain is removed by labourers; carts and cattle are seldom used for this purpose. Indigo was extensively cultivated some years ago in the neighbourhood of Churánman, but from want of proper care and attention to the quality of the dye, the speculation proved unprofitable. Fisheries.—Fish exist in all the bíś, and large supplies are daily taken to Ráiganj and neighbouring market towns. The methods of catching fish are various; both drag and casting nets are in general use. The jhálangá or bamboo trap is much used in small rivers and marshes. Regular fishermen pay the proprietors for the right of fishing; the profits derived from the fisheries are said to be considerable. Roads.—Two bad kachá (unmetalled) roads pass through this portion of the District: one leading from Dinájpur to Purniah, passes through Akbarnagar, Hemptábád, and Ráiganj; the other, to Krishnaganj in Purniah, passes through Bindol and Harípur.' [Since this was written, many new roads have been opened out. During the scarcity of 1874, the famine relief works, undertaken to provide labour for the destitute, principally took the form of road-making.] 'The traffic of these parts is carried on by water or on pack-bullocks; wheeled conveyances are seldom used. During the dry months, pathways are formed leading from village to village. Soil.—Generally speaking, the soil is a light grey-coloured clay mixed with sand. Immediately under the surface soil a stiff blue clay appears, near the swamps mixed with black vegetable mould and numerous small fresh-water shells. Lands subject to inundation occupy a large proportion of the whole, and present a singular intermixture of barren and fertile soils. One season a field is overwhelmed with sand, and the next year it is covered with a rich
and deep deposit of clay. *Exports.*—These are mostly confined to rice, mats, and boats. The mats are made from reeds which grow in the marshes; the boats are mostly built of *sál* timber brought from the Dárjiling *táráí*, and are exported to Maldah and other places lower down the Mahánandá. Gunny-bags are brought from the north, and are shipped on the Mahánandá. *Imports.*—The imports are copper and brass cooking utensils from Maldah and Murshidábád; cotton from Purniah and the Dárjiling *táráí*; salt, English cloth, betel-nut, and mustard-seed. *Towns.*—Ráiganj, situated on the eastern bank of the Kulik river, is the principal mart for imports and exports. It is a fine, substantial town, surrounded by extensive fields of rice, and contains numerous tanks. Churáman, on the Mahánandá, is also a place of some importance. The chief market towns and villages are the following:—Ráiganj, Churáman, Harípur, Bindol, Durgápúr, Sítáhár, Sioli, Bodhuri, and Galchorá. Most of the villages are wretched in appearance; nearly all the houses are thatched with grass, and have walls made of reeds plastered with clay. The huts are huddled together; and fires are frequent and destructive. Mango, jack, and palm trees are planted round the villages. *Rivers.*—The principal rivers are the Mahánandá, Kulik, and Nágar; the latter forms the western boundary between this District and Purniah to within six miles of Churáman, when the Mahánandá becomes the boundary. Boats of the largest size ascend the Mahánandá during the rainy months, and extensive rafts of timber are floated down it from the Dárjiling *táráí*. The Kulik is a deep but narrow stream, and has its source near the village of Bhogján in *par-gáná* Sálbári. It falls into the Nágar river about eight miles north of the junction of the Mahánandá and Nágar. Besides these rivers, there are numerous smaller ones intersecting the country in every direction. There are few bridges; most of the rivers are fordable, except during the rains. *Ferae naturae.*—The country abounds with tigers and leopards and small game. Tigers make frequent incursions from their haunts in the ruins of Panduah (Peruah), killing many cattle, and occasionally human beings. The long grass on the banks of the Mahánandá gives shelter to numerous wild hogs. The villagers are harassed at nights by watching the crops, to keep off wild animals. *Climate.*—The climate is remarkable for its humidity. Immediately after the rains, fever is very prevalent, occasioned by noxious exhalations from the low lands. During the hot months, although the heat is excessive during the day, the nights are com-
paratively cool. Fevers contracted during the rains are followed by splenitis and chronic rheumatism. Dysentery and leprosy are not uncommon.'

(28) FATHIJANGPUR: area, 597 acres, or '93 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £19, 10s. od. According to the Revenue Surveyor, this parganá has an area of 60'323 acres, or 94'25 square miles; but although it formed a part of the Dinajpur Survey, it belongs to Bográ District. It may be as well, however, to quote the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on this tract here:—'This parganá is bounded by parganá Khattá on the south-east, and by Rájsháhí District on the south-west. It is intersected by the Jamuná and Tulsi gangá rivers from north to south. The country is low and swampy, bears a jungly appearance, and is covered with numerous tanks, ditches, water-courses, and swamps. The latter are frequented by herds of buffalo and wild pigs, and flocks of wild fowl. The principal of these marshes are the Chabré and Hástar bils. The tract is subject to inundation; the villages are very small, and the want of communication between them is greatly felt. The northern portion of the parganá is particularly jungly, and is infested by tigers. The principal village, also a grain-mart, is Bálubhárá, on the Jamuná river. There are other grain-marts at Bádalgáchhi and Hazrátpur on the Jamuná. The staple crop is rice, but sugar-cane and gánjá are also extensively cultivated. The latter is the common hemp, from the dried leaves of which the natives extract an intoxicating liquor called bháng. The dried flowers called gánjá are mixed with tobacco and smoked, and form an intoxicating drug. A juice is obtained from the green leaf which is used by confectioners in making sweetmeats.'

(29) GHAGRA: area, 2131 acres, or 3'32 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £13, 2s. od.

(30) GORAGHAT: area, 38,559 acres, or 44'62 square miles; 16 estates; land revenue, £1765, os. od.—See No. 8.

(31) GILABARI: area, 94,469 acres, or 147'60 square miles; 52 estates; land revenue, £8369, 14s. od. The Revenue Survey Report describes the parganá as follows:—'This is a large, open, flat, and fertile tract, producing much rice. It is bounded on the north and east by the parganás of Deorá and Swaráppur, on the south by the parganás of Sultánpur and Santosh, and on the west by the Atrái river. The Bográ high road enters the parganá near its north-west corner at Samjiá, and traverses it diagonally to Chintáman
in the south-east corner; the Pátirám tháná road also passes through it. It is well watered by the Atrái, Jamuná, and Ichhámatí rivers; and although subject to inundation during the rains, is less swampy and jungly than any other parganá in southern Dinájpur, and is also better cultivated. It is very highly assessed. The chief place is the village and grain-mart of Samjía on the Atrái; other large villages are Sujápur and Mukhtápur on the Jamuná river, and Rádhikapur and Jakhírpur on the high road. Periodical markets are also held at the following villages:—Gobindganj, Khayrábári, Barhia Hát, Shámshehnagar, Fakírganj, Gangáprasad, Maksudpur, Chak Ináyatpur, Rámánand, Raghuñáthganj, Borahattá, Jhaleswari, Malidángá Hát or Chintáman, Ráspur, Kuruldángá, etc. At Gobindganj there is also a grain depot. Native cloth is made at Borahattá; and the ruins of an indigo factory are found at Ináyatpur. Besides rice, sugar-cane, mustard-seed, pulse, onions, tobacco, etc. are produced. Several Government khás mahals are situated in the parganá. Annual fairs are held at Fakirganj on the Atrái, and at Jaykrishnapur near Chintáman. At the latter, which is numerously attended, a considerable trade in cattle, cloth, and other commodities is carried on.'

(32) Hansia Bangalipur: area, 2604 acres, or 4.06 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £169, 6s. od.

(33) Hatinda: area, 939 acres, or 1.46 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £23, 6s. od.

(34) Jahangirpur: area, 444,922 acres, or 695.19 square miles; 13 estates; land revenue, £11,110, 2s. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this parganá at only 78,429 acres, or 122.54 square miles; but a great portion of it lies within Bográ District, and this part is probably not included in the Dinájpur Survey. The Revenue Surveyor describes the parganá as follows:—'The principal village is Dorálá, which possesses a good básár and granary, situated on the banks of the Atrái. The country is flat and open; it is traversed by the Atrái from north to south, and is bounded on the east, south, and west by the District of Rájsháhí. There is no road of any consequence except a fair-weather one leading from Síbpur to Dinájpur; there are several large bíls or marshes. Market villages—Alipur, Chándás, Utúrgáon, Chak Dori, Pahárpur, Sírámpur, Husainpur, Mahesbathán, Mahádebpur, Patnítálá, and Nagipur. The staple produce is rice.'

(35) Jhapartail: area, 42,788 acres, or 66.85 square miles;
10 estates; land revenue, £2112, 4s. od. The Revenue Survey Report describes the parganá as follows:—"This parganá is situated to the north-west of the town of Dinajpur. It is intersected by the Tángan river and other smaller streams; also by the road from Krishnaganj to Dinajpur. The principal village is Sádámahal; and periodical markets are held at the following places:—Rámipur, Ajnábád, Síbpur, Chaubúr, etc. The parganá is not so low-lying and swampy as those which lie to the south of it."

(36) Kánkjoll: area, 1550 acres, or 2'42 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £34, 12s. od.

(37) Kántnagar: area, 48,734 acres, or 76'14 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £2622, 14s. od.

(38) Karáibari: area, 6959 acres, or 10'87 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £318, 8s. od.

(39) Kasímpur: area, 31,523 acres, or 49'25 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £933, 4s. od.

(40) Khalár: area, 79,850 acres, or 124'76 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £3600, 8s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: "Parganá Khalárá borders on Purniah District, from which it is divided by the Nágar river. The principal village is Harípur; and periodical markets are held at the following places:—Bedsári, Kushtíá, Sutikátá, Síbganj, Betná, Sítáláriá, Dhírganj, Bághchá, Kálígánj, Díghir, etc."

(41) Khángor: area, 1285 acres, or 2'01 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £75, 14s. od. According to the Revenue Survey, this parganá comprises an area of 69,580 acres, or 108'72 square miles. Although comprised within the Dinajpur Survey, it belongs to Bográ District, with the exception of the small tract returned by the Board of Revenue. I quote, however, the Revenue Surveyor's Report on the whole parganá, which is as follows:—"This parganá is bounded on the north by parganá Sarhattá, on the east and south by parganás Gorághát and Poládásí, and on the west by parganá Ságuná. The Tulsigangá river runs through it from north to south. It is a flat country, rather open; but there is no deficiency of jungle, grass patches, and marshes in particular localities. The tract to the west of the Jamuná river is decidedly jungly, and in this respect is different from the rest of the parganá. The Bográ high road, passable for carts at all seasons, passes through it from north to south. Branch roads also lead to Gorághát on the Karatóyá river, and from Lál Bázár to Jáipur. The principal village is Hílí on the Jamuná.
river, which contains a large grain-mart, a market, and a bázár. Bághjáná village, on the Jamuná and Bográ high road, was formerly a place of some consequence. There is a dense jungle immediately in its vicinity, which contains several fine temples and the ruins of others, together with numerous well-built burnt-brick houses (some in a state of good preservation); also many fine tanks overgrown with aquatic weeds and jungle, and now the resort of tigers. The village also contains the ruins of an abandoned indigo factory. Dam-dámé village is also a grain depot, and has a considerable market. In former days the East India Company had an agency at Dam-dámé for the purchase of cloth manufactured in the neighbourhood. The following villages have periodical markets:—Syámpur, Belámli, Kandurli, Hichmi, Bághjáná, and Pánchbíbí. As illustrative of the trade carried on at these village háts or markets, the Revenue Surveyor gives the following long list of articles offered for sale in the Pánchbíbí hát one market-day in March 1860:—‘Cows, goats, fowls, eggs, pigeons, fish, rice, parched rice, potatoes about the size of marbles, sweet potatoes, beans, parched beans, unrefined sugar, sugar-cane, brinjáls, chilies, turmeric, plantains, pán leaves, betelnuts, spices, sweetmeats, madrak (an intoxicating drink), tobacco leaf, skull-caps, combs, brushes, tools, native jewellery, shoes, flowers, earthenware vessels and water-pots, canes, bamboos, bead necklaces and bracelets, bamboo mat baskets for holding grain, palm-leaf fans, bamboo mats, raw silk from the Palma Christi silk-worm, playthings, bridal ornaments and votive offerings made of sólá, hookahs made from cocoa-nut shells, gánjá, knives, soap, wax, brass and iron pots and pans, oil of various kinds, empty bottles, lead, raw cotton, pumpkins, milk, curds, ghi, chunám, wheat, and pulses. Also the following imported articles:—Salt, cocoa-nuts, pictures, books, looking-glasses, long stockings, cotton piece-goods, fishing lines and hooks, paper, pens, needles, thread, string, tape, pins, and lucifer matches. The Pánchbíbí market is rather larger than the generality of village háts.’

(42) Kharail: area, 15,098 acres, or 33°59 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £959, 18s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: ‘The only villages of any note in this small parganá are Kharail and Mallikpur. The country is open and flat, and produces rice. It is bounded on the north-east corner by the Atrái river, on the south by parganá Santos, and on the west by parganá Khardaha. Tanks are very numerous. In the west of the parganá is a bil called
the Kusigang, which contains good drinking water and fish. The villages are very small.'

(43) Khardaha: area, 130,726 acres, or 204.25 square miles; 47 estates; land revenue, £6984, ros. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This parganá is partly bounded on the west by Maldah District. The country is open, and abounds in rice cultivation. The Därjiling high road passes through it from south to north, and the Atri river traverses its north-east corner. Tanks are very numerous. Large patches of grass exist towards the Maldah boundary; and a considerable marsh, called the Dulá bīl, in the south gives rise to a water-course (nālā) which falls into the Purnabhābā river. The principal village is Kasbá Khardaha; and in the following periodical markets are held:—Kasbá Khardaha, Bajrá Pukhāri, Kasbá Badánpur, Bhawanipur, Kakná, and Madhāil. Aichorá is a grain-mart on the Atri.'

(44) Khas Taluk: area, 2388 acres, or 3.73 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £118, ros. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this parganá at 59,701 acres, or 93.28 square miles; but besides a considerable portion which belongs to Rangpur District, the tract contains part of Gorághát and several other parganás. The Revenue Surveyor describes the tract as follows:—'It is bounded on the east by Rangpur, from which it is divided by the Karatoyá river. The parganá is much cut up and intersected by rivers and khāls. The Morá, a branch of the Karatoyá, flows through it from north to south. A large tract of sāl and dense and impenetrable tree-jungle runs a few miles from the Karatoyá and parallel with it for nearly the whole length of the parganá, infested by tigers, leopards, wild buffalo, hog, deer, and peacocks, all of which are very destructive. The staple crop is rice; but a good deal of the country being pāli land, potatoes, sugar-cane, tobacco, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are freely cultivated. The principal place is Gorághát on the Karatoyá, the only place in the whole of the southern part of Dinájpur that can be called a town. It has one good street of shops of banīs and other dealers. There are a few substantially-constructed houses made of brick and mortar, but the rest are mere huts with bamboo walls. There is a police thānā at this place, and a cart-road leading to Dinájpur town viâ Báduría. There are large tracts of waste land in the vicinity of the town, which are said to have formed the site of the Muhammadan military cantonment of Gorághát, in the days when Gaur was the seat of
government in Bengal. The market villages are Balghári, Báduriá, and Rániganj.

(45) Khét Lál: area, 2,397 acres, or 3'74 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £189 4s. od.

(46) Khulsi: area, 33,051 acres, or 51'64 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, £1,749.

(47) Khupi: area, 12,620 acres, or 19'71 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £771 10s. od.

(48) Kunj Goraghát: area, 7,816 acres, or 12'21 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £376.

(49) Lálbari Jagir Mai Mukhtipur, and

(50) Lálbari Khalisa: two parganás, area of both returned together in the Board of Revenue’s statement at 17,241 acres, or 26'73 square miles: the first contains 2 estates; land revenue, £411, 6s. od.; the latter, 4 estates, with a land revenue of £408.

(51) Madanabati: area, 10,418 acres, or 16'27 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £511, 4s. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area at 16,374 acres, or 25'58 square miles, and describes the pargáná as follows:—‘This is a small tract bordering on Maldah, following the course of the Tángan river to the west, and intersected by the Purnabhbábá from north to south. It is low and marshy, and much cut up by small kháls. It is subject to inundation during the rains, and is considered very unhealthy. The largest bít is in the south of the pargáná, and is called the Chakdáha bít. There are many tanks. The principal villages are Hazrátpur, Bísrol, and Básuriá. Some of the villages are moderately large.’

(52) Mahasa: area, 62,070 acres, or 96'98 square miles; 22 estates; land revenue, £4191, 8s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: ‘The pargáná is full of marshes, and is subject to inundation. It is bounded on the north-east by the Tángan river, on the south-east by the Gámar, and on the west by the Kulik. The principal place is Hemtábád, 26 miles west of Dináipur town, where there is a police station (tháná). A cart-road leads to Dináipur; and another, which connects the Ráiganj and Pérganj thánás, passes through the pargáná. The market villages are Jarbar, Karnáí, Lochan Mandil, Gumáshtá, Suníspur, Borábári, Pérganj, etc.’

(53) Mahasínhpur: area, 11,123 acres, or 17'37 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £708.

(54) Mahanagar: area, 11,376 acres, or 17'77 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £245, 2s. od.
(55) MALDWAR: area, 37,099 acres, or 57.96 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £2029, 4s. od. This parganá is returned in the Revenue Surveyor’s Report along with parganás Barágáon and Dehattá. For a brief description of the tract, see No. 12.

(56) MALIGAON: area, 33,571 acres, or 52.45 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £2398, 18s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: ‘This is a small parganá, bounded on the west by the Tángan river; the south-west corner abuts on Maldah district. The Maldah high road runs through the parganá parallel to the Tángan. The southern portion of the parganá is flat and open; the northern, grassy and jungly, and covered with swamps. Tanks are very numerous, and some contain alligators. The staple crop is rice; but sugar-cane, oil-seeds, tobacco, potatoes, pulse, etc. are also cultivated. The principal villages are Mahípál, Sáhat, Boro-hát, and Kántábári. The former Rájá of Maligáon had his residence at Mahúsádl, where there is an extensive tank; but the whole place is now a dense jungle.’

(57) MASIDHA: area, 51,121 acres, or 79.87 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £3491, 6s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: ‘This parganá is situated to the north of Jahángírpur, the south-west corner abutting on Rájsháhi district; it is traversed from north to south by the Atrái river. The country generally is open and flat, but the northern portion is jungly. There are numerous large báls; and several fair-weather cart-roads connect the principal villages. The staple crop is rice; and there are grain-marts at Chanchan Masidhá and Chálá Masidhá on the Atrái. The following villages have periodical bás or markets:—Gópálpur, Husánípur, Síbpur, Madreshahr, Chanchan Masidhá, and Chálá Masidhá. The villages are very small.’

(58) MATHURAPUR: area, 19,351 acres, or 30.23 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £764, 14s. od.

(59) NURPUR: area, 52,025 acres, or 81.28 square miles; 24 estates; land revenue, £3913. This parganá is returned in the Revenue Survey Report along with portions of Behinnagar, Deorá, and Jalbará. The Revenue Surveyor states: ‘This tract is traversed by the Dárjáling high road; also by the Dhápá river, a broad branch of the old Tistá, which flows into the Purnábhábá at the town of Dinájpur. The country here is higher and drier than in the south of the District. The principal village is Búrganj on the Dhápá river, where there is a police station; considerable local
trade is also carried on here. Some of the principal market villages are Old Kárul, Báládbhángí, Kántáir, Akheraganj, etc. Kántánagar is a large village on the Dhápá river on the Dárjiling road, where there is a fine temple. It is the first posting stage out of Dináipur.'

(60) Panjra: area, 142,265 acres, or 222.28 square miles; 34 estates; land revenue, £6398, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this parganá at 89,596 acres, or 139.99 square miles, and describes it as follows:—'This is a long narrow tract, bounded on the north by the large parganá of Sálbári, on the east by Rangpur District, on the south by pargáns Swarrúppur, Deorá, and Bijáínagar, and on the west by parganá Nurpur. The Tístá river enters at the northern boundary of the parganá, and, after traversing it southwards for a considerable distance, bifurcates near the south-western boundary, and loses its name, the eastern branch becoming the Atrái and the western the Dhápá. The Jamuná also enters the parganá from the north-east, and flows through it in a southerly direction. The parganá is cut up by kháls and the half-filled-up beds of large rivers. Rice is extensively cultivated in the low, flat lands, and also in the deserted beds of rivers; but the land being high, and the soil of the description known as palí land, the following crops are also extensively grown:—sugar-cane, tobacco, onions, potatoes, jute, hemp, ginger, turmeric, oil-seeds, gram, pán leaf, pulses, and vetches; of which ginger, turmeric, sugar, onions, and jute are exported. Bamboos are very abundant and luxuriant in growth. The villages are large, averaging nearly a square mile in area; the horned cattle and goats are not so diminutive in size as in the southern pargáns. There are also fewer tanks. The principal market villages are Jáiganj on the Tístá, Khánsámanbandar, Jharbárí, Bhusi, Bindakhárí, and Gobindpur. The first four named are also grain marts.'

(61) Poladasi: area, 9350 acres, or 14.60 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £597, 12s. od. According to the Revenue Surveyor, this parganá contains a total area of 111,737 acres, or 174.59 square miles; but although it formed a part of the Dináipur Survey, the greater portion of the parganá then belonged to Bográ District, and since then much of the remainder has been added to Bográ. It may be as well, however, to give here the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on the tract:—'This tract is bounded on the east by the Karatóyá river, on the south by three Bográ pargáns,
and on the west by pargands Fathjangpur, Saguná, and Khangor. The Bográ high road crosses its south-western corner, and there are other fair-weather roads; but on the whole there is (1863) a great deficiency of communication between the villages. It is a large, flat, open country, in which rice is abundantly produced. It is, however, a good deal cut up by tanks, ditches, and marshes: some of the latter are of considerable dimensions, and are frequented by herds of wild buffaloes, which cause great destruction to the sugar-cane and rice crops. It is traversed from north to south by the Tulsígangá, and by a branch of that river on the banks of which tigers are abundant. The principal village is Kásbá Kismat; and the following also possess periodical markets:—Sirhatti, Krishnanagar, Hatáshar, Pánitálá, Dáridahá, Surír-hát, Itákholá-hát, etc.'

(62) Phulbari: area, 33,586 acres, or 52.47 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £1805, 14s. od.

(63) Pustail: area, 18,535 acres, or 28.96 square miles; 7 estates; land revenue, £893. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is the most south-westerly pargand of Dinájpur; it is bounded by Maldah District on the west, and abuts on pargand Chaurá and Rájsháhi District on the south-east. The Dárjiling high road traverses it from north to south, and a cart-road from Rangpur to Maldah passes through it from east to west. It is an open, rice-producing country, covered with large patches of grass, bils, and jungle near the Maldah boundary. The principal place is the large village and grain mart of Nitpur. The following villages also possess periodical markets:—Haripur, Porshá, Dasnagar, Ghánagar, Soponah, Tentulyá, and Nischintpur. Porshá village, on the high road, contains also a police station.'

(64) Radhaballabhpur: area, 23,304 acres, or 36.41 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £640, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor, in his report, returns this pargand along with Suráhár Maniker, and describes the tract as follows:—'These pargands form a long tract of country running north and south, bounded on the east by the Chirámátí river, on the south by Maldah District, and on the west by the Mahánandá river. The country is low and swampy, with large grass patches and bils. A cart-road running from Ráiganj to Maldah passes through the southern or Rád-hábábállabhpur portion. The principal village is Churáman, a grain mart of considerable importance, situated on the Mahánandá river. The following also have market-places:—Nâyá Boridángá, Baidán,
Kaliánganj, Bholáganj, Kumár Bhawáníganj, Májúr, Saroll, Páthiráj, Báiungáon, Gaurípur, Dumrol, Dakhíhár, Sunábári, Kátábári, Bodhábári, etc.

(65) RAJNAGAR: area, 98,438 acres, or 153.79 square miles; 29 estates; land revenue, £5507, 14s. od.

(66) SAGUNA. This pargánd is not returned in the Board of Revenue's statistics, and although it formed a part of the Dinájpur Survey, now belongs to Bográná District. It may be as well, however, to quote the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on the pargánd here:—'Area, 53,239 acres, or 83.19 square miles. It is an oblong tract of country stretching north and south; its eastern boundary follows the course of the Jamuná river for a considerable extent, and its western boundary that of the Súfí-kharoi nádá. It is traversed from north to south by the Chhé river. The country is very jungly, overrun by dense tree-forest and grass jungle, which springs up with amazing rapidity; tigers, buffaloes, and wild pigs abound, and are very destructive. There is a large biít near Mangálbárái, and several others scattered over the pargánd. Good roads intersect the tract in all directions. They communicate with the police stations (thánás) of Báiálgaáchí and Láá Bázáár, and connect the villages of Mangálbárái and Jamálganj Buzurg. The latter is the chief place in the pargánd, and is a substantial Bengáli village. Periodical markets are also held at Durgádáhá, Málalípur, and Jáípur. Indigo was formerly manufactured at Jáípur. Besides rice, —sugar-cane, cotton, oil-seeds, onions, pulses, barley, oats, and potatoes are raised. Sugar-cane and cotton are not so freely cultivated as formerly.'

(67) SALBÁRI: area, 319,886 acres, or 499.81 square miles; 75 estates; land revenue, £18,494, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor's Report only embraces a portion of this large pargánd, consisting of 161,708 acres, or 252.67 square miles. He describes the tract as follows:—'This tract embraces a portion of Sálbári pargánd. It is situated at the north-eastern extremity of Dinájpur, being bounded on the north by Purniah and on the east by Rangpur. It is the largest pargánd in the District; the villages, also, are of greater size, the country more open and higher, and more free from swamps and inundations than any of the southern pargánás. Rice forms the staple product; but the following crops are more plentifully raised than in the lower lands:—tobacco, jute, hemp, onions, oil-seeds, potatoes, turmeric, ginger, pulses, etc. It is traversed by the
Dārjiling high road, and the Tāngan river passes through the entire length of the parganā from north to south. The principal villages are Akhánagar, Dakshin Batina, Jángáon, Pírganj, Thákurgáon, and Nischintipur, the three latter being also police stations. The market villages are about 66 in number.'

(68) SANTOSH: area, 232,835 acres, or 363.80 square miles; 56 estates; land revenue, £11,370, 14s. 0d. The Revenue Surveyor’s Report returns the area at 262,972 acres, or 410.89 square miles (a portion being within Bográ District), and describes the tract as follows:—‘Santosh is the most extensive and important parganā in the southern half of Dinápur. It is a large rice-producing tract of country, flat and low. It is divided into two almost equal parts by the Atráí river, which flows through it from north to south; it is also traversed in the same direction by the Khulkuliá Kharí. The soil is hard, friable, and sandy, and produces good rice during the rains; it is subject to partial inundation. Considerable jungle extends along the banks of the Atráí, and in some parts there are large bils. The two principal of these are the Krutrá and Ghúksí bils, the latter being situated on the nálá of the same name. Both jungle and marshes are infested by tigers, leopards, buffaloes, and wild pigs; the two former commit great havoc among the horned cattle, and the two latter among the rice and sugar-cane cultivation. The villages are invariably surrounded and protected by low tree-jungle, bamboos, grass, and plantain trees.‘ Tanks and ditches are very abundant, and the country is much cut up by them and by small water-cuts and náldás. A good District road runs between the villages of Pátirám and Patnítalá along the Atráí; other fair-weather roads connect the principal villages. Crops—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, barley, onions, tobacco, potatoes, pulses, etc. The principal produce-depôts and granaries are the following:—Pátirám, Madanganj, Págli-bandar, Bálughát, Rángámáti, and Patnítalá. Pátirám and Patnítalá are also police stations. The following are the more important market villages:—Rámdebpur, Bhaur, Biswánáthpur, Maglispur, Dewar, Názípur, Dokrá, Rámchandrapur, Kásípur, Bhátgáon, Uddásíri, Phasáipárá, Sankarpur, Pálí, Aólí, Aránagar, Gohán, Dácháír Kismat, Bhátrá, Mahmuḍpur, Fathípur, Debípur, Bálupárá, Pátkholá, etc.’

(69) SARHATTA: area, 22,801 acres, or 36.41 square miles; 7 estates; land revenue, £1406, 4s. 0d. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of the parganā at 51,878 acres, or 81.60 square
FISCAL DIVISIONS.

miles, and gives the following description of the tract:—"It is bounded on the north by parganá Swarrúppur, on the south by Khángor, on the west by Sultánpur; the eastern boundary follows the course of the Harín river, which is the name given to the upper portion of the Tulsígangá. It is flat and open, but many patches of tree and thorn jungle exist; also a few sál-bans, or small forests of bastard sál trees. The parganá is intersected by the Badr river. There are several considerable-sized bús in the neighbourhood of Tarpanghát, the Ansular, Baraní, and Kuríar being amongst the largest. The principal village is Tarpanghát, on the banks of the old Karátoyá river. There is a police station at Nawábganj, in the extreme north of the parganá, on the banks of the old Karátoyá. Formerly there existed a Government opium factory at Dáúdpur, two miles south-east from the police station, as also a fine bázár, but both are now in ruins. Dáúdpur is still, however, of some note as being the residence of some influential zámindárs. The place is overgrown with dense thorn and tangled jungle, and, being situated on high ground, is a favourite resort of tigers during the rains. Other villages of note are Chosikái and Bijan; and those having markets are Nawábganj, Bijan, Baninshahr, Ațádíghí, Digshan, Dáúdpur, etc. An annual fair is held at Tarpanghát in April, which lasts fifteen days, and is attended by from four to five thousand persons. The road running from Chintáman to Gorághát runs through this parganá, and it is partially traversed by that from Habrá to Dáúdpur. The parganá is liable to inundation. The staple product, as usual, is rice; sugar-cane, tobacco, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are also cultivated."

(70) SASBIR: area, 46,632 acres, or 78.86 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £3665, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a fine open rice-producing parganá, situated nearly in the centre of the District. The Atráí runs through it near its north-eastern boundary, and the Purnabhábá traverses its western portion. The Dárjíling high road runs from north to south through its centre; and a road leading to Dam-damá, and running parallel with the Purnabhábá, passes through its western portion. Bordering on parganá Debíkot is a large marsh called the Patái bűl; there are also a large number of tanks, and a very fine one at Pránságar. The villages average half a square mile in area; the sites are well secured by thickets of trees, low jungle, bamboos, grass, and plantains. The principal villages are Tárá, a grain mart on the Atráí,
and Kathálíshát and Kátátair on the Purnabhábá. At the following
villages periodical markets are held:—Tárá, Kátátair, Máhur, Kismat
Udái, Chálun, and Takrun-hát.’

(71) SHERPUR: area, 38.40 acres, or 6·00 square miles; 1 estate;
land revenue, £213, 6s. od.

(72) SHIKARPUR: area, 60,058 acres, or 93·84 square miles; 10
estates; land revenue, £1061, 16s. od.

(73) SIKSAHAR: area, 507 acres, or 0·78 of a square mile; 1
estate; land revenue, £27, 8s. od.

(74) SUJANAGAR: area, 21,561 acres, or 33·68 square miles; 2
estates; land revenue, £454, 12s. od.

(75) SULTANPUR: area, 34,501 acres, or 53·90 square miles; 9
estates; land revenue, £2485, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor
returns the area of the pargáná at 62,740 acres, or 98·03 square
miles, and describes it as follows:—‘This pargáná is a flat and rather
open country, but there is no scarcity of jungle, tanks, bilis, or water-
courses. The high road to Bográ passes through its whole extent
from north to south, and it is traversed in different directions by
the road from Nawábganj tháná to Dináipur, and by that from
Chintámna to Pátirám tháná. The Chiri, Ghuksl, Khulkuli, and
Jamuná rivers all traverse it from north to south, and other minor
streams exist. The principal marshes are the Kálídah bil in the
north, and the Kochná and Máná in the south of the pargáná. The
principal village in the tract is Berámpur, a large grain mart on the
Jamuná. The following also possess periodical markets,—Mirzá-
pur, Khátá, Borár, Ketrá, Jot Bání, Bátul, and Kántá. The latter
is a grain mart on the Jamuná. This pargáná is subject to inundation
from the Jamuná during the rains. Rice is the staple product;
and the following are also sparingly cultivated:—sugar-cane, oil-
seeds, pulses, potatoes, onions, pán leaves, tobacco, vetches, etc.
Cotton cloth is manufactured at Bátul. Government possesses some
kháls mahals in this pargáná.’

(76) SURAHAR MANIKER: area, 28,139 acres, or 43·96 square
miles; 11 estates; land revenue, £785, 18s. od. This pargáná is
returned in the Revenue Surveyor’s Report along with Rádháballabhpur.
For a brief description of the tract, see No. 64.

(77) SURJYAPUR: area, 25,097 acres, or 39·21 square miles; 2
estates; land revenue, £900, 10s. od.

(78) SWARRUPPUR BHITARBAND: area, 74,740 acres, or 116·78
square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £4526, 6s. od. The
Revenue Surveyor returns the area of parganá Svaruppur at 138,345 acres, or 216.16 square miles, and makes the following remarks:—

This is a long, narrow tract, running north and south about thirty miles, bounded on the east by the Karatóya river, here an insignificant, slow, tortuous stream, which appears to have silted up of late years, and which separates the parganá from Rangpur District. The tract is very much intersected by water-cuts, dry nālīs, and small streams. There are several outlying patches of bastard sāl trees. Jungle exists in the extreme south, near Nawábganj, and towards the south in the vicinity of Bāghchará, which is infested with tigers. Leopards and hog are found in the bíls and jungle, and are very destructive. The Rangpur road runs across the parganá from east to west; and a fair-weather cart-road from Jessái, on the Jamuná, passes through Hábrá, and leads to Nawábganj thándá. Clumps of fine bamboos are to be seen everywhere. Besides rice, the following crops are also freely cultivated,—sugar-cane, ginger, turmeric, oilseeds, hemp, jute, tobacco, pān leaf, and onions. Hábrá, the principal village in the parganá, is a large grain mart, situated on the small river Tilái, which falls into the Jamuná near Basudebpur. There is a police station here. The principal market villages are Hábrá, Bāghchará, Mangalbári, Jessái, and Phulbári. There are the ruins of many old indigo factories in this tract, particularly along the Karatóya and Jamuná rivers.

(79) Táherpur: area, 254 acres, or 39 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £12, 6s. od.

(80) Tájpur: area, 72,838 acres, or 113.65 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £3363, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'The principal village in parganá Tájpur is Ráiganj, situated on the Kulik river, which is a large grain mart, and one of the most important seats of trade in the District. The principal market villages are Sirájganj, Fakirganj, Koldángi, Bindol, Balaiyá Dighí, Barádwári, Jugi, Pánch Bayá, Maharájá, Pírgáchha, Kálí Durgápur, Baodábári, etc.'

(81) Uchannasta: area, 3499 acres, or 5.46 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £110, 12s. od.

The statistics thus furnished by the Board of Revenue exhibit a total area of 3,311,658 acres, or 5174.46 square miles, comprising 778 estates, and paying a total Government land revenue of £173,351. The details in the foregoing list, however, must be received with caution, as, although the totals approximate, they do
not absolutely agree with those obtained from more trustworthy sources. Moreover, it is not stated in the Board of Revenue's statistics to what year the figures refer. According to the latest return I have received from the Boundary Commissioner, the present (1874) area of Dinajpur District is 4095.14 square miles. In 1870, the Collector returned 739 estates on the District rent-roll, paying a total Government land revenue of £173,454.

CLIMATE.—'The climate of Dinajpur,' says the Revenue Surveyor, 'is on the whole much cooler than that of Calcutta; the hot weather does not set in so early, and the nights are always cool and pleasant till the end of April. The District, however, is very unhealthy. The villagers have a sickly appearance, and many are annually carried off by fever and cholera. The unhealthy period of the year for strangers begins about the middle of March, with the hot weather, when they are liable to get diarrhoea, fever, or cholera. Natives principally suffer in September and October, at which time very few escape fever. When they sicken, they are attended by their own doctors, or kabirajas, in whose skill and medicines they place great confidence.

'The year, as in the rest of Bengal, is divided into three seasons,—the hot, the rainy, and the cold. The hot season may be said to commence about the middle of March, and to terminate about the end of May. It is ushered in by strong westerly winds, which prevail until the first showers of rain begin to fall in April or the beginning of May. This wind is hot and dry, and causes a rapid evaporation of the waters in the marshes and tanks, and when followed by a light easterly wind, as is often the case, produces sickness and fever. The nights during the first two months of this season are cool and pleasant; occasional showers of rain fall towards the end of April, which reduce the temperature. In May, and immediately before the setting in of the rainy season, they become more frequent; by this time the weather has become very hot, and the nights hot and oppressive. Strong gales from the north-east and north-west, accompanied by thunder and lightning, occur at the setting in of the rains. The rainy season may be said to have fairly set in by the first week in June. Previous to this period, the showers have been light; but now the rain falls heavily, the wind blowing from the south and east, and the rice cultivation proceeds. The rivers soon swell, the marshes assume the dimensions of lakes, and the country in general is submerged, and im-
passable to travellers except to those proceeding along the high roads or in boats. The more elevated lands do not long remain submerged, for, as the rivers subside, the waters flow back into their channels, and are carried off; but many of the low lands, having no outlets, become vast bāls or marshes, several of which are perennial. The heavy rain ceases about the 1st of October, after which light showers occur with intervals of sunshine, during which time the atmosphere is steamy, very hot and oppressive, causing fever, from which few escape. The cold weather sets in about the 15th November, by which time the weather has become cool and pleasant. From November to the middle of February, heavy dews fall at night, and thick mists and fogs occur in the morning, but they are soon dispelled by the sun's rays. At this time it is generally sufficiently cold to require a fire and woollen clothing; and the poorer cultivators, who have neither, suffer from the low temperature. Light variable winds prevail until the beginning of February, when strong westerly winds begin to blow, and again usher in the hot season about the middle of March. The Civil Surgeon returns the temperature of the District in 1869 as follows:

Average of all the highest, 92.3°; highest in May, 105.02°.
Average of all the lowest, 74.8°; lowest in December, 63°. The Meteorological Department, in 1872, returned the average rainfall of the District for the ten previous years at 85.54 inches. The monthly rainfall in 1872 was as follows:—January, 0.95 of an inch; February, 0.87; March, 0.03; April, nil; May, 4.00; June, 14.02; July, 17.66; August, 16.73; September, 10.92; October, 10.61; November and December, nil. Total for the year, 75.79 inches, or 9.75 inches below the average of the ten previous years.

DISEASES.—Remittent and continued fevers, ague, enlargement of the spleen, bowel complaints, cholera, and small-pox are the principal diseases of the District. The Civil Surgeon states that in 1869, 60 deaths from cholera were reported throughout the whole District. It appeared in a sporadic form, and was easily stopped from spreading. Small-pox made its appearance in January 1869 at Bángshárá; and in April and May at Hemtábád and Rájarámpúr. There were in all 281 cases, out of which death resulted in 26, or 9.2 per cent. of the cases treated. In every case the cause of the disease was traced to inoculation. Two forms of cattle disease prevailed in the District in 1869,—the foot disease, and what is apparently an inflammation of the throat and mouth. The latter disease the Civil
Surgeon states that he has found easily curable, by the frequent administration of small doses of hyper-sulphate of soda, and by washing the mouth and throat with a solution of the same.

The Dinajpur Charitable Dispensary was founded in 1862. It is supported by local subscriptions, and receives Government aid in the shape of the native doctor's salary, and the supply of European medicines and surgical instruments free of cost. In 1871 the total number of in-door patients treated in the hospital amounted to 212,—of whom 153 were cured or relieved; 9 were not improved or ceased to attend; 44, or 20°75 per cent., died; and 6 remained in hospital at the end of the year: average daily number of sick, 9°99. The out-door patients receiving treatment the same year numbered 2652; average daily attendance, 25°44. In the following year (1872) the statistics of medical relief were as follow:—The in-door patients numbered 244,—of whom 140 were cured or relieved; 56 were not improved; 40, or 16°39 per cent., died; and 8 remained in hospital at the end of the year: average daily number of sick, 8°35. The out-door patients numbered 2396; average daily attendance, 35°33. The total income in 1872 amounted to £236, 18s. od., of which £146, 12s. od. was contributed by Government. The expenditure in the same year was £249, 4s. od. A new dispensary was established in October 1872 at Ráiganj, supported by the liberality of the local zamindár.

Indigenous Drugs.—The following list of indigenous drugs and medicines used by the kabirajis, or village doctors, and their properties, has been furnished to me by the Civil Surgeon:—(1) Addá, or ginger. The root used in colic indigestion; it has the properties of a carminative or stomachic. (2) Ajwánu or jowani. The seeds are eaten, sometimes with betel leaf, in colic indigestion; same properties as the above. (3) Alu bokhárd. The fruit makes a cooling drink, used in fevers to allay thirst; sharbát is also made from it. (4) Am kasi, the stone of the mango fruit roasted and powdered, and used in fever and dysentery as an astringent. (5) Amlid, an astringent, used in gonorrhoea and in urethral disorders. (6) Imli or Tetul (tamarind), used as a cooling drink to allay thirst in fevers. It is cooling, diuretic, and a mild laxative. (7) Amrul, eaten mixed with food in scurvy. (8) Anar or dālim (pomegranate). The juice of the seeds are made into sharbát, as a cooling drink in fevers. The rind is an astringent, and is given in dysentery cases, boiled in milk. The root is an anthelmintic, and a decoction of it is given
in cases of worms. (9) *Imli patá*, the leaves of the tamarind tree, boiled into a decoction, and given in dysentery. (10) *Agiá ghát*, a sweet-scented grass, given as tea in fevers; it is a diaphoretic and a diuretic. (11) *Arrandá tel*, castor-oil, used in fever and dysentery as a purgative. The leaves of the castor-oil tree are used for fomentations in rheumatism. (12) *Bukchi*, a sweet-scented fruit, the seed of which is boiled in oil, and given in cases of leprosy. (13) *Bábur* or *bábídá*. Seeds from the tree, soaked in cold water and mixed with sugar, are given in cases of sore throat, as a cooling drink. *Sharbát* is also made from the seeds. The bark of the tree, boiled in water, is an astringent, and is given as a gargle in cases of syphilitic sore throat. The gum of the tree is an emollient, and is mixed with cough medicine. (14) *Báerá*. The covering of the stone of the fruit is soaked in water, and used for irritation of the urethra; it is astringent and cooling. (15) *Bel*. The pulp of the ripe fruit, mixed with water and sugar as a *sharbát*, is used in dysentery and diarrhoea; it is astringent and cooling. The raw fruit, with other ingredients, and formed into a decoction, is also given in dysentery and diarrhoea. The leaf, powdered and mixed with other ingredients, is given as a digestive. (16) *Bihi dáná*. The seeds mixed with water make a *sharbát*, given in coughs; it is a demulcent. (17) *Bháng*, a narcotic intoxicating drug, administered in debility and for want of sleep. Much used as an intoxicant. (18) *Bhánt*. The bark of the root powdered and given in costiveness; a cathartic. (19) *Báglh bárendra*. The bark heated and used as a fomentation in rheumatism. The gum, mixed with *haritáki* and *supári*, is used for sore gums. (20) *Bar háládi*. The root, fried in ghi, is used in colic. (21) *Bihi dáná*, cough mixture. (22) *Bhendia*, nutritious stimulant and emollient. (23) *Barer pát*. The leaves, boiled in water, are given in anasarca and dropsy cases; it is a diuretic. (24) *Borialá pat*. The powdered leaves applied on boils as a blister. (25) *Bach*. Root used in coughs, to allay irritation of the throat. (26) *Bel chhal*, the bark of the *bel* tree, used as a decoction in fevers. (27) *Kalápmáth*. The plant and leaf are used as an infusion in fever. (28) *Kát karanja*. The kernel of the fruit and the tender leaves are used, with black pepper, as a febrifuge; it is bitter and tonic. (29) *Káisal*. The powdered bark given as cough powders or mixtures; it is a stimulant and stomachic. (30) *Chákuliá*. Plant and leaves used in fever and anasarca; it is a diuretic. (31) *Chiki supári*, used for sore gums, mixed with *haritáki*, and as a tooth-powder or paste; it
is an astringent. (32) Dhaturā. The dry leaves are smoked like tobacco in asthma; an antispasmodic. (33) Dhunia. Seeds powdered and used as a sharbāt in fever; a stimulant, tonic, and carminative. (34) Dālchini. The bark of the tree is powdered, and oil expressed from it; used in diarrhoea, headache, loss of appetite, etc. (35) Daru haridra. Wood used as a decoction; it is heating, and a carminative. (36) Dhwari phul. The dried leaves are considered stimulating, and given in childbirth to promote labour. (37) Debdaru. The wood is used in fever as a febrifuge. (38) Nariydal, or cocoa-nut. The fruit is used in fever and paralysis. (39) Gāchh marich. The fruit and seeds are used as a garlic in sore throat; as an infusion it is a stimulant. (40) Gánjá, used in tetanus. (41) Godhum, a poultice. (42) Gol marich, or black pepper, an ingredient in cholera pills; stimulant and stomachic. (43) Gandh birosa, used in cases of bubo as a poultice. (44) Gīlā. The seeds used internally as an aphrodisiac, and in coughs as an expectorant, and externally in poultices. (45) Gāb. The pulp of the fruit used in dysentery and diarrhoea; an astringent. (46) Gandak, or sulphur, used in skin diseases and as a purgative. (47) Golanchā, used as a decoction in gonorrhoea, also in slow fever. (48) Gaj pipul. The bark of the seed is used in weakness; it is cooling. (49) Gokru. The green plant and dried seeds and capsules are highly mucilaginous. (50) Gao zabān, dried leaves used in the shape of a decoction, as a diaphoretic, and alterative. (51) Gao lochan, gall nuts, used in jaundice. (52) Haritākī, used in gonorrhoea; also mixed with supārī nut as a tooth-powder. (53) Haridra (turmeric). The macerated root applied externally in skin diseases, mixed with nim leaves; it is also taken internally. (54) Hababir, or juniper berries, used in gonorrhoea, and as a diuretic. (55) Habul kilkil, the wild pomegranate, used as an astringent. (56) Harital, sesqui-sulphate of arsenic, used in fumigations, and also given internally. (57) Hirākās, sulphate of iron, used as a tonic in spleen, and applied to the gums in toothache. (58) Hingul, per-sulphuret of mercury, used externally and in fumigations. (59) Isabgul. Seeds used for loss of voice, burning of urethra, and for small-pox in the shape of sharbāt; it is a demulcent. (60) Indrajab. Seed and bark given internally in dysentery, and applied externally in colics. (61) Jāstī madhu, liquorice, used in coughs, and for moistening the tongue and throat in fever. (62) Jaipal, or croton, taken internally as a purgative; applied externally as a counter-irritant. (63) Kandura. The powdered root used in
ascitis, and in coughs as an expectorant; it is diuretic. (64) Kuchilá. Small pieces are kept in the mouth and the saliva swallowed; a tonic. (65) Kálájírd, a strongly-scented seed, used as an anthelmintic. (66) Kántálá. An infusion of the dry leaves is given to promote diaphoresis in coughs and fevers. (67) Kulinjáb. The aromatic, bitter root used in fevers, and to promote digestion. (68) Kutki. Root used as a tonic. (69) Kuchnar. Bark used as a tonic in fevers. (70) Khorassan Kutki, root of the black and white hellebore, used as a drastic and cathartic to cause abortion. (71) Kundar rumi, mastic, used internally as an astringent. (72) Kamranga, an acid, dry fruit, given in fever. (73) Kaláddiná. The root, half-roasted, is used as a purgative. (74) Kálá meghá. The bitter root is used as a stomachic. (75) Kásim. Seed and leaves used as a sudorific and carminative. (76) Kamráj. Root used as a restorative and aphrodisiac. (77) Kupíldá, given internally as an anthelmintic. (78) Loban, used as an aphrodisiac. (79) Lufa, the fruit of the mandrake, used as a narcotic. (80) Nil, or indigo, applied externally to ulcers, especially in horses. (81) Lanka sij. The acrid juice is applied externally to ulcers. (82) Lilá tutiyá, sulphate of copper, used as an escharotic only. (83) Lohár ka lockan, iron filings, used as a tonic. (84) Mati buká, small pearls, used as an aphrodisiac. (85) Rudar. The leaves are used in gout, being bandaged over the affected parts. (86) Musá bhar, used in cases of enlarged spleen; a purgative. (87) Manásá sij. The root, mixed with stimulants, is given for snake-bite. (88) Majú phul, gall nuts, given as an astringent, and also applied externally. (89) Magra chal. The seeds are administered internally in cutaneous diseases; also used in leprosy. (90) Nim. The leaves boiled in water used as a fomentation in sprains and bruises; also as a poultice when powdered; the bitter bark of the tree is used as a febrifuge. (91) Usárá, gamboge, used as a drastic purgative; also applied externally. (92) Udruj, a yellowish gum, applied to the forehead in headaches. (93) Ūdā sālép. The roots used as an astringent and diaphoretic. (94) Para, mercury, used internally and externally with other drugs. (95) Píplá mul, the root of the long pepper, given to women as a stimulant after childbirth. (96) Palás píplál. Seeds used as a purgative, and in horse medicines. (97) Pudiná. Dried leaves powdered are used in colic; an infusion of fresh leaves used in fever. (98) Sijná. The powdered bark given in colic; if taken in large quantities, it causes abortion.
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