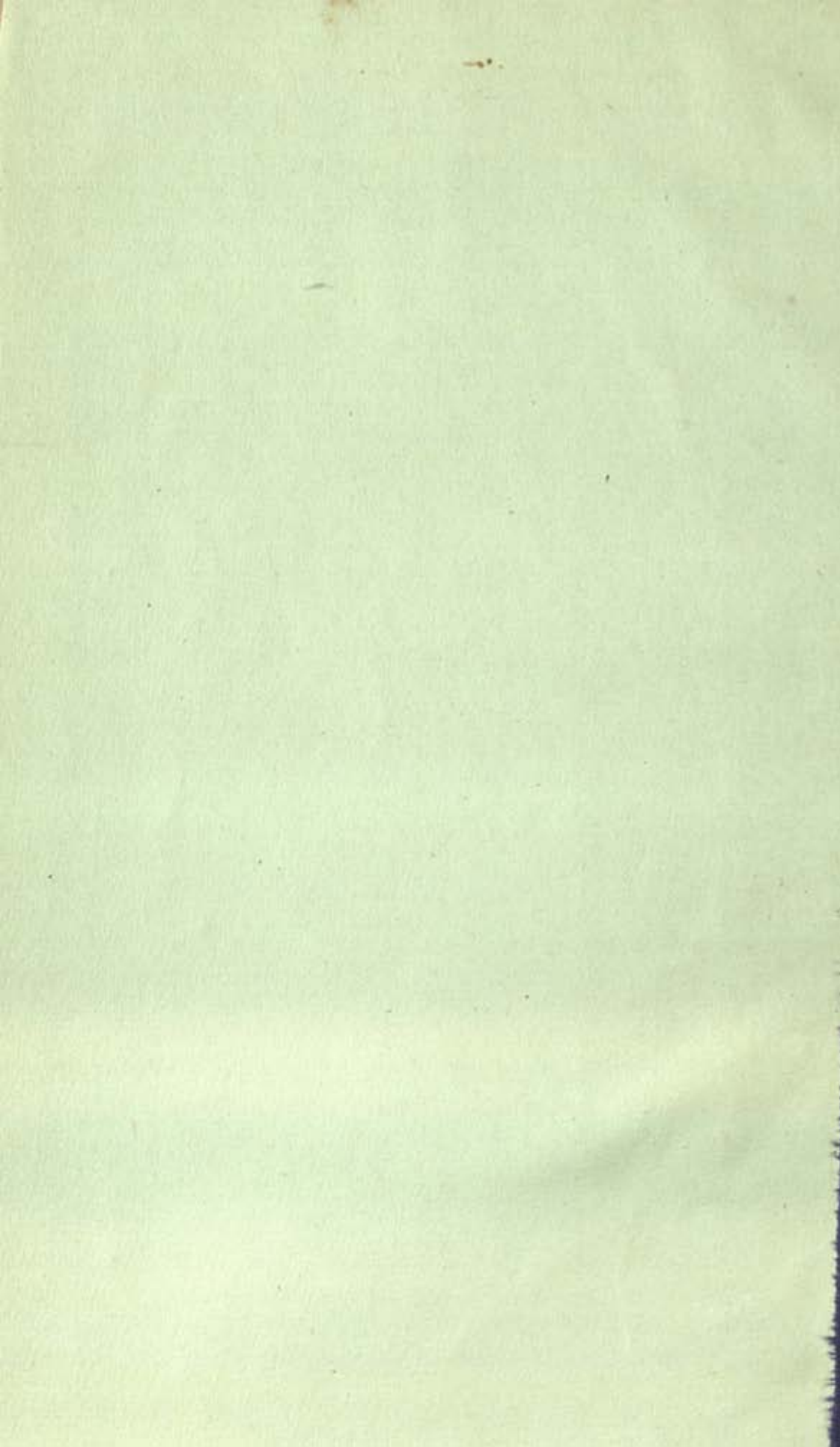


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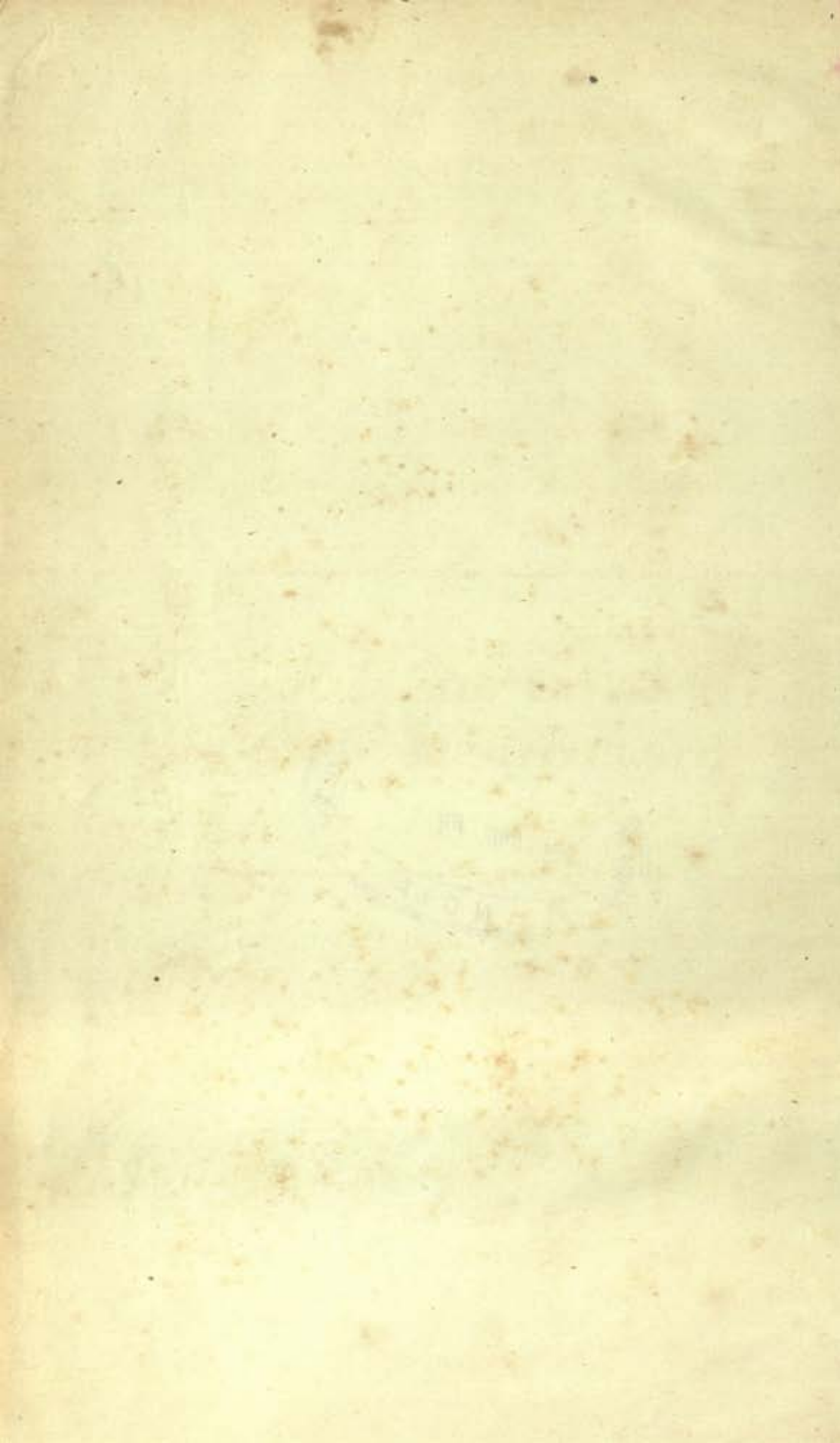
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EXPLANATORY NOTE.

As some differences occur in the nomenclature of the administrative divisions of the State in different chapters of the Gazetteer, this note is added in order to remove any confusion from the mind of the reader.

Before the year 1866 the State was divided into a number of administrative divisions called *Kārdāris* (collectorates), each of which was sub-divided into from 3 to 5 *Niyābats*. On the establishment of the British Agency in 1866 the State was divided into three *Nizāmats*, each of which was sub-divided into a number of *Tahsils* and *Peshkārís*. This arrangement continued until 1879-80 when Col. Grey, the Political Agent, with the assent of the British Government, introduced a new arrangement by which the *Nizāmats* and *Tahsils* were abolished, and six *Kārdāris* with the *Peshkārí* sub-divisions were again introduced. This arrangement lasted until 10th June 1905 when His late Highness Nawab Muhammad Bahawal Khan, V, with the advice of the Political Agent finally abolished the *Kārdāris* and the State was divided into three principal administrative divisions called *Nizāmats*, each of which comprised three *Tahsils*.

Chapters I and II of this Gazetteer were compiled and printed before this arrangement came into force as were also most of the tabular statements illustrating and elucidating the facts described in those chapters, and other tables forming Part B of this work. Chapters III and IV were completed after the establishment of *Nizāmats* and *Tahsils* in June 1905 with the result that while these names will be found in the later chapters, the terms *Kārdāris* and *Peshkārís* appear in the earlier chapters and in some of the Tables.

This note will, it is hoped, explain away any apparent inconsistency in the text.

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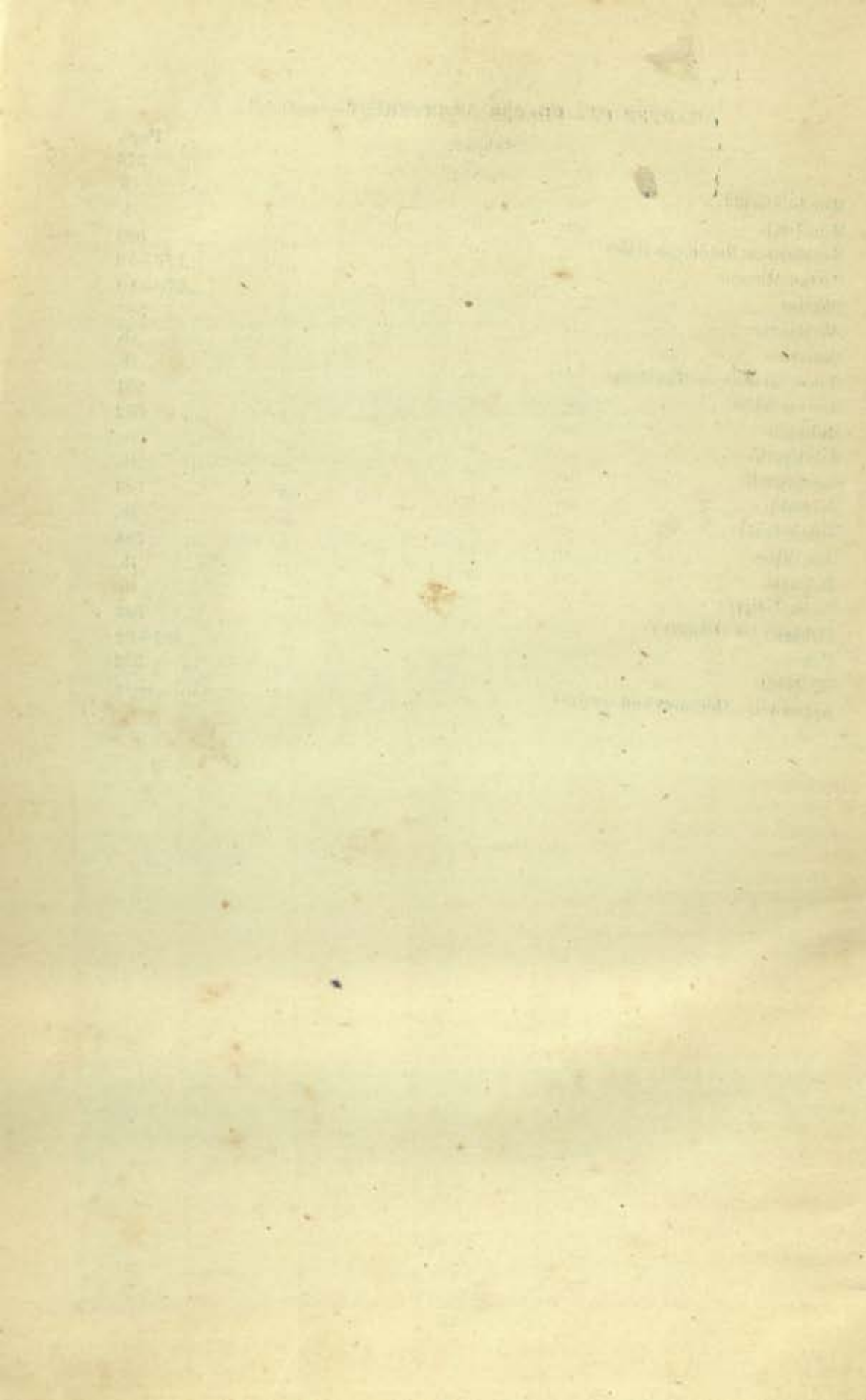
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CHAPTER I.—DESCRIPTIVE.

Section A.—Physical Aspects.

The Baháwalpur State lies to the south-west of the Punjab and north-east of Sind, and forms a connecting link between the two Provinces. It is bounded on the north and west, first by the Sutlej which separates it from the Montgomery and Multán Districts of the Punjab, then by the combined waters of the Sutlej and Chenáb which separate it from the Muzaffargarh District of the Punjab, and finally, from the point where the joint streams meet the Indus, by the Indus which divides it from the Punjab District of Dera Gházi Khan and that of Jacobabad in Sind. On the north-east lies the District of Ferozepur and on the south the independent States of Bikaner and Jaisalmer, and the Province of Sind.

CHAP. I, A.
Physical
Aspects.

According to the Revenue Survey the gross area of the State is 15,918 square miles, of which 9,881 square miles are desert, and this great tract is about 300 miles in length from N. E. to S. W. with river borders of 180 miles on the Sutlej : 40 miles on the Chenáb or Panj-nád, below the confluence of the five Punjab rivers : and 70 miles on the Indus.

Its mean breadth is 50 miles, and it may be divided geographically into three strips running parallel to each other throughout the whole length of the State. These strips may be described as (1) pure desert, (2) a central tract, chiefly desert, not capable of cultivation and considerably higher in level than the valleys of the adjoining rivers, and (3) the alluvial tract formed by the action of the rivers.

The first tract is a portion of the great Indian desert, and is bounded on the north and west by a depression locally known as the Hakra. Its surface consists of a succession of sand dunes, rising in places to a height of 500 feet with the vegetation peculiar to sandy tracts. There is no soil down to the lowest depths penetrated by wells : all is sand, but bitter water is met with at a depth of eighty feet. Wells are sunk through a stratum of fine sand, the sides being sustained by a steining of gypsum plaster, three inches thick, which is added as the excavation proceeds. These wells are seldom more than from three to four feet in diameter, and, even with the precaution of steining, their excavation is regarded as a perilous adventure. Overlying the sand in many of the valleys, as at Ghauspur, Rukanpur and Khangarh, is found a deposit of amorphous sulphate of lime from three to six feet thick. This tract is called the Rohí or Cholistán.

The three
natural divi-
sions:
(i) The
Rohí or Cho-
listán.

The second, or central, tract is identical in character with the uplands running from the Sulaimani range across the Deraját and Western Punjab, where it is locally known as the Pat or Bar and through which each of the Punjab rivers has cut its own valley. The difference of soil in the valleys and uplands is unmistakable.

(ii) The
central tract.

CHAP. I, A.

Physical
Aspects.(ii) The
central tract.

The former is a micaceous soil with alternating layers of light bluish silt, and the latter a stiff clay mixed with sand.

The limit of this central tract on the river side is clearly defined by a line of sand hills, and on the north-east portion of the State by an abrupt transition to the lower valley, which in many places is thirty feet below it. But this difference gradually fades away as we proceed to the south-western boundary, where the surface of the central tract is from eighteen to twenty feet below the cold weather zero of the river Indus.

The sub-
stratum.

Below spring water level in both tracts the substratum is identical, being a light bluish coloured silt, the counterpart of the silt deposited by the rivers. The edge of the high central tract is cut out by a series of indentations, proving the action of running water, and as up to this point the soil of the alluvial tract is identical with that found on the banks of the rivers, except a few isolated tracts which have never been affected by river action, and as above this point the alluvium of the high land differs, this edge is the limit beyond which none of the Punjab rivers have ever flowed under existing conditions.

Water-level.

The water in all the wells of both tracts is impregnated with salts of various kinds in solution, among which sulphate of soda is present to a large extent. When the wells are not used and the water is allowed to stagnate, the excess of salt makes the water very offensive, and undrinkable, until the stagnant water has been drawn out and the well replenished. The depth of spring water below the surface of the ground increases in proportion to the distance from the rivers, but in a greater ratio to the north-east than towards the south-west of the State. In the eastern portion of the State the subterranean spring level falls at the rate of 38 inches per mile, while at its confluence with the Chenáb the fall is only 17½ inches per mile.

The fall of the country up to the edge of the central tract is about a foot a mile from north to south, and from twelve to fifteen inches a mile from east to west, while the slope of the beds of the rivers does not generally exceed eight inches per mile. The rivers have therefore to adjust their beds to the slope of the country and are forced to wind about in a series of meandering curves, which often assume a horse-shoe form. On account of the greater slope of the country the Sutlej winds about much more than either the Chenáb or Indus. During the inundation season the floods spread over the adjoining country and as soon as the river falls, the stream takes the shortest course and in many cases joins the two ends of the horse-shoe curve, which are soon closed leaving a deep depression in the middle. The land lying within this depression is thus transferred from the right bank of the river to the left or *vice versa*. Some years later should the set of the river again turn towards this deserted channel as soon as the bank which marks the channel is removed, the river returns to its old bed—and again a transfer of a portion of the enclosed lands takes place. In fact these changes only

occur when the river makes a horse-shoe bend or returns to a deserted channel. CHAP. I, A.

The alluvial tract above referred to is scored throughout its whole length by deep depressions, generally horse-shoe curves, showing where, at some former period, one of the rivers must have been. These depressions are from 6' to 12' deep and from 50' to 100' broad. They have been left deserted in a great measure in consequence of the westerling tendency⁽¹⁾ of all the great Punjab rivers, and the rise of the country from the edge of the central tract to the present bed of the rivers shows that the earliest course of both the Sutlej and Indus was along the edge of the central tract, and that they have worked northwards and westwards to their present positions. This tract is called the Sindh.

Physical
Aspects.
(iii) The
alluvial tract
or Sindh.

It will be clear from this description that the lie of the land in the south-western Punjab does not favour the formation of deep, well-defined and permanent beds by the great rivers which converge in the valley of the Indus, but permits constant and sometimes sudden changes in their course. This tendency has apparently been accentuated by the slow but never ceasing drift of sand from the great Indian desert on the south, and, as possibly, as Colonel Minchin thought, by some upheaval of the tracts on its border. The subject is so important for a clear understanding of the ancient geography of the State, of its history and modern development, that it is proposed to discuss it here at some length.

That the course of each of the great rivers has been changed within historical times is conceded on all sides, but the precise nature of those changes has been the subject of controversy and still remains undecided. The main question is as to what river flowed in the great depression, called the Hakra, which forms the south-eastern frontier of the State, separating it from the Rájputána desert and the State of Jaisalmer.

As to this depression several theories have been advanced. Writing in the Calcutta Review in 1874⁽²⁾ Surgeon Major C. F. Oldham ingeniously suggested that the Hakra, the upper part of which is called the Sotra or Sutra, probably a corruption of Satodra or Sutudri, is the old bed of the Sutlej or Sátadru. This theory was vigorously combated by 'Nearchus,' in an article in the same Review in 1875, who held that the Hakra was fed by both the Sutlej and the Jumna, but did not form the main bed of either of those great rivers, the existing bed of the Hakra being too narrow for it to have ever found a river of their magnitude, and its level being some thirty feet above that of the present Sutlej. Colonel Minchin, who was for many years Political Agent in Baháwalpur, has advanced

The Hakra
depression.

(1) This westerling, as it is called, is due to the operation of the law, first discovered by K. E. von Baer, that the difference of the velocity of the earth's rotation at the Equator and at the Poles causes eroding rivers in the Northern Hemisphere to attack their right bank more than the left, and to push their beds sideways—while in the Southern Hemisphere, this action is reversed.

(2) Reprinted in Selections from the Calcutta Review, Second Series III, 1894, pages 1-56.

CHAP. I. A. the theory that the Hakra is the old bed of the Jumna, and his reasons are best given in his own words:—

Physical Aspects.

The Hakra depression.

As previously stated the desert portion is divided from the central tract by a depression called the Hakra, but in the southern portion of the State the advance of the sand-hills blown across from the great Indian desert has almost obliterated all traces of this river bed.

In the Calcutta Review for July 1874 an attempt was made to prove that this lost river was at one period the Sutlej. In my opinion the fact of the river Sutlej flowing within a defined valley of its own, bounded on either side by lands so much higher in level and of so different a character, precludes the idea of the higher tract ever having been traversed by the Sutlej. The Hakra river is referred to by Tod in the Annals of Bikaner, where he writes: "Tradition asserts that these regions were not always arid or desolate and that their deterioration dates from the drying up of the Hakra river, which came from the Punjab and flowing through the heart of the country emptied itself into the Indus between Rori, Bhakkar and Uch."

The Sirhind tract between the Sutlej and the Jumna is the watershed of the Indus and Gangetic valleys, and the Hakra depression is still the outlet of all the drainage channels of the western Sirhind tract, the main channel being the Ghaggar river.

It is not improbable that at some distant period the Jumna on leaving the hills turned westward and emptied itself into the Indus. The Western Jumna Canal was excavated in the reign of Firoz Tughlak about A. D. 1360—70 and, as all these old native canals were dug in depressions left by changes in the course of rivers, the probability is that this canal was dug in the dry bed of the Jamna or at least in a portion of it. Locally the Hānsi branch of this canal is stated to have been dug in the bed of the Chitrang.

It seems probable, that there has been a gradual upheaval of the Sirhind and Hariāna tracts, which may have diverted the Jumna into the Gangetic valley, and gradually lessened the flow of water in all the Sirhind drainage channels. These channels are now dry except after heavy rains in the sub-Himalayan tracts, and the Ghaggar stream now only occasionally reaches the Bikaner border, whereas formerly there was a perennial stream in most of these channels. Along the banks of the Ghaggar and Hakra are the remains of old cities now only ruined mounds. In the Sirsa District some of these mounds have been excavated and found to contain marble and stone carvings of great excellence. It is nearly certain that the stone *lats* or pillars put up by Firoz Shah at Hissār and Fatahābād were exhumed by him from the old buried cities and the ruins of his old palace at Hissār show that he largely availed himself of these old stone carvings to adorn his underground passages and apartments.

Similar ancient towns and forts, such as Marot, Phul-ra, Mīr-gadh, Wallhar, Dīn-gadh, Mauj-gadh and Derāwar, are found on the banks of the Hakra in the Bahāwalpur State.

The problem was attacked again in 1886⁽³⁾ by Mr. R. D. Oldham, a Deputy Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, to whose views great weight must attach. In his opinion the Hakra is the old bed of the Sutlej, though it may have been also fed from

(3) Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. LV, 1886. On probable changes in the Geography of the Punjab and its Rivers, pages 322—43.
The Mīhrān of Sind and its Tributaries. Ibid. Vol. LXI, 1892, pages 155—207.

a branch of the Jumna, and that it was lost when the former river turned westwards to join the Beás. This opinion is based mainly on hydrographical data and its author points out that the Hakra depression is being constantly filled up with an alluvium similar to the existing soil which explains the absence of sandy silt in its bed, and that the high level of the plain over which it pursues its course is a common characteristic of all the rivers of the Indo-Gangetic plain.

Lastly the late Major H. G. Raverty in a lengthy article discussed the historical aspect of the question, and his conclusions are that in the thirteenth century 'the Beás flowed in its *old* bed past Debál-pur (Dipálpur) and the Bihat (Jhelum), the Chenáb and the Rávi, having united into one stream to the north-east of Multán, flowed near it on the east side, and united with the Beás some 28 miles to the southward of that city and east of Uch, instead of west of it, as the united waters of the Punjab now flow: (page 166). Thus Uch and Multán both lay in the west bank of the Panj-nád and were closely united, politically, in consequence.

Further reference may be made to an article in the Physical Geography of the Baháwalpur State by Mr. J. W. Barns, F. R. G. S., Superintendent of Irrigation, published in the Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, 1872. That writer considered that the 'Bángar' (or uplands of the Cholistán) had at a former period been flooded not intermittently, as land is by the Punjab rivers, but steadily. He also found testaceous molluscs in the Bángar which, in his opinion, had had at one time a settled agricultural population.

Besides the Hakra there is in this State another but smaller depression running from three to twelve miles from the Ghérá and Chenáb rivers and parallel with them, from the north-east in a south-westerly direction. This depression bears various names, being designated at different places as noted below:—

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Physical Aspects.

The Hakra depression.

The smaller depression.

PLACE.	NAME OF THE DEPRESSION.
Hásil Sáhrú.	Baggán-wálí.
Macleod Ganj.	Tirwáhná.
Minchinábád.	Kálí Budhí.
Shahr-Faríd and Mahár Sharíf.	Haryári and Gharúán.
Hásilpur.	Pakhál or Pakhála.
Tibha-Raiká.	Jamlána.
Shaikh Wáhan.	Chilkána.
Talbání.	Phát.
Khairpur-East.	Gágrá.
Durrpur and Kathála.	Garang.
Sanjár.	Jarát.
Dera-Bakhhá.	Kulkí.
Baháwalpur.	Wáhand.
Uch, Chaudhri and Garhí	Trukrí.
Ikhtiyár Khán.	
Maú-Mubárák.	Kálá.
Naushahra.	Gurhíla.
Garh-í-Begar.	Wáhand or Tallá.
Kot Sabzá.	Gurhíla.

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Physical Aspects.

The smaller depression.

Various stories are current among the people regarding this depression. Old people among the Hindús say that in times long past there lived in the Jumna a huge dragon which was ordered by the gods to quit the river and seek an abode in the ocean, so, to enable it to reach the ocean secretly, the Jumna was bidden to send forth a stream. This stream is marked by the bed of the present depression. Another curious legend is that Darius Hystaspes (Gushtasp), who ruled this country, gave it to his daughter as her dower and that she constructed a canal of which the present depression is the remains. It is also said that it is an old bed of the Beás, or of an independent river which eventually fell into the Sutlej at some place higher up.

Of these legends the first is in accord with the theory that the waters of the Jumna once flowed westward, not eastward as now. And the second is curiously confirmed by certain loops in either side of its course, and which the people say were the distributaries of the huge canal.⁽¹⁾

Whatever the facts dimly commemorated in these legends may have been, the people regard the Trukrí and Gurhila as one and the same stream, but Colonel Minchin was disposed to identify the Trukrí with the old bed of the Beás, and to regard the Gurhila between Firoza and Bhakkar as the old bed of the Indus, and he wrote :—

The old bed of the Sutlej can be distinctly traced along the edge of the central tract from the Sirsa border to the town of Goth Channi, where it was joined by another river, which I believe to have been the Beás; the two rivers then continued their course to the village of Firoza, where there is a deep depression some miles in extent at which point the united rivers fell into the Indus. General Cunningham has shown that the Indus was joined by the Chenáb opposite the town of Uch, and the old line of the river can be traced from this point to Firoza in the bed of the old Khanwah Canal, and in his description of the changes in the course of the Beás, he states that "in most of our maps, the old Beás is conducted into the lower course of the Bhatiyari, whereas its still existing and well defined channel joins the Chenáb 20 miles below Shujabad and its most southerly point is 10 miles distant from the nearest bend of the Bhatiyari." I believe the General is mistaken on this point, and that in the seventh century the Beás ran in two large channels, one as he points out near Shuja'abad and the other in the Bhatiyari channel, which was continued through the Baháwalpur State to its junction with the old bed of the Sutlej at Goth Channi. This channel, which is now called the Trukrí, flows below the old town of Uch. It is clearly a continuation of the Bhatiyari, as it commences on the left bank exactly opposite the place where the other channel ends on the right bank. Its position west of the town of Uch accounts for the preservation of this old town. The Chachnáma in describing the march of Muhammad bin Kásim states that "he journeyed from Alor, till he arrived at the Fort of Pa-biya on the south bank of the Beás. It was an old Fort and the chief of it was Kaksas. When he had settled affairs with Kaksas, he left the Fort, crossed the Beás and reached the stronghold of Askalanda." If any trust is to be placed in the old chronicle a branch of the Beás then flowed both west and south of Askalanda, which is identified

(1) With reference to these winding channels Mr. Barns writes as if they are undoubtedly ancient irrigation works.—J. R. G. S., 1872, p. 396.

with the modern town of Uch and therefore the Trukri, which flows to the west and south of Uch must have been the bed of the Beás.

The old bed of the Indus can be traced from Firoza to *Bhakkar* in the depressions locally known as the *Gurhila* and *Raini* channels. General Cunningham has described the changes in the lower course of the Indus as follows:—"Below *Bhakkar* the original course of the Indus was to the east of the *Alor* range, but, as the waters gradually worked west-wards, they at last turned the northern end of the range at *Rori* and cut a passage for themselves through the gap in the limestone rocks between *Rori* and *Bhakkar*. This change is assigned to the beginning of *Dahir's* reign and must have taken place shortly after his accession in A. D. 680. The changes in the upper course of the Indus must have taken place about the same time. According to local traditions the town of *Jajja* west of *Khanpur* was founded by *Rai Jajja Bhuta* in A. D. 834, at which time the Indus must have left the old line near the sand-hills and approximated to its present course and was most probably flowing on the line shown by the *Sádiqwáh Canal*."

But according to local tradition the depression below *Jajja* is an old bed of the Indus and near *Patan Munára*, this depression is known as the *Sej*, and the *Gurhila* runs midway between it and *Naushahra* in a bed of its own some two miles south-east of that town. Local tradition further states that the *Sej* and *Gurhila* flowed at one and the same time, and that when the *Sej* in time had become a *dhand*, or back-water of the Indus, the *Gurhila* continued flowing for a long period.

Thus the *Sej* should apparently be regarded as an old bed of the Indus, but not so the *Gurhila*.

Further, it may be observed with regard to the latter that it was flowing as an independent stream while the *Narra* ⁽⁵⁾ or eastern branch of the Indus still ran, for in the legend of *Sohni* and *Mahinwál* the following lines occur:—

Agge tar Tanot ho taden khuh kháje kháro.

Dethari jo kot iho bayo shahr Bhingáro.

Júná, Jokhia tarijo Dhakkar chautho Khohanro.

Putar há Dátar da waja hinjo peo ho Paháro.

Waggo nagáro jo Khán Sammá á já kayá.

Gurhílo gur wahe jaden hain wahe Naro. ⁽⁵⁾

Sohnion, Mahin-har jo tadih ho wáro.

"In former-days there was a habitation named *Tanot*. (*Tanot* is a fort and town in *Jaisalmer State*). It was then that a well named *Khára* of bitter water was dug. Besides, there was a fort of *Dethari* (*Dethari* is said to be near *Haidarabad* and a town called *Bhingára* near *Shikárpur* in *Sindh*). Except these there were no other habitations. *Júná, Jokhiá, Dhakkar* and *Khohánrá*, sons of *Pahára* by *Dátar* his wife, were released by *Khán Sammá* as soon as the latter had ascended the throne. In those days the *Gurhila*, of which the water was as sweet as sugar, and the *Náro* stream were

(5) The *Narra* (*Sindhi Naro*) does not run in *Baháwalpur*, but futhersouth in *Sindh*.

CHAP. I, A. flowing. Sohni too and Mahínhar, the famous pair of lovers, lived then."

Physical Aspects.
Geology.

There is nothing of geological interest in this State, which is situated entirely in the alluvium.

FAUNA.

Mammals.

The wolf (*nahr*) is found both in the Rohi and Sindh.

Pig (*mirkhán* or *jatáma*, boar, *bhúndni*, sow) are found in large numbers in the jungles and State reserves. The hog-deer (*páhra*), ravine deer (*hiran*), black-buck (*kálá hiran*), nila or nilgai and rojha are also common and the wild-ass (*gorkhar*) is to be met with in the Cholistán. Other animals are the ordinary ones of the Punjab plains, such as the fox (*lúmbar*), jackal (*giddar*), hare (*sayyar*), hyæna (*targh*), wild-cat (*jangli-billi*), porcupine (*seh*), mongoose (*neol*), badger (*bijju*), squirrel (*gáhlár*) and musk-rat (*chhdchúndar*). Wild rats (*chuhá*) of a brownish colour abound in the Rohi.

Birds.

The lark (*chandúl*) is supposed to soar at dawn into the sky in a state of ecstasy, singing hymns to God, and then falls senseless to the ground. If a dog or jackal then find and devour the birds it is supposed to cause it to go mad as a punishment for eating a bird so devout. Owls are of three kinds, *chibri*, *huk* and *gugh*, the latter being also called *Karakká shíkh* or the 'Kirár's tiger,' because the Hindús have peculiar beliefs about its being ill-omened. Hawks are of various species: *báz*, fem. *jurra*; *bashin*, fem. *báshá*, a falcon; *chipak*, fem. *shikrá*, also a kind of falcon; *lagar*, *shahín*, and *tamtari*, all kinds of hawks. The *kurar* or *kurl* is a species of eaglet which is supposed to lure fish to the surface by its cry of *kurar*, *kavar*, and then swoop down on them.

Reptiles.

The lizards are numerous and of various species, including the *goh*, *kirrí*, *kirrá*, a large lizard, *kirlá*, *gohirá* and *sánhá*, the three latter being poisonous. The *khann* is said not to copulate but to be born of a snake. The *gilat* will, if shown to a woman before she begin to churn, cause the quantity of butter produced to be increased. The *phanyar* or hooded cobra is said to be of ten different colours, *bishyar*, *mushki*, *kálá-mushki*, *chúhrá*, *chúhrá-mushki*, *kakorá* (brown), *tilyar* (pale grey with large black spots), *moti-bind*, *gul-kálá* and *chitta*, or white. The female cobra is called *padam* and is either *káli* or *muhránwáli* (having large spots of the size of a mohar) whose bite is very deadly, so that—

Jen ko dangiá padam, Chá na dithá qadam.

"He whom a *padam* has bitten, will not be able to go another step." The *khaprá*, *karundiá* or *jalebi* (i.e., folded like a *jalebi*), the *tirmár*, the *phúlan* (a small thin snake), the *jharohá* (or *dhobi* of the Punjab), the *sangchúr*, the *ghorá* and the *sambal* are also found. The *vains* is said to curl itself round a buffalo's leg and thus suck the milk and the *ghore-dang* is so swift that it can bite a galloping horse. The *damúhén* or "two-headed" with head and tail of equal thickness, is usually found near wells. The *jatáli* or "hairy" snake

CHAP. I. A.

Physical
Aspects.

Reptiles.

is said to have hair on its body. The *kulsār* has the power of conveying its poison to its assailant through his stick, which invariably breaks. The *kingnān* is a very venomous snake. The *sāh-pivnā* is the subject of curious beliefs. It is said not to bite in the day time even if held in the hand, but at night it crawls in a sleeper's breast and poisons his breath,^(*) striking him with its tail before it makes off. It is even said to remove all sticks, &c., from the sleeper's side with its tail, so that on awaking he may find no weapon to hand. People in the Rohi usually sleep with a lamp burning in the house as it is afraid of a light, and the *thánadārs* of Islámgarh, &c., actually have a guard to keep off the *sāh-pivnā* at night. Another snake is the *chit-kannān*.

From 1890 to 1897 Rs. 244 to Rs. 358 a year were paid for killing snakes, the number killed ranging from 1,751 to 2,480, but in November 1897 rewards ceased to be paid.

Rewards.

A frog is *daddú*, generally, but the masculine is *didār*, feminine *did*. The tortoise, *kachh-karummān*, is very common in the rivers and *dhands* and even in wells. It is eaten by the Chúhras and the Kehal and Mor tribes. Alligators, *sansār*, and otters, *luddar*, also abound.

Amphibia.

The carp, *dambhrā* (*Labeo rohita*) or *rahú*, of the Punjab is the finest of the fish found in the State, and is said to be very nourishing. If a child is sickly, the mother is made to eat *dambhrā* to cure its debility. It is credited with the power of jumping from a depth of 18 cubits under water to a height of 18 cubits in the air, or 36 cubits in all. The *thailā* (*Catla buehanani*), also a carp, ranks next. The *morí kakkar* (*Cirrhina mrigala*), also of the carp family, has powerful jaws shaping like a weeding knife and can cut through the meshes of any ordinary net. It is caught in wire nets. The *jhallí* is good eating as is the *singhdá* (*Macrones cavasius* ^(†)), which is much used as an ingredient in *palao*. Both are singularly free from bones. The *battí* (*Notopterus kápirat*) has very thin bones, which cannot be extracted and are pounded up with the flesh for cooking. The *ghoghún* (*Calliehorus bimaculatus*) and *shurkú* are also found. The latter is also called *daryá dá kukkar* or cock of the river. It feeds on the grain it finds in the stream, or among small pebbles, and it is said that its flesh cures diseases of the kidneys and bladder, such as stone, &c. The *chhallí* resembles the *dhungnān*. The *chhuchhí* which is a foot in length and four fingers in breadth. It resembles the *pari*, has numerous bones and is not pleasant to the taste. The *chuggá* has three bones and is generally a finger in length. It has black, red and blue spots on its scales, and is called *sher-rang* 'lion-colour.' It is uneatable. The *durrá* (or *Rohtee cotio*) is as big as the palm of the hand; and its breadth rather exceeds its length. The *drurá* or *dar-rá* (*Barbus chrysepterus*). The *dáhi* (*Labeo calbasu*) is a dark coloured fish resembling the *daúbrá*. In the Punjab it is called *nain* or 'female-

Fish.

(*) *Sāh nāl sāh mēl ke*, i.e., by mingling its breath with that of its victim.

(†) The *Singhara* in Muzaffargarh District is the *Macrones* doe.

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Physical
Aspects.

Fish.

barber' and in the Ubha it is called Machhāni, i.e., the wife of a Máchhi or waterman. The *daulā* or *guddū* (*Ophiocephalus punctatus*), the *garāi* of the Punjab is a very powerful fish, and is said that it can force its way up to the roof of a house against the flow of the gutter. It has only one bone and is eaten with rice, being considered a luxury. The *dabbi*, a small fish. The *darā* resembles the *kanghī*, but glistens less. It is usually five inches long and about a finger thick. It has a large number of bones and is tasteless. The *dhungnān* (*Pseudotropius garua*) resembles the *mali* and is about a foot long. It abounds in bones but has no scales and is good eating. Muhammadans eat it but Hindús do not. The *gān-gut* or prawn is never eaten by Muhammadans; the Jhabels therefore do not catch it. The eel, *goj* or *sap-machhi* (*Mastacembelus armatus*) is generally believed to be the offspring of a fish and a snake. Physicians cut off the head and tail and prepare from them a medicine to cure impotence.

Other fish are :—

The *gújirā* (*Mastacembelus pancalus*), a species of *goj*; the *guddū*, *shakir*, and *chitra* which belong to the group of fish called snake-headed (*ophiocephalus*) the *gullā*, the *kanghī* (*Ambassis baculis*), a small fish which glistens like silver, a cubit in length and from 1 to 3 inches in breadth. It has more bones than flesh, and hence is called *kanghī*, or 'comb.' Another variety, called *khannī* is about one finger in length; the *khagar*, *kargū* or *khagga* (*Macrones cavasius*) which is usually caught by means of a hook; the *khandarlī*, the *kharnin*, (? *Barbus sarana*) which is also good eating; the *khaththā*, the *luānkā* or *lākhi* (*Saccobranchus fossilis*) or *singī* of Hindustān, a small fish with red and black scales. It has three sharp spikes in the head which can inflict a painful wound, causing inflammation, the *makhni* or *makhilāni*; the *mallī* (*Wollago attu*), or *boḍli* of the Punjab which is excellent eating and is useful for cases of diarrhœa. Hindús rigidly abstain from eating it. If a Hindu who has fine eyes, or good looks, suffers from the evil eye (*nazr*), he sacrifices a *mallī* by turning it round his head and giving it away in charity, in the belief that the effects of the evil eye will be thereby removed. The fish is given to a fakīr, or if one is not at hand is thrown away: the *mukkar* which has a head like a snake, its body resembling that of the *danbrā*. It measures from 3 to 4½ feet in length and makes an excellent dish; the *pallā* or *pallū* resembles the *mallī*, and this name is generally given to the young of the *mallī*. It has only one bone and makes an excellent dish, the *puri* or *parri* (*Notopterus chitala*); the *phāppā* has no fins. It is one finger in size and is tasteless; the *phārāndā*, the *shahīngar* (tiger-fish) or *kingar*, which is about five inches in length. It has two spikes in its head and if caught in the hand it strikes with these spikes and inflammation is produced. It is good eating; the *saul*; the *shaikh-sharīnk* (*Labeo cursa*), which makes excellent eating when fried; the *sunni* or *sohnin* (*Cirrhina reba*), which subsists on grass only; the *mukkar machhi*; the *tirkand*, which is a well-known fish having three large horns; the *wonchhi*, which is generally 4 fingers in length, white in

colour and very delicious to the taste. In olden days it graced the table of the Nawábs of Baháwalpur with whom it was a favourite. CHAP. I, A.

Physical
Aspects.
Fishing.

Fishing is carried on in the following ways:—

(1) by means of a *sínt-jál*, or a set of several small nets. This is dragged by 20 or 25 men and is fitted with iron rings, which weigh it down in the water; (2) by means of *kurhi* made of six sticks and a net of string shaped like a cage. It is used in water about 3 feet deep; (3) by a *jálá* or net made of cotton thread, the four sides of which are furnished with iron rings, and it is spread out and drawn together by means of a string passing through them. It is generally used in water from 12 to 14 cubits deep; (4) by a *nará-tárú* made by files (strips of wood) and thread spun from the fibres of the *ák* plant. This net is fixed perpendicularly in the water; (5) by a *nará-bodú* which resembles the *nará-tárú*, but the former is sunk deep in the water and catches the deep-swimming fish, while the latter floats in the water and catches the fish near the surface; (6) by a *kundi* or iron hooks. It is said that only *singhárá*, *tirkand*, *parí*, and *malli* can be caught by this means; (7) by a *chhat* a sort of spear with which fish are caught in clear water.

The State derives a small revenue from its fisheries, which are ordinarily leased to the Jhabel, Mor and Kehal tribes. The fisheries are:—

Kárdári Sádiqábád.—Duba Gojwálá, Duba Kálá Kanba, Duba Bohiwálá, Duba Kalwaswálá.

Kárdári Khánpur.—Dhand Gágri, Dabh Kanak, Nála Minchinwáh, Nála Barnswáh.

Kárdári Ahmadpur.—Dhand Tarukrí, Dhand Hajjámwáli, Dhand Kháriyánwálá.

Kárdári Baháwalpur.—Dhand Chhap Kalyárwála, Danbarwáli.

Kárdári Minchinábád.—Mori Fordwáh, Mori Daulatwáh, Mori McLeodganj and Músá Bhutta.

The income fluctuates. In 1891-92 it was Rs. 1,175, in 1897-98 Rs. 298, and in 1900-01 only Rs. 365. The fisheries in Sádiqábád and Khánpur are by far the most valuable.

The locust (*makrí*) is dried and eaten by the people in the Rohi. White ants (*siwi*) are a great pest in the State, doing much damage to beams and rafters in houses. There are said to be four varieties, the *jarh-gál* or root-eater, the *mundh-gál* or trunk-eater, the *pattar-gál* and *shagufa-gál* or leaf and flower-eater. Black ants are *makaure* and common ants *kawílí*. The wasp is *debhún* and a large variety the *Kábúlí-debhún* is charmed by night out of its nest by means of *mantras*, but not until sulphur has been burnt. The *gharain* is a harmless insect, resembling a wasp. Bees abound in the wastes as well as in the towns and villages. They usually live in *jál* trees. The country is infested with mosquitoes, especially the *Alláhábád* and *Khán Belá iláqas* of the *Khánpur Kárdári*. Centipedes

Insects.

CHAP. I. A. (*kankoil*, *hazár-jáughí* or *saujángí*, i.e., with a thousand or hundred legs), scorpions, *wathúán*, and spiders, *dánwar*, are common as elsewhere. The *labána* is an insect which is fastened round the necks of children to cure *umm-us-sibiyán* or infantile convulsions. The *kutti* found on trees and in gram fields does much damage and causes itching if touched. The *sáwani-chhalle* or *bír-bho-hatti* is called *lál-bái* by Hindús. It is only found in the rains. The *chichar* or *chamchichchar* is a kind of tick. Another insect, the *jawa*, resembles the tick but is poisonous. It is common in the Rohi and its bite is difficult to cure and occasionally fatal. The *ghamár* insect of the Punjab, which makes pitfalls in the sand and entraps ants in them, is called *chor* and is caught and tied in a piece of red cloth round the neck of a child suffering from a kind of fever which comes on at night and is called *chor* fever.

Physical
Aspects.
Insects.

FLORA.

Trees.

The following indigenous trees are found in the State :—

- (1) *Karính*—*Capparis aphylla*.
- (2) *Red Leí*—*Tamarix Gallica*.
- (3) *Barnán*—*Crataeva religiosa*.
- (4) *Kallar-Leí*—*Tamarix* species.
- (5) *Okánh*—*Tamarix Dioica*.
- (6) *Bakáin* or *dharek*—*Melia Azedarach*.
- (7) *Ním*—*Melia Indica*.
- (8) *Bér*—*Zizyphus Jujuba*.
- (9) *Malha-Ber*—*Zizyphus oxyphylla*.
- (10) *Sohánjna*—*Moringa Pterygosperma*.
- (11) *Shísham*, or *tahli*—*Dalbergia Sissoo*.
- (12) *Jand*—*Prosopis spicigera*.
- (13) *Sharính*—*Albizzia Lebbeck*.
- (14) *Kikkar*—*Acacia Arabica*.
- (15) *Jál*—*Salvadora Olioides*.
- (16) *Lasúrá*—*Cordia Myxa*.
- (17) *Gondi*—*Cordia Rothii*.
- (18) *Bohar* (*banyan* tree)—*Ficus bengalensis*.
- (19) *Pippal*—*Ficus religiosa*.
- (20) *Jhit*—*Salvadora persica*.
- (21) *Obhánáh* or *Báhn*—*Populus Euphratica*.
- (22) *Harnoli*—*Ricinus Communis*.
- (23) *Jáman* or *Jammún*—*Eugenia Jambolana*.

Most of the trees found in the orchards of the Punjab grow in the State and bear fruit. The almond also grows but does not fruit.

In those parts of the forests which are not flooded year by year the soil is largely impregnated with *kalar*, the saline efflorescence formed on the surface by evaporation of the subsoil moisture which is drawn to the surface by capillary action, and in such soil nothing grows but the *kalar lai* (hence its name), the *jhit* and a few *jál* shrubs.

Besides these indigenous trees the following exotic trees grow well in gardens: *simal* (*Bombax Malabaricum*): *dhāman* (*Grewia oppositifolia*): *beli* (*Limonia acidissima*): *bel* (*Egle marmelos*): *ambārā* (*Spondias mangifera*): *dhāk* (*Butea frondosa*): *kachnār* (*Bauhinia variegata*): *imli* (*Tamarindus Indica*): *amaltās* (*Cassia fistula*): *sufedsharīn* (*Albizia elata*): *baherā* (*Terminalia ballerica*): *arjan* (*Terminalia arjana*): several kinds of *eucalyptus*: *kumār* (*Gmelina arborea*): *gular* (*Ficus glamorata*): *pāprī* (*Ulmus integrifolia*): *anolā* (*Phyllanthus emblica*): *charbi* (*Excoecaria sebifera*): and *bāns* (*Dendrocalamus strictus*).

The *babūli*, called *bāvali* in the State (*Acacia eburnea*), a small thorny sorub, grows abundantly in the Rohi. It makes good fodder for goats and camels and is also used for fuel and fences. Its thorns and leaves are like those of the *babūl*, and so it is called *babūli* or 'dwarf *babūl*.'

Date-trees are very abundant. The statement below gives the number of trees and the revenue accruing from them:—

NUMBER OF TREES OF EACH KIND.					Revenue realized according to Revenue Department.
Male trees.	Khassi.	Female trees.	Other kinds.	Total.	
531	406,832	331,506	34,219	773,088	Rs. 27,498

CHAP. I. A.

Physical
Aspects.

Trees.

The *khajūr*
or *khajj*
(date-tree—
Phoenix dacty-
lifera).

Of the 773,088 date-trees 731,787 belong to the people and the remainder (41,301) to the State. The date-tree belongs to the Dioicous class of the vegetable kingdom, i.e., the male and female trees are separate. The male trees are generally less numerous than the female.

The female flowers are sometimes fertilized artificially by the *Khajūr wālas*. This is done before the flower sheaths open; a hole is made in the sheath of the female flower and a few bits of the male panicle are inserted. The female trees are of two kinds. One yields fruits containing stone, and the other, called *khassi* fruit, which has no stone. But the popular division of the date-trees is of three kinds, namely, (1) male, (2) female and (3) *khassi* or neuter. The *khassi* is also called *bogh*:

A date-fruit has different names at the different stages of its growth, thus:—

Wisākh makaurā, Jeth *gindaurā*, | *Bhadra āyā te kadh giyā*,
Hār dokā, Sāwan *pind*, | *Khajī-wāle dī jindh*,

i.e., in Baisākh (the date is called) *makaurā*, in Jeth *gindaurā*, in *Hār dokā*, in Sāwan *pind*; but when the month of Bhādon comes it takes away the life of the date-grower.

The date is used in four different ways:—

(1) *Wan dī pind*; or the date which ripens on the tree.

(2) *Lūni pind* (from *lūn*, salt), or raw dates preserved in salt and eaten in winter.

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Physical
Aspects.

The *khajur*
or *khajj*
(date-tree—
Phoenix dacty-
lifera).

(3) *Chirwín-pind* (from *chirná*, to cut), when the stone is separated from the fruit and the kernel dried.

(4) *Sokwín pind* (from *sokáná*, to dry): certain kinds of date dried without extracting the stones and used in winter. These dates do not spoil. *Sokwín pinds* can sometimes be kept for a full year.

Each part of the date-tree has a separate name. Thus the growing stem is termed *mundh*, but when cut off and stripped of its branches it is called *chhándá*. When a number of date-trees sprout from the same root they are called *thaddá*. The branches, which are useful for various purposes, are called *ehharí* and the leaves *bhútra*. From the leaves, mats, baskets and fans are made. The fans made at Uch are the finest. The leaves are cut into thin fibres which are dyed with different colours, green, red, yellow, &c. The various forms into which the fibres are woven are called *chaukarián*.

In Uch and its vicinity the *cháhira* when plucking dates addresses the tree thus:—

Khajji khajúr, házir hazúr,
Rakhkhí Cháhre báqí gáí manzúr ;
Rokkhá jíví, Chárhá jíví,
Jíví Pír Nau Násir Dín,
Kalangí wálá tun phalái, phálín,
Main charhda charhán
Terá sádár ishq Alláh,
Kháda pítá aláydá galáya,
Ghassa ghabbá bakhshín wáste Alláh,
Jínde hosún tán phir phir charhsún
Mar gae tán ishq Alláh,
Khajji ghar á gáí wáh.

"Oh date tree! The *cháhira* has kept it, the rest is accepted. May thy keeper and the *cháhira* live and may Pír Nau Násir-ud-Dín (the Sajjáda-nashín of Uch Bukhári), also live, he who has a *kalgi* or crown on his head. I wish that thou, O Pír, may make the tree flourish. May I be always climbing it! O tree! Let me and thee love God. All I have eaten and said, the trouble I have given thee by tugging at thee with a rope, pray forgive it for the sake of God. If I live I shall climb thee again; if I die then let God be loved. (Here he mentions the name of the *baikhar* or master of the date); but the dates have come to our home. Ha! ha!" (here he mentions the name of the tree, e. g., red *khajji*, or stoneless *khajji*, as the case may be).

The *jhit*,⁽⁵⁾ *obhánh*, or *báhin* and *kachnál* are too well-known to need description. The twigs of the former are used as *miswáks*

(5) *Jhit*—*Salvadora Persica*. *Obhánh*—*Populus Euphraticus*. *Kachnál*—*Bauhinia variogata*. *Jandí, kandá* or *handí*—*Prosopis spicigera*.

(tooth brushes) by Muhammadans and those of the latter (called *dātān*) by Hindús.

The *jand* or *jandī*. In summer a kind of sweet juice trickles from the branches of the *jandī* tree, and round it a species of white insect with six legs, called *baggi-tindni*, is always to be found. They cling to the place whence the juice exudes in two or three parallel strings and invariably keep in line. This juice trickling from the branches falls on the ground, making it black, and the *zamīndārs* collect this blackened earth and mixing it with water strain it. The juice thus obtained is boiled and made into syrup which resembles honey. This syrup, called *māhla*, is sold as honey by the Hindu shop-keepers of the Lamma.

The following plants grow wild in the State:—*Ak* (*Calotropis procera*), the *lāna* which has three species, the *lāna*,⁽⁹⁾ *lāni* and *gorā-lānā*. The wood of the *phog* (*Calligonum polygonoides*) is used as fuel, generally for burning bricks in kilns of the native pattern, and its leaves are grazed by camels and goats. The *khār*⁽¹⁰⁾ grows in abundance in the Rohi. It begins to shoot spontaneously in March, grows to the height of 2 to 2½ feet and is cut in August. *Sajji* or *ashkhār* (*barilla*, or impure carbonate of soda) is made by burning the *khār* plants, and is used in preparing several medicines and more especially in making soap. In the Cholistān there are fields of *khār* called *dāhes* which are leased annually, the leases being put up to auction, and the State derives a handsome income from this source. Sometimes poor people instead of *khār* use *lāni* which they burn, washing their clothes with the ashes. Others wash their clothes with a powder made from *gorā-lānā* mixed with water, and towns-people use *gorā-lānā* for washing silk, especially yellow silk, and gold ornaments. Camels are fond of *lāni* and *gorā-lānā*.

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Physical
Aspects.
The *jand*.

Wild shrubs,
herbs and
vegetables.

The following statement shows the income in rupees derived by the State from *khār* during the last five years:—

Name of Kārdārī.	1896-97.	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.	1900-01.	Total.
Sādiqābād	27	55	103	60	62	307
Khānpur	113	113	113	113	114	567
Ahmadpur	3,200	3,463	3,463	3,474	8,225	21,825
Bahāwalpur	5,763	5,763	5,774	15,000	17,666	49,966
Khairpur East	4,133	4,133	4,133	7,653	7,655	27,708
Total	13,237	13,527	13,586	26,300	33,722	100,473

No *khār* is used in Minchinābād Kārdārī.

The *kānā* (*Saccharum sara*) a kind of reed, is of two kinds *lāl* (red) and *chittā* (white). Its different parts are used for various purposes. (1) The upper part *tilnū* or *tīlī* of the *kānā* is used for

(9) *Lāna*—*Anabasis multiflora*. *Lāni* and *gorā-lāna*—*Caroxylon fastidum*. An inferior quality of *sajji* is made from *fāna* and the ashes of the *gorā-lāna* are used by villagers instead of *sajji*.

(10) *Caroxylon Griffithii*.

CHAP. I. A. making *pakhís* (or *tilnú sholdári*), winnowing baskets and *jhárus*.
Physical Aspects. (2) The sheaths which cover the *tilnú*, and the two or three upper nodes of *káná* called *munj*, are used for making good ropes and fine *ván* for weaving on to *chárpáis*. (3) The *káná* or lower portion of the grass is used for thatch, *patals*, and fencing. (4) *Sar*, or leaves, when green, makes good fodder for cows and buffaloes, and when ripe and dry it is also used for thatch. It is also distinguished as *sachchá* or true and *jhutá* or false. The leaf of the *sachchá káná* is not so broad or coarse as that of the *jhutá*. The *zamíndárs* believe that if a well be sunk where *sachchá káná* has been growing its water will be sweet. The *kánh* or *káhi* (*Saccharum spontaneum*, a reed) is found on the banks of rivers, and, in the tract west of Muhammadpur-Lamma, it is also found on the canal banks. Cattle feed on it largely, and it makes a good fodder for buffaloes. The reed obtained from the *káhi* is of superior quality and is used for pens.

Wild shrubs,
herbs and
vegetables.

The following is a list of various other plants found in the State with references to Stewart's Punjab Plants, where traceable:— the *akrí* or *panírwálá ak* (*Withania coagulans*) is said to flower throughout the year, S. P. P., p. 161: its seeds are given to children for colic by native practitioners: *alsi* (*Linum usitatissimum*) grows spontaneously in gram and *methra* fields, S. P. P., p. 21; in this State only the oil is extracted from its seeds: *amarwal* (*Cuscuta reflexa*, also called *iftímún*), is used as a medicine; it is found on trees especially on *ber* trees, which it kills, S. P. P., p. 152: the *angári* is a reddish plant some six inches high which grows on inundated land. It is injurious to animals, and if they eat it their milk becomes red like blood. It grows in Asauj and Katak. The *baphalli* (*Corchorus capsalaris*) is a cooling medicine and useful in cases of gonorrhœa, and is also eaten by animals; the *bakhra* (*Tribulus alatus*). Its seeds are used for food, especially in times of scarcity, and are also eaten by women to ensure fecundity, S. P. P., p. 37: the *báthún* (*Chenopodium album*) is used as a pot-herb: the *battú* (*Amaranthus Gangeticus*) grows in wheat fields. It is given both to men and horses to cure catarrh and headache, S. P. P., p. 178 or 181: the *bhangra* (*Eclipta erecta*) is a parasite and of two kinds, one which bears blue flowers and from which women prepare collyrium (*kajjal*) and the other which is used to cure the necks of oxen when galled by the yoke; it is burnt and the ashes applied to the wounds, S. S. P., p. 126: the *bhogatni*: the *bhokát* (called *bhugát* in the Punjab) is a well-known vegetable: the *bhuin-phor*, or earth-splitter (*Phelipæa Calotropidis*) is applied to horses' sores, S. P. P., p. 163: the *bhukal*: the *brahm-dandi* cures gonorrhœa, S. P. P., p. 262: the *bukkan* (*Lippia nodiflora*) makes a good fodder for camels and also is used as a medicine, S. P. P., p. 166: *chalitra*: the *chhitún* grows under *karinh* trees during the rainy season and yield pods, resembling those of the *sohánjnán* tree, which are eaten before they ripen by the inhabitants of the Rohi and the poorer classes in general: the *chiri-haththa* is a kind of grass which grows on fertile land: the people use an infusion of it which has a cooling effect: the *dhatúra* or aconite (*Datura stramonium*) is used as medicine

as well as a poison, and its leaves are applied to ulcers and boils: S. P. P., p. 156: the *dhaman* (*Fagonia Cretica*) has medicinal virtues and is given as a tonic: the *dodhak-kalán*, and *dodhak khurd*, S. P. P., p. 130 or 150: the *faríd-mulí* is used as a cooling medicine, S. P. P., p. 13: the *gidar-wár* remains green throughout the year except in Poh, growing to a height of 3 feet, and its leaf resembles that of the *shísham* (*Dalbergia sissu*). It is used as a cure for a first attack of kidney disease: the *gorakhpán* is a cooling medicine, S. P. P., pp. 150 and 154: the *harmal* or *spand* (*Peganum Harmala*), S. P. P., p. 38: the *harn-butí*,? *hiran-padí* (*Convolvulus Arvensis*), S. P. P., p. 150: the *háthi-súndí* bears a fruit like the trunk (*súnd*) of an elephant (*háthi*): the *hazár-dání* (*Euphorbia thymifolia*) grows in the Rohi during the rainy season and cures chronic fever, cf., S. P. P., pp. 194 and 195: the *jawánsah* or *jawáneh* (*Alhagi Maurorum*) is a well known plant, used in making *tattis* in the hot weather. Camels delight in it as fodder, S. P. P., p. 57: the *it-sit* (*Trianthema crystallina*) is eaten by cattle and also used as a medicine, S. P. P., pp. 100, 171 or 182: the *káli-bútí*: the *kálá-míra*: the *kanderi* (*Gymnosporia spinosa*) is given to horses to cure colds, S. P. P., p. 41: *kánjún*: the fruit of the *karwílún* (*Capparis horrida*) is made into *achár* or pickle, S. P. P., p. 16: the *khitittar* or *khatittan* (*Rumex hastatus*), also called the *khóráسانی-pálak*, is used as food by the poor, S. P. P., p. 187: the *khíral* grows in Phagan and Chet. Its leaf is a little smaller than that of gram, and produces a milky juice when squeezed. It is used in preparing calx of tin and as a cure for gonorrhœa: the *khunb* or *khunbí* (*Morchella spinosa*) is commonly used either green or dried as a vegetable, S. P. P., p. 268: the *kinkinrá* resembles the *rehan* (*Ocimum pilosum*) or sweet basil. It grows to a height of about six inches and is believed to cure gonorrhœa-simplex, strangury and stone in the bladder, and its seed has also medicinal properties. Inundations destroy this herb, cf., S. P. P., p. 170: *lút* is another name for the *akásbel* or *amarwal*, q. v.: the *mako* is very bitter in taste and has medicinal properties, S. P. P., p. 160; its fruit being sweet is edible: the *marerí* grows in summer when it is eaten as a vegetable: the *mundí búti* (*Sphæranthus Hirtus*) is used as a medicine. Its flowers are officinal and are used as an alterative, depurative, and as a cooling and tonic medicine which is highly esteemed, S. P. P., p. 130: the *nak-chhankení* (*Myriogyne minuta*) produces a kind of snuff, S. P. P., p. 128: *Níl búti*: the *pad-bahera*, or mushroom: the *phatokan* is a creeping plant with a leaf about the size of a finger nail. It is given to horses as a cure for worms, and human beings also take it: the *puth-kandá* (*Achyranthes aspera*), cf. S. P. P., pp. 180 and 192: the *ratkán*: the *resham búti* (*Berthelotia lanceolata*) is a medicine used like senna, S. P. P., p. 122: *rúín búti* grows in the Rohi in Chetar and Baisákh after rain. It is supposed to cure boils and piles: *salára*: the *sátidnási*: *sijjh-obhára*: the *sitún* (*Boucerosia edulis*) generally appears in the rainy season, in Sáwan and Bhádon under the stems of the *lano*, *jand* and *karíl*, S. P. P., p. 144: the *suk-mard* is a kind of grass like *marerí*. It is said that people who have boils and pimples are benefitted by it,

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provided that they and their descendants for seven generations use it and nothing else for their ailments, but if they use any other medicine they and their children for seven generations will derive no benefit from the plant and will continue to suffer from pimples: the *tikan* is a medicine, S. P. P., p. 192: the *trai-patri* (*Marsilea quadrifolia*) is a herb which grows near wells and is used as a cure for diseases of the liver, S. P. P., p. 266: the *tumman* or *kor-tumman* (*Cucumis Colocynthus*) is given to horses as a digestive, and is also used as a purgative, S. P. P., p. 96: the *uthpaira*, *wanweri*: the *zakhm-i-hayât* (*Sphæranthus Hirtus*), S. P. P., p. 130.

Grasses.

The following grasses are used as fodder:—The *sāwri* usually grown on the banks of rivers and in rice fields. Horses and cattle eat it readily. Coldstream, ⁽¹¹⁾ Pl. 6. The *darabh* or *dabh* (*Cynodon dactylon*) is commonly found in the firmer soils and in hard clay, but it is not uncommon even in sandy soils. It supplies a good fodder for cattle and is sometimes used for roofing purposes, S. P. P., pp. 115 and 254. The *dilā* (*Cyperus tria*) yields a good fodder for buffaloes, S. P. P., p. 250. Coldstream, Pl. 38 b. The *kūriyā* is sown by cultivators and grows both in winter and summer, S. P. P., p. 142. Coldstream, Pl. 5. The *sānwak* (*Panicum Colomum*) is of two kinds, *ijwin* or 'sown' the other the *saya* or 'wild,' S. P. P., p. 257. Coldstream, Pl. 2. The *bhattal* is eaten by sheep and goats. From its juice a medicine for the eyes is prepared, S. P. P., p. 64. The *mainān* is eaten by buffaloes and cows, S. P. P., p. 71. The *kohan*. The *wigāra* grows in wheat. Its tendrils resemble those of the pea. The *patrāla* resembles the *wigāra*, but its leaves are broader. It grows on land that will not produce wheat, S. P. P., p. 159. The *liū* is a thorny vegetable which is fatal to crops. It grows to a height of 2½ and sometimes 4 feet. In Poh, when it is very small, the farmers cut and dry it for fodder, and if given to milch cows they yield a larger quantity of milk. After Poh its thorns, which resemble those of the *thohar*, become bigger and cattle cannot eat it. If *liū* grows for 2 or 3 successive years in a field it becomes utterly useless for cultivation. The *liū* grows with the wheat and disappears with it, S. P. P., p. 84. The *murk*. The *tallā* is an excellent fodder for cattle and horses. There is a saying *ghora ko tallā bhala ran no khalla bhala*, or 'talla is good for horses and *khalla* (shoe beating) for women.' Coldstream, Pl. 27. It is the Punjabi *khabbal*. The *chhinbar*, *chhar* or *madhāni*. Coldstream, Pl. 31. The *tarar* or *makhndā* grows during the rainy season. Horses are very fond of it, S. P. P., p. 11. The *wisāh* grows in Sāwan and Bhādon. Its leaf is as big as a rupee, and it tastes like a clove, all animals, except horses, and asses eat it, particularly camels. If a man is bitten by a snake he is made to drink a decoction of *wisāh* as a purgative and it is also applied as a poultice for boils. Alchemists also use it. The *jandal* is a spontaneous grass which grows in wheat and barley fields, S. P. P., p. 249. The *dodhak* is eaten by sheep and goats, S. P. P., pp. 130, 150 and 192. The *khawī* (*Andropogon laniger*) is an odorous grass

(11) The references are to Coldstream's Grasses of the Southern Punjab.

which smells like lemon, and forms a most nutritious fodder, S. P. P., p. 253. Coldstream, Pl. 17. The *jau-ság* is given to animals to eat and men also eat it mixed with *gandlán* (a kind of vegetable). It is also used as a vegetable when dried, S. P. P., p. 178. The *kharpal*. The *battún* or *bhathún*. *Palwáhan* (*Andropogon pertusus*) is a very good fodder for horses and cattle. Coldstream, Pl. 19. *Garm* (*Panicum antidotale*) grows on the banks of rivers. It also is a good fodder for cattle, S. P. P., p. 258. Coldstream, Pl. 1 a. The *kháb* grows in the rainy season. Its root, which resembles an onion under water, and its flowers are red and white. Cows and buffaloes eat it freely, and camels also. The *kúrí* resembles *chhinbar* to some extent and is quite distinct from *kura*, S. P. P., pp. 25, 26, 132, 141, 212 and 255. Coldstream, Pl. 5. The *lúnbar* is a small grass resembling a fox's tail, S. P. P., p. 176. The *kulánj* is the food of cattle, more particularly of cows. The *tandula's* leaf resembles that of the *berí* (plum tree). It grows in the rainy season. Animals eat it and men also eat it cooked. It is used as a cure for neuralgia, S. P. P., pp. 182 and 228. The *loki* grows to a height of 6 to 9 inches.

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Physical Aspects.

Grasses.

The *nílofar* (*Nymphaea lotus*) is abundant in *dhands* and depressions full of water. Its leaves and flowers always lie on the surface and it remains green from Baisákh to the end of Sáwan. The flowers are used in native medicines such as *sharbat* and *araq*. The seeds, called *nafa* are generally used by Hindús on the *ikádashi* fast days. *Lor* obtained from the root is used as a vegetable and also eaten raw, S. P. P., p. 8. The *kanwal* lotus (*Nymphaea lotus*) is just like the *nílofar* and abounds in *dhands*. It is also called *paban*. Its large circular leaves always float on the top of the water, and its root,⁽¹²⁾ termed *bhe* apparently a corruption of the Persian word *bek* (root), is used as a vegetable both green and dried. The *bhe* cut into small pieces about half an inch long is dried and the dried *bhe* is called *kochrí* of *bhe*. Both *bhe* and *kochrí* are extensively used by Hindús on the *ikádashi* days. Its fruit covered in *tiki* is called *kaul doda*, and is used both green and ripe. When green it is eaten raw as well as cooked. When ripe it turns black and its rather hard rind is used as a medicine. The *kundar* (*Typha Augustifolia*) or bulrush is usually found in the *dhands* in the Lammá. Educated people call it *dhukh*, and mats are usually made of it for mosques. *Charpais* also are woven from it, and agriculturists regard them as a luxury in the hot season. Its ears resemble those of the *bájrá* but contain no grain, only a yellow down of which a kind of sweetmeat called *búri* which is considered to have astringent and aphrodisiac properties is made. Below the ear a glutinous substance called *khoh*, which is very inflammable is found, S. P. P., p. 246. The *singhára* is well-known fruit in common use, S. P. P., p. 89.

Water plants.

RAINFALL, TEMPERATURE AND CLIMATE.

Generally speaking though occasionally it rains at certain places in July or August, general rain is rare in Baháwalpur. Clouds often

Rainfall.
Tables 8 to
5 of Part B.

(12) Sanskr : *vish*, Hindi *bhis*, Punjabi *bhe*, the edible root of the lotus : Platta' Dietry : p. 188.

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Rainfall.

gather on the horizon, but they are usually dispersed by the wind, and there is a well-known proverb:—*Jadán dī Baháwalpur dī wári: Há mính te thī-gai andhári*; which means that when it comes to Baháwalpur rain changes into storms of wind.

Hitherto there has been no system of keeping rain-gauges at out-lying stations, and hence it is difficult to estimate the average rainfall. The figures for Baháwalpur itself are given below:—

Year.	Tenths of an inch.	Year.	Tenths of an inch.	Year.	Tenths of an inch.
1888	40	1893 ...	37	1898 ...	58
1889	58	1894 ...	40	1899 ...	11
1890	18	1895 ...	61	1900 ...	19
1891	44	1896 ...	22	1901 ...	41
1892	130	1897 ...	161	1902 ...	22½

The average rainfall from 1888 to 1900 was thus 5·4 of an inch.

Temperature.
Table 2 of
Part B.

Generally the four months of May, June, July, and August are the hottest and during these months lack of air is often complained of, but as a rule a southerly wind blows regularly from 11 P. M. to 9 or 10 A. M. and gives relief from the intense heat. Mr. Barns said: 'The State though it has an extra-tropical climate, has, owing to the rarity of its atmosphere (caused by deficiency of rain), a very high summer temperature, and there are, I should suppose, few countries of its latitude which have such a continuance of hot weather. The severest part of this season is from the end of April until the middle or end of June, during which months the mean temperature in the shade is 103°; not only is the heat of the sun very great, but the air is dry and the wind almost fiery, and, during these months, the growth of vegetation is scarcely perceptible. But with the bursting of the south-west monsoon comes a change; gradually the intense heat of the two previous months is softened down by clouds, the mean temperature falls to about 95° in the shade, and there is a perceptible degree of moisture in the air. The scorched grass and trees respond to the change by putting forth young shoots and with only an inch of rainfall the whole country looks for a time quite green and fresh.⁽¹³⁾ After November, he adds, a dry wind from the snowy ranges reduces the mean temperature to 60° or 65° with frosty nights.

A high wind usually prevails and the State is visited by storms during which the atmosphere is dim and misty. The tracts adjoining the Rohi are the worst, as there in rising in the morning one finds everything covered with a thin layer of dust, and a local poet alludes to his unpleasant experience at Khairpur Tāmī-wálá in the verse:—

Asmān pīr ast, lekin dar zamīn-i-Khairpur

Gāhe gāhe hamchū tiḡlān khākbāzi mi-kunad.

"No doubt the sky is an old (man) but at Khairpur it is sometimes seen playing with dust like children."

(13) Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, 1872, pp. 403—4.

From the latter part of September the days begin to get moderately hot and the nights are cold. By the end of February the cold weather is over, and March and April begin the spring season.

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Physical
Aspects.

The health of the people is on the whole fair. Cholera in epidemic form seldom visits the State, but stone complaints are more general than in the adjoining districts; the reasons assigned being (1) that the people, who are mostly flesh-eaters, do not form an industrious community, and (2) that the water contains substances which create stone in the bladder. Spleen disease also prevails in a more virulent form than in the neighbouring districts. August and September are termed '*Ayyām-i-Sarā*' or 'Days of epilepsy' and during these months fever is often rife, this being the worst season in the State.

Diseases.

In winter cases of pneumonia are frequent and this may well be attributed to the intensity of the cold and the want of proper clothing to protect the chest.

The water-supply in the State is ample in amount but inferior in quality and is thus described by Mr. Barns:—'In percolating through the sand, the well water evidently takes up a very appreciable quantity of sulphate of soda, and is likewise in places impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen. The daily use of water containing these ingredients is supposed to induce a tendency to scurvy⁽¹⁴⁾ which, amongst the natives, is counteracted in some degree by their partaking largely of sour butter-milk. The Nawāb's household, as a rule, send to the river for their drinking water'

Water-supply

An analysis of the water in five wells in different parts of the State and of the water in the Sutlej, made by Drs. Hutchinson and Wildey, gave the following results in grains per gallon:—

PROPERTIES.	WELLS.					SUTLEJ RIVER.
	Bad.	Fair.	Fair.	Bad.	Fair.	Good.
Volatile matter ...	1.19	1.90	.50	.85	.50	.40
Mineral matter ...	45.29	29.25	34.20	38.45	37.50	11.45
Soluble salts ...	21.70	10.65	17.15	24.60	18.60	5.30
Iron
Chloride of sodium ...	2.73	2.10	2.70	3.90	2.55	1.20
Sulphate of soda ...	17.71	6.69	13.65	17.50	14.65	3.30
Carbonate of soda ...	2.03	1.76	1.50	1.56	1.90	.95
Solid matter ...	46.48	31.35	34.70	39.30	38.00	11.85

(14) So that Dr. Lord, Medical Adviser in attendance upon Sir Alexander Burnes, objected in 1836 to the passage of the British troops through Bahawalpur territory on this ground.

CHAP. I. B.

Section B.—History.

History.

Authorities.

The authorities for the modern history of Baháwalpur are principally the three following works:—(1) the *Tárikh-i-Murád* by Sayyid Murád Sháh, Gardezi, Assistant Political Agent and Chief Judge of Baháwalpur from 1866 to 1876. This work, written in 1867-75, exists only in manuscript. It was based upon original materials as well as on (2) the *Jawáhar-i-Abbásiya* by Shaikh Muhammad Azam, a Darbári of the State (this work, written between 1809 and 1830, is also in manuscript); (3) the *Mirát-i-Daulat-i-Abbásiya*, by Daulat Rám, a courtier of Baháwal Khán II, written about 1800 and used, indirectly, by Sir H. Elliot in his account of the *Tuhfat-ul-Kirám*; and (4) *sanads* of former rulers now in possession of certain families. To these may be added the *Tárikh Ahmad Sháhi*, in manuscript.

In addition there are several local religious histories such as the *Malfúzát* of Shaikh Hakim of Mau Mubárah, the *Malfúzát* of Pír Khális, and those of the Bukhári and Giláni Makhdúms of Uch. The *Malfúzát* of the Sáhib-us-Sair of Sammasatta and the *Jawáhar-i-Farídí* (a published volume) are almost purely religious. The *Malfúzát* of the Qibla-i-Alim of Maháran Sharíf deals with the reigns of Mubárah Khán I and Baháwal Khán II. These *malfúzát* or biographies of religious personages have however not been by any means fully examined.

For the history of the territory which are now included in the State Sir Henry Elliot's *History of India* as told by her own historians is invaluable; and for the early Mughal period Raverty's translation of the *Tabaqát-i-Násirí* (cited as T. N.) is most useful.

516—509 B.C.

Leaving aside the mythical invasions of Osiris, Dionysus or Bacchus, King of Egypt, of Semiramis and Sesostris as subjects of uncertain if interesting speculation, we may refer to the historical domination of the Persians in North-Western India as evidenced by the fact that Darius Hystaspes sent Skylax of Karyanda to explore the course of the Indus. The conquests of Darius however appear to have been confined to the countries on the Indus north of the Kábul. Unfortunately Skylax's account of his voyage has perished, and it appears to have been unknown even to Alexander who believed the Indus to be the upper course of the Nile.

The Iranians in Sind.

It is certain, both from the Greek historians and the Muhammadan chronicles of a later date that the Persians held the valley of the Indus and possibly extensive territories beyond it in the Punjab and Rájputána. Strabo in his *Geography* says that at the time of the Greek invasion the Indus was the boundary of India and of Ariane, and in the possession of the Persians, and that afterwards the Indians occupied a larger portion of Ariane which they received from the Macedonians.⁽¹⁾ A Muhammadan historian⁽²⁾ also states that Bahman, son of Isfandiyár, also styled *Ard-shir-i-Daráz-Bázú*, 'of the long arm,' founded a city in the territory of Sind, which was named by him Bahman-nih or Bahmanabad, and after-

(1) J. A. S. B. 1892, p. 198. Cf. McCrindle's *Ancient India*, p. 15.

(2) The author of the *Zain-ul-Akhbár*, called the Gardaizi, who wrote in 1052-3

wards, in his own time, called Mansúriah. And a later writer,⁽³⁾ quoting from an old Hindi chronicle, says that in the time of Gushtasib (Hystaspes), ruler of Irán, Bahman, his grandson, surnamed Ardshir, son of Isfandiyár, led an army into Hind and Sind, and subdued a considerable portion of it . . . Bahman founded a city between the frontiers of the Hindús and Turks (the Indo-Scythians) which he named Kandá'il, and in another part called Budah, he founded Bahmanabad which was believed to be Mansúriah. This account is confirmed by Muhammad-ut-Tabari, a trustworthy chronicler, who says that the ruler of Hind whom Bahman had overcome, threw off his allegiance, and that Bahman then despatched Akhtúnúsh,⁽⁴⁾ the sage, who had accompanied Bukht-un-Nassar against Jerusalem, to suppress his rebellion. This expedition was successful, the Indian king was slain and his kingdom conferred in fief on Akhtúnúsh, who afterwards became ruler of Iráq.⁽⁵⁾

It is not proposed to dwell here upon the episodes of Alexander's invasion. The changes in the courses of the rivers render all attempt to trace his route and identify the places he conquered futile, with the information now at our command. When he conquered Sind, the modern Dahar and Sohda tribes were possibly in possession of both banks of the Indus. The former have been identified with the Dahae of the Greek historians while various tribes such as the Ossadai, Sogdi and Sodrae have been held to be the modern Sohda, by McCrindle,⁽⁶⁾ Colonel Minchin and others, while General Cunningham remarks :—

(3) The author of the *Mujmal-ut-Tawárikh*, writing about 1131 A. D. The Hindi chronicle had been translated in 1026 A. D. Raverty points out that *nih* (in Sindhi *no*) or *ábád* is a Tajik, not a Sanskrit, termination. *Tod Annals II*, p. 44, gives Bahman as an ancestor of the Rána of Odeypoor.

(4) The Biblical Abasuerus, and Artaxerxes of the Greeks

(5) J. A. S. B. 1892, pp. 197-8.

(6) Invasion of India—McCrindle, 354. He also identifies Sodrae with Seorai. Colonel Minchin also has the following interesting note on the Joiyas :—

"It seems to be clearly established by General Cunningham that at a very early period the country lying between the ancient city of Ajudhan now known as Pákpattan, on the right bank of the Sutlej in the tract known as the Jalandhar Beth and Bhatner, Sirsa and Hánsi lying on the old bed of the Chitrang or Kulela River (which has been identified by General Cunningham with the Neudras River of Alexander's historians, but is now only a deep depression, the drainage channel of the Sirhind Division) which constitutes the extreme north-eastern portion of the State and a portion of Bikanir, was inhabited by a race called the Yaudheyas; to whom the same authority attributes "the foundation of the town of Ajudhan or Ayodhaunne, the battle field, which is evidently connected with their own name of Yaudheya or Ajudhiya the warriors. The Yaudheyas are mentioned in the Allahabad inscription of Samudra Gupta and at a still earlier date by Panini in the Junagarh inscription of Rudra Dama. Now as the great grammarian was certainly anterior to Chandra Gupta Maurya, his mention of the Yaudheyas proves that they must have been a recognised clan before the time of Alexander."

They are identified by General Cunningham with the existing tribe of Joiyas, which is included by Colonel Tod amongst the 24 ruling races of Rájputána. He stated that this race possessed the same haunts as the Dahia or Dahers, they extended across the Garra or Sutlej into the Northern desert of India and in ancient chronicles are entitled lords of Jangal Desa, a tract which comprehends Bariana, Bhatner and Nagore. He adds, that the tribe, like the Dahers, are now extinct, but in fact both these tribes are still found in the Bahawalpur State, and they were converted to the Muhammadan faith by the well-known saint Farid-ud-din Shakar Ganj, whose shrine is in Ajudhan, and from whom the place derives its modern name of Pákpattan, the ferry of the pure one. He died A. D. 1265-66. The Joiyas repudiate their Rájput origin and have invented a pedigree deriving their descent from Ibn Tálib, the brother of Abdula, the father of the Prophet.

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History.

The Iranians
in Sind.

"On leaving the confluence of the Punjab rivers Alexander sailed down the Indus to the realms of the Sogdi where he built another city according to Arrian. Diodorus describing the same people under a different name says that he received the submission of the Sodrae and Masarnae nations on opposite banks of the stream and founded another Alexandria. From these accounts it is evident that the Sogdi of Arrian and the Sodrae of Diodorus are the same people, although the former have been identified with the Sodha Rājputs by Tod and M' Murdo, the latter with the servile Sudras by Vaux⁽⁷⁾"

When Alexander had gained his victory over the Malloi in the battle of Multan, the Oxydrakae sent heralds to him with tenders of unconditional submission. The Oxydrakae were doubtless the people residing in the vicinity of Uch⁽⁸⁾ who sent to Alexander 1,000 men, the bravest and noblest of their race, as hostages, besides 500 war chariots with their drivers and horses, fully equipped. Alexander was gratified by this mark of respect shown by the Oxydrakae, and returned their hostages keeping only the chariots with their horses and drivers.⁽⁹⁾ Leaving Philippos in charge of the country round the modern Multan and Uch, Alexander sailed down the Indus towards a place where he laid the foundation of another Alexandria.⁽¹⁰⁾

From this place he sailed down himself to the land ruled over by Musicanus, which was reported to be the most opulent in India. Secretas praises not only the fertility of the country but also the manners and character of its people and the laws and administration of its ruler, a ruler who had neither come to surrender himself and his country, nor sent envoys to seek his friendship. He had not even sent presents to show the respect due to a mighty king, nor had he asked any favour from Alexander. He therefore made his voyage down the river so rapidly that he reached the frontier of the country of Mousikanos before that prince had even heard that Alexander would attack him. Mousikanos dismayed by his sudden arrival, hastened to meet him, taking the choicest presents and all his elephants with him. He offered to surrender both his nation and himself, and acknowledged his error which was the most effective way with Alexander to obtain from him whatever one desired. Alexander therefore granted Mousikanos a full pardon on

(7) Cunningham's Ancient Geography, Vol. I, p. 253.

(8) Muhammad Latif's History of the Punjab, p. 69.

(9) McCrindle's Invasion of India, p. 154.

(10) Al Idrisi,⁽¹⁾ the author of the Nuzhat-ul-Mushtak (compiled about the end of the 11th century A. D.) gives the following account of Sandur, or Uch:—

"Sandur is situated three days' journey south of Multan. It is famous for its trade, wealth, sumptuous apparel, and the abundance which prevails on the tables of the inhabitants. It is considered to form part of India, and is situated on the banks of a river which falls into the Mibran. From Multan to the vicinity of Mansúra the country is occupied by a warlike race, called Nadha (most probably Yadhya, the more correct reading of Yaudhya, the Joiyas). It consists of a number of tribes scattered about between Tábarán, Makrán, Multan, and Mansúra, like the Berber nomads. The Nadhas have peculiar dwellings and marshes in which they take refuge, on the west of the Mibrán. They possess excellent camels, and particularly a sort which they breed, called Karah."⁽²⁾

(1) Sir Henry Elliot, Vol. I, p. 83.

(2) The tradition is that the Karah was a class of lean and swift-paced camels of the Páwa breed, now extinct in Bahawalpur though it still exists under the same name in Rajpútána.

account of his submission and penitence, expressed much admiration of his capital and his realm, and confirmed him in his sovereignty. Krateros was then ordered to fortify the citadel which protected the capital, and this work was executed while Alexander was still on the spot. A garrison was placed in the fortress, which he thought suitable for keeping the surrounding tribes in subjection. Mousikanos, however, at the instigation of the Brahmins, revolted during Alexander's absence. He was captured by Peithon and crucified by Alexander's orders.

CHAP. I, B.
History.

The Iranian
in Sind.

It has been held by many authorities that the capital of Mousikanos was Alor, which subsequently formed the seat of the government of the Rai dynasty and of Chach the Usurper, but it appears more probable that the part of the Baháwalpur territory south-west of Uch and now forming the Kárdáris of Khánpur and Sádiqábád was at least included in the dominions of Mousikanos. This was the view held by General Haig who thought that 'the Kingdom of Mousikanos must have embraced the district of Baháwalpur which answers better to the description of that kingdom as the most flourishing in all India than the country around Alor.'⁽¹¹⁾

Alexander had fixed the confluence of the Akesines (Chenáb) and Indus as the boundary of the satrapy of Philippos, and he now made Oxyartes and Peithon satraps of the country to the south from the confluence of these rivers to the sea. Hence their jurisdictions must have met in the modern State. Philippos was soon assassinated by his mercenaries, and Peithon appears to have been driven from his satrapy by Poros after Alexander's death.⁽¹²⁾ Poros in turn was decoyed by Eudemos into his power and executed.

THE BUDDHIST PERIOD.

The Buddhist Empire of Asoka undoubtedly comprised Sind and under the Kushan dynasty a Buddhist monastery was erected at Suf Vihár in the reign of Kanishka as its Bactrian-Pálí inscription shows. This *vihára* appears to have been one of a line of *viháras* along the Indus. Materials, however, for a detailed history of the State during this period are lacking.

From the close of the Kanishka period to A. D. 495 nothing is known with any certainty, though the *Tárikh-i-Murád* avers that the ruined fort of Mau, which was built by Rája Sahans Karor as a

A. D. 495.

(11) It is not unlikely that the ruins of Pattan Munára or Pittanpur on the Sej, an old bed of the Indus, mark the site of the capital of Mousikanos. The ground for this theory is that among the ruins of Pittanpur stand the remains of a huge tower which once formed part of a Buddhist temple. It is said that this tower was partially demolished in 1740 A. D. and a brick was then found which bore an inscription recording the erection of the monastery in the time of Alexander, and that its bricks were burnt, so fertile was the country, in *sirhon* (rape) refuse. Unfortunately this inscription appears to have been lost. As regards the name Mousikanos it appears to be a territorial title, as Curtius calls the people Musicaní. Lassen takes this to represent the Sanskrit *Mushika* (a mouse or thief) and thinks that the Mushika still exist in the great tribe of the Magasi or Magassi Biloch, some of whom are still to be found in the Mianwáli District and who form the bulk of the population of Kach Gandáva. McCrindle's *Invasion*, page 157, note 2.

(12) Mr. Crindle's *Invasion of India*, pp. 156-7. *Ibid.* pp. 400-1.

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History.

residence for his mother, became the abode of the Shaikh Hakim Qoraishi, and in the *Malfúz* or Biography of Shaikh Abul Gais, Hákim, ⁽¹³⁾ which purports to have been written in the eighth century H., it is alleged that Sahans Karor was a contemporary of Christ and a ruler of part of Sind. On this evidence Sahans Karor can only be regarded as a legendary king.

THE RAI DYNASTY.

The Rai
Dynasty.
A. D. 495.

About 495 A. D., however authenticated history begins again for in that year Rája Díwáj commenced his reign. He was one of the Rai dynasty, a line of rulers as to whose origin nothing is known, though their dominions were vast, extending to Kashmír and Kanauj, to Qandahár and Seistán, and, on the west to Makrán and the port of Debal, while on the south they held Súrat. Their capital was Alor, and under their rule Sind was divided into four provinces, *viz.*, Bahmanábád and Siwistán: the province in which lay Askalanda or Talwára and Pabiya or Chachpur, and which comprised the greater part of the Baháwalpur State: and the fourth province which included Multan and the Western Punjab.

A. D. 415.

Five rulers of the Rai dynasty governed Sind for 137 years after 495 A. D. These were—

Rai Díwáj,
|
Rai Siháras I,
|
Rai Sáhasi I,
|
Rai Siháras II,
|
Rai Sáhasi II,

all of whom reigned with splendour and success. Rai Siháras repulsed an invasion under a Persian king or a governor of Sijistán, but fell in the battle fought at Kich. Rai Sáhasi II, the last of his line, remitted taxation on condition that the fortresses of Uch, Sevrai (now Sarwáhi) and Mau, all in Baháwalpur territory, and other strongholds, including Alor, were kept in repair by his subjects. But he allowed Chach, a Brahman, to obtain great influence in his kingdom.

Chach the
usurper.

A. D. 631.

Chach, known to the Arabs as Sasa, the son of Si-Láij, was a Brahman ⁽¹⁴⁾ and is said to have invented chess. On the death of Rai Sáhasi II, Chach married his widow and established himself on the throne, excluding the rightful heir of the Rai, who called in Mahrát, ⁽¹⁵⁾ Rána of Chittor, to his aid. Chach, however, resisted Mahrát, though he was only shamed into going forth to fight by his queen, and when challenged to single combat by the Rána treacherously slew him by a ruse. Having then proclaimed his brother Chandar his successor at Alor, Chach advanced on Pabiya which was held by Chatrá, a descendant of the Rais, and over-

⁽¹³⁾ See Religious Life, *infra* and Ell. I, p. 405. Pottinger on the authority of the *Majma'-i-Wáridát* says the Rais reigned for 2,000 years, which must be a gross exaggeration.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Most of the Sarsut Brahmans in Baháwalpur claim to be his descendants.

⁽¹⁵⁾ The reputed founder of Marot.

threw him. Chatrá then fled to Uch where he was assassinated, the fortress being surrendered to Chach, who next wrested Multan from the possession of Bajhra, also a kinsman of the Rais. Finally Chach reduced Sikká. His rule extended to Kashmir, Kandahár and Las Bela, and he made an expedition to Kirmán. Dying in the fifty-first year of the Hijra, after a reign of thirty-three years, Chach was succeeded by his brother Chandar who ruled for eight years and was in turn succeeded by his nephew Dáhir who was slain in the ninety-third year of the Hijra.

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History.

Chach the
usurper.

A. D. 706.

A. D. 712.

For some years there were serious disputes between Dáhir and his younger brothers Raj and Dharsiya. The latter wanted to marry his sister Báí to the Rája of the Bhátiyas and Dáhir was opposed to this proposal. This induced the Bhátiya to attack Dáhir; but the latter totally defeated the former by the assistance of the mercenaries of the tribe of the Alafis—a tribe that had taken refuge in the territory of Dáhir, who had left Makrán after having killed the governor of the place.

These events are thus described in the manuscript history of the late Colonel Minchin:—

“According to the Chach-náma which Sir H. Elliot considers is a translation of a genuine Arab history, the present Baháwalpur State formed one of the Satrapies of the kingdom of Alor. It was called Askalanda and Pabiya, the former title recording the ancient name of Uch, and the latter I strongly suspect might be translated trans-Beás; as I have shown that the town of Uch is situated on the left bank of an old branch of this river and this fort was evidently situated on the delta formed by the junction of these rivers. These towns were also known as Talwára and Chachpur. The former name may have been given because of the strip of sand running close down to the town of Uch and the latter undoubtedly records the name of the Brahman usurper, who supplanted the Rai dynasty at Alor, and the name is still retained in the town of Chachar opposite Mithankot. Sir H. Elliot identifies Chach with Sassa the Indian, the inventor of chess, as Sassa is simply the Arabic form of writing the word Chach. His accession took place in A. D. 631 and shortly afterwards he determined to visit the whole of his empire, and accordingly marched up the left bank of the Indus to Pabiya to which he laid siege; the governor, however, as soon as his provisions were exhausted, fled to Askalanda. Chach having left an officer in charge of Pabiya, proceeded to Askalanda. There was, however, a great and brave man in the Fort of Askalanda who was in the interests of Chach, and, being promised the governorship of both these forts, killed Chatrá, the fugitive governor of Pabiya and sent his head to Chach. Having completed this expedition, Chach proceeded towards Sikka and Multan, but was delayed for three months at a ford on the Beás which he was unable to cross. This must have been the other branch of the Beás which joined the Chenáb 30 miles below Multan. Eighty-two years later Muhammad ibn Qásim having accomplished the conquest of lower Sind and Alor followed the course taken by Chach, and according to the old chronicler journeyed till he arrived at the old fort of Ya-biha or Pabiya. It was an old fort and the chief of it was Kakas. He was a cousin of Dáhir, the son of Chach, and was present at the battle where he was slain, and having fled came to this fort in a wretched plight. When the Muhammadan Army arrived, hostages were sent and chiefs and nobles went forth and made submission. Muhammad ibn Qásim having learnt

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History.

that Kaksas belonged to the family of Alor appointed him as his Wazir with the title of the Mubarak Mushir. When he had settled the affairs with Kaksas he crossed the Beas and reached the stronghold of Askalanda. The siege lasted for seven days, when the chief, who was a nephew of the chief of Multan, left at night and took refuge in the fort of Sikka, which is a large fort on the south bank of the Ravi. The people, artisans, and merchants then sent a message soliciting the protection of Muhammad ibn Qasim. He granted their request, but put the whole garrison of four thousand men to the sword and sent their families into slavery. He appointed Atba, son of Salma Tamimi, governor, and proceeded towards Sikka and Multan."

THE ARAB INVASIONS.

A. D. 636.

As early as 636 A. D. in the fifth year of the reign of Chach and in the *khilafat* of Umr, Debal, the port of Sind, had been attacked by the Arabs under Mughfirah, and in 38 or 39 A. H., or fully twenty years later, Haras invaded the kingdom but retired carrying off much plunder, and in his second inroad in 42 A. H. he was defeated and killed at Kikan. But two years later Muhallab ibn Sufra was detached by Abdu'r-Rahman, the conqueror of Kabul, and invading the Indian frontier penetrated to Multan but effected no permanent lodgement.⁽¹⁶⁾

After Rai Dahir's accession, however, the Arab invasions began in earnest. The pretext was the refusal of Dahir⁽¹⁷⁾ to make reparation for the plundering of eight Arab ships at Debal by the piratical Meds. This led to the despatch against his kingdom of an army under Muhammad Imadu-d-Din ibn Qasim, two punitive expeditions against Debal having failed.

A. D. 712.

The forces of Muhammad-i-Qasim comprised 6,000 picked cavalry from Irak, with 6,000 camel-riders and a train of 3,000 Bactrian camels. At Makran he was joined by Muhammad Harun whose reinforcements included five catapults, each manned by 500 men. With these forces Muhammad ibn Qasim reduced Debal early in April, and then Nirun and Sehwan. He defeated and slew Dahir at Rawar⁽¹⁸⁾ in June, taking Alor, Uch and Multan, with other minor strongholds, in the same month. Askalanda was at this time held by Bajhra Taki, a grandson or nephew of the Bajhra who had held Multan against Chach the usurper, and so a descendant of the Rais. Bajhra offered a strenuous resistance, but after a six days' siege abandoned the fortress and fled to Sikka, and Muhammad put the garrison to the sword, sparing only its traders, artisans and peasants. He then left Utba Tamimi in charge of the place and besieged Sikka, which fell in seventeen days. Bajhra finally took refuge in Multan and capitulated.⁽¹⁹⁾

A. D. 700.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Briggs' Farishta, 1, 4.⁽¹⁷⁾ Dahir had, however, it would seem, in H. 81, repulsed an invasion by Ranmal, governor of Kamarajya, a province of Kashmir, with the aid of the Arabs.⁽¹⁸⁾ The site of Rawar appears to be midway between Brahmanabad and Nirun. EIL. I, 122.⁽¹⁹⁾ This account differs somewhat from that given in the Chach-nama (quoted in the Multan Gazetteer, 1902, in extenso). It is taken from the Persian edition of the Chach-nama and Colonel Minchin's manuscript.

Only three years later, however, Muhammad ibn Qásim was recalled and put to death by the Khalífah Sulaimán, owing, it is said, to the false accusation of Surya Devi, a daughter of Dáhir, that she had been dishonoured by him. Muhammad was succeeded by two governors who accomplished little, but in 99 H. 'Amru ibn Muslim-al-Bahálí was appointed by the Khalífah 'Umar ibn Abdu-l-Aziz to the command in Sind, and he induced many of the Hindu Chiefs to accept Islám in return for their admission to its privileges. Among these Jai Sinh, a son of Dáhir, embraced Islám, and was restored in the possession of his territories, and resisted Junaid, the successor of 'Amru, when the latter marched to the Indus. In the fighting which ensued Jai Sinh was slain, and nothing more is heard of the Rai dynasty of Sind.

CHAP. I, B.
History.

A. D. 718.

In the contest between the Abbassides and the Umayyids for the *khiláfat* Abdu'-r-Rahmán, appointed governor of Sind by the former, was opposed by Mansúr, the nominee of the latter, and slain in battle, but Músá Tamímí eventually defeated Mansúr and he perished of thirst in his flight to the desert. Hásham, a vigorous governor, was next appointed, and he was succeeded by Umar bin Hafs, called the Hazármard. In 771 A. D. Rúh became governor and under the Khalífah Hárún-ur-Rashíd Abu'l-Abbás for a long period ruled Sind with splendour and success, and the era of prosperity which the province enjoyed under the Abbassides was hardly interrupted by the revolt of Bashír bin Dáúd, under the Khalífah Al Mámún, as Bashír soon returned to his allegiance and was succeeded by Músa, son of the famous Barmecide Yahya, who was dismissed for squandering the government revenues in charity and was replaced by Ali bin Isá. The governorship of Ali is noteworthy for his occupation of Kaikan, the country of the Jats, in which he established a military colony, and for his expedition against the Meds, whom he completely subdued, building in their country the 'Sakr-ul-Med' or Med's causeway, a name preserved in the town of Sukkar or Sakkar. His son and successor Mohamad also carried on a naval war against the Meds, of whom numbers were slain.

A. D. 759.

A. D. 836.

After 870 A. D. the power of the Khalífahs declined, and Sind was the first province to slip from their control, for in 257 A. H. the Khalífah Mu'hamad conferred its government, with those of Balkh and Tukháristán, upon Ya'kúb ibn Laís in order to divert the Suffárides from their designs against 'Iráq. After Ya'kúb's death two principalities, Multan and Mansúra, were founded. The latter extended from Alor to the sea, so that the present State of Baháwalpur must have been wholly included in the independent kingdom of Multan, which the traveller Ma'súdí, who visited the Indus valley in 915-6 A. D., found to be flourishing under the Amir of Multan, Abu'l-Talhat ul-Munabba Qoraish, a descendant of Ghálib, who had established himself on the shores of 'Umán before the birth of Muhammad. His family, says Ma'súdí, had held the kingdom of Multan 'nearly from the beginning of Islám,' i.e., probably since the Arab conquest. His dominions

A. D. 871.

A. D. 879.

CHAP. I. B.
History.

extended to the frontier of Khurásán, and there were reckoned to be 120,000 hamlets round the capital. Most of the revenue was derived from the rich offerings made at the Temple of the Sun at Multan which was resorted to by people from all parts of the continent. A few years later Istákhri and Ibn Haukal visited the valley of the Indus. The latter, in whose relation that of Istakhri is included, says, the Multan territory was fertile and its produce cheap, though its fertility was inferior to that of Mansúra. The people were dressed like those of Irák, though the Amir was habited like a prince of the country, and some persons wore their hair long, and their dresses loose, on account of the heat. The Muhammadans and the idolators were dressed alike. The Arabic and Sindian languages were spoken at Multan and at Mansúra, and at Mansúra the traveller found some descendants of the Khalifah Ali, who had him driven by persecution to seek a refuge in that country. The Muhammadan power was however far from being firmly established, for the inhabitants of the Mansúra kingdom were eventually obliged to protect themselves against the Meds and other savage tribes of the desert.

A. D. 985.

The prosperity of the Multan territories was not however destined to endure, for in 375 A. H., the Karmatian sectaries, after their overthrow in Irák, took refuge in Sind. This remarkable sect was founded by Abdulla bin Maimún, a Persian, who preached that the line of the true Imáms closed with Ismail the seventh Imám in succession from Ali, Hasan and Husain. Denying the doctrine of the resurrection Abdulla taught that good deeds were not rewarded nor evil punished in this world or the next, and these doctrines were spread by secret societies as well as by open war. The sect derives its title from Karmat, a minute Arabic script used for the secret despatches of the sect by Ahmad, one of Abdulla's followers. It was also called Muláhida. The Karmatian conquest merits more than a passing notice, for distinct traces of it are still to be found in the popular religious ideas of the State. It is indeed possible that these ideas are older than the Karmatian heresy and that their prevalence among the population of Sind facilitated the rapid subjugation by its adherents of the kingdoms of Mansúra and Multan. No doubt the weakness of the petty local kingdoms favoured the progress of the Karmatians, who were powerful enough to destroy the great Hindu temple at Multan, and also to change the site of the orthodox mosque in that city. But the Karmatians must have found some strong local support in Sind, for 'as they came as refugees from Bahrain and Al Hassa they could scarcely have traversed an inhospitable country, or undertaken a long sea voyage, in sufficient numbers, to appear suddenly with renovated power in Sind,' and the facility with which the Karmatians conquered Sind is thus accounted for by Sir Henry Elliot⁽²⁰⁾ :—

"Many Hindu converts doubtless readily joined them, both in the hope of expelling their present masters, and in the expectation of receiving a portion of their patrimony for themselves, after the long exclusion under

which they had groaned. One of the Baloch clans, indeed, still preserves the memory of its heresy, or that of its progenitor, in retaining its present title of Karmati Independent of the general dissemination of Shiá sentiments in the valley of the Indus, which favoured notions of the incorporation of the Godhead in Man, the old occupants of the soil must, from other causes, have been ready to acquiesce in the wild doctrines of the heretics, who now offered themselves for spiritual teachers, as well as political leaders.

"Their incarnation of the Deity; their types and allegories; their philosophy divided into exoteric and esoteric; their religious reticence; their regard for particular numbers, particularly 7 and 12; the various stages of initiation; their abstruse allusions; their mystical interpretations; their pantheistic theosophy, were so much in conformity with sentiments already prevalent among these willing disciples, that little persuasion could have been required to induce them to embrace so congenial a system of metaphysical divinity, of which the final degree of initiation undoubtedly introduced the disciple into the regions of the most unalloyed atheism.

"So susceptible, indeed, must the native mind have been of these insidious doctrines that Hammer-Purgstall and others have very reasonably concluded that the doctrines of these secret societies,—such as the Karmatians, Ismailians or Assassins, Druses, Batinis, and sundry others, which at various periods have devastated the Muhammadan world, and frequently threatened the extinction of that faith,—though originally based upon the errors of the Gnostics, were yet largely indebted to the mystical philosophy and theology of Eastern nations, and especially of India, where the tenets of transmigration and of absorption into the Deity were even more familiar both to Buddhists and Brahmans than they were to these miserable schismatics.

"The Hindu population, therefore, though they had much to dread from them, if it continued obstinately in the path of idolatry, was likely to offer a rich field of proselytism to such zealous fanatics as the Karmatians, or 'people of the veil,' whose creed could not have been less attractive to an ignorant and superstitious multitude, from its eluding in many instances the grasp of human apprehension, and from its founder being announced, in profane and incomprehensible jargon, to be 'the Guide! the Director! the Invitation! the Word! the Holy Ghost! the Demonstration! the Herald! the Camel!'"

Farishta thus remarks on the Karmatian rule in Multan:—

"On referring to historical works such as the *Tarjuma-i-Ma'áni*, &c., it appears that Sultán Mahmúd wrested Multan from the possession of the Karmatian heretics and that it remained under his splendid dynasty till its decline, when the Karmatians regained its possession and appointed Hámid Khán Lodhi, a man of their own faith, as its governor."

THE GHAZNIVIDE PERIOD.

When Sabuktágín invaded the dominions of Jaipál, the Brahman Rája of Lahore, Hámid Khán Lodhi the Karámita, sided with the Hindu ruler against the Muhammadan invader, doubtless because Sabuktágín ⁽²¹⁾ had been the main instrument, under the last of the Samani rulers of Khurasán, in suppressing the Karámita sectaries

A. D. 978.

(21) T. N., Vol. I., pages 46—8.

- CHAP. I. B. History.** in that country, but he ultimately did homage to the invader. The Lodhis, however, did not abandon the Karāmīta beliefs, and therefore no lasting alliance between them and the Ghaznivides was possible, so that we find Abul Fath Dáúd, the grandson of Hámīd Khán, in alliance with Anang Pál, Rájá of Lahore, in his resistance to Mahmúd of Ghazni. On Mahmúd's second invasion in 395 A. H.
- A. D. 1004.** he was occupied with the reduction of Bhatindah, ⁽²²⁾ whose governor Rájá Bijai Rai had revolted against the suzerain Anand Pál, and had molested Mahmúd's Muhammadan deputies, but his third
- A. D. 1005.** invasion was directed against Multan. Abul Fath invoked the aid of his ally, Anand Pál, and the latter true to his allegiance opposed Mahmúd, but was totally defeated near Pesháwar and fled to Sodhra. Mahmúd then advanced on Multan by way of Bhatindah and the city was surrendered to him after a siege of seven days, Abul Fath becoming his tributary. But the invasion of Khurasán by the king of Káshgar recalled Mahmúd to Ghazni, and Sewak Pál, a Hindu converted to Islám, whom he had appointed his deputy in India, seized the opportunity to revolt, but Mahmúd suppressed this rebellion and then in 1008 A. D. turned his arms once against Anand Pál for his countenance of Abul Fath's resistance three years before, according to Farishta, ⁽²³⁾ or possibly for connivance in Sewak Pál's revolt, and completely defeated him and his allies, capturing Nagarkot. In 1010 A. D. Mahmúd again advanced on Multan, which had revolted, and having taken Abul Fath prisoner sent him to the fort of Ghurák where he remained in confinement till his death. The author of the *Mirát-i-Masúdí* adds that after this event Multan was deserted, its *ra'is* or chief, Anand Pál, taking
- A. D. 1024.** refuge in Uch. Fourteen years later however Mahmúd again visited Multan which must have recovered some of its former importance for he there fitted out his army for his expedition to Somnáth and marched thence through the Baháwalpur territory, visiting Maujgarh, Colonel Minchin thinks, on the way. After the fall of
- A. D. 1025.** Somnáth he marched back along the Indus and wrested Mansúra in 416 A. H. from an apostate (a follower of the Karmatian heresy according to Sir Henry Elliot) and placed a Muhammadan prince on the throne. He then attacked Bhátia (possibly the modern Bhutta Wáhan in the Sádiqabad Kárdárf) and reduced its inhabitants to obedience. ⁽²⁴⁾ On his way back to Ghazni, says Colonel Minchin, he passed through the Baháwalpur deserts where his army suffered greatly. The following story, told in the *Jámi-ul-Hikáyát*, has every appearance of truth: "Two Hindús offered themselves as guides and led the way for three days into a desert where there was neither water nor grass, and then told Mahmúd that they had been commissioned by their chief to lead him astray. 'You have the sea (*daryá-i-azam*) before you and the army of Hindostan behind, do with us what you like for not a single man of your army will escape.' A waterfowl was seen

⁽²²⁾ According to a Hindu chronicler of Jammu Bhatindah was Jaipál's capital and place of residence. T. N., I., p. 79.

⁽²³⁾ Briggs, page 46.

⁽²⁴⁾ *Kámil-ut-Tawárikh*, Sir Henry Elliot, Vol. II, p. 249.

flying in the air. The Sultán said, where there are waterfowls there must be sweet water, and proceeded after it. At length he reached the banks of a great river, the water of which was brackish and unfit to drink. He then saw another waterfowl, and followed it up and came to a valley in which they discovered sweet water. There they found a descendant of Ali, who was dwelling there with his family. The Sayad declared his ignorance of the road, but pointed out an old man close by who knew it. The latter led them to a certain spot on the bank of the river, but the army found it unfordable. The Sultán casting himself upon the protection of Providence, regardless of himself and fearless of the consequences, with the name of God upon his tongue, urged his horse into the stream. The army followed and, with the assistance of God, crossed in safety." Sir Henry Elliot considers this could only have been the Sind or Panjnad,⁽²⁵⁾ but Colonel Minchin thinks that it was probably, from the water being brackish, a branch of the Hakra, and that after crossing that stream the army must have proceeded to Uch and crossed the *Sutlej* at some point towards the north-east, the Indus flowing in those days close to Uch in the bed of what is now the Panjnad.

In connection with this period the *Mirát-i-Masúdi*⁽²⁶⁾ gives an account of a young noble, Sálár Masúd, a nephew of Sultán Mahmúd, who being unable to remain at Ghazni in consequence of the enmity of the Wazír Hasan Maimandi, obtained permission from the Sultán to travel for a year in the Punjab, and leaving the Ghazni Court with a strong body of troops came to Multán, which he found deserted, for since Mahmúd had plundered it for the second time, it had never been restored, and the Rais Arjun and Anang Pál, the lords of the place, had gone to reside in the province of Uch. Thence they sent ambassadors to Masúd to inquire if he thought it right thus to overrun a foreign country, adding, "perhaps you will have cause to repent it." Masúd replied, "The country is God's, his slave has no kingdom, but he to whom God gives it will be the possessor." He then bestowed *khilats* on the ambassadors and dismissed them with a caution to prepare for war. As soon as they had departed, he sent six Amírs, viz., Mír Husain Arab, Báízíd Jafar, Tarkán, Nakí, Feroz and Umr Mulk Ahmad, with several hundred troops to attack Uch. Rai Anang Pál came out of his stronghold to meet him. The combat raged for three hours, and many veterans fell on both sides, and the Rai was at last obliged to yield. The conquerors entered the city and plundered it, carrying off an immense amount of property.

In 425 H. Níál-Tigín, governor of Multán, revolted, but Tílak Malik, son of Jai Sen, was sent against him and he was drowned in the Indus on his flight to Mansúria. A. D. 1034.

It will now be necessary to digress and give a brief account of the Sumra and Samma dynasties of Sind, before dealing with the period of the Sultáns of Ghor.

(25) Elliot, Vol. II, p. 474.

(26) An historical romance, partly translated in Elliot, Vol. II, pp. 513-542.

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History.

THE SUMRA AND SAMMA DYNASTIES OF SIND.

The Sumrás.—According to the *Tuhfat-ul-Kirám* the Sumrás are descended from the Arabs of Sámira or Samarra who accompanied the Tamim family, which furnished governors to Sind under the Abbassides, to the Indus valley in the second century of the Hijra, but Elphinstone and Elliot concur in regarding them as Rájputs (of the Pramára⁽²⁷⁾ race according to the latter), who, with a kindred tribe called Umra, gave their name to Umra-Sumra the country round Alor. The Sumrás undoubtedly supplanted the Tamim and ruled independently over Sind for more than a century, but it would appear that under the Tamims the Sumrás exercised considerable power. Hence Abul Fazl states that the rule of the 36 Sumra princes lasted for 500 years, but the *Tárikh-i-Táhiri*, describing them as Hindús, assigns to their rule a period of only 143 years from A. H. 700-843, and says that their dominions included Alor, but that their capital was at Muhammad Tur in the *pargana* of Dirak.

A. D. 1320.

The *Tuhfat-ul-Kirám* states that when Gházi Khán Malik, in the year 720 H. marched towards Delhi with an army collected from Multán and Sind, overthrew Khusro Khán, and assumed the title of Giyás-ud-Dín Tughlak Shah, the Sumrás took advantage of his absence and asserted their independence, but Muhammad Yúsuf, the author of the *Muntakhab-ut-Tawárikh*, says that during the reign of Sultán Abdur Rashíd, son of Mahmúd of Ghazni, an indolent and weak-minded ruler, the people of Sind became disaffected, and the Sumrás assembled in the vicinity of Tharri in 445 H., chose as

A. D. 1053.

their ruler a man named Súmra, who reigned independently for a long period, and left the kingdom to his son Bhúngar.⁽²⁸⁾ The latter reigned fifteen years, and died in 461 H. Bhúngar was succeeded

A. D. 1062.

by seventeen rulers of this dynasty. Then the government fell to Hamír who being a tyrant was deposed by the Sammás.

The Sumrás, says Sir Henry Elliot, may possibly have allowed

No.	Name.	Number of years in reign.
3	Dúdá, son of Bhúngar	24
4	Sanghar ...	15
5	Hafif or Khaif ...	33
6	Umr ...	40
7	Dúdá II ...	14
8	Phattá ...	33
9	Genbrá ...	16
10	Muhammad Tur ...	15
11	Genbrá, II ...	A few years
12	Dúdá III ...	14
13	Tái ...	24
14	Chanesar ...	18
15	Bhúngar II ...	15
16	Khaif II or Hafif ...	18
17	Dúdá IV ...	25
18	Umr, the Sumra ...	35
19	Bhúngar III ...	10

The founder of Umarkot.

a titular sovereignty to the Ghaznivides even down to the time of Abdur Rashíd in 1051 A. D., or paid tribute as an acknowledgment of fealty, but after that time, the advance of the Seljuks on the northern frontier of the empire and the internal disorders of the government, must have offered too favourable a conjunction for them to profess any longer an even nominal subordination to

(27) Renouard guesses that they may be *Som-Rai*, that is, of the lunar race, but being without question of the Pramára stock, they are necessarily Agnikúlas.

(28) Henry Elliot, Vol. I, pp. 344 and 485.

distant monarchs unable to enforce it ; that the Sumra power could at no time have been extensive and absolute in Sind, which was subject to perpetual incursions from the Ghorian, Khilji and Tughlak dynasties of Delhi and the Punjab, as well as the still more ruinous devastations of the Mughals, that during these visitations the Sumrás took refuge in the native deserts, till it pleased the stronger power to retire after ravaging the crops and securing their plunder, that they could have enjoyed little freedom and independence, and can only claim to rank as a dynasty, from the absence of any other predominant tribes, to assert better pretensions to that distinction.⁽²⁹⁾

"In the sacred books of the Druses," says Sir Henry Elliot,⁽³⁰⁾ "we find an epistle of Mauláná Bahá-ud-Dín, . . . the principal compiler of the Druse writings, addressed in the year 423 H. (1032 A. D.) to the Unitarians of Multán and Hindustán in general, and to Shaikh Ibn Súmar Rája Bal in particular :—

"Oh illustrious Rája Bal, arouse your family, the Unitarians, and bring back Dáúd the younger into the true religion ; for Ma'súd only delivered him from prison and bondage, that you might accomplish the ministry with which you were charged against Abdulla, his nephew, and against all the inhabitants of Multán, so that the disciples of the doctrines of holiness, and of the unity, might be distinguished from the party of bewilderment, contradiction, ingenuity and rebellion."

"Here," continues Sir Henry Elliot, "the name is purely Indian, and the patronymic can be no other than one Sumra. That some of that tribe, including the chiefs, had affiliated themselves to the Karamatians is more probable than the other alternative, suggested by M. Reinaud, that certain Arabs had adopted indigenous denominations. It seems quite evident from this curious coincidence of names that the party particularly addressed was a Súmra ; that this Súmra was a Karamatian ; and that the Karamatians of the valley of the Indus were in relation and correspondence not only with those of Persia and Arabia but also with the Druses"

The capital of Hamir, the last Sumra Chief, was the town of Pattanpur, the ruins of which are still called Patan-Munára, in the present Kárdári of Sádiqábád, and, on his overthrow by the Sammás, he is said to have abandoned his capital and repaired to the Dragul hills on the Balochistán border, where he settled with all his tribes which eventually adopted the name of Gorchání, still a sept of the Baloch.⁽³¹⁾

The Samma Dynasty.—The Sammás deprived the Sumrás of their dominion in Sind in 752 H. and retained their power till 927 A. H. When Firoz Tughlak, King of Delhi, invaded Sind in 762 A. H., the Sammás opposed him with 40,000 infantry and 20,000 cavalry and kept him at bay for two and a half years. And in 912 H. Dilshád, the Wazír of Jám Nanda, conquered the country as far as Uch.

A. D. 1351.

A. D. 1521.

A. D. 1361.

A. D. 1506.

⁽²⁹⁾ Compare Henry Elliot, Vol. I, pp. 493-94.

⁽³⁰⁾ Vol. I, p. 491.

⁽³¹⁾ *Tárikh-i-Murád*, Vol. II, pp. 115-16; also compare Dera Gházi Khan Gazetteer, p. 70.

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History.

THE GHORIAN SULTANS.

The vitality of the Karámita movement may be gauged from the fact that these sectaries had recovered Multán some years prior to 571 H., in which year the Sultán Muizz-ud-Dín⁽³²⁾ of Ghor recovered it from them and then advanced to Uch which was in possession of a *rājā*. Finding the place too strong to be easily taken by siege Muizz-ud-Dín made overtures to the *rānī*, who was despotic over her husband,⁽³³⁾ promising to make her his consort and Queen of the World if by her efforts the city were taken. The *rānī*, stipulating that her own property should be spared, agreed to give her daughter in marriage to the Sultán and shortly after caused her husband to be put to death and delivered up the city. The *rānī's* daughter then became a Muhammadan and was married to the Sultán who sent her with her mother the *rānī* to Ghazni where they both died within two years of the surrender. This *rājā* of Uch was, according to the Mirát-i-Jahán-Numá a Bhátí chief, a tribe which had previously held a large part of Sind, but it is added that Uch was actually taken by assault. In 573 or 574 H. Sultán Muizz-ud-Dín marched an army towards Náhrwála by way of Uch and Multán but was defeated and returned successful, though he was able in 578 H. to conquer the whole of the territory on the sea-coast in an expedition against Diwal, and presumably became master of all Sind. In the histories of his conquests in India Multán and Uch do not appear to be further mentioned so that we may infer that they remained peaceably under his rule, but it is worth noting that Muizz-ud-Dín's assassination was most probably the work of two or three Fidáis of the Mulahida or heretics who were, we may conjecture, Karámitas.

1210 A. D.

1215 A. D.

1217 A. D.

Muizz-ud-Dín ("Muhammad of Ghor") was succeeded by the Sultán Qutb-ud-Dín I-bak, 'al-Mu'izzi-us-Sultáni,' the slave of Sultán Mu'izz-ud-Dín and the founder of the Slave dynasty. During his rule⁽³⁴⁾ Malik Násir-ud-Dín-i-Aetamur was feudatory of Uch, but after his death in a campaign against the Maliks of Túrkestán the government of Uch was entrusted to Malik Násir-ud-Dín Kabája who had espoused two of Qutb-ud-Dín's daughters, and on that Sultán's death he proceeded to Uch and possessed himself of Multán, Siwistán and Diwal, as far as the sea-coast, subsequently annexing the country to the eastward as far as the Sarsúti and Tabarhinda (? Bhatinda). He also took Lahore. He was, however, ousted from Lahore, Multán and Uch by the forces of Sultán Táj-ud-Dín I-yal-duz in 612 H., but was reinstated in their possession as tributary of I-yal-timish after the latter had defeated I-yal-duz and put him to death. But Kabája did not remain long subject to Sultán Shams-ud-Dín I-yal-timish and allowed his tribute to fall into arrears whereupon the latter in 613 H. marched from Delhi on Lahore to enforce its payment, and rapidly fording the Beás

(32) His proper title, after his accession, was Muizz-ud-Dín Muhammad, though he is usually called Shiháb-ud-Dín or Muhammad Ghorí. T. N., p. 446.

(33) *Ibid*: pp. 450-1, where Raverty gives the correct translation of Farishta's account of this affair.

(34) T. N., pp. 531-2. Also pp. 533-4.

compelled Kabāja to seek refuge in Uch whither I-yal-timish was not prepared to follow him. Kabāja consolidated his power in Sind and acquired great power, in spite of constant hostilities between him and I-yal-timish. He reduced the Súmrá power to insignificance, only Thatkú, Júngal and Tafúr remaining in their possession.

THE MUGHAL INVASIONS.

Meanwhile far-reaching events had occurred in Central Asia and the power of the Mughals made itself felt. The Sultán Jalál-ud-Dín Khwárazmi, the ruler of Ghor and Ghazni, was defeated on the Indus near Pesháwar in 618 H. by Chingiz Khán and, refused a refuge by I-yal-timish, endeavoured to obtain a footing in the country east of the Indus. He defeated the Khokhars in the Salt Range and then, in alliance with them, turned to Uch and Multán. The Khokhars had had a long-standing feud with Kabāja who was encamped with 20,000 men near Uch and their forces led by Jalál-ud-Dín's general overwhelmed him in a night attack and the Sultán came to Uch, but returned to the Salt Range in the hot season, Kabāja being restored in his possession of Multán on payment of a large sum as tribute ^(34a).

But Chingiz Khán had meanwhile organized another army against Jalál-ud-Dín who retreated towards Lower Sind, and on arriving at Multán demanded a contribution from Kabāja which was refused. Unable to enforce his demand the Sultán marched on Uch, but as that city also proved hostile he burnt it and retired to Siwistán.

The Mughal forces under Turti, the Nu'in or general, following in pursuit invested Multán (621 H.) but abandoned the siege after six weeks on account of the intense heat and retreated. The Khwárazmi forces must then have partly re-occupied the country for two years later we find a body of the Khalj tribe, which had formed part of the army of Sultán Jalál-ud-Dín established in the district of Mansúra. Kabāja however having defeated the Khalj and slain their leader re-occupied Uch and Multán ⁽³⁵⁾ in 623 H.

Uch had, it would seem, by this time recovered from its burning by Sultán Jalál-ud-Dín for in the next year Minháj-i-Saráj, the author of the *Tabaqat-i-Násiri*, was appointed to the charge of the Firuzi College in that city, but it enjoyed but a brief spell of tranquillity for in 625 H. I-yal-timish in alliance with the remnants of the Khalj and Khwárazmi fugitives marched from Delhi *viâ* Tabarhindah on Uch while the governor of the province of Lahore marched on Multán. Uch was closely invested and appears to have fallen after a siege of nearly three months, but Kabāja who had fled to Bhakkar was still untaken, and I-yal-timish despatched a force against him. Kabāja endeavoured to make terms, but without success, and taking boat to escape down the Indus he was drowned by the sinking of the vessel on the 22nd of Jamádi-ul-Akhir, 625 H. The fate of his son Muhammad Bahrám Sháh is unknown

1224 A. D.

1226 A. D.

1227 A. D.

1228 A. D.

May 29th
1228 A. D.

(34a) T. N., pp. 293-4, also pp. 534-541.

(35) Or returned to Multán. He was apparently in the city during its siege by the Mughals and it does not appear when or how he left it.

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History.

and his territories passed under the sway of the Slave Kings of Delhi. Kabája had ruled with varying fortunes for twenty-two years. After his death the Sumrás recovered their power in Sind.

At the time of the death of I-yal-timish Malik Saif-ud-Dín, Ibak-i-Uchchah was feudatory of Uch, and soon after in 633 or 1236 A. D. 634 H. Multán was threatened by an invading force of Qárlugh Turks under Malik Saif-ud-Dín Hasan, but the Ibak advancing from Uch repelled this inroad.⁽³⁶⁾ But in 636 H. the Qárlughs took Multán, Uch being then held in fief by Malik Muayyid-ud-Dín, Hindú Khán,⁽³⁷⁾ and retained its possession. ✓

1240 A. D. In 638 H. the Mughals advanced again on Multán, but finding they were likely to be vigorously opposed turned their faces towards Lahore which they sacked. In consequence of this inroad Malik Izz-ud-dín Kabír Khán-i-Ayáz, whom the Queen Razíyyah had removed from the fief of Lahore to that of Multán, proclaimed his independence and took possession of Uch and its dependencies. 1241 A. D. He died however in the following year (639 H.), and was succeeded by his son Táj-ud-dín Abu-Bakr-i-Ayáz who subjugated Sind and several times attacked and defeated the Qárlughs before Multán.⁽³⁸⁾

1245 A. D. In 643 H. Kyuk Khán, the grandson of the Chingiz or "great" Khán, despatched armies to invade China, Irán, Hindustán, Khurásán and Iráq. The army of Hindustán was placed under the command of the Nú-ín Mangútah and invaded the Delhi Kingdom by way of the Salt Range and the Sind Ságar Doáb, keeping along its western frontier and entering the province of Multán in order to assail that city and Uch, then the frontier strongholds of the kingdom. Its advance caused Malik Saif-ud-dín Hasan, the Qárlugh Turk, to abandon Multán and embark on the Indus for Sihwán. Mangútah first invested Uch, the environs of which he destroyed, but the place was vigorously defended and the Mughals lost one of their chief leaders. Meantime Malik Ghiás-ud-dín Balban, afterwards King of Delhi, had organized the royal forces to repel the Mughal invasion, and marched, not by the direct route from Delhi *viâ* Sarustí (Sirsa) and Marot but by Lahore, crossing the Beás and then advancing down the east bank of the Ráví, which was generally fordable, so as to cut off the Mughal line of retreat up the Sind Ságar Doáb to the Salt Range.⁽³⁹⁾ This movement compelled the Mughal leader to raise the siege of Uch and dividing his army into three divisions he retired, abandoning many prisoners, to Khurásán.

⁽³⁶⁾ T. N., I., p. 633.

⁽³⁷⁾ *Ibid.*, p. 645. 634 H. was eventful for a great outbreak of the fanatical Karamitas which took place in Delhi in that year. *Ibid.*, 646.

⁽³⁸⁾ T. N., pp. 655-56.

⁽³⁹⁾ At that period the Beás flowed in its old bed north of Dipálpur and united with the combined streams of the Ráví, Chenáb and Jhelum, 28 miles south of Multán and to the east of Uch. By crossing the Beás higher up Malik Ghiás-ud-dín had only to cross the Chenáb, after its junction with the Jhelum, to hold the Mughal invaders at his mercy, separated from their base and liable to be also attacked from Multán. Cf. the T. N., pp. 667 and 809, and Raverty's article in the J. A. S. B., 1892, pp. 156-168. It is not clear whether Ghiás-ud-dín actually crossed the Ráví or not.

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1246 A. D.

1249 A. D.

1250 A. D.

1251 A. D.

1252 A. D.

1253 A. D.

1256 A. D.

In 644 H. the Sultán Násir-ud-dín Mahmúd Shah 'made the Malik-ul-Kabír' Nusrat-ud-dín Sher Khán-i-Sunkar, ^(39a) Malik of Sind and Hind, and in that same year the Mughals held Multán to ransom, extorting 100,000 *dirams*, whereas from Lahore they realized only 30,000. ⁽⁴⁰⁾ Subsequently the fief passed to Malik Izz-ud-dín Balban-i-Kashlú Khán and in 647 H. Malik Saif-ud-dín Hasan, the Qárlugh, advanced from Banián, ⁽⁴¹⁾ which territory he held in spite of the Mughals, to attack Multán, but Balban-i-Kashlú Khán advancing from Uch to defend it engaged the Qárlughs. Malik Hasan was slain, but his followers kept his death secret, and though Balban had entered Multán after the battle he was compelled to evacuate it, and the Malik Násir-ud-dín, Muhammad Hasan's eldest son, took possession of it. Sher Khán, however, shortly afterwards recovered it and placed his own retainer Ikhtiyár-ud-dín-i-Kurez in charge of the city. In 648 H. Balban advancing from Uch made an attempt to wrest Multán from Ikhtiyár-ud-dín, but failed and retreated to Uch. Ikhtiyár-ud-dín further appears to have defeated the Mughals in this year for he is mentioned as sending many captives of that race to Delhi in the month of Shawwál. In 649 H. Malik Balban showed a tendency to revolt at Nagaur, which he also held in fief, but made his submission when the royal forces marched on that stronghold. Malik Sher Khán next marched on Uch from Tabarhindah and Lahore, by way of Multán, and Balban hastening from Nagaur to Uch, went to Sher Khán's camp and was there detained as a prisoner until he surrendered Uch, whence he went to Delhi. Early in 650 H. the Sultán, ⁽⁴²⁾ Mahmúd Shah, marched in person with his army from Delhi towards Lahore, intending to proceed to Uch and Multán, in order to reinstate Balban-i-Kashlú Khán in those dependencies after ousting Sher Khán from them, but he returned with his army to Delhi without crossing the Beás. ⁽⁴³⁾ In 651 H. however he again marched on Uch and Multán and the Malik Sher Khán withdrew from his positions in the Indus valley and fled to Turkistán, leaving Uch, Multán, and Tabarhindah in the hands of retainers. Early in 1254 they were conferred on Arsalán Khán Sanjar-i-Chast and Mahmúd Sháh returned to Delhi, but some time in 1255 they were restored to Malik Balban-i-Kashlú Khán, who in the following year tendered his allegiance to Hulákú Khán and by him a body of Mughal troops under Nú-yín Sálín was sent to Uch. In 1257 ⁽⁴⁴⁾ Balban-i-Kashlú Khán marched along the Beás with the troops of Uch and Multán against Delhi, but the revolt failed and Balban, deserted by his troops, fled to Uch and thence to Hulákú in Iráq, whence he returned with a Mughal Intendant and a body of troops under Nú-yín Sálín.

(39a) He was a cousin of the Ulugh Khán, afterwards the Emperor Ghiyás-ud-dín, Balban, and an Ilbari Turk, formerly a *mamlúk* or slave of Altamsh. Soon after he rebelled against Mahmúd Shah and assumed independence, but he was eventually compelled to receive a Mughal Sahná or intendant. T. N., pp. 796 and 1169.

(40) T. N., p. 677.

(41) *Ibid.*, p. 689. Raverty says Banián must have been the hilly tract west of the upper part of the Sind Ságar Doáb. *Ibid.*, p. 677.

(42) T. N., pp. 693-95.

(43) This event is said by some to have occurred in the previous year.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

1266 A. D.

The Sultán Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd Sháh was succeeded by his minister Ghiyás-ud-dín Balban, under whom Sher Khán continued to govern Lahore and the other territories exposed to the Mughal inroads, until in the 4th or 5th year of the reign he died. Balban then appointed his eldest son Nusrat-ud-dín Muhammad, governor of Sind, Lahore and Multán, with the title of Qáim-ul-Mulk. This prince for many years kept the Mughals at bay, but at length he was defeated and slain by the famous Mughal leader Samar, "the bravest dog of all the dogs of Chingiz Khán," at Dipálpur in 683 or 684 H., whereby he earned the title of the Khán Shahíd or Martyr Prince. His Court at Multán was a brilliant one, but the Mughals appear to have confined his power to the territory south of the Beás. His son Kai-Khusru was deprived of the throne of Delhi but allowed to retain the fief of Multán until murdered by Kai-Kubád soon after his accession. A similar fate awaited Malik Sháhik, *amír* of Multán, and the Slave Dynasty was soon supplanted by the Khiljis.

1290 A. D.

Under Jalál-ud-dín, Firoz Sháh II, the first of that house, the Mughals, though they continued to invade India, began to embrace Islám and enlist in the service of the emperor, who cantoned them at Moghalpura near Delhi, while his son Arkali Khán, the governor of Lahore, Multán and Sind, appears to have cantoned his contingent of Mughal mercenaries at Uch Moghla near the town of Uch.⁽⁴⁸⁰⁾ Arkali Khán, the rightful heir of Ibrahim Sháh, was absent at Multán on that king's death and thus lost the throne. A year later Alá-ud-dín sent his brother Ulugh Khán to oust Arkali Khán from Multán, and he, with his brother, gave himself up and was subsequently blinded. In the following year (697 H.) the Mughals besieged Siwistán (Sehwán) but were repulsed by Zafar Khán, a *malik* of the Delhi Court. Nevertheless towards the end of the year they were able to advance as far as Delhi and in 704 H. a defeat inflicted on the Mughals by Gházi Beg Tughlaq Khán, governor of the Punjab, led to an invasion by the Mughals under Aibak Khán or Kabák who ravaged Multán. Gházi Beg was however able to attack and rout the invaders with terrible slaughter on the banks of the Indus as they retired. This success stemmed for a time the tide of Mughal invasion, but in 727 H. the Mughals subdued Lamghán and in the ensuing year Muhammad Ibn Tughlaq suppressed the revolt of Kashkú Khán at Multán, and 11 years later he had to put down a second revolt under Bahrám Abiya.

1327 A. D.

1338 A. D.

1342 A. D.

1351 A. D.

1365 A. D.

1392 A. D.

In 743 H. Sháhú, an Afghán chieftain, descended on Multán, killed Bahzád Khán, its viceroy, in battle and only submitted when the emperor in person moved on Multán. Muhammad Ibn Tughlaq died in Sind on an expedition against the rising power of the Sumrás, and his cousin Firoz Sháh III, who was in the camp, proclaimed himself emperor and marched to Uch whence he proceeded to Delhi. Firoz Sháh was also compelled to undertake an

(480) The Tuhfat-ul-Kirám says that Jalál-ud-Dín assigned Uch and Multán to Arkali Khán in 1293, and adds that after his blinding Nusrat Khán, Governor of Sind, retained possession of Multán and Uch as well as Sind. E. H. I. I. p. 341

expedition against the Sumrá chief Babinia but he was able to compel his submission. CHAP. I, B.

In 796 H. Sérang Khán, who had been appointed governor of Dipálpur, quarrelled with Khizr-Khán Sayyid, the *amír* of Multán, and allying himself with the Bhattí chief got possession of the province. He was however defeated in turn by troops from Delhi and fled towards Multán, Uch being held for him by Alí Malik.

In 800 H. as a preliminary to Timúr's inroad his grandson Pír Muhammad invested Uch but on the advance of an army from Delhi under Táj-ud-dín he raised the siege. He however defeated Táj-ud-dín in the Beás and drove him back on Multán which surrendered to him after a siege of six months. Timúr himself having crossed the Indus besieged Shiháb-ud-dín, the ruler of an island in the Jhelum, and drove him towards Uch, whereupon Shaikh Núr-ud-dín pursued and defeated him. ⁽⁴³⁵⁾

After Timúr had left the Punjab Khizr Khán, who had been reinstated in his governorship of Multán, to which was added that of the Punjab and Dipálpur, established a virtually independent kingdom at Multán, and after a series of victories over the nobles of the Delhi kingdom he seized that throne and founded the Sayyid dynasty, which professed to be mere deputies of the Mughals. Nevertheless under Khizr Khán's successor, Mubarak Sháh, Mirza Sháh Rukh, the Mughal who held Kábul, deputed his lieutenant Shaikh Ali, to invade Bhakkar and Siwistán, and the Delhi king nominated Malik-ush-Sharq Malak Mahmúd Hasan governor of Multán to oppose the invaders. This he did successfully, and in 830 H. he was transferred to Hissár, Malik Rajab Nádira becoming feudatory of Multán until 832 H. when Mahmúd Hasan was re-appointed with the title of Imád-ul-Mulk. When Shaikh Ali invaded the Punjab in 1431 A. D. the Imád-ul-Mulk compelled him to retreat, but returning to Multán he was followed by Shaikh Ali who defeated his lieutenant Sháh Lodí and occupied Khairábád near Multán. The Imád-ul-Mulk was however able to repulse two assaults on Multán and eventually, when reinforced by Mubarak Shah II, defeated Shaikh Ali who fled to Kábul. Malik Khair-ud-dín Kháni then became governor of Multán, and Shaikh Ali continued to harass its frontiers. Having seized Tulamba, which he destroyed, he was only driven back on Martot (? Marot) by the advance of the Delhi emperor at the head of a large army and in 836 H. captured Lahore. Dipálpur also nearly fell into his hands, but was relieved by the Imád-ul-Mulk from Sirhind. Mubarak Sháh II then advanced to the Rávi near Dipálpur, Shaikh Ali retreating before him, and captured Shorkot from Amír Muzaffar Khán, the Mughal.

The province of Multán was however by this time in a state of anarchy and in 841 H. intelligence reached Mahummad Sháh IV of Delhi that the Langáhs had risen in revolt.

⁽⁴³⁵⁾ A local history, the *Maifúzá*t of Pír Khális, in the possession of the *mutajarrifs* of the shrine of Pír Khális, says that Timúr crossed the Sutlej at a place opposite Pír Khális and halted there. Pír Khális lies in the Minchinábád Kárdárl. Timúr appointed Malik Abdar Rahím, Governor of Multán, with the title of Alá-ul-Mulk.

CHAP. I. B.

THE LANGÁH AND NÁHAR AFGHÁN DYNASTIES.

History.

1437 A. D.

In 840 H. the Langáh Afgháns, as Farishta styles them in (the province of) Multán, broke out in rebellion, and at the same time Bahlol Khán Lodí, who, after the death of his uncle Islám Khán Lodí, had usurped the government of Sirhind, took possession of Lahore, Dipálpur and all the country as far south as Pánípat.⁽⁴⁴⁾ From this it appears that the Langáhs were powerful at Multán as early as 1437 A.D., but in his History of the Kings of Multán⁽⁴⁵⁾ Farishta gives an account of their rise to power which would make it appear that their advent to Multán was some years later.

1443 A. D.

According to this account the province of Multán, left open to invasion from Ghor, Ghazni and Kábul in the anarchy which had long since ensued when the Tughlak dynasty ceased to rule, suffered greatly from predatory inroads, so its inhabitants assembled in 847 H.

1445 A. D.

and elected Shaikh Yúsuf of the tribe of the Qoraish to be ruler of Multán and Uch, and in his name the *khutbá* was read and money coined. This prince reorganized the government and gained the friendship of the neighbouring Zamíndárs, among others of one Rai Sihrá,⁽⁴⁶⁾ the chief of Síwí and its territory, whose daughter he married, but after he had only reigned two years Rai Sihrá seized him by treachery and usurped his authority under the title of Qutb-ud-dín. Shaikh Yúsuf was expelled from Multán by Qutb-

1469 A. D.

ud-dín and sent to Delhi where he was received with great respect by the king, Bahlol Lodí, who gave his daughter in marriage to his son Abdulla.⁽⁴⁷⁾ After ruling Multán and a large part of Sind for 16 years Qutb-ud-dín died much lamented in 874 H., and was succeeded by his son Husain, a prince of cultivated mind and a patron of science and literature.⁽⁴⁸⁾ He was moreover a successful soldier. Early in his reign he reduced Shorkot (then called Shiwar) and Hot, whence he marched against Kotgirwar and Dhankot, both of which forts he reduced, leaving his brother as governor in the former. Meanwhile Sultán Bahlol Khán sent an army under his sons Barlik and Tártár Khán Lodí to recover Multán for Shaikh Yúsuf, but Husain Langáh was able to first reduce Kotgirwar where his brother had set up as an independent sovereign, and then to turn on the Lodís who were on the point of attacking Multán. Sallying forth from the city Husain attacked the Delhi forces with his Multáni horse and routed them, though they soon afterwards captured the fort of Hot by a stratagem.

Husain was essentially a Lord Paramount of the Baloch Chiefs, many of whom flocked to his court. Malik Sohráb (Duvally) entered his service with his sons Ismail and Fateh Khán and

(44) Briggs' Farishta, I, 536.

(45) Briggs, IV, p. 380-2.

(46) Hardly an Afghán title. Cf. Beal's Oriental Dicty., 321.

(47) Briggs, IV, p. 383. In the Ain-i-Akbarí, however, Abul Fazl, who styles Qutb-ud-dín a foreigner and calls him Mahmúd Sháh, says that Shaikh Yúsuf reigned 17 years, not 2.

(48) He was a contemporary of Jám Nizám-ud-dín or Nanda, of the Sammá dynasty in Sind, who in 866 H. (1461 A. D.) succeeded Jám Sanjar.

received Kotgirwar and Dhankot in fief.⁽⁴⁰⁾ Other Baloches received the part of Sind lying contiguous to Balochistán, till all the country between Sítpur and Dhankot was occupied by Baloches. Uch he conferred on Jám Ibráhím Sáhna,⁽⁵⁰⁾ and Shiwar on Jám Bázáid his brother, who had fled from the court of Jám Nanda the Sammá.

On the death of Bahlol Khán, Husain sent an ambassador to Delhi and effected a treaty with Sikandar Lodí, whereby it was agreed that hostilities should cease and that the armies of Delhi and Multán should co-operate in case of foreign aggression.⁽⁵¹⁾ Husain soon after this abdicated in favour of his son Fíroz, who attempted to assassinate Belál, the eldest son of the Imád-ul-Mulk, the minister of Husain, who still held office under himself, because he was jealous of Belál's popularity, and in revenge for this the Imád-ul-Mulk poisoned Fíroz. Husain in spite of his age was induced to re-ascend the throne, and continued to rule till 908 H. when he died and was succeeded by his grandson, Mahmúd, the son of Fíroz.

1488 A. D.

1502 A. D.

The reign of Mahmúd Sháh was chiefly eventful for the revolt of Jám Bázáid, who had become minister to Husain shortly before his death. Bázáid was provoked to rebel and took refuge in Shiwar (Shorkot) which fort he placed under the suzerainty of Sikandar Lodí, king of Delhi, by whom Daulat Khán, governor of the Punjab, was deputed to assist the revolted minister. Daulat Khán acting as a mediator induced the contending parties to fix upon the Rávi as the boundary of their territories, Bázáid thus becoming an independent ruler, or, at any rate, a feudatory of the Delhi kingdom. Moreover, Bázáid must have obtained control over the territory round Uch, for to the chagrin of Mahmúd Sháh he gave it in *jágir* to one Mír Jakar Zand,⁽⁵²⁾ the father of Mír Shahíd and Mír Shahídá, the latter of whom is said to have been the first to disseminate the Shia tenets in India.⁽⁵³⁾ This incident coupled with the fact of Bázáid's piety (he used to send cooked provisions daily down the Chenáb from Shiwar to Multán for the holy personages of that city) point to religious differences as being at the bottom of Bázáid's disaffection.

Towards the close of Mahmúd Sháh's reign the Arghúns invaded Multán, but that king died in 931 H. before they reached his capital. On his death Lashkar Khán, the head of the Langáh tribe, deserted to Husain Arghún after laying waste its adjacent territory. The *amírs* raised to the throne Husain Langáh II, son of Mahmúd, who was still a minor, but the Arghúns soon after took Multán by storm and the Langáhs' dynasty ended.

1524 A. D.

1525 A. D.

(40) Malik Sohráb Hot, coming from Kachh Mekrán entered Husain's service in 876 H. (1471 A. D.) receiving from him lands on both sides of the Indus nearly corresponding to the old District of Dera Ismail Khán, i.e., the Bhakkar and Leiah Tahsils with the Dera Ismail Khán District of the North-West Frontier Province. Briggs, III, p. 388.

(50) Not apparently a Baloch tribe, but a tribe of Sind, claiming descent from Jám Jamshid, i.e., an Iranian origin. Briggs, II, p. 388-9.

(51) Sikandar Lodí had ascended the Delhi throne in 894 H.

(52) Possibly we should read 'Mír Chakar Rind.' He is said to have come from Solypoor.

(53) Briggs, III, p. 395-6.

CHAP. I. B.
History.

The Langáhs, however, held but a small portion (Kárdári Baháwalpur and the *iláqa* of Uch) of the modern State of Baháwalpur, most of its territory being held by other rulers, of whom the Náhars were the most prominent.

The Náhars.

Concurrently with the establishment of the Langáh power Islám Khán I Lodí, an uncle of Bahlol Khán, the King of Delhi, founded a rival state which had its capital at Sítpur and included the Kin tract, now a part of the Dera Gházi Khán District, Kashmor near Fatehpur Machka, Janpur and Khán Bela (now in Khánpur Kárdári) and most of Kárdári Sádiqábád,⁽⁵⁴⁾—in short most of the tract now known as the Lamma. This State however was divided between the two grandsons of Islám Khán I, Islám II holding Sítpur with the northern part and Qísim Khán the south from Umarkot, now in Dera Gházi Khán, to Kashmor. The rule of this branch of the Lodís was so harsh and oppressive that the successors of Islám Khán I acquired the title of Náhar or wolf.

1484 A. D.

The rule of the Náhars endured with some vicissitudes till 1700 A. D. Under Bábar they indeed lost their independence and they paid tribute to Akbar,⁽⁵⁵⁾ but they remained in possession of their State. In 887 H. however Háji Khán, chief of the Mirráni *tuman* of the Baloch, conquered a large part of their territory and founded Dera Gházi Khán. Still the Náhars retained the territories on both banks of the Panjnad and Indus, now in Kárdáris Ahmadpur East and Khánpur of the modern State, till the 18th century, but they were further deprived of a considerable territory by Shaikh Ráju, the deputy of Nádir Sháh, who founded Rájanpur.

During this period anarchy prevailed in Sind, the north and north-west of which country was held mainly by the Sammás up to 1521 A. D., as already described, while in the south Amír Fateh-ullah Khán also called Thull Khán Abbási, the ancestor of the Abási Dáúdpotrás, acquired the *iláqa* of Bhangír by conquest from Rája Dallu, the ruler of Alor and Bahmanábád, and named his conquered territory Qábir Bela.

The Arghúns.

A. D. 1522.

Towards the close of this period a new power arose in Sind. Sháh Beg Arghún having been driven from Qandhár by Bábar in 928 H.⁽⁵⁶⁾ invaded lower or southern Sind, took Siwí in 1514, Thatha in 1521 A. D. and made Bhakkar, which he strongly fortified, his capital, after totally defeating the Sammás in a pitched battle. On his death in 1525 A. D. his son Sháh Husain succeeded him and his general Bába Ahmad plundered Deráwar, the country round Bhutta Wáhan and the tract which now forms Kárdári Sádiqábád. In revenge the Dáhrs, aided by the Baloch, sacked Sewrai (modern Sarwáhi) in the Arghún kingdom whereupon

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Many *sanads* granted by the Náhars are still held by families of the Dáhr and Chachar tribes, and by the Sayyids of Jánpur in Kárdáris Khánpur and Sádiqábád, which prove that these tracts were once held by the Náhars. Their name is possibly preserved in *Nahrwáli*, a village in Baháwalpur Kárdári.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ Náhar families in Khánpur Kárdári still preserve seals engraved with the names of the Mughal emperors above, and the Náhar rulers below.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Briggs II, p. 37.

Bába Ahmad seized Obaura and annexed it to the Arghún dominions. Further by way of reprisal for a raid by the people of Fatehpur and Deráwar and the Baloches of Sewrai in which a number of Sháh Husain's camels had been stolen, the Bába pillaged those three towns, but on his return he was attacked by the Baloch near Sewrai and received a wound from the effects of which he died at Matíla, now Mírpur in the Sukkar District.

Sháh Husain retaliated by sending fresh forces which devastated the whole country up to Mau Mubárák and on the Baloch submitting to his rule the Arghún frontier was extended to Bhutta Wáhan. Soon after this Sháh Husain married a daughter of the Khalífa Nizám-ud-dín, Bábar's minister, which brought him into alliance with that emperor then engaged in subjugating the Punjab. Bábar invited Sháh Husain to occupy Multán and marching along the bank of the Indus, by the route which Chach and Muhammad Ibn Qásim had taken centuries before him, the Arghún advanced on Sewrai, which the Baloch abandoned and took refuge in Uch. Having destroyed the fort at Sewrai Sháh Husain advanced to Mau Mubárák, devastating the country and massacring all the inhabitants who fell into his hands. From Mau he proceeded to Lar, whose chief Nanda, the Dáhr, submitted, and thence to Uch where he defeated the combined forces of the Baloches and Langáhs though they greatly outnumbered the invaders. He then occupied Uch whose inhabitants were terrified by the sight of their leaders' heads borne on the lances of the Arghún cavalry and made but a faint resistance. All the Baloches and Langáhs found in Uch were put to the sword, and the massacre and pillage of the town was only stopped at the intercession of the Sayyids. The fortifications of Uch were destroyed and having thus made the place defenceless Sháh Husain advanced on Multán. On hearing this Mahmúd Sháh, the king of Multán, deputed one Shaikh Bahá-ud-dín Qoraishi with Maulána Bahlol to wait upon Sháh Husain and remonstrate against his further advance. Husain however replied that he was commissioned by Bábar the Pádsháh and also desired to visit the shrine of Shaikh Bahá-ud-dín Zakariya, and continued his advance.⁽⁵⁷⁾ Multán fell after a long siege⁽⁵⁸⁾ and Sháh Husain placing Khwája Shams-ud-dín, one of his *amírs*, in charge of the fort and nominating Lashkar Khán Langáh, the deserter, his deputy, returned to Thattha, whereupon Lashkar Khán expelled Shams-ud-dín and assumed the title of governor.⁽⁵⁹⁾ To assure his northern frontier Sháh Husain rebuilt the walls of Uch and left a considerable garrison in the place. He himself intended to return to Sind, but learning that a vast treasure was concealed in the fort of Deráwar he summoned Gházi Khán who held it for the Rájá of Jaisalmer

(57) Briggs, III, p. 397.

(58) 15 months according to one account, Briggs III, p. 435, 'some months' according to one Maulána Sadulla of Lahore, who was present. *Ibid*, p. 399.

(59) So Farishta, Briggs III, p. 400, quoting the eye-witness. But Farishta in his history of Husain Arghún says the inhabitants rebelled and made one Shamsheer Khán governor, and that he expelled Shams-ud-dín. *Ibid*, p. 436. In any event Sháh Husain was too weak or unwilling for some reason to punish this revolt.

CHAP. I. B. to surrender the stronghold. Gházi Khán however refused to
History. betray his trust and Sháh Husain marched on Deráwar, sending in advance a force under Sambal Khán to seek a place for the main army to encamp. The scarcity of water compelled that leader to sink 300 wells in the Hakra, and the army was thereby able to lay siege to the place and destroy the walls by mines, but eventually it was carried by assault, the Arghúns placing their shields on their heads and scaling the walls sword in hand. Its defenders were put to the sword and the treasure found in the place divided between the king and his army.

- 1530 A. D. The emperor Bábar died in 937 H. leaving his son Kámrán, governor of Kábul and Qandhár, and Humáyún, Bábar's eldest son and successor, further relinquished the Punjab and the country on the Indus to Kámrán, whose deputies governed Multán till his death in 1535. Meanwhile in 947 H. the emperor Humáyún had been entirely dispossessed of his territories by Sher Sháh Súrí and turned his thoughts to Sind, then under Husain Arghún, hoping to find support in that territory, once subject to Delhi. Humáyún encamped near Uch, but Bakshshwi Langáh who was governor of Multán under Husain Langáh refused to permit him to enter the town or to interview him in person, though he supplied him with boats to cross the Indus. For two and-a-half years, from 947 to 1540 A. D. Humáyún remained in Sind vainly negotiating with Husain Arghún, who played off Mirza Yádgár, Nasír Humáyún's uncle, against him. In the Moharram of 949 H. he marched to Uch, and thence *via* Deráwar and Warsalpur to Phalodí intending to enter the Marwar territory, but fearing treachery, took refuge in Amrkot where Akbar was born. Humáyún thence fled to Qandhár. Thereafter Sháh Husain entered into a close alliance with Kámrán to whom he gave a daughter in marriage. 1540-1542 A. D. Nine years later in 966 H. Husain died and the Arghún dynasty became extinct.⁽⁶⁰⁾ After the death of Husain Arghún Sind was divided between two of his governors, Mahmúd and Mirza Isa Tarkhán, the latter of whom held Bhakkar, but after Akbar's accession to the throne of Delhi his generals Muhib Ali and Mujahid wrested it from Mahmúd and its territory was annexed to Multán 1542 A. D. 1545 A. D. 1554 A. D. in 982 H.

After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 A. D., the Hans tribe, whose seats were at Malká Hans and Shafí Hans, now in the Montgomery District, took possession of the Dhaddar *iláqa* in the west of Kárdárá Khairpur-East. The Lakhwera sept of the Joyás under Salím Khán and his son Faríd Khán held on lease from the governor of Multán the whole of the Kathala *iláqa*, and the Wattús and other tribes of the Ubbhá paid revenue to them. They also established their overlordship over the Bhattís, and over the Dhaddís of Umarpur (now in the Montgomery District). But as Salím Khán and his son ruled oppressively the former was arrested and sent to Delhi, and his village of Salímgarb, now Múrí Shauq

(60) Briggs, III, p. 437.

Sháh was levelled to the ground. Faríd Khán also was constantly in revolt and is said to have fought twenty-one engagements with the Mughal governors of Multán, but he eventually submitted, and paid tribute to them for his estate of Shahr Faríd. During these troubles the Dhuddís rose to considerable power, and took possession of a large part of the Ubbhá where many legends are still told of the wars waged by them.

CHAP. I. B.
History.

Before the Dáúdpoitrás rose to power the territory which forms the modern State of Baháwalpur was held as described below :—

Baháwalpur
before the
rise of the
Dáúdpoitrás.

1. A large part of Kárdáris Sádiqábád and some part of Khánpur Kárdáris was held by Núr Muhammad Kalhorá, also called Khudáyár Khán.
2. The forts of Winjbroth, Bhímwar, Deráwar, Marot, and the country round the two latter, with most of the southern parts of Kárdáris Sádiqábád and Khánpur belonged to Jaisalmer.
3. Uch was an appanage of Multán but the Bukháris and Giláni Makhdúms exercised a secular authority which was strengthened by their spiritual sanctity.
4. A large part of the Baháwalpur Kárdáris and a part of the Ubbhá was under the governor of Multán.
5. The *iláqa* of Shahr Faríd was ruled by Faríd Khán II Lakhwera.
6. At the close of the 17th century most of the Wattús of Minchinábád paid tribute direct to the court of Delhi, but some were subject to the ruler of Shahr Faríd.
7. The forts of Wallbar, Phúlrá, Anúpgarh with the adjacent territory, were held by the Rájá of Bikaner, Zoráwar Singh.

THE ABBASI DÁÚDPOITRÁS.

The history of the Dáúdpoitrás seeks to connect itself with one of the most curious and interesting episodes of Indian history, and gives a highly circumstantial and intrinsically not improbable explanation of the title Abbási. In 1343 (744 H.) Mubammad Ibn Tughlaq, king of Delhi, considering that no king or prince could exercise regal power without confirmation by the Khalífa of the race of Abbas, and that every king who had or should hereafter reign, without such confirmation had been or would be overpowered, solicited⁽⁶¹⁾ and received a diploma of investiture from the Khalífa of Egypt. His successor the enlightened Fíroz Sháh III was similarly invested in 1356.⁽⁶²⁾ After the death of Al Mustansír-billáh his descendants for four generations from Sultán Yasín to Sháh Muzammil remained in Egypt, but the latter's son Sultán Ahmad II left that country between 1366 and 1370 A. D. in the reign of Abu-l-Fath al M'utazid-billáh Abu Bakr the sixth Abbáside Khalífa of Egypt and came to

(61) E. H. I. III, p. 249.

(62) Do. IV, p. 9.

CHAP. I. B. Sindh by way of Kíeh and Mekrán hoping to find supporters at the court of Delhi.

History.

In the Bhangár territory a Hindu Rájá, Rai Dhorang Sáhta attempted to check his progress, but eventually submitted and gave him a third of his territory, with his daughter in marriage, and the earlier Arab immigrants acknowledged his authority. Amír Ahmad Khán II constructed canals and sank wells in his new principality. He was succeeded by his son Abú Násir or Amír Ibn who succeeded in defeating Rai Jhakrá, the son of Rai Dhorang and his ally Rai Lákhá Sammá, ruler of Kot Kángra. On the death of Abú Násir, Abdul Qáhir succeeded him. He conquered the fort of Párkár from Gauhar Khán, who submitted and gave him his daughter in marriage. The fort was accordingly restored to him but Qáhir appointed a *mutamid* to collect the revenue of the conquered territory. Abdul Qáhir was succeeded by Amír Sikandar or Sangrasi Khán, during whose reign there were no conflicts with the neighbouring tribes and peace prevailed.

Abdul Qáhir
or Qáhir
Khán.

Amír Sikan-
dar Khán.

Amír Fath-
ulláh Khán or
Thull Khán.

Seeing the rising power of the Abbási Amírs, the neighbouring kings and rulers became jealous of them, and on the death of Amír Sikandar Khán, Rájá Dallú Wattá, ruler of Rowar and Bahmanábád, attacked the Amír Fath-ulláh Khán while he was still a minor and caused a formidable rebellion of the Sáhta tribe, his subjects. Amír Fath-ulláh Khán was obliged to abandon Bhangár and eventually established himself with his subjects in the delta, which was in the possession of the Gujjars who submitted without resistance. To this new possession he gave the name of Qáhir Bela to preserve his ancestor's memory, overcoming the hill tribes who opposed him.

Amír Bahá-
ullah Khán.

A m í r
Muhammad
Channí Khán.

Amír Baháullah Khán, son of Fath-ulla Khán, further enlarged his dominions. The Sáhta and Sammá tribes of Bhangár, who had revolted presented themselves before him in Qáhir Bela and returned to their allegiance. After his death, the kingdom of Qáhir Bela devolved upon his son Amír Muhammad Channí Khán, and in his reign Sindh was wrested from the Tarkhán dynasty and annexed to the Mughal empire under Akbar. When Prince Murád, the son of that emperor, came to Multán, he issued *firmáns* to the chiefs and Zamíndárs to attend and do homage there. Neither the Tarkháns nor the Arghúns had ever had possession of the whole of Sindh and various parts of southern and western Sindh had been ruled by local chiefs, always at war with, and jealous of one another. Accordingly each of them offered valuable presents to Prince Murád in order to out-bid his rivals. When the Prince learnt the noble origin of Amír Channí Khán's family and his personal qualities he conferred on him the title of *Panjhazári* and directed that the revenue of the *ildáqa* from Ubaura to Lahorí Bandar should be collected by him on behalf of the Delhi Government. He was also granted a large *jágír* and at the Prince's bidding took up his abode in Siwistán and founded a new town which he named Jhankár Bázár or Chakára Bázár.

Besides other tribes, the tribes of Siwistán, the Koreja, Sahtá, Chhína, Abra, and others, became his subjects and after a prosperous reign he died at the age of 150 leaving two sons, Muhammad Mahdí Khán and Dáúd Khán. On his death-bed Muhammad Channí Khán made a will directing that the *dastár-i-amárat* or turban of government should be placed on the head of Amír-záda Muhammad Mahdí Khán and that the Hamáíl Sharíf or holy Qorán and the *tasbik* or rosary (sacred relics) which had been in the possession of the family since the time of the Caliphs should be given to Dáúd Khán.

CHAP. I, B.

History.

Amír
Muhammad
Channí Khán.

Muhammad Mahdí Khán died after a short reign, and on his death disputes arose as to the succession with the result that the Abbási power was greatly diminished. The two claimants to the throne were Kalbora, son of Muhammad Mahdí Khán and Amír Dáúd Khán. The Arab tribes sided with the latter and those of Sind with the former. Ultimately Amír Dáúd Khán was forced by circumstances to withdraw his claim, and abandoning the throne to Kalbora he went with his followers to Wadera Jhangí Khán, the owner of Shahr Wanji, where he founded villages and took to agriculture.

Thus the Abbásis became divided into two branches, the descendants of Kalborá, who became known as the Kalhorás and long ruled over Sind, and those of Dáúd Khán afterwards called the Dáúdpotrás who founded the Baháwalpur State. These branches remained at feud with each other for a very long period as will be shown in due course.

Dáúd Khán, who held a considerable tract of country, was succeeded in turn by Mahmúd Khán, Muhammad Khán I and Amír Dáúd Khán II. In the meantime the numbers of the Abbásis and their kin had so multiplied that they were compelled to seize a larger tract of country and the separation of the Kalhorás and Dáúdpotrás was finally effected in the time of Dáúd Khán II. Amír Salih Muhammad, son of Chandar Khán and grandson of Dáúd Khán II, was a well-intentioned ruler and was recognized as their chief by the Dáúdpotrás and other Abbásis. Salih Khán was succeeded by Haibat Khán and the latter by Amír Bhakkar Khán I.

Amír Dáúd
Khán.

By the time of Amír Bhakkar Khán I the Abbási Dáúdpotrás had spread beyond the limits of Shahr Wanji and his son Bahádur Khán I with the object of increasing the number of his followers and on account of the growing strength of his tribe left Wanji and moved to the town of Mawah, the Zamíndárs of which submitted to him, and for the next three or four generations the Abbási Chiefs remained in their new settlement. Bahádur Khán I was succeeded by Bhakkar Khán II, and the latter by Muhammad Khán II in the headship of the family.

On the death of Muhammad Khán II, Árab Khán, who had abandoned the world, of his own free will placed the *dastár-i-amárat*

Amír Píroz
Khán.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

Amír Bahádur Khán.

on the head of his younger brother Fíroz Khán or Piruj Khán and to him the Abbási Dáúdpotrás paid homage. Since then the chieftainship has been held by his descendants. Fíroz Khán settled in the Taráí *iláqa*. The Abra and Chínna tribes held him in great reverence. He had many sons of whom Bahádur Khán II was the eldest. Bahádur Khán abandoned Taráí and settled in Bhakkar, acquiring a large area on the banks of the Indus from Mirza Khán, who held Sind under the emperor Alamgír, as an *inám*. He founded the town of Shikárpur, still a flourishing town in Sind, and in its territory the canal and dam of Punnún Khán, built by and named after a nephew of Bahádur Khán, are still known by that name.

Meanwhile Nasír Muhammad Kalhorá had collected a large force and made a sudden attack on Bhakkar and Siwistán putting several officials to the sword. Nawáb Mirza Khán, governor of Sind, opposed him but unsuccessfully, and it was not until Prince Muhammad Muizz-ud-dín, the governor of Multán, under orders from Aurangzeb marched a large army against him that he was taken prisoner and sent to Delhi whence he escaped and sought refuge with Amír Bahádur Khán. Mahr Karimdinna, Rais of Lakhi, also attacked Shikárpur but returned discomfited, and the Dáúdpotrás in revenge seized Lakhi and sacked it continuing to make raids on his territory every now and then. Amír Bahádur Khán had not reaped the full fruits of his conquests when he died and was succeeded by his son Muhammad Mubárák Khán I.

Bakhtiyár Khán, son of Mirza Khán, had greatly oppressed his subjects during his father's lifetime, and on his death the whole country rose against Bakhtiyár Khán, compelling him to seek a refuge with Bahádur Khán who on account of their old friendship granted him lands whereon he soon after built Bakhtiyárpur. Bakhtiyár Khán was appointed *Muhafiz Darra*, or Warden of the Siwi and other passes by the emperor of Delhi and being jealous of the rising power of the Abbási Dáúdpotrás and forgetful of Muhammad Mubárák Khán's generous conduct towards him he began to harass them. The Dáúdpotrás thinking it inadvisable to take up arms repaired for a time to Tathí Míran Sháh where they built a stronghold and there sanguinary battles took place between Muhammad Mubárák and the Dahrs and subsequently with Sayyid Arzan Sháh, Rais of the Míran Sháh *iláqa* who was incited by Bakhtiyár Khán to make war on the Amír. Harassed by the aggressions of Bakhtiyár Khán, Amír Muhammad Mubárák Khán complained against him to Prince Muizz-ud-dín at Multán and urged him to dismiss Bakhtiyár Khán from the governorship of Sind, but this request was not granted. Meanwhile when the Amír was at Multán with 300 picked Abbási soldiers, Gházi Khán Mirráni, governor of Dera Gházi Khán, raised the standard of revolt and would certainly have defeated Prince Muizz-ud-dín had not the Amír with his men reached the field in time. With their help the Prince defeated the rebels. The Mirránis had attacked the private

tents of the Prince but by the courage of Sanjar Khán Pirjáni the women were rescued. These services won the Prince's heart and he now treated the Abbásis with due honour and respect. Muhammad Khán took the opportunity to again urge the deposition of Bakhtiyár Khán and to this the Prince agreed. Accordingly, the Prince accompanied by Muhammad Mubárah Khán invaded Shikárpur and encountered Bakhtiyár Khán who was slain by Sanjar Khán Pirjáni. By the Prince's order Bakhtiyár Khán's body was cut into four pieces, one being sent to Bakhtiyárpur, another to Khairpur, a third to Shikárpur, and the fourth to Bhakkar, where they were exposed on the gates of those towns.⁽¹⁾

The Prince entered Shikárpur in great pomp, and after bestowing rewards on Muhammad Mubárah Khán and other Abbásis granted them Shikárpur, Bakhtiyárpur and Khánpur in *jágir* and also entrusted to them the superintendence of the fort and district of Bhakkar.⁽²⁾

These *jágirs* they enjoyed for many years, but at last the Kalhorás envious of their prosperity again commenced war. It will not be out of place to give an account of the Kalhorás here.

After the death of Kalhorá Khán the Kalhorás gradually decreased in power, and for a considerable period remained in obscurity. In 818 H. Adam Muhammad Kalhorá acquired power and even fought against the imperial officials. On his death the Kalhorás again sank into obscurity but Ilyás Muhammad, his grandson, gained a great reputation for asceticism and mysticism (*tasawwuf*) and made many disciples. His son, Nasír Muhammad surpassed his father and was revered by all classes. His son, again, Yár Muhammad Kalhorá, a contemporary of Amír Muhammad Mubárah Khán, acquired extraordinary political influence in Sind, but having attempted to wrest some parts of that country from Muizz-ud-dín he was compelled on that Prince's arrival at Shikárpur to flee to the Cholistán. After the Prince's departure from Shikárpur Yár Muhammad returned to his territories, and finding it impossible to establish a separate kingdom in the face of the combined powers of the Delhi emperor and the Abbási Dáúdpotrás he sent valuable presents and large sums as tribute to Delhi and thus secured the title of Khudáyár Khán.⁽³⁾ After his receipt of this title Yár

(1) According to the Tazkarat-ul-Malúk Bakhtiyár's death occurred in January 1113 H., or 1702 A.D.

(2) The succession of Shah Alam gave peace to the Empire for three or four years, but when Muizz-ud-dín deposed him and ascended the throne as Jahándár Sháh only to be in turn deposed a few months later by Farrukh Siyar, confusion again ensued. The Sayyid Abdulla Khán Bahra became Subahdár of Multán and Thatha, but exercised his authority by deputy and in 1714 Ajit Singh, the Rájput, and the Emperor's son-in-law became Subahdár of Thatha but he never went there, and thus enabled the Latis to acquire considerable power, p. 621.

(3) He was also appointed a *mansabdár* of the Empire, and in 1736-7 received charge of the Province of Thatha with the southern part of Bhakkar.

Raverty calls Khudáyár Khán the head of the Latis called by some the Dudaian Latián or Dudai Latis, a Jat sept, whose ancestors were Darweshes and disciples of the Sayyid Muhammad, a noted Muhammadan teacher of Janpur in (Khánpur

CHAP. I. B. Muhammad became still more aggressive and began to encroach on his neighbour's territories. He also fought a pitched battle with the Amír Muhammad Mubarak Khán at Shikárpur, but subsequently peace was concluded between them.

History.

In 1718 A. D. Yár Muhammad Kalhorá died, and in 1719 his son, Núr Muhammad Kalhorá ascended the throne. He employed every device to wrest Shikárpur from Muhammad Mubarak but without success. In 1723 A. D., however, the latter abdicated in favour of his son Sádiq Muhammad Khán and celebrated the occasion by a feast to which he invited all the Abbásis.

Núr Muhammad Kalhorá sought to take advantage of this opportunity and collecting about 60,000 men horse and foot, he advanced to Larkáná with the intention of attacking Shikárpur, but on being informed of the preparations which the Abbásis were making to meet him he abandoned his design. Nevertheless he soon after advanced suddenly on Shikárpur and invested it for six months, but a treaty was eventually made by which the besieged agreed to transfer half the revenue of Shikárpur and Khánpur to Núr Muhammad and peace having thus been concluded the siege was raised.

Six months later Núr Muhammad Kalhorá again placed a large army under Fateh Khán Kalhorá who invested Shikárpur. Numbers were killed on both sides, but at last the besiegers were compelled to raise the siege. Yet only nine months later Núr Muhammad Kalhorá once more despatched a formidable army under his brother Muhammad Khán Kalhorá, but the Abbási Dáúdpotrás coming out of Shikárpur gave him battle and he was utterly defeated. The victors returned with all their booty. These defeats exasperated Núr Muhammad Kalhorá and he ordered all his troops to muster at Khudábád. For the fifth time, in 1139 H., at the head of a very large force, he marched on Shikárpur in person. But shortly before this Muhammad Mubarak Khán had died and Sádiq Muhammad Khán now on the throne, finding himself unable to withstand the overwhelming forces of the enemy, abandoned Shikárpur and repaired to the fort of Khánpur which he greatly strengthened. Núr Muhammad entered Shikárpur without opposition, and while he himself remained there, sent a force in pursuit of Amír Sádiq Muhammad Mubarak Khán who, thinking it inadvisable to meet so

1726 A. D.

Kárdári). He also derives Lati from the Hindi *lat* signifying tangle or clotted hair, but General Haig more plausibly derives it from *lat* a Sindhi word meaning 'club.' One of the Dúdais' ancestors, Harmus, took up his abode with the Abrahms, a tribe which had from ancient times been petty rulers of a tract in Sind, and having married a daughter of the tribe he was assigned a part of its territory and gradually became its chief. His descendant Shaikh Nasir acquired still greater authority over the Abrahms, and after his death Dín Muhammad, his son, assumed authority over the parts of Upper Sind inhabited by the tribe towards the end of Alamgir's reign. Dín Muhammad did not present himself before Prince Muizz-ud-dín until he had received a safe-conduct written in a Qorán, under which he visited the Prince, but was detained, a force being sent to bring in the rest of the Latis. Yár Muhammad, his younger brother, however, took refuge in the hills and repulsed the force and the Prince returned, keeping Dín Muhammad in captivity, to Multán.

large a force, vacated Khánpur and went with his tribe to Bet-Dabli, now in the Dera Gházi Khán District, which was a fertile island in the Indus. A detachment was sent in pursuit by the Kalhorá chief, but routed with great loss, many being drowned in the river, and only a few escaped to Khuda-ábád.

We have now reached that period in the history of the Abbásis when the modern history of the Baháwalpur State begins to emerge. As already described at the time of their advent it was split up into several petty States and it remains to describe how they subdued these States and welded them into a united kingdom.

Amír Sádiq
Muhammad
Khán.

Amír Sádiq Muhammad Khán I, on being invited by the Bukhári and Gilám Makhdúms of Uch, left Bet-Dabli, and came to Uch. Shortly after in 1141 H., he received the *iláqa* of Chaudhari in *jágir* from Nawáb Hayát-ullah Khán, Subadár of Multán. In this *iláqa* he effected many improvements and laid the foundations of Allahabad, now a wealthy and populous town, three miles from the town of Chaudhari. In 1145 H. at the instance of Hayátulla Khán he attacked Faríd Khán Lakhwerá who was plundering the surrounding country, and having defeated him received as his reward a *sanad* conferring on him the government of the Shahr Faríd *iláqa*. In 1146 H. he also wrested the fort of Deráwar from Ráwal Akhí Singh.

1732 A. D.

1733 A. D.

In 1152 Nádir Sháh invaded the Deráját by the Bangash route, and all the chiefs on his way tendered allegiance to him. The Amír went to meet him at Dera Gházi Khán and was granted by him the title of Nawáb. On the Sháh's invading Sindh, Khudáyár Khán Kalhorá fled to Guzerát, but was taken prisoner at Umarkot. Nádir however released him on the 20th Zilhijj 1152 H., and partitioned Sind among the following chiefs:—

1739 A. D.

To Khudáyár Khán Lati Abbási—Tattha and other *mahals* of Sind, with the title of Sháh Quli Khán.

To Amír Sádiq Muhammad Khán—Shikárpur, *pargana* Lar-kána, Siwistán, Chhatar, together with the *iláqas* of Chaudhari, Deráwar, etc., now in the Baháwalpur State.

To Muhabbat Khan—the western part of Sind adjoining *Balochistán*. No sooner however had Nádir Sháh left Sind than Khudáyár Khán Kalhorá thinking that he was engrossed in distant conquest resolved to attack Shikárpur, and on the 10th of Rabi-ul-Awwal 1159 H., he laid siege to it. After a stubborn contest Amír Sádiq Muhammad Khán was killed.

1746 A. D.

The possessions of Sádiq Muhammad Khán and the other Dáúdpotrá chiefs now were as follows:—Prior to Nádir's invasion they had held Chaudhari with Alláhábád and Fort Deráwar with their dependencies: and after it they had held the *iláqa* of Shikárpur granted them by Nádir in 1739 A. D., but seized by the Kalhorás on Sádiq Muhammad Khán's death: they also held Goth

CHAP. I. B. Jhorá⁽¹⁾ now in Sádiqábád Kárdári, Khairpur⁽²⁾ Tanwínwálá, and
 History. Shahr Faríd with its dependencies. Thus under Sádiq Muhammad Khán the Dáúdpotrás held the country between Goth Jhorá and Shahr Faríd, a tract about 200 miles in length.

Sádiq Muhammad Khán I left three sons Muhammad Baháwal Khán, Mubárák Khán, and Fateh Khán, of whom the first named was elected by the tribe and placed on the throne. He was the second Nawáb, and under the title of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán I ascended the throne on the 1st of Rabi-us-Sani 1159 H. He was successful to a great extent in organizing and re-populating both his old and new possessions, but his enemies Waderá Muhammad Khán Kehráni, Bahádur Khán Haláni and others were jealous of his prosperity and induced Sáhíbzáda Mubárák Khán to revolt, but before the opposing forces, which lay in the vicinity of Lál Sohánra, had actually come to blows the Sáhíbzáda tendered his submission. Upon this the Dáúdpotrá rebels fled to the west of the State, where Ali Murád Khán Pirjáni became almost independent and a considerable number of Dáúdpotrás joined him.

1747 A. D. In 1160 H., Ráwal Rái Singh, with the help of Nawáb Hayát-ulláh Khán, Subadár of Multán, Makhdúm Shaikh Ráju Ráis of Sítpur, and Khudáyár Khán Kalhorá (Shah Qulí Khán) retook Deráwar.

1747-48 A. D. In 1162 H., on the appointment of Diwán Kaurá Mal as Subadár of Multán Janesar Khán, the ruler of Dera Gházi Khán, revolted and Mu'in-ud-dín, Subadár of Lahore, ordered the Diwán to suppress the outbreak, but he was powerless to effect anything single-handed and accordingly solicited help from Muhammad Baháwal Khán. This the Nawáb afforded and the combined forces attacked Dera Gházi Khán and expelled Janesar Khán. As a reward for this assistance the Nawáb obtained from Diwán Kaurá Mal a perpetual lease of *talúqa* Adam Wáhan and in that tract he made the Baháwal-wáh canal.

During this reign in 1748 A. D. Baháwalpur was founded and several other towns built including Qáumpur, Hásilpur, Təranda Ali Murád Khán, Sháhbázipur and Muhammadpur Lamma. The Nawáb also cut a canal, from the Ghárá to Paharhala, now called the Khánwah or Nangni. The Qutbwáh was also dug by one son of the founder of Ahmadpur East and the Wahi Qádir Dimna Khán by another. Muhammad Baháwal Khán I died on the 7th of
 1749 A. D. Rajb 1163 H.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD MUBARAK KHAN, THE THIRD NAWAB.

Date of accession,—7th Rajb 1163 H. (1749 A. D.).

As Nawáb Baháwal Khán had left no issue he was succeeded by his brother Mubárák Khán with the unanimous assent of the

(1) Founded by Jhorá in 1157 H. or 1744 A.D.

(2) Founded by Waderá Muhammad Maráf Khán Kehráni in 1154 H.

Dáúdpoṭras. Soon after his accession (1164 H.) the Nawáb with the aid of Muhammad Marúf Khán Wadera of Khairpur, Qáim Khán Arbáni of Qáimpur and Hásil Khán of Hásilpur wrested Marot from Jaisalmír. He also effected conquests north and west of the Sutlej and Panjnad. Madwálí and its dependencies and Sháhní Bakrí, now in the Muzaffargarh District, were wrested from the Náhrs and the Bet Doma *iláqa* from Makhdúm Shaikh Rájú of Sítpur in 1164 H. The Nawáb also subdued the country opposite the present Kárdári of Minchinábád as far as Pákpattan which included the Kachhi *iláqa* with the villages of Pír Ghani, &c., now in the Montgomery District, and the *iláqas* of Lodhrán and Mailsi, including the important towns of Dunyápur and Kahrór, now in the Multán District.

CHAP. I, B.

History.

1749 A.D.

In 1751 Sardár Jahán Khán, a general of Ahmad Shah Abdáli, attacked Uch, whereupon Nawáb Muhammad Mubárák Khán garrisoned Maujgarh, Marot and Phúlra with Dáúdpoṭras and ordered all his troops to muster in Khairpur. From Uch, Jahán Khán advanced on Baháwalpur and despatched 8,000 men to Khairpur, but in the battle which ensued this force was defeated and the victors pursued it to Lál Sohánra. Jahán Khán then consented to make peace and returned to Multán by the Fatehpur ferry.⁽²⁾

1751-2 A.D.

The Dáúdpoṭra chiefs, who were in ill-defined subjection to the Nawáb, were also actively engaged in conquest and colonization during this reign. Phúlra was re-built by Karm Khán, son of Qáim Khán Arbáni. Ikhtiyár Khán Mundbáni seized Garhi Shádi Khán from the Kalhorás and re-named it after himself. Baláwal Khán Pirjáni founded Khairpur-Nauranga and cleared the Dajla-nála, a canal dug by Aurangzeb and after him called the Auranga or Nauranga-wáh. Dingarh fort was founded by Ibrahim, son of Ma'rúf Khán Kehrání, and completed by Khudá Bakhsh Khán his nephew.⁽³⁾

1752 A.D.

1753 A.D.

1753 A.D.

1756 A.D.

In 1164 H. Muhammadpur Lamma was built by Muhammad Khán, grandson of Mundhú Khán Kehrání who also dug the Muhammadwáh canal.

1759.

1760 A.D.

On the Shikárpur boundary Sabzal Khán Kehrání founded Sabzal Kot and also dug the Sabzal-wáh canal.

1767 A.D.

Meanwhile the Nawáb had erected the fort of Mubárákpur⁽⁴⁾ near Shahr Faríd to overawe the Joiyas, and six years later he

1767 A.D.

(1) Cf. Cunningham's History of the Sikhs, pp. 120-21; also Montgomery Gazetteer, p. 39; Sádiq-ut-Tawárikh, p. 170; and Mirát-i-Daulat-i-Abbásiya, Vol. I.

(2) The exact date of the inroad of Jahán Khán is not known: Shahámat Ali says that when Ali (Wali) Muhammad Khán, Khákwáni was appointed Governor of Dera (and Multán) he induced his master Ahmad Sháh Abdáli to despatch Jahán Khán against the Dáúdpoṭra territory. Now Ali Muhammad Khán was appointed Governor in 1165 H. (1751 A.D.) so Jahán Khán's invasion must have taken place about this date, say, in 1751 or 1751-2, vide Shahámat Ali, page 38.

(3) The Mirát-i-Daulat-i-Abbásiya however says that Dingadh was founded by Faal Ali Khán and Bahádar Khán Halánis.

(4) Mubárákpur, between Sammasatta and Ahmadpur East, was also founded by the Nawáb in this year.

CHAP. I. B. attempted to fortify Tada-Wallhar, which had been leased to him by Bikāner, but the Rájá objected to the proposed fortifications and a war ensued in which the Nawáb was victorious. He then built the fort of Sardágarh on the ruins of Wallhar to commemorate his victory. The Nawáb himself also constructed the Mubárah-wáh, Sardár-wáh, Khán-wáh and some smaller canals, which are still flowing, in the Lodhrán and Mailsi *ilāqas*. Derawar was also restored to him on payment of half its revenue by Rawal Rai Singh in 1173 H. and in the same year he took Anúpgarh by stratagem from Rájá Gaj Singh of Bikāner who however re-took it in the following year. Winjhrot also fell into his hands in 1174. It had been repaired in 1757 by Warya Khán Jamráni who began levying tolls on caravans, but in 1759 Ali Murád Khán Pirjáni wrested it from him and revolted in the following year. The Nawáb accordingly seized the fort and annexed its territory.

1763 A.D. Mad-Manthár was founded in 1763 by Manthár Núhání in Sádiqábád Kárdári and Bhímwar was taken by Ikhtiyár Khán Mundhání, who had corrupted the garrison of Ráwal Múlráj of Jaisalmír, and renamed Islámgarh. In 1761 Ghulám Sháh Kalhorá invaded the State in resentment at its having afforded an asylum to his brother Atar Khán whom he had ousted from Sind. Ghulám Sháh advanced as far as Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán, but returned to his own country on its being agreed that Atar Khán should be made over to him.

1766 A.D. Meanwhile the Bhangi Sikhs were becoming alarmed at the rising power of the Dáúdpotras, and in 1766. Jhanda Singh, Ganda Singh and Hari Singh invaded the Nawáb's trans-Sutlej territories, but after an indecisive action Pákpattan was fixed as the boundary between the two States.⁽¹⁾ Five years later the Sikhs under Ganda Singh and Majja Singh invaded the Multán territory and extended their raids into the Dáúdpotra country on the right bank of the Ghara. The Dáúdpotras, under Sáhíbzáda Jafar Khán (subsequently Nawáb Baháwal Khan II), met the enemy near Kahrór; when Majja Singh was killed and the Sikhs abandoned the field.

In the time of Muhammad Mubárah Khán the State prospered considerably but it must be remembered that though he was the titular Nawáb of the whole State yet he was not its absolute ruler, for the tracts held by the Pirjáni, Kehrání, Arbání, Halání, Mundhání, Marúfání and other Kháns were ruled by them independently. The State was in fact a confederation of several petty principalities, each of whose rulers enjoyed administrative as well as proprietary rights, under the nominal headship of the Nawáb.

1772 A.D. Muhammad Mubárah Khán after ruling successfully for 24 years, died childless on the 3rd of Rabi-ul-Awwal 1186 H.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD BAHAWAL KHAN II, THE FOURTH NAWAB.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

Date of accession :—4th Rabi-us-Sání, 1186 Hijri (1772 A. D.)

Nawáb Mubárák Khán was succeeded by J'afar Khán, son of his brother Fateh Khán, who had been born on the very day that news of the death of Núr Mubammad Kalhorá, the Nawáb's most formidable enemy, reached the State. This coincidence was deemed to render his birth so auspicious that he was adopted by the Nawáb and although Fateh Khán had survived his brother, the Dáúdputra brotherhood elected J'afar Khán to the throne instead of his father. He was then aged 20 and assumed the title of Mubammad Baháwal Khán II.

In 1771 A. D. Jhanda Singh attempted the conquest of Multán, and when Háji Sharíf Beg Tuglú, the Súbadár, asked for aid from Baháwalpur, the Dáúdputra forces advanced to Multán and repulsed the Sikhs. In the following year, however, Ganda Singh Bhangi wrested Multán from Háji Sharíf and five years later Shujá Khán, the governor of Shujábád, sought the Nawáb's aid in its recovery. The Nawáb accordingly led a force to Shujábád, whence he advancing with Shujá Khán invested Multán. After a siege of 23 days the allies entered the place on the 8th of Zilbijj, put all the Bhangis to the sword and plundered the town. The Dáúdputra forces then returned to Baháwalpur, but as the Bhangis shortly after received reinforcements from Lahore, the Nawáb was unable to retain Multán.

1772 A. D.

1777 A. D.

In 1195 H. Sháh Alam II, King of Delhi, sent Sayyid Kázim Ali Khán Bárá to the Nawáb with a *firmán*, authorizing him to administer the Kachhi, and valuable *khillats*; conferring on him the title of 'Rukn-ud-Daula, Nusrat-i-Jang, Háfiz-ul-Mulk.'⁽¹⁾

1780 A. D.

The Nawáb was able to enlarge his territories by judicious matrimonial alliances. He received Khairpur-Nauranga (with the Nauranga-wáh) with the daughter of Khair Muhammad Khán Pirjáni and Ahmadpur East (with the Qutb-wáh) as the dower of the daughter of Muhabbat Khán, son of Ahmad Khán Pirjáni. He also seized *pargana* Jatoi⁽²⁾ (now in the Muzaffargarh District) appointing Suhráb Khán Mahr as its Kárdár, and in 1790 the Indus, which had till that year met the Chenáb at Uch, changed its course to the west and began to flow in its present bed. By this change the southern part of the present Muzaffargarh District was exposed to the aggressions of the Nawáb and he was enabled to wrest the villages of Alipur, Shahr Sultán, Sítpur and Khairpur from the Makhdúms of Sítpur. *Talúgas* Arain, Kinjhir, Khoran,

1780 A. D.

1782 A. D.

The trans-
Sutlej and
Panjnad oc-
cupants.

1781 A. D.

(1) Lit. 'pillar of the empire; victorious in battle; protector of the country.'

(2) The author of the *Tárikh-i-Murád*, Vol. III, p. 469, says that the *pargana* in question was leased from the governor of Dera Gházi Khán, but this does not seem to be correct. The tradition is that it was conquered from the Makhdúms of Sítpur, a fact corroborated by the Muzaffargarh Gazetteer, p. 36.

CHAP. I. B. **History.** Mahra, Seri and Tarand, which form the south-western part of the present Muzaffargarh Tahsíl, were also conquered by the Nawáb from the governor of Dera Gházi Khán, between 1790 and 1800 A. D. With the *iláqa* of Tahsíl Alipur they were known as the Kachhi-Janúbi (or Southern Kachhi), the northern portion, called the Shimáli Kachhi, being in the possession of the Nawábs of the Thal.

1783 A. D. In 1198 H. the Nawáb repaired and enlarged the fort of Winjhrot and in the same year erected a fort 24 *kos* south of Deráwar which he called Khángarh, ordering that merchandise, which used to be exported from the State *viâ* Maujgarh, should thenceforward be sent *viâ* Khángarh.

1784 A. D. In 1784 he conquered the village of Shidáni (now in the Khán Bela *peshkári*) from Háji Ikhtiyár Khán.

As to conquests and colonization made by the other scions of the Dáúdputra family during this reign see Chap. IV, and the *Dáúdputras* in Sec. C. of this Chapter.

1785 A. D. In 1200 H. Tímúr Sháh sent Sardár Madad Khán Durráni to subdue Sind, but Abd-un-Nabi Kalhorá, Núr Muhammad Khán M'arúfáni, Khuda Bakhsh Khán and other Raíses of Khairpur persuaded him to lead his force against Baháwalpur. The Nawáb accordingly garrisoned Deráwar and with the aid of the Arbánis, Ghumránis and other Dáúdputras strengthened the Cholistán forts. On arriving at Baháwalpur Madad Khán plundered the town and levelled its buildings with the ground. He then sent a force against Deráwar, but the Nawáb despatched troops under Fazl Ali Khán Haláni to meet it and he completely defeated it. Incensed by this defeat Madad Khán advanced on Deráwar in person, but returned discomfited and went on to Sind.

Invasion of
Tímúr Sháh,
King of Ká-
bul.

1785 A. D.

Three years later Tímúr Sháh in person visited Khángarh intending to regulate affairs in Sind. The Mundháni and M'arúfáni Dáúdputras seized this opportunity to incite him against the Nawáb and induced him to occupy Baháwalpur. The Nawáb, unable to encounter the powerful Durráni monarch, again abandoned Baháwalpur and took refuge in Deráwar, whence he repaired to Sardágarh and Winjhrot. Tímúr Sháh took possession of Deráwar and garrisoned it with a regiment under Sháh Muhammad Khán Bádozai, but the Túránis having raised disturbances in Kábul he was compelled to hasten thither, and he had not gone far beyond Dera Gházi Khán when he learnt that the Nawáb had overwhelmed the Deráwar garrison and retaken Baháwalpur. The garrison consisted of Afgháns of the Práng tribe, which was settled in the Sitpur *iláqa* and the Nawáb, having sent 300 boats, captured all their women and children, and then advancing on Deráwar showed them their wives and children, all of whom he threatened to kill if they did not surrender. The garrison in despair made over the fort to the Nawáb on condition that their families should be restored to them,

and in fulfilment of this condition the Nawáb allowed them to evacuate the fort and pass through his territory unmolested. CHAP. I. B.
History.

On returning to Kábul Tímúr Sháh had taken with him as a hostage the Sáhibzáda Mubárák Khán, and on hearing of the fall of Deráwar he not only refrained from injuring him but conferred on him the title of Sarbuland Khán and loaded him with favours, granting him the State of Baháwalpur by a *firmán*. By this policy Tímúr hoped to set the prince against his father and thus weaken the Abbási power, but the Nawáb took the precaution of making the prince a prisoner on his return, then crossing the Panjnad, promptly attacked Dera Gházi Khán and seized a large part of the territory under the Súbadár of Multán. He also besieged Dera Gházi Khán fort, rescued the Dáúdpotras whom Tímúr Sháh had imprisoned there, and recovered the cannon which had been taken by him at Baháwalpur.

Invasion of
Tímúr Sháh,
King of Ká-
bul.
1788 A. D.

Makhdúm Hámid Ganj Bakhsh of Uch Giláni, who had intrigued with the Kalhorás against the Nawáb, now allied himself with the turbulent chiefs of the Mundhání and Ma'rúfání tribes, made determined efforts to disturb the peace of the Nawáb's territories and caused the *iláqa* of Ahmadpur East to be plundered by dacoits. His subsequent acts indeed showed him to be insane, and in 1797 with the assent of his relations the Nawáb resolved to make him a prisoner. On hearing of this intention the Makhdúm fled to Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán whence he implored the aid of Rájá Súrat Singh of Bikaner, Nawáb Muzaffar Khán, Súbadár of Multán and Zamán Sháh, King of Kábul. In the following year, however, the Nawáb seized and confined him in his own *diwán-kháná*, but he soon effected his escape and took refuge in the fort of Rám Kali, midway between Uch and Goth Channi, whence he began to carry his depredations into the neighbourhood of Ahmadpur East.

Raids of
Makhdúm
Hámid Ganj
Bakhsh.

While Makhdúm Hámid Ganj Bakhsh was thus in arms against the Nawáb, Khudá Bakhsh Khán raised a revolt. He intrigued with the Kehráni, Jamáni, Tayyibáni, Hasnání, Arbáni and Ma'rúfání Dáúdpotras and also prevailed upon Súrat Singh of Bikaner to invade the State. In 1799 he succeeded in rescuing Prince Mubárák Khán from Deráwar, induced him to join in the revolt and on the 20th of Jamádi-us-Sáni proclaimed him ruler of Baháwalpur and performed his coronation ceremony. He then made overtures to Karm Khán Arbáni and Háji Khán Mundhání and they promised to aid him in an attack on the Nawáb. Khudá Bakhsh Khán, and the prince, with the Dáúdpotra and Bikaner forces, were soon encamped in force in the Masitán Garden two miles from Baháwalpur, when Makhdúm Ganj Bakhsh also joined them. The Nawáb despatched Sáhibzáda Abdulla Khán (afterwards Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II) against the rebels and on the 19th of Ramazán he defeated them. Khudá Bakhsh Khán and Prince Mubárák Khán escaped to Bikaner, and the Makhdúm and the

Revolt of
Khudá
Bakhsh Ma'-
rúfání and
Prince Mubá-
rak Khán.

CHAP. I. B. Dáúdpotra Kháns also fled. Next year however Khudá Bakhsh
History. Khán and Rájá Súrát Singh again invaded Baháwalpur. They
 took the fort of Wallhar in 1801 A.D.; and Phulra, Mirgarh, Mauj-
Further garh and Marot soon fell in succession to the Rájá. He and Khudá
invasions of Bakhsh then advanced on Khairpur and the Nawáb sent Abdulla
Khudá Khán to oppose them, but well-wishers of both sides intervened
Bakhsh Khán and Súrát Singh. 1800
and Súrát A. D. and Súrát Singh returned after receiving an indemnity for his ex-
Singh. penses in the war.

Coinage. In 1217 H. the Nawáb with the permission of Sháh Mahmúd of
1802 A. D. Kábul, who sent him valuable *khillats* and the title of Mukhlis-ud-
 Daula opened a mint at Baháwalpur and struck gold, silver
 and copper coins, inscribed on the obverse—*Humayún Sháh*
Mahmúd, and on the reverse—*Dár-us-Surúr Baháwalpúr*.⁽¹⁾ Prior
 to this the State had no coinage of its own

Háji Khán In 1217 H. Háji Khán Mundháni, Raís of Garhi Ikhtiyár
Mundháni's Khán, raised disturbances and the Nawáb sent Nasír Khán Gorgej
revolt, 1803 to chastise him. Nasír Khán crossed the Indus and took the
A. D. forts of Sáhnowála and Naushahra, and though Háji Khán ten-
 dered his submission the Nawáb annexed his dependencies leaving
 him only in possession of the unconquered part of his territory.

1804 A. D. In 1804 Sháh Shuja-ul-Mulk, the fifth son of Timúr Sháh,
 marched to the Indus to regulate the affairs of the Deraját and
 Mukhdúm Hámid Ganj Bakhsh, Fazl Ali Khán Haláni, Islám Khán
 Kehráni and Háji Khán Mundháni waited on him at Rájanpur with
 complaints against the Nawáb, urging that he should be made to
 restore the territories conquered from them. Shujá-ul-Mulk
 deputed Ahmad Khán Núrzái to compel their restoration and the
 Dháka *ilāqá* was surrendered to Háji Khán, but Ahmad Khán
 shortly after returned to Kábul and Háji Khán had then to atone
 for his disloyalty, for the Nawáb retook Dháka and sent a force
 to lay siege to Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán. Harassed by the siege
 Háji Khán Mundháni agreed that all his territory east of
 Ikhtiyár-wáh should be annexed to the Nawab's dominions,
 only that to the west being retained by him. Nevertheless in 1806
1806 A. D. Háji Khán, with Fazl Ali Khán Haláni and Qádir Bakhsh Khán
 Kehráni, again revolted and on the 14th of Muharram took Sardár-
 garh, whereupon the Nawáb despatched a force under Nasír Khán
 Gorgej and Fateh Muhammad Khán Ghorí to attack Garhi
 Ikhtiyár Khán. On the 21st Muharram a battle ensued and the
 rebels shut themselves up in the fort. After a lengthy siege the
 Nawáb's commanders built a fort, to which they gave the name of
 Fatehgarh, opposite Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán, and by the 20th of Rabi-
 us-Sáni the cannonade from this fort told so heavily on Garhi Ikhti-
 yár Khán that the besieged were compelled to agree to a parley and
 the Nawáb imposed the following terms:—

(1) That Háji Khán Mundháni, his sons and brothers
 should come and pay their respects to him:

(1) Vide Murád, Vol. III, p. 611; and Shahámat Ali, p. 102.

- (2) That one of the walls of the fort of Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán should be totally demolished : CHAP. I. B.
History.
1806 A. D.
- (3) That Háji Khán should pay Rs. 2,00,000 as a war indemnity :
- (4) That one of his sons should remain as a hostage at the court of the Nawáb : and
- (5) That the power of appointing the Kárdár of Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán should rest with the Nawáb and that its revenues should be equally divided.

Háji Khán at first rejected these terms but eventually Nasír Khán captured and imprisoned him in the fort of Fatehgarh. Fazl Alí Khán Halání and other chiefs abandoned the field and on the 29th of Ramazán Nasír Khán levelled the fort of Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán to the ground, after which he returned to Ahmadpur East. The Garhi Ikhtiyár *iláqā* was thus annexed to the Nawáb's dominions.

In 1808 Mr. Elphinstone passed through the State on his way to Kábul and the Nawáb seized this opportunity to make the first treaty between Baháwalpur and the British Government. An interesting account of the visit will be found in Elphinstone's Caubul, Vol. I, pp. 23—27.

Mr. Elphinstone and the early relations of Baháwalpur with the British.
1808 A. D.

At this period many noble families from Lahore, Delhi, Dera Gházi Khán, Multán and other places came to Baháwalpur. Leading members of these families were given high offices by the Nawáb and settled in the State. About the same time several trans-Indus tribes crossed over into the State and settled there. Later on during the reign of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III, some Khákwáni, Saddozai, Ghorí, Bábar, Mallezai, and other Afghán families also migrated into Baháwalpur and settled permanently in the State.

Immigration of noble families into Baháwalpur.

Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II died on the 1st of Rajab 1224 H. at the age of 57 after a prosperous reign of 37 years. He left seven sons; Prince Wáhid Bakhsh Khán (Mubárah Khán), Abdulla Khán (Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II), Khudayar Khán, Nasír Khán, Faiz Muhammad Khán, Qádir Bakhsh Khán and Háji Khán. Of these the second succeeded to the throne.

Death of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II.
1809 A. D.

NAWAB SADIQ MUHAMMAD KHAN II, THE 5TH NAWAB.

Date of accession:—1st Rajab, 1224 Hijri (1809 A. D.).

No sooner was Muhammad Baháwal Khán II dead than Ghulám Husáin Kashmíri, one of his attendants, having secured the keys of Deráwar fort, summoned the people and under the apprehension that Prince Wáhid Bakhsh, the eldest son of the late Nawáb, or some other prince might cause disturbances, in consultation with the State officials proclaimed Prince Abdulla Khán, Nawáb, under the title of Sádiq Muhammad Khán II.

1809—1825
A. D.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

The new Nawáb's first act was the appointment of a fresh ministry. Nasír Khán Gorgej became *madár'-ul-mahám* (chief minister); Fateh Muhammad Khán Ghorí, *sipáh sálár* (general); Maulavi Ghous Bakhsh and Gosáin Bihárji, *mushírs* (counsellors); Maulavi Sher Ali, *atáliq* (tutor); Diwán Sultán Ahmad, Nawáb Fakhr-ud-dín Gujjar, Bahár Khán Kahiri and Ghulám Qádir Khán Dáhr, *musáhibs* (aids-de-camp); Muhammad Yaqúb Khán Khás Khelí, *bakhshí fauj* (pay-master); Salámat Rai, *sarparast toshá-khána*; Mú' Rám, *mír munshi*; Shaikh Núr Muhammad and Maqbúl Muhammad, *názims* (collectors); Maulavi Mui'n-ud-dín, *qázi-ul-quzát* (chief qázi); and Maulavi Muhammad Azam, *tawárikh nawis* (chronicler).

In accordance with the Oriental custom the Nawáb had his unsuccessful rival the Prince Wáhid Bakhsh put to death.

Mahmúd Sháh of Kábul acquiesced in his accession and his neighbours, including Maharája Ranjít Singh, Muzaffar Khán of Multán, the Nawáb of Mankera and the Tálpur Mírs sent the customary congratulations. Mahmúd Sháh indeed sent three officials with presents and a complimentary letter, and 1810 thus marks the final severance of the ties which bound the State to Kábul. Under the late Nawáb the Dáúdpotras' territory had for the most part been annexed to the State, and their power much weakened, but they had still influence enough to hamper the Nawáb by intrigues with foreign rulers or disloyal officials of the State, while the prevailing anarchy encouraged every petty Sirdár or *Tumandár* in the country to aim at supremacy.

Mazári and
Bozdár out-
break.
1809 A.D.

In Sh'abán 1224 H. the Mazári and Bozdár Baluch seized Máchká, Bangála and other tracts, now in the Dera Gházi Khán District on the west bank of the Indus, but a force with artillery under Gul Muhammad and Mihráb Khán Gorgej captured their leaders, and, though, the Jatois had joined them, this compelled the rebels to depute their Sayyids with the Qurán to sue for pardon. This was granted and they were allowed to return to their own territory.

Inroad of
Mír Sohráb
Tálpur.

In the same year the Dáúdpotras, Fazl Ali Haláni and Islám Khán Kehrání induced Mír Sohráb of Khairpur to demand that their territories should be restored to them, and with Mír Ghulám Ali of Haidarábád, he gave them a body of troops to attack the Nawáb. Nasír Khán and Fateh Muhammad were sent to protect the frontier from invasion but early in Shawwál the invaders penetrated to Muhammadpur Lamma and met the Nawáb's troop at Bahádurpur. A fight ensued on the 11th of that month, but after many had fallen on both sides the Dáúdpotras, fearing the advent of reinforcements from Deráwar and Ahmadpur sued for peace. A treaty was accordingly drawn up by Nasír Khán and Walí Muhammad Khán Laghári, on the Amir's side, whereby the latter agreed to recall their troops and afford no further assistance to the Dáúdpotras, and preserve friendly relations with Baháwalpur. On

the other hand Sāhibzāda Rahīmīyār Khān was to be handed over to them as a hostage. CHAP. I, B.
History.

To these terms the Nawāb assented and the prince was sent, in charge of some trustworthy officers to the Tālpuri camp at Basti Warind in the Ahmadpur Lamma *peshkāri*. The invaders then retired to Sind and the prince, after a detention of 14 months at Haidarābād, was released in Muharram 1225 H.

In this same year Mīr Sohrāb attacked the Bahāwalpur frontier. He had corrupted the frontier guards and they were ready to betray their trust when the plot was discovered and the conspirators received well merited punishment. This compelled Mīr Sohrāb to return.

In 1225 H. Nasīr Khān Gorgej invited Mīr Ghulām Ali, Raīs of Haidarābād, and Mīr Sohrāb of Khairpur to attack the frontier posts of Bahāwalpur. He won over many of the Ahlkārs of the State by promising to instal the Sāhibzāda Khudāyār Khān on the throne in the confusion resulting from this insurrection. In 1226 H. the forces of the Mīrs besieged Kot Butta near Basti Sādiq Warind⁽¹⁾ and under the orders of Nasīr Khān the besieged surrendered it without a struggle.

Plots in the
State and in-
vasion of the
Amirs.
1810 A. D.

1811 A. D.

Nawāb Sādiq Muhammad Khān now commissioned Fateh Muhammad Ghorī, Ahmad Khān Tarīn and Muhammad Yaqūb, the Bakhshīs of his army, to oppose the enemy. At the instance of Nasīr Khān, however, he advanced to Uch by the river, and the Nawāb's army, retreated to Ahmadpur. Meanwhile Nasīr Khān sent advising them to leave Uch and move towards Razā Muhammad Mūsānī, to intrench themselves there and prepare for battle. This was accordingly done. The Nawāb's army also made entrenchments and the fight commenced, but the Gorgej, untrue to his salt, and several other accomplices fought half-heartedly and allowed the enemy to plunder all the country from the frontier to Qāimpur. A detachment of Mīr Sohrāb's army⁽²⁾ lay concealed in the Qutbwāh intending to plunder Ahmadpur East when suddenly the canal filled with water and their plan failed. When matters assumed this serious aspect, Nasīr Khān sent his family and property from Taranda Gorgejān to Khairpur in Sind.

In 1226 H. Nasīr Khān informed the Nawāb, who was then living in Derāwar, that the Amīrs of Sind would only evacuate the country in the event of his sending his son and heir-apparent, Sāhibzāda Rahīmīyār Khān, to them. In the troubled condition of the country the Nawāb saw no other way of averting the danger than "to accept what was beyond all questions impolitic." Accordingly on the 27th Muharram, 1226 H., the Sāhibzāda followed by Mīr

1811 A. D.

(1) Kot Butta is in ruins. Basti Sādiq Warind is now a railway station and is called Sādiqābād.

(2) This part of the army was commanded by Mīr Mubārak, Murād III, p. 886.

CHAP. I. B.
History.

Mubarak and Hálá Khán, Commandants of the Army, arrived in the Haidarábád camp at Razá Muhammad Músáni. The Amírs thus gained their end and the heir-apparent was detained for a year and four months, but with the permission of Mir Ghulám Ali of Haidarábád returned to the State on the 24th Jamádi-us-Sáni, 1227 H.⁽¹⁾

Fateh
Muhammad
Ghori's rebel-
lion.

The State had barely enjoyed a respite from this invasion when Fateh Muhammad Khán Ghori and other malcontent officers invited the Nawáb from Deráwar to Ahmadpur, and one Sanjár Khán Pirjáni receiving a hint from the rebels, attacked him on the way but was unsuccessful. The Nawáb reached Ahmadpur safely, but, seeing that Fateh Muhammad and his party had turned against him, returned to Deráwar. When Fateh Muhammad saw that his plans had been divulged he assumed an attitude of open hostility, and with the force under his control moved towards Baháwalpur to plunder and harass it, but Usmán Khán, Baloch, Kárdár of Baháwalpur, strengthened the fortifications of the town and thus checked his progress.

Fateh Muhammad now abandoned the town and proceeded towards Khairpur East, but seeing that Ghani Muhammad Khán Jamáni and Mir Muhammad Jamáni were ready to oppose his march, he crossed the river on the 5th Safr 1226 H. and went to Dúnyápur. Thence Ahmad Khán proceeded to Khánpur for rapine and plunder, while Fateh Muhammad went to Shujábád and incited Nawáb Sarfaráz Khán to take possession of the *iláqás* across the Sutlej. When the Nawáb learnt of his plan he ordered his Ahlkárs to devastate Jalálpur, in the territory of the Nawáb of Multán, in the event of Sarfaráz Khán's army molesting Thattha Ghallúán in Baháwalpur. Upon this Nawáb Sarfaráz Khán lost heart and all the enemies' plans were frustrated.

Sáhibzáda
Ahmad
Bakhsh's
coronation.
1811 A. D.

On 26th Safr 1226 H. the Nawáb went out hunting from Deráwar. During his absence, Mulla Hásham, Yákúb Solgi, Gházi Khán Kahfiri, Ramzán gunner, and other officers of the fort, at the instance of Fateh Muhammad installed the Sáhibzáda Ahmad Bakhsh, son of the Sáhibzáda Mubarak Khán, who had been murdered, on the throne, and appointed a council for the administration of the State. Sáhibzáda Khudayár Khán became Wazír and Sáhibzáda Háji Khán Commander-in-Chief, and a salute was fired from the ramparts in honour of the new Nawáb. Seeing this, some of the people who were inside the fort and were still loyal made a pretence of submission. When the sound of the firing reached the ears of the Nawáb he was taken by surprise, and returned at once, learning what had happened on the way. He endeavoured to persuade the rebels to submit, but without success, and eventually the fort was bombarded and the Nawáb entered it in triumph. Sáhibzáda Ahmad Bakhsh, his brother Sáhibzáda Muhammad Bakhsh, Sáhibzáda Háji Khán, son of Nawáb Baháwal Khán II, and Sáhibzáda Khudayár Khán were executed for this insurrection. Many rebels fled and

(1) Murád III, p. 243.

Fateh Muhammad Ghorī, who, seeing an opportunity, was advancing towards Deráwar, turned back on hearing of the discomfiture of the rebels. CHAP. I, B.
History.

In 1226 H. the Kehrání Dáúdpotras of Khairpur, the 'Arbani Dáúdpotras of Qaimpur, and the Ghumráni Dáúdpotras of Hásilpur raised the standard of rebellion at the instigation of Nawáb Sarfaráz Khán, Subadár of Multán, but Ghani Muhammad Khán Jamáni and Mír Muhammad Khán Jamáni⁽¹⁾ took no part in the insurrection. The in-
surrection of
the Kehrání
'Arbani'
and
Ghumráni
Dáúdpotras. The Nawáb despatched a force of infantry, cavalry and artillery under Bakhshi Muhammad Yaqúb and Mír 'Ashúr Ali to suppress the rebellion. The insurgents being unable to oppose them fled from Khairpur East and crossing the Ghárá began to plunder the country beyond that river. Muhammad Yaqúb and Mír 'Ashúr then took possession of Khairpur East and hotly pursued the insurgents on the other side of the river and laying siege to Khánpur fired on the rebels with such deadly effect that the latter submitted and sued for peace. After this success, Muhammad Yaqúb proceeded with his troops to punish the allies of the Dáúdpotra rebels, and, on reaching the Shujabad frontier, sent agents on behalf of the Nawáb to persuade Sarfaráz Khán to expel Fateh Muhammad Ghorī, Wali Muhammad Khán, Jamadár Ahmad Khán Tarín and the other rebels, but he refused. This led to a battle in which many were killed on both sides. Ahmad Khán was killed by a bullet and the rebel forces fled from the field. The defeat of the Dáúdpotras and their allies was received with great joy in the capital, and completely frustrated the aims of the eastern Dáúdpotras who were now finally awed into subjection.

Sarfaráz Khán had incited the eastern Dáúdpotras, on the one hand, to rebel and, on the other, Asad Khán, governor of Dera Gházi Khán, to cross the Indus and invade those portions of Baháwalpur which now lie in the Muzaffargarh District. As friendly remonstrances to Asad Khán proved of no avail, Bakhshi Muhammad Yaqúb was ordered to invade the Dera Gházi Khán frontier, but he had hardly reached Kínjhir (now a part of Tahsil Muzaffargarh) when Asad Khán re-crossed the river, retired to his own boundary, and craved forgiveness⁽²⁾ on payment of a war indemnity of Rs. 50,000 to the Nawáb. Asad Khán,
Governor of
Dera Gházi
Khán.

Not long after Mr. Elphinstone's mission to Kábul, Shah Shuja was driven out of Kábul by his brother who usurped his throne. After passing through Wallhar or Sardárgarh, Phulra, Marot and Baháwalpur, Shah Shuja reached Pabbarhálí on the 10th Muharram 1234 H. and interviewed the Nawáb by whom he was courteously received. He requested the Nawáb to assist him in the subjugation of Dera Gházi Khán and the Nawáb gave him an army under Bakhshi Muhammad Yaqúb, with which he took Shah Shuja-
ul-Mulk's
visit.

1818 A. D.

(1) Murád, Vol. III, p. 935, and Shahámat Ali, pp. 167-168.

(2) Vide note regarding Jamánis in Chapter I, Sec. C, below.

CHAP. I. B. History. possession of Dera Gházi Khán⁽¹⁾ and shortly afterwards appointed Zamán Khán his deputy there and returned to Kábul.

Sádiq Muhammad Khán's treatment of Nawáb Muzaffar Khán's family.

Nawáb Muzaffar Khán's son Nawáb Mir Báz Khán takes refuge with the Nawáb.
21st June, 1818 A.D.

On the 24th Rajab 1233 H., Kanwar Khark Singh, son of Maharája Ranjít Singh, took the fort of Multán, and in the contest Nawáb Muzaffar Khán and five of his sons were killed. The Nawáb's sixth son submitted and his seventh son was captured. The eighth son, Mir Báz Khán, aged 14, fled with an attendant who brought him to a small *masjid* at Baháwalpur outside the Multáni Gate on the 27th Rajab 1233 H. When the Nawáb heard of this at Ahmadpur East, he returned to Baháwalpur and received Mir Báz Khán with affection conferring on him a monthly pension of 313 Ahmadpuri rupees (196 English rupees), and 9 wells as an *inám*. Rab Nawáz Khán,⁽²⁾ Mir Báz Khán's nephew, also received a monthly pension of 160 Ahmadpuri rupees (100 English rupees), and 3 wells in *inám*.

Ranjít Singh and the lease of Dera Gházi Khán.

1819 A.D.
Management of Dera Gházi Khán.

1819 A.D.

In 1235 H. Ranjít Singh paid a visit to Multán and having plundered the territories of the Amírs of Sind close to Bakri, arrived at Dera Gházi Khán, which he took from Zamán Khán and made over to the Nawáb in consideration of an annual payment of 2,50,000 rupees.⁽³⁾ The Nawáb appointed Ghulám Qádir Khán Dáhr to the administration of the Dera Gházi Khán District and visited it in the course of a tour in Sha'ban 1235 H., when Rahim Khán, Ráís of the Laghárís, Ghulám Haidar Khán, Ráís of the Khosas, and Asad Khán, Ráís of the Nutkannis, paid their respects to him.

Subjugation of towns.

1820 A.D.

1821 A.D.

At this period the towns of Sanghar (or Taunsa), Kila Gujri, Tibbí, and Killa Daláná, in or near the Dera Gházi Khán *iláqa* belonging to the Khosa tribe, were subjugated, and in this campaign Ghulám Haidar Khán, Tumandár of the Khosa tribe, fell fighting in 1236 H. His younger brothers, Kaura Khán and Asad Khán Nutkani submitted and gave their daughters in marriage to the Nawáb who treated them generously and in 1237 H.⁽⁴⁾ restored Kila Gujri to Kaura Khán.

1824 A.D.

In 1824 Prince Ahsán Bakht, a son of the emperor Sháh Alam II, who had left Delhi owing to family dissensions and was living at Multán was re-called by his brother, the emperor Akbar Sháh, and on his way to Delhi halted at Baháwalpur where he was entertained by Sáhibzáda Rahím-yár Khán, the heir-apparent.

Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II's death.
1825 A.D.

Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II died of consumption on Monday, the 9th Ramazán 1241 H. The greater part of his reign was passed in repelling the attacks of the Amírs of Sind, in suppressing the rebellions of his own Umras and protecting his conquered territories from aggression. The expansion of the Abbási

(1) Murád, Vol. III, pp. 961-962, and compare Muhammad Latif's History of the Punjab, p. 417, and Shahámat Ali's History, p. 175.

(2) Son of Haqq Nawáz Khán who died in the Multán War.

(3) Murád, Vol. III, p. 964, and Shahámat Ali, p. 176.

(4) Vide Murád, Vol. III, pp. 1075 and 1080; Shahámat Ali, p. 177; and compare Dera Gházi Khán Gazetteer by Mr. A. H. Diack, p. 26.

power was, moreover, checked by the rebellions of its disloyal subjects. Had there been no dissensions among the counsellors of the Abbási family and had the old counsellors loyally co-operated in pursuing the policy of Muhammad Baháwal Khán II, the State would have occupied a greater space on the map. But, notwithstanding these civil wars, the success of the Baháwalpur arms in the wars with the Biloches of Dera Gházi Khán and Sarfaráz Khán was not without credit. The Nawáb left three sons, viz., Sáhíbzáda Rahímýár Khán, who succeeded him, Azímýár Khán, and Muhammad Ja'far Khán.

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History.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD BAHAWAL KHAN III, THE SIXTH NAWAB, THE GENEROUS.

Date of Accession:—9th Ramzán 1241 Hijri (1825 A.D.)

On the death of Sádiq Muhammad Khán II, his son, Rahímýár Khán, succeeded him, with the title of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III, and ascended the throne at Deráwar. The following ministry was formed on his accession:—

1825 to 1852
A.D.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Wazír | Muhammad Yaqúb, the late Bakhshi. |
| 2. Bakhshi of the army | Moti Rám. |
| 3. Mír Munshi | Múl Rám. |
| 4. Principal officers | { 1. Shaikh Maqbúl Muhammad.
2. Shaikh Núr Muhammad. |
| 5. Governor of Dera Gházi Khán | Muhammad Qáim. |
| 6. Ambassadors in Foreign Courts | { Sayad Ghulám Mustafa Sháh,
Girdhári Lál, Chaman Lál, Izzat Rai and Ghulám Hasan. |
| 7. Officer in charge of the Toshakhána | Salámat Rai. |
| 8. Musáhibs | Diwán Sultán Ahmad and Khwájá Zain-ul-A'bidín. |

On his accession to the throne the Nawáb sent presents to Mahárája Ranjít Singh on 18th Zilhijj, 1241 H., and the Mahárája also sent his congratulations and presents.⁽¹⁾

Exchange of presents.

Immediately after his accession the Nawáb had appointed Muhammad Yaqúb Wazír in recognition of his services. He was an excellent soldier, but entirely wanting in the qualities necessary in a Wazír, and his administration resulted in grave discontent. The Rohilla troops mutinied and clamoured for pay. Simultaneously Ranjít Singh began to press for payment of the *nazarána* due for the District of Dera Gházi Khán. The Wazír was reprimanded by the Nawáb, but his only reply was to betake himself to prayer and meditation. Meanwhile the Rohilla revolt had become serious and troops had to be sent to Uch to suppress it, but the mutineers, throwing themselves into the Khángah of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál, fired on the Nawáb's troops who, in replying, half

Mutiny of the Rohilla troops.

(1) Vide Murád's History, Vol. IV, para 5. Mahárája Ranjít Singh sent the following presents:—

1. *Chogha* studded with jewels; 2. *Tika* studded with jewels; 3. Pearl necklaces; 4. *Kangan* or bangles studded with jewels; 5. *Básaband* or bracelet studded with jewels; 6. Forty *Kimkhábs*, *lungis*, &c.; 7. Two horses with strappings.

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General
Ventura's
invasion.
Treaty with
the East India
Company.

As the sum due for the lease of Dera Ghāzi Khān had not been paid for several years, Ranjīt Singh sent a force under General Ventura to expel the Nawāb's officials from that District without giving him any opportunity for parley. General Ventura occupied the tracts now in the Dera Ghāzi Khān, Muzaffargarh and Multān Districts, and they thus passed from the rule of the State.⁽¹⁾ The Nawāb was deeply chagrined at this loss. Alliances with the neighbouring States, Sind, Bikaner or Jaisalmer, were out of the question, for they were already bitterly hostile to Bahāwalpur and their power was not great. He was therefore already anxious for an alliance with the British, when Ranjīt Singh sent a large force under Shām Singh, Atāriwālā, to Kahrur, with instructions to invade the State on any pretext. Thereupon the Nawāb sent an envoy to the Governor-General at Simla to invoke his intervention and prevent Ranjīt Singh's crossing the Sutlej. He also solicited the appointment of a British Agent at Bahāwalpur. To these requests Lord William Bentinck acceded and Ranjīt Singh was warned not to cross the Sutlej.

The treaty
of 1833.

Captain Wade, Political Agent at Ludhiāna, was then deputed to Bahāwalpur to negotiate a treaty, and Lieutenant Mackeson accompanied him. Captain Wade laid stress on the desirability of developing the commerce of the State and also advised the Nawāb to reclaim the Bahāwalgarh *ilāqa*, in the dense jungles of which criminals who had escaped from Ranjīt Singh's dominions found a refuge, thus giving the Mahārāja just cause of complaint against the State. On the other hand, as the Nawāb represented, discontented persons

(1) The following statement shows the income of the territory thus lost to the State:—

District.	Number of Taluqās.	Number of villages.	INCOME ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT CURRENCIES.				INCOME IN KIND CALCULATED AT THE RATE OF ENGLISH (INDIAN MONEY).			
			Shajawal currency one rupee = 13 annas and 9 pies.	The Sikka of 1224 H., one rupee = 13 annas.	Total of Shajawālī and San 1224 Sikkas.	Equivalent in English (Indian) currency after deducting discount on account of Shajawālī and San 24 Sikkas.	Weight.		Value in English (Indian) money.	Total in English (Indian) money of the Income shown in columns 7 and 10.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Māni.	Māunds.	Rs.	Rs.
Montgomery	4	49	...	3,675	3,675	2,986	1,950	109	6,302	9,288
Multān	41	331	...	1,16,826	1,16,826	94,921	8,876	880	1,53,751	2,48,673
Muzaffargarh	19	19	...	3,48,176	3,48,176	2,82,893	2,82,893
D. G. Khān	36	36	2,94,627	43,891	3,38,517	2,88,942	2,88,942
Total Districts	100	435	2,94,627	5,12,568	8,07,295	6,69,742	9,926	989	1,60,053	8,39,696

of the Shahr Faríd tract often committed offences in Baháwalpur and then sought an asylum in the Sikh dominions. The result of these negotiations was the treaty of February 22nd, 1833, and under clause 4 of that treaty Lieutenant Mackeson became Political Agent at Baháwalpur. A Supplementary Treaty was ratified on March 5th, 1835 and in 1838, in 1840 and 1843 other treaties followed, by which the tolls on merchandise transported by the Indus were greatly reduced and a scale of duties fixed on merchandise transported by land. Finally in 1847 the Nawáb agreed to abolish all duties without compensation. In 1838 Sháh Shujá having been deposed at Kábul and Mahmúd Shah placed on the throne the original treaty of 1833 was renewed and the Nawáb facilitated the passage of troops owing to the Afghán war, constructing a military road through the State. Lieutenant Mackeson was then succeeded by Dr. Gordon.

Sháh Shuja-ul-Mulk, accompanied by Sir W. Macnaughten and the forces under General Nott, reached Baháwalpur on December 22nd, 1838, and valuable presents were exchanged. The march was resumed on December 26th, the Nawáb despatching 100 *sowárs* under Jamadár Ghulám Hasan Khán Bábí and Jahán Khán Gandapur with the British Army. On November 17th, 1839, the news of the occupation of Kábul was received and Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur were illuminated in honour of the event.

Captain Thomas succeeded Dr. Gordon as Political Agent in July 1840. In 1839 the Nawáb built the extensive buildings at Dahri between Ahmadpur East and Deráwar, and also re-excavated the Auranga or Nauranga Nálá at a cost of over Rs. 50,000.

In 1842 the *parganas* of Kot Sabzal and Bhúng Bhárá, lost to the State in 1807, were conquered by the British from the Mírs of Sind and restored to the State by Sir Charles Napier as a special mark of the favour of the British Government. They form one of the most fertile territories of the State, and were thus worth Rs. 82,500 in Haidarabad currency, Kot Sabzal paying Rs. 36,500, Bhúng Bhárá Rs. 22,300, *táluqa* Pakka Bhutta Rs. 16,200 and *táluqa* Chak and Kammún Shahíd Rs. 8,000.

On the 25th July 1842 the following letter was received by the Nawáb from Amír Ali Khán, son of the Amir Dost Muhammad of Kábul:—

"We have murdered Sir Alexander Burnes and all the baggage belonging to British Government has come into our possession. The beggars of this country have been enriched at the expense of the British treasury. This is the present condition of this country and you should now be ready to advance the cause of friendship between the two Muhammadan States."

The Nawáb forwarded this letter to the Native Political Agent with a *parwána* in which it was stated that one Ramzán Khán, Afghán, had brought it with 100 pistols, a telescope, a gun and a compass, and that it had been ordered that he should be driven

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Aitchison's
Treaties, No.
LXXXVII,
Volume IX,
page 191.

Aitchison's
Treaties, No.
LXXXVIII,
Volume IX,
page 193.

No. a.
LXXXIX, XC
and XCI. *Ibī-*
dem.
Sháh Shujá,
1838.

Aitchison's
Treaties, No.
XCII, Volume
IX, page 198.

The Amír
Ali Akbar
Khán's letter.

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across the river with contumely, and the presents he had brought returned to him. The Nawáb was thanked by the Governor-General for his loyalty. In May 1843 the Nawáb received a second letter from Amír Ali Akbar, which was also handed over to the British Government.

Captain Charles Graham succeeded Captain Thomas as Political Agent on the 23rd of September 1843, but was compelled to take leave to England on the 3rd of December in that year.

The Sanj-
rána thána
established.

In November 1843, Mr. Robinson, the Magistrate of Sirsa, represented to the Nawáb who was on tour at Baháwalgarh that it was essential for the prevention of crime in 'Asafwála, Mamdot and Abohar that the Sanjrána tract should be brought under cultivation and a Police post established there at the joint cost of the State and the British Government. The Nawáb acceded to this suggestion but preferred to construct the post solely at his own cost, placing in it a strong body of State *sowárs*. This post was named Saádatgarh, after the Nawáb's son who afterwards succeeded him for a time.

Cession of
the 'Asafwála
táluqa.

Aitchison's
Treaties, No.
XCI, Volume
IX, page 197.

In order to give affect to the treaty of September 11th, 1843, the Agent to the Governor-General (Colonel Hamilton), Major Mackeson and Captain Morrison arrived at Baháwalpur in January 1844 and obtained the Nawáb's consent to the cession of the 'Asafwála táluqa which comprised the major portion of the Wattu territory, thus extending the boundaries of the British *iláqa* of Abohar to the bank of the Ghára or Sutlej. The details of the villages ceded in the boundary fixed were embodied in a *khurita*, dated February 7th, 1844. Their revenue amounted to Rs. 25,000 and they included the Saádatgarh post.

Demarcation
of the Bikaner
boundary.

In 1845 Lieutenant Cunningham, Assistant Agent to the Governor-General, laid over the boundary between the States of Baháwalpur and Bikaner.

The Multán
campaign.

When the rebellion of Múl Ráj at Multán broke out Mr. Vans Agnew despatched a letter which reached the Political Agent Pír Ibráhím Khán on the 21st April 1848, informing him of that event and of Captain Anderson's wound, and requesting that a force with artillery and stores should be despatched to Multán by the State. A force was about to start when on the 22nd April Vans Agnew's servant arrived with the news that his master and Captain Anderson had been murdered, and in consequence of this the order to march was countermanded.⁽¹⁾ On April 27th the Nawáb received a communication from the Resident at Lahore asking him to despatch a strong force under a capable Commander to Multán, and on the 29th a second communication asked him to attach all the property of Múlráj in the State and expel his *wakil* from Baháwalpur. Meanwhile Múlráj had sent two men into Baháwalpur to enlist recruits with the offer of high pay. These men were expelled from the State. On the 17th May the Nawáb received word from his

(1) Edwardes, Vol. II, p. 193; Murad, Vol. IV, para. 119.

vakils at Lahore that the Resident desired that the Baháwalpur forces should cross the Sutlej and reinforce Shaikh Imám-ud-dín and Rája Sher Singh. Replying that he would do so, the Nawáb received a further communication from the Resident, desiring him to hold as much of the country as possible and warning him that his force was responsible for the protection of the people, the collection of the Rabi revenue and the general peace of the country until the British army should arrive. The Nawáb was also requested to occupy the Sutlej ferries.

On May 25th Lieutenant Edwardes requested that a body of troops might be sent to Kot Kamman to support Ghulám Mustafá Khán Khákwáni, who had risen against Diwán Múlráj. He wrote that the rebels were in force and intended to attack Leiah, then cross the Indus and attack Dera Ismail Khán. To prevent this he asked the Nawáb to send his force across the river on to Multán, by which movement he would compel the Diwán to abandon his designs on Leiah. A few days later Edwardes advised the Nawáb, who had been told by the Resident at Lahore that he was responsible for the whole country from the ferries on the Sutlej to the gates of Multán, that it would be advisable for him to cross the Jalálpur ferry and advance on Multán *via* Shujabad if he considered that by this movement he would compel the Diwán to re-call Harbhagwán who was threatening Dera Gházi Khán, otherwise that it would be better for the Nawáb to cross by the Damarwála ferry at Khángarh and join him.⁽¹⁾ The Nawáb judged it best to advance on Shujabad. He also prevented arms, horses, etc., from being sent to Multán by the ferries in the State, and garrisoned Kotli Adil with 500 horse and 100 foot to protect it from the exactions of the Diwán's officials.

On May 27th Pir Ibráhím Khán, the Native Agent, under orders from the Resident, requested the Nawáb to despatch a force for the subjugation of the Multán territory and on the 28th two regiments, 200 cavalry and 5,000 *jágírdárs* levies with 9 guns and 100 ammunition waggons under Fateh Muhammad Khán Ghorí marched from Ahmadpur. Passing Jalálpur on May the 31st this force reached Bilochán on June the 2nd and Jalálpur Sádátwála on the 3rd of June. News of its despatch was sent to Lieutenant Edwardes, with the intimation that 1,500 men under Muiz-ud-dín had been sent to Sítpur and 400 under Charkanda Mal towards the Sádárwáh Nálá to ensure the peace of those parts. Pir Ibráhím Khán accompanied the main force. On May 31st received a letter from the Resident asking him to invest Múlráj in Multán. When the force under Muiz-ud-dín and Dín Muhammad Sháh reached Alipur they surprised Múlráj's deputy, Jawáhir Mal, who was engaged there in collecting the revenue with a force of 100 horse and 100 foot. An engagement ensued in which Jawáhir Mal lost 109 men killed, and fled with the remainder.⁽²⁾

(1) Murád, Vol. IV, para. 127.

(2) Edwardes, Vol. II, p. 243; Murád, Vol. IV, para. 135.

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The Multán campaign.

It was now resolved, under instructions from Lahore, that the Baháwalpur forces should join Edwardes' levies in an advance on Shujabad, and on the 12th of June the troops accordingly marched under Fateh Muhammad Khán to Gauban. Edwardes also reached that place, where, at his request, the Nawáb had provided boats for the transport of his levies across the Chenáb, and thence marched to Khángarh. Here he wrote on June 14th that he was advancing to join the Bahawalpur forces, and that he had received news that Múlráj intended to attack the State forces before the junction could be effected. He advised that the Bahawalpur troops should entrench till his arrival and only give battle if attacked. Accordingly the State troops entrenched at Basúri on June 17th, Edwardes meanwhile awaiting General Van Cortlandt's arrival at Khángarh. On the 18th the troops advanced to the Gagiánwála ferry near Kanbiri to keep the enemy, who was close at hand, in check. Edwardes' levies numbered 2,000 horse and foot, and the total strength of the Bahawalpur force sent to co-operate with him was 7,129 infantry, 2,449 cavalry, 14 horse artillery guns, and 18 camel-swivels.⁽¹⁾ The State forces next marched on Rawána near Basúri, whereupon Múlráj's troops advanced from Kanbiri to Núnár and attacked them; but they fought with courage and steadiness until Edwardes arrived and, after viewing their dispositions, obtained from Van Cortlandt a reinforcement of 6 guns and two regiments of regular infantry, which joined in the fight. After an attack which lasted from 8 A.M. to 5 in the evening the enemy retreated, the State levies capturing 6 guns, while Edwardes took two and a quantity of stores.⁽²⁾ The State troops lost 34 horses and 14 foot killed.

On June 19th Van Cortlandt effected a junction with the allied troops and on the same day, under Edwardes' orders, the Bahawalpur force advanced from Núnár to within three miles of Shujabad. Edwardes reached their camp on June 20th and directed Pír Ibráhím Khán and Fateh Muhammad Khan to attack the fort, but the Hindu *mukhis* and *chaudhris* brought in petitions, addressed to Edwardes and Pír Ibráhím Khán, from the *qilladár*, Qádir Bakhsh Khán, offering its unconditional surrender. It was accordingly occupied and garrisoned, and on June 22nd Edwardes and Van Cortlandt entered it with the rest of the State troops. On June 26th the allied forces marched to Sikandarabad, where a small force of the enemy was stationed, but it sued for terms and the place was occupied without opposition. Next day the troops reached Adhiwála and on the 27th Súrajkund. Here, on the 28th, Lieut. Lake joined the State force as Political Agent, after visiting the Nawáb at Ahmadpur on the 26th.⁽³⁾ On June 29th the allies reached Káyánpur and on July 1st Arbi. At noon Múlráj marched out of Multán on the Faiz Bigh to attack them, but after an obstinate contest he was driven back and compelled to retreat

(1) *Fide* Murad, Vol. IV, 135; also Edwardes, Vol. II, 466.

(2) Murad, Vol. IV, para. 146; Edwardes, Vol. II, p. 332.

(3) Edwardes, Vol. II, p. 366; Murad, Vol. IV, para. 153.

into the fort, with a few troops who had entrenched themselves behind some trees at Saddo Hisám. The allies in this affair captured 2 guns and 30 prisoners, and the State troops lost Captain Macpherson, 14 men killed and 4 men wounded.⁽¹⁾ The allies then marched into the Hámid Sháh Bágh on July 2nd. On the 26th the rebels closed the Wali Muhammad canal in order to cut off their supply of water, but the Baháwalpur troops and a part of Edwardes' forces dug *mohánas* or outlets and let in water from the Chenáb into a *nullah* which passed near their camp. On September 1st Lake and Edwardes moved from Surajkund to Bágh Katta Bairági and, on the enemy's opening fire from Jog Máyá, that place was attacked by the Baháwalpur troops under Lake and the enemy driven back on to the Shidi Lálmound, the State troops losing 11 killed and 25 wounded and earning Lake's unqualified praise for their conduct.⁽²⁾ On September 12th Lake, with the allied forces, attacked Okhára Gopál Dás and defeated the Sikhs who lost 800 men, he himself being wounded in this affair. Desultory fighting then ensued until October 3rd, when Lake gave every Baháwalpur gunner a reward of Rs. 100 for their services in the siege. On October 7th Múlráj and Sher Singh posted 18 guns near Jog Máyá and the allies entrenched in the Wali Muhammad canal and repulsed the sortie. Another attempted attack on Katta Bairági was defeated on the 31st and from November 1st to 5th daily sorties at various points were driven back. On the 6th a courageous onslaught was made on the State troops under Lake with no better success, and their losses from the 1st to the 6th were only 2 killed and 15 wounded. On the 7th General Whish selected 2,000 men, half from the Baháwalpur troops and half from Edwardes' levies, for an attack on the enemy's entrenchment, but 4 companies of sepoys under Van Cortlandt mutinied and attacked Shaikh Imám ud-Dín and a Baháwalpur regiment, and though the mutineers were soon dispersed great confusion was caused. Nevertheless Lake succeeded in destroying the enemy's entrenchment with the aid of the State troops, who lost 5 killed and 38 wounded on that date. Fighting continued round the Fort of Multán till January 20th when Múlráj, despairing of further resistance, surrendered to General Whish. From November 8th to the close of the campaign the State troops had lost 24 killed and 2 wounded. On January 29th Lake presented the Baháwalpur commandant with a gold bracelet, a pearl necklace and a costly sword. Rewards were subsequently presented in January 1851 to 49 officers of the force by Mr. Chamberlain on behalf of the Board of Administration. In recognition of the Nawáb's services Lord Dalhousie bestowed upon him a pension of Rs. 1,00,000 a year for life, in addition to a lump sum of Rs. 8,00,000 for the services of his troops.⁽³⁾

(1) Punjab Blue Book 1747-48, p. 242; Edwardes, Vol. II, p. 377.

(2) Murad, Vol. IV, para. 173.

(3) At the rate of Rs. 1,00,000 a month for the eight months from June 1st, 1848 to January 29th, 1849. Edwardes, Vol. II, 606.

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History.

Delimitation
of Bikanir
and Jaisalmir
borders.

In November 1849 Captain Beecher, who had been appointed to decide the boundary disputes between Baháwalpur and the States of Bikanir and Jaisalmir, reached Baháwalpur and proceeded to demarcate the boundaries on the north-west of Bikanir and the north of Jaisalmir, placing pillars at Ruknpur, Islámgarh, Barsalpur and other places, and masonry pillars were then erected by the *kárdárs*.⁽¹⁾

Interview
with Lord
Dalhousie.

At the invitation of Messrs. Hansel and John Lawrence, Members of the Board of Control, the Nawáb, accompanied by Sáhibzadas Sa'adatyár Khán, Mubárak Khan and Muhammad Khan and other nobles of the State, with an escort of 1,000 foot, 400 *sowáds* and 2 guns, visited Multán and had an interview with Lord Dalhousie on the 31st of December 1849, at which he was thanked for his services in the Multán campaign. The Nawáb at this interview presented a *kharita* containing four requests: (1) that Sa'adatyár Khán should be recognised as his heir instead of Háji Khán, Sáhibzáda; (2) that he should receive a grant of land in *jágir* in lieu of the pension of one *lakh* a year; (3) that the territories formerly held in *ijára* from Ranjit Singh beyond the rivers should be granted to him on lease; and (4) that the Kot Sabzal *iláqa* granted to him should be extended to Rohri as promised by General Napier. On the 18th January the Government of India replied, acknowledging Sa'adatyár Khán as heir-apparent, and presented him with 21 *khillats*.

1850.

Visit to Delhi.

The Nawáb was greatly affected by the death of his spiritual guide Khwája Sulaimán of Taunsa Sharíf, who died on the 7th of Safr 1266 H. and from that date applied no dye to his beard. He also resolved on a pilgrimage to the shrines of the Chishti Khwájas at Delhi and Ajmer. He was hospitably received at Mamdot, where the Faqirs, Siráj-ud-Dín and Shah Nawáz-ud-Dín of Lahore, met him and the influence of that family in the State dates from this visit.

Pír Ahmad
Khán, Poli-
tical Agent.

During Pír Ibrahim Khan's absence in England from November 1850 to May 1852 Pír Ahmad Khan acted as Native Political Agent in the State.

The Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III had been ill for some time when he succumbed to an attack of fever on the 5th Muharram 1269 H. (19th October 1852) at Deráwar. He left six sons, of whom the eldest but one, Sa'adatyár Khán, succeeded him under the title of Nawáb Sadiq Muhammad Khán III.

NAWAB SADIQ MUHAMMAD KHAN III, THE SEVENTH NAWAB.

Date of Accession—5th Muharram, 1269 Hijri (19th October 1852 A.D.).

1852 A. D.

As the succession to the throne had been conferred by the late Nawáb on Sa'adatyár Khan and the Government of India had recognized his nomination, he ascended the throne without contention

(1) The forts at Ruknpur, Islámgarh, &c., were then in charge of *kárdárs*.

on his father's death, and on the 28th of Muharram (November 11th, 1852) the second turban was placed on his head by the Giláni Makhdúm (Ganj Bakhsh) of Uch, the Bukhári Makhdúm (Naubahár,) and Khuda Bakhsh of Chácharan Sharif, at Deráwar. The Nawáb made the following appointments:—

Prime Minister, Munshi Chaukas Rai; Superintendent of the Toshakhána, Lálá Salámat Rai; Mír Munshi, Lálá Khán Chand; Chief of the Diwáni, Mulla Jiwan; Názim of the Khanpur *iláqa*, Muizz-ud-Dín, Khákwáni.

The Nawáb's conduct, however, soon led to his downfall. He had, in the lifetime of the late Nawáb, procured the Sahibzada Háji Khan's confinement in the fortress of Dingarh, and on the day after his accession he had him removed to Fatehgarh, 18 miles south of Deráwar, where he was treated with great harshness, only one Baháwalpuri rupee with 12 *chhitaks* of flour being daily allowed for his subsistence and a single servant appointed to attend him. A soldier with a drawn dagger remained constantly on guard over the prisoner. This treatment excited the indignation of the Dáúdpotras. The Nawáb's other brothers were also kept in confinement and closely guarded. On the 11th of Muharram the Nawáb dismissed several officials, including Captain John Hole who had done the State good service at Multán, and Jamadár Ahmad Khán Mallezai (subsequently Wazír of Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV). The latter was banished with his family and one of his secretaries maltreated. The Nawáb also suspected Faqír Siráj-ud-Dín of intriguing with Háji Khán, and the Faqír to escape arrest left the State on the 1st of Rábi-us-Sáni.

Sir Henry Lawrence had advised the Nawáb to curtail his expenditure and retrenchments were carried out, many horsemen being dismissed and only a few attendants retained in the Nawáb's service. The usual perquisites of the Dáúdpotras and others at an accession were diminished and their rights or claims overlooked.

Retrench-
ments of the
Nawáb.]

These acts resulted in much popular discontent. Captain Hole, Siráj-ud-Dín and other refugees made Adam Wahan a centre of intrigue with the chiefs of the Lamma and the Dáúdpotras, their object being to place Háji Khán on the throne with the assistance of Aqil Khán, Sardár Khán and Asad Khán, Achranis, his maternal uncles. They also won over Bangal Khán, Bahram Khán Chándia, Ali Bakhsh, and Ahmad Khán Dashtis, Khuda Bakhsh Khán Haláni, Allah Bacháya Khán, Muhammad Yár Khán, and Khán Muhammad Khán, Achrani, and the conspirators bound themselves by an oath on the Qurán to rescue the prince Háji Khán.

Accordingly on the 29th of Rabi-us-Sáni, 1269 H., they set out for Fatehgarh at the head of 100 Dáúdpotras and began to break in the gateway of the fort by night. The garrison in terror threw open the gates. On their entrance a Hindu attempted to kill Háji Khán, but was prevented by Ali Bakhsh Dashti, who would have

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History.

Retrench-
ments of the
Nawáb.

killed the man with his own sword, which he had snatched from him, but for the prince's intervention. The conspirators carried the prince for three miles on their shoulders and then placing him on a camel carried him to Khánpur where Siráj-ud-Dín, Captain Hole, and Ghulám Muhammad Khán Mallezai, brother of Jamadár Ahmad Khán, joined them. Other Dáúdpotras and minor chiefs of the Lamma also came in.

News of this event reached the Nawáb on the 9th of February and he was advised to set out at once in pursuit of Háji Khán, but disregarding all counsel he contented himself with issuing orders to the officers at Khánpur to capture the prince. But Háji Khán had already appointed a new commander at that place and had already gathered a force of 5,000 men with ample supplies, artillery and ammunition. The Nawáb then placed Fateh Muhammed Khán Ghorí in command of his troops, giving Rs. 30,000 to Jamadár 'Muizz-ud-Dín Khán Khákwáni to raise troops and a similar sum to Sarfaráz Khán to win over Háji Khán's adherents. Yet three days later the command of the whole army was given to Muizz-ud-Dín and Fateh Muhammad posted with some troops at Ahmadpur East. Háji Khán now proceeded to send letters to the officers of Sa'ádatyár Khán and won most of them over to his side, only the Thánadar of Ahmadpur East and Munshi Salámat Rai sending the letters addressed to them to the Nawáb and imprisoning the bearers. These letters made the Nawáb suspect that all his officers had been tampered with and he despatched Salámat Rai on a mission to strengthen the Dáúdpotras of the Ubha in their allegiance, but it was too late. Jamadár 'Muizz-ud-Dín, Sher Ali Sháh, Yusaf Ali Sháh, of the army, and the courtiers, Rájan Bakhsh, Sayyid Khuda Bakhsh, Ali Gauhar Khán and Muhammad Razá Khán had sent secret assurances to Háji Khán that if he entered Ahmadpur East he would meet with no opposition.

On the 12th February 1853 the forces of the Nawáb arrived at Goth Channi, where they found a large force under Ahmad Khán Dashti and Bahrám Khan Chándia ready to oppose them. The Nawáb's commanders sent to him soliciting instructions whether they should hazard an action or overawe the enemy by a waiting policy. In reply the Nawáb sent order to Muizz-ud-Dín and Sardar Khan Lakkozai to give every soldier a gratuity and thus encourage them to overcome the enemy, but his orders were not faithfully obeyed, for though Sarfaráz Khan paid the cavalry their gratuities, the infantry received nothing and took an oath to oppose the Nawáb. On the 15th February Faqír Siráj-ud-Dín, Ali Gauhar Khán and Ahmad Khan Chándia with 4,000 men advanced on Goth Channi and began to seduce the Nawáb's forces from their allegiance by promises, with the result that on the 17th of February the disaffected infantry with six guns went over in a body to Háji Khán, while their officers, some of whom were already inclined towards him, dispersed to their homes.

On the 18th of February Hájí Khán having settled the affairs of Khánpur arrived at Chaudhri, the people on his road submitting to him. At sunset on the evening of the 19th he entered Ahmadpur East. The town was illuminated and salutes fired, and here Hájí Khan assumed the title of Nawáb Fateh Khan.

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History.

Retrenchments of the Nawáb.

On the 20th of February the garrison of Deráwar sent a message to the new Nawáb tendering their submission, and he appointed Faqir Siráj-ud-Din to the command of his forces with orders to occupy Deráwar, the garrison of which joined him on his arrival there. Munshi Chaukas Rai with his family was captured in attempting to leave the fort and on him were found 10,000 *mohars* in gold and jewels and the draft of a treaty which showed that he had intended to go to Lahore and solicit the aid of the British. After the fall of Deráwar Sa'adatyár Khán was imprisoned at a grain store-house, and his supporters placed in chains. The new Nawáb entered Deráwar on the 22nd of February in triumph and gave Sa'adatyár Khán his life.

NAWAB FATEH MUHAMMAD KHAN OR FATEH KHAN, THE EIGHTH NAWAB.

Date of Accession—11th *Jamadi-ul-awwal*, 1269 *Hijri* (23rd February 1853).

Although the Sábhibzáda Hájí Khán had adopted the title of Nawáb Fateh or Fateh Muhammad Khan at Ahmadpur yet the ceremonies of accession were not formally celebrated till the 23rd February 1853 in Deráwar Fort. The deposed Nawáb was removed from the *bhándá* (grain store-house) and kept in confinement in a comfortable residence. Nawáb Sa'adatyár Khán sent the crown and jewels which he had in his possession to Nawáb Fateh Khán, but the latter with great generosity not only returned them but also sent him many valuable presents, and deputed a large number of servants to attend him assuring him that no change would be made in his treatment, except that he would remain in custody.

The Nawáb also released his other brothers and treated them with kindness. He issued orders recalling the servants dismissed or deported by Nawáb Sa'adatyár Khán and appointed the following persons to high offices:—

Faqir Siráj-ud-Din	...	Wazir of the State.
Faqir Sháh Nawáz-ud-Din	...	General of the Army.
Aqa Iqbál	...	Colonel in the Army.
Áqil Muhammad Khán Achrání	...	Commander of the Army.
Muhammad Yár Khán Achrání	...	Bakhshi of the Army.
Fazl Muhammad Kahíri	...	Manager of the Tosha Khana.
Qabil Muhammad	...	Officer in charge of the Abdár Khána (Kitchens and Drinks).
Maulavi Muzaffar-ud-Din	...	Parwáná Nawis.
Qázi-ul-Quzát	...	Maulavi Jamil-ud-Din.
Qázi of Ahmadpur and Baháwalpur	...	Qázi Mahmád-ud-Din.

CHAP. I. B. History.	Jamādars	Sardār Khān Achrañī, Muhammad Arif.
	Manager of private affairs	Asad Khān, and Alla Bachāya Khān.
	Adālatīs (Judges)	<div> <div>Nibāhū Rām.</div> <div> <div>(1) Maulavi Faiz Muhammad.</div> <div>(2) Qāzi Ahsānullāh.</div> <div>(3) Maulavi Wali Muhammad.</div> </div> </div>

Gifts.

On the 14th of Jamādi-ul-awwal the Nawāb distributed rewards among the officers and nobles by whose aid he had acceded to the throne. Some two *lakhs* of rupees were thus spent. He ordered the continuance of the allowance of some of the Dāūdpoṭras and nobles which had been resumed by Nawāb Sa'ādāt-yār Khān and thereby conciliated his servants and chiefs. Thinking, however, that if Munshi Chaukas Rai remained alive it would be politically dangerous, Faqir Sirāj-ud-Dīn sent him to the Fort of Islāmghrah and secretly instructed his escort to murder him on the way at a suitable opportunity. This order was carried out and the Munshi's body buried under a heap of sand.

Murder of
Munshi Chau-
kas Rai,
Wazir.

The arrange-
ments of the
British Gov-
ernment as
to the deposed
Nawāb.

On the 5th of March 1853 Pīr Ibrahim Khān, the Native Political Agent, presented the Nawāb with a letter from Sir John Lawrence, Chief Commissioner of the Punjab, requesting that the deposed Nawāb should be sent with his family to Multān. The Nawāb in reply wrote that he had no hesitation in obeying the orders of the British Government, but, as a matter of fact, he had only made good his right to the throne which he had obtained and that he was not the mortal enemy of Sa'ādāt-yār Khān, and that he did not think it proper to keep the Nawāb in Multān, and that he would not object if the British Government sent the deposed Nawāb to Lahore or Jullundur. On the 15th March 1853 a letter from the Chief Commissioner requested the Nawāb to send his deposed brother with his family to Lahore, adding that the British Government recognised him as the ruler of Bahāwalpur, and on the 30th March, Mr. P. M. Edgeworth, Commissioner of Multān, arrived at Bahāwalpur. The Nawāb then requested that Sa'ādāt-yār Khān should be handed over to the British Government provided he relinquished his claims and drew up a formal deed of abdication. Accordingly, Sa'ādāt-yār Khān was brought to Bahāwalpur on the 1st April, and Mr. Edgeworth went with Pīr Ibrahim Khān to his camp as desired by the Nawāb, and told him that he could be released according to the recommendation of the British Government on the following conditions:—

- (1) That he should receive a pension of Rs. 1,600 from the State treasury, and
- (2) that he should live at Lahore or Jullundur, whichever place he might select.

The deposed Nawāb accepted these conditions, but requested that his brother and mother should also be allowed to accompany

him. At first Nawáb Fateh Khán objected to this request, but ultimately, on the recommendation of Mr. Edgeworth, assented to it.

A public Darbár was again held on the 2nd of April. The Commissioner of Multán repeated the conditions of release to the deposed Nawáb, made over his deed of abdication to Nawáb Fateh Khán after securing thereon the signature of the deposed Nawáb, and took a duplicate with him.⁽¹⁾ On the evening of the same day Sa'adatyár Khán and his family were sent to Multán under an escort of 100 *sowars*. The town of Baháwalpur was illuminated that night and a salute fired. The British Government also sent the new Nawáb a robe of honour.

The chief actor in the events which had placed Nawáb Fateh Khan on the throne had been Faqír Siráj-ud-Din who had persuaded the Achráni Dáúdpotras and the chiefs of the Lamma that the British Government would not interfere in internal matters regarding the succession to the throne, and he had carried out his plans with such dexterity that not a single life had been lost though the armies of the rival claimants had stood face to face. But his very sagacity made him many enemies, and Aqil Khán, Sardár Khán, Asad Khán and other Achránis and courtiers were jealous of his prosperity and defied his authority. Moreover, though the Faqír had effected the revolution with the aid of the Dáúdpotras, he profoundly mistrusted their fickle and obstinate character, and most of the officers appointed to the army were men on whom he could rely, those stationed in the Fort of Deráwar being relatives of his own. This gave Aqil Khan Achrani his opportunity, and on the evening of May the 10th, 1853, he informed the Nawáb that all the troops in the fort were dependants of Siráj-ud-Dn, that they could not be trusted and should be replaced by Dáúdpotras. With some hesitation the Nawáb ordered 200 Dáúdpotras into the fort. Upon this Siráj-ud-Din went to the palace and sent the Nawáb a message, saying that if his proceedings were mistrusted he should be permitted to resign. The Nawáb sent him an order to wait till the morning, but the Faqír promptly caused Asad Khán and Alla Bacháya, Achránis, to be arrested that very night at Ahmadpur. He also had their retainers disarmed and summoned the troops at Ahmadpur to Deráwar, where they arrived at sunrise. Upon this the Achránis persuaded the Nawáb that the Faqír was planning his deposition in order to place his brother Abdullah Khán on the throne. Finding the Nawáb ill-disposed to him the Faqír again offered to resign, but was ordered not to depart until the Nawáb had received his installation *khillat* from the British Government. Soon after Sayyid Sarwar Sháh openly insulted him, upon which the Faqír drew his sword and attacked the Sayyid, but the combatants were separated and the matter hushed up. On May 11th the Dáúdpotras placed a guard over the Faqír and his brother, Sháh Nawáz-ud-Din, and three or four days later he was forbidden to pay

(1) The deed of abdication is fully reproduced in Aitchison's *Treaties*; vide Vol. IX.

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History.

Murder of
Siráj-ud-Din.

his respects to the Nawáb. The State property in his possession was taken from him and his nominees dismissed from their offices. On June 15th it was alleged by his opponents that he owed Rs. 2,00,000 to the State, and on this sum being demanded of him, he replied that he would answer to the claim on the arrival of Sarwar Sháh or Jamadár Ahmad Khán Mallezai. The former then went to the Faqír, accompanied by a number of men and used words which so enraged him that he struck Sarwar Sháh with his sword. Sarwar Shah was not injured, but his companions attacked the Faqír and killed him.

1853.

At this time the military force of the State amounted to 3,748 men⁽¹⁾ with 23 guns. This force was paid by the Nawáb, and in addition the Dáúdpotras held *jágis* in lieu of military service in time of need. Their forces were estimated at 20,000 men.

1853.

Jamadár Ahmad Khán Mallezai succeeded the murdered Faqír as Wazír. He was however obnoxious to the Dáúdpotras, and they intrigued against him.

In this year a road was constructed from Baháwalpur to Kot Sabzal. A survey was also made for the road from Karáchi in 1853-54. Friendly relations were also established with Patiála in the latter year.

Sa'ádatyar Khán at Lahore now repented of his abdication, with the result that he was confined in the Fort of Lahore and half his allowance placed under suspension. From his prison he sent a letter to the Dáúdpotras which was handed over to the Nawáb.

1854.

Rules for the extradition of offenders were prepared in 1854⁽²⁾ in communication with the Deputy Commissioner of Multán.

1855.

In 1855 the Nawáb's salute was fixed at 17 guns and in 1856 transit dues amounting to Rs. 18-15-9 per cent. had been levied on goods imported into or exported from the State. These dues were now reduced to 2 and 1 per cent. according to destination. The ferry dues were also regulated.

In 1272 H. Pír Abbas Khan succeeded Pír Ibrahim Khan as Native Political Agent on the death of the latter.

1857.

On the 20th May 1857 the Nawáb received a letter from Mr. Oliver, Superintendent of Sirsa, requesting that the troops stationed at Baháwalgarh should be sent to Fázilka, and 200 *sowárs* were accordingly sent. Later on, at the request of the Chief Commissioner, 500 *sowárs* and 500 infantry were sent towards Sirsa, and eventually about 3,000 in all were sent to that centre by the State. Traffic across the Sutlej was also suspended.

Dáúdpotra
disloyalty.

The intrigues of the Dáúdpotras continued, but they were unable to embarrass the administration of the State, and some of the malcontents quitted its territory.

REs. (1) Spearmen and jamadars 432, cavalry 589, infantry 2,083, other troops 639.
(2) Punjab Government Gazette, Vol. XV, No. 12, dated 21st March 1854.

The Nawáb's health was affected by the death of a waterman who had been punished for an unintentional intrusion in his privacy and he died on the 22nd of Safr, 1275 H. ⁽¹⁾ (3rd October 1858), leaving two sons, Sáhibzáda Rahímýar Khán and Muhabbat Khán, of whom the latter is still alive.

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History.

Death of
Nawáb Fateh
Khán, 1858.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD BAHAWAL KHAN IV, THE NINTH NAWAB.

Date of accession :—22nd Safr, 1275 (3rd October 1858).

Sáhibzáda Rahímýar Khán succeeded his father as Muhammad Bahawál Khan IV. He appointed the following officers of State :—

1858.
1866 A. D.

Wazír of the State	Jamadár Ahmad Khán, who had previously held this post.
Mustaufi-e-Daftar, or Mir Munshi	Abdul Kárim Khán.
Bakhshi of the Army	Maulavi Muzaffar-ud-Din.
Manager of the Toshakhána	Ján Muhammad.
Musáhibs, or privy counsellors	Sayyid Sher Sháh and Bandal Sháh.
Courtiers (Darbár Musáhibs)	Ali Gauhar Khán, Muhammad Razá Khán, Makhdúm Rajan Bakhsh, Gola Shah, Makhdúm Haider Bakhsh and Gul Muhammad Khán Bozdar.

In the month of the Nawáb's accession Sardár Khán, Asad Khán and Aqil Khán, who had been banished from the State and taken refuge in British territory, commenced to plan disturbances in Baháwalpur at Puggal in Bikaner, but at the instance of the British Government they were expelled from the State.

Shortly after the Nawáb's accession the Sáhibzáda, Gul Muhammad, instigated Nazar Muhammad Khán, Punnún Khán and Yúsuf Khán to rebel in order that he might be placed on the throne, but the plot became known, and Gul Muhammad was placed in confinement. Arjmand Khán, a relative of the Wazír, was also found to be concerned in this plot, and this brought suspicion on the Wazír, who was dismissed on May 25th. His relatives at Ahmadpur, however, took up arms at his behest, and a regular engagement ensued in which the ex-Wazír and 18 of his followers were killed, the State troops losing no less than 67 killed and 171 wounded. Many of the Wazír's relations were also imprisoned, but were released and banished from the State at the instance of the British Government on the petition of Nawáb Sarfaráz Khán Saddozai in December, 1861.

Dáúdpoṭra
disaffection.

Sa'ádatyár Khán died in 1861 in the Lahore Fort. His death led to a partial cessation of the Dáúdpoṭra plots, but in 1863 Punnún Khán Pirjáni, Nazar Muhammad Khán Asbáni, Yúsuf Khán Haláni, Mundhu Khán, Bahráni Khán Chándia, and Ali Gauhar Khán Máchhi determined to depose the Nawáb and place one of his uncles, Gul Muhammad or Abdulla Khán, on the throne, but they were

1861

1863

(1) The verse of Mihr Sháh, the historian, contains the date of his death :—“ *As takht ástáda naujwáne,*”

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History.

defeated by the State troops at Abrah and Punnún Khán, Nazar Muhammad and others escaped by the river and left the State. Their *jágirs* were confiscated. The Sáhibzádás, Gul Muhammad, Mubárák Khán and Abdulla Khán, were executed.

1864.

The refugees, however, did not abandon the struggle and conspired with some disloyal officials to attack Allahabad, but they had hardly crossed the river when they were encountered by the State troops. In the action which ensued Ali Gauhar Khán was killed and Nazar Muhammad taken prisoner, whereupon the rebel forces retreated. But in April 1864 Punnún Khán with other rebels of the Dashti and Shar tribes at the head of 600 men attacked Kot Sabzal from Obáura, and, though repulsed on the 10th of that month by the garrison, returned next day to the attack and were only driven off when reinforcements came up from Ahmadpur. The State troops lost 5 killed and 6 wounded in this affair. The Nawáb then offered Rs. 1,000 reward for the apprehension of Punnún Khán, and he was arrested by the Commissioner of Sind in the territory of Mir Ali Murád Khán and handed over to the State in July 1864. He was sent with Lál Bakhsh to Lahore and there detained, a monthly allowance of Rs. 25 being paid to each of them. Lál Bakhsh died soon afterwards, but Punnún Khán was permitted to return to the State in 1866. In November 1864 Nazar Muhammad, Aqil Muhammad and Ali Khán Ronjha tendered their submission and asked to be reinstated in their *jágirs*, but not being satisfied with the Nawáb's order that they must return separately to their homes as a preliminary to any consideration of their case, they formed two strong bands and made night attacks on Allahabad and Khán Bela, released the prisoners from the jails and incorporated them in their force, and levied blackmail from the Kirárs. The State troops met them on the 10th December and killed Ali Khán Ronjha; Nazar Muhammad and Ahmad Khán were taken prisoners and compelled to pass through the town of Ahmadpur East begging alms from every shop, after which they were imprisoned in the fort there. Aqil Khán escaped to the Muzaffargarh District, where he was arrested by order of Mr. Ford, Commissioner of Multán, and placed in security, but the Commissioner also obtained a monthly allowance of Rs. 20 for him from the Nawáb and this he enjoyed till his death.

The revolt
of Mundhu
Khán, Bah-
rám Khán
and others.

In August 1865 Bahrám Khán and Mundhú Khán with many Dáúdpotras, Khosas, and Mazáris, created a great disturbance at Allahabad, plundering the villages in its vicinity and prepared to attack Ahmadpur East. The rebels reached Chauhdari on the 8th of August, and the Nawáb sent troops under Sayyid Chirágh Sháh with instructions to pacify them and dissuade them from doing mischief, but they were not inclined to peace. A force was accordingly sent to reinforce the Sayyid, and the State troops met the rebels at Abrah. After a fight, which lasted eight hours, the Sayyid was captured with two guns and the rebels were victorious. When the Nawáb heard this he sent Ghulám Muhammad Cháki and Ali Gauhar

Khán with 6 guns and 400 men, cavalry and infantry, to suppress the rebels. These officers encountered the rebels on 13th August at Goth Channi, and, although the enemy was superior in numbers, he was repulsed by the State forces.

The State troops then advanced from Goth Channi on the morning of the 14th August, but the enemy, who were in ambush in a *nullah*, opened fire on them. The fighting lasted till midday, but the rebels were eventually dispersed. Fourteen of the ring-leaders were beheaded and six sent to the Nawáb with irons on their feet.

Two bands of rebels—one under Bahrám Khán Chándia and the other under Mundhú Khán and Alam Khán Gorgej again opposed the State troops on the evening of the 15th August. The two guns taken from Sayyid Chirágh Sháh were used by the rebels in this affair, but they were speedily repulsed. Bahrám Khán and others concealed themselves for the night in the Tarukri depression, and, though the troops kept watch all night on it, the rebels effected their escape to Allahabad in the latter part of the night. The two guns were found on the battlefield and taken possession of by the State forces.

During these events the Nawáb had imprisoned Mahta Phullu Mal, Kárdár of Allahabad, through whose mismanagement the revolt had broken out.

On the 18th August Ghulám Muhammad Cháki received orders from the Nawáb to proceed to Allahabad to pacify the people and confiscate the property of the rebels.

On the 19th the rebels, who were about 600 in number, crossed the Chenáb by the Bazárán ferry in the Allahabad *iláqa* into British territory; but the officials of the British Government had them disarmed and then only allowed them to enter their territory. They also took Sayyid Chirágh Sháh still their prisoner with them. A few rebels, Bhalle Khán, Kehar Khán and others still remained in the Cholistán, but they were captured by Ghulám Muhammad on the 28th August and sent to the Court of the Nawáb.

On Ghulám Muhammad Cháki's return with the army the Nawáb granted him a valuable *khillat* and rewards to his officers and men according to rank.

Ghulám
Muhammad
Cháki ap-
pointed

In recognition of his services he was also appointed Wazír on the 27th September.

Wazír.

The British Government declined to surrender the rebels who had taken refuge in its territory after this rebellion.

Pír Abbás Khán, Native Political Agent, retired in 1282 Hijri, and Sayyid Murád Sháh, the author of the *Tárikh-i-Murád*, Extra Assistant Commissioner of Multán, was appointed to succeed him on the 10th October 1865.

Sayyid
Murád Sháh
appointed
Agent.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

The death
of the Nawab,
1866.

On the night of Monday, the 7th of Ziq'ad 1282 Hijri (the 25th March 1866), the Nawáb was well and continued talking on political affairs with his grandfather till midnight, when he received news from the Wazír that some of his courtiers intended to join the rebels.

Excited at this news the Nawáb uttered a few words, declaring that in the morning arrangements regarding these men would be made, and shortly after going into the palace asked for food which was brought him by one Sultáni, a maid servant. On eating this he lost all self-control and soon expired.

Early next morning the State officials, acting on the advice of Sayyid Murád Sháh, arranged for the accession of the Sábízáda Sádiq Muhammad Khán, then aged only four-and-a-half years, under the title of Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV, on March 17th, 1866 (8th Ziq'ad 1282 H.).

NAWAB SIE SADIQ MUHAMMAD KHAN, IV, G.C.S.I., THE TENTH
NAWAB.

Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV was not installed until 1879, when he attained his majority. In the interim, from 1866 to 1879, the State was superintended by British Officers owing to the events now to be described. The period of British superintendence is known as the Agency.

No sooner, however, had the late Nawáb's bier reached the burial ground at Deráwar than Hakím Sa'adulla and others released Muhammad Jáfar Khán, a brother of Baháwal Khán III, installed him on the throne, and imprisoned all the notables who had accompanied the bier. They also made Muhammad Razá Khán Wazír, Hakím Sa'adulla Khán Mír Munshi, and Sayyid Muhammad Sháh Ghorí Commandant of the State forces, with other appointments. In this crisis the Darbáris of Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV appealed to the British Government and despatched troops to seize the usurper. This force found the rebels posted with some guns in the mosque at Deráwar, but soon drove them to retire into the fort and posted its own guns in the mosque. The rebels surrendered after a siege of nine days, and the usurper was taken prisoner. Meanwhile Ghulám Muhammad Cháki, who had been employed under the late Nawáb's orders in chastising the Dáúdpotras of the Lamma, returned to Ahmadpur. There he fell under suspicion and was arrested with the Native Political Agent's assent. The Nawáb's Wazír, Muhammad Nizám Khán, kept him prisoner in the fort at Baháwalgarh and eventually put him to death there. Shortly after this the rebel Dáúdpotras were amnestied and returned to their homes.

After the receipt of the *kharíta* congratulating the Nawáb on his accession, Sayyid Muhammad Sháh and Imám Sháh went to Lahore to solicit the intervention of Government, and Mr. W. Ford, Commissioner of Multán, was deputed to enquire into the position of

affairs in the State. He arrived at Ahmadpur East on 1st June (1866), and while he was still there the troops planned an émeute in favour of the Sáhibzáda. The Darbár promptly deported the latter, and when the troops rose, imprisoned Muhammad Nizám Khán, Jamadár Háji Khan and others and sought to place the Sáhibzáda at their head, they found they had been forestalled, whereupon they released some of their prisoners. Their leader, Imám Bakhsh Khán Máru'fáni, was arrested and sent a prisoner into British territory.

CHAP. I. B.

History.

The death
of the Nawáb,
1866.

THE AGENCY, 1866-1879.

The Dowager Begam now sent Muhammad Nizám Khán and others to Mr. Ford at Baháwalpur with a second request for intervention. This was acceded to and Mr. Ford was appointed Political Agent of the State on 4th August 1866. The Sáhibzáda, who had been detained in the Lahore Fort as a State prisoner, was, at the close of 1867, allowed to reside in the city on condition that he abstained from intrigue with disaffected persons in the State. All intrigue was not put a stop to, however, for some time, as an attempt was soon made to incite the troops at Ahmadpur East to revolt. Prompt measures on the part of Mr. Ford rendered this abortive and the ringleaders were suitably dealt with. Mr. Ford at once set about introducing needful reforms into the State.⁽¹⁾ After inquiry he ascertained the total revenue to be 22,70,767 Ahmadpuri rupees, equivalent to 14,55,210 Company's rupees. He only remained at Baháwalpur, however, until November 1866, when Captain C. C. Minchin was appointed Political Superintendent of the State, Mr. Ford returning to the Commissionership of Multán, but continuing to be Chief Political Officer and Agent to the Lieutenant-Governor for the affairs of Baháwalpur. Captain Minchin's orders on all judicial, revenue and administrative matters were final, excepting sentences of death and transportation for life, which required Mr. Ford's confirmation. Captain Minchin continued the work of reform. The *bárání* waste lands in Kádári Baháwalgarh (now Tahsil Minchinábád) were leased for cultivation to people from Bikaner, Sirsa, Ludhiána and Ferozepore, the total area thus leased amounting to 166,000 *bighás* divided into 40 villages. Assessed at one anna per *bigha* it yielded a revenue of 16,888 Ahmadpuri rupees or 10,375 Company's rupees. On the amnesty being proclaimed, the rebels of the late reign returned to their homes and this greatly accelerated the agricultural development of the State. A new head was made to the Khánwáb in the Allahábád *iláqa* and this canal, which had been closed for years, irrigated an extensive area in the Allahábád tahsil. A new channel was also cut from the river in Baháwalgarh (now Minchinábád) *iláqa* into the Hariári depression

(1) Mr. Ford made many reforms, an account of which will be found in Chapter III under the Department concerned.

CHAP. I. B. efficiently irrigating a length of 15 miles. In July 1868 Mr. J. W. Barns, F.R.G.S., was appointed Superintendent of Irrigation and he excavated many new canals. Between 1866 and 1876 the State expended Rs. 17,29,976 on canal excavations and clearances.

History.

Captain Minchin worked untiringly for the State and introduced many reforms, some account of which will be found in Chapter III under various headings. On his proceeding on leave in March 1871, Captain (now Colonel) L. J. H. Grey, C.S.I., began his long connection with the State by officiating for him as Political Agent. The work of reform was continued and the State advanced in prosperity, its income rising to 20 lacs. In 1877 salt and custom duties were abolished: Government paying the State Rs. 80,000 a year as compensation.⁽¹⁾ In 1879 the young Nawáb attained his majority and he was installed on 28th November of that year by Sir Robert Egerton, taking the name of Sadiq Muhammad Khán, IV.

The Kábul campaign.

The State had taken an active share in the first Kábul campaign, especially in assisting the Quetta column. More than 20,000 camels were procured and offered to the Commissariat Department for which also large stocks of provisions were purchased. Bullocks and ponies were forwarded in considerable numbers to Rájanpur, and 2,800 swords were furnished at the request of the Commissioner of Multán to the camp followers in the army. His Highness personally superintended all arrangements in the most energetic manner. The services of 500 foot and 100 horse were offered to the Government of India and accepted by His Excellency the Viceroy. These did not form part of the general brigade under General Watson, but were stationed at Dera Gházi Khán, where they did excellent service in strengthening frontier posts, which had been necessarily diminished owing to the withdrawal of Punjab Frontier Force for the Kábul columns, and their admirable conduct and discipline were highly praised by His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. In recognition of these services the Nawáb received the G. C. S. I. on the occasion of Lord Ripon's visit to Baháwalpur in November 1880.

The rule of the late Nawáb

The Nawáb ruled his State with the assistance of Council for over nineteen years from the date of his installation. Various Wazirs held office during that time. Shaikh Firoz-ud-dín, Wazír, having died in June 1880, the Nawáb himself carried on his duties until March 1881 when Muhammad Nawáz Sháh was appointed, but he only held office till January 1882, when Muhammad Mahdi Khán, E. A. C., was lent to the State for employment in that post. In January 1883 however he resigned, and the office remained vacant until Mirza Agha Muhammad Khán became Wazír in August 1883. He held the post till December 1888. For six

(1) Aitchison's Treaties, IX.

months the Council carried on the duties of the *wazárat* until in July 1889 Mír Ibráhím Ali, E. A. C., Mushír-i-Mál, became Wazír only to resign in March 1890. In June Shaikh Muhammad Nasír-ud-dín, E. A. C., another official lent by Government, became Wazír, but he was recalled in 1891 and Mír Ibráhím Ali again deputed for the office in February 1892. His second term of office lasted till February 1898 when Mirza Jindwáde Khán succeeded him and retained office till the end of March 1903.

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History.

The rule
of the late
Nawáb.

The Nawáb became very ill on the 7th February 1899, and although every thing possible was done for him, he expired on the 14th February. He was buried in the family cemetery of the Abbási chiefs at Derawar. On 19th February Colonel Hutchinson, Commissioner of Lahore Division, arrived at Baháwalpur, by order of the Punjab Government, to supervise affairs on the death of the Nawáb. He inspected and overhauled the treasuries and *toshakhánas* of Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur and Derawar, and having completed other arrangements, he returned to Lahore on the 11th March.

Death of the
late Nawáb.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD BAHAWAL KHAN, V.

The heir to the throne was the present Nawáb, who was a little over 15 years of age at the time of his father's death. His Highness is highly educated, having been a pupil at the Aitchison College, Lahore, from March 1897 until May 1901. His studies were also privately directed by Mr. Arthur Evill, who was appointed his English tutor in May 1897. The Nawáb finished a very successful career at the College by passing the Entrance Examination of the Punjab University. After his father's death, on the 10th March, 1899, he was called to Baháwalpur for the *dastár-bandí* (succession) ceremony, on which occasion he took his grandfather's name according to the well-known family custom and began to rule as Muhammad Baháwal Khán, V. He then returned to the Aitchison College, and the old State Council was made responsible for the administration, Colonel Grey again returning to the State as Superintendent on behalf of the Punjab Government. In May 1901, His Highness left the Aitchison College to learn the work of administration under the guidance of Colonel Grey. He went through a course of Settlement and Revenue training and made many tours in the State, finally taking over the full charge of the office of Superintendent under the supervision of Colonel Grey. His Highness was married on the 11th July 1901, and an heir was born on the 29th September 1904 and named Sadiq Muhammad Khán.

In April 1903 Colonel Grey retired, and the State was at the same time placed under the supervision of the Political Agent of the Phulkíán States, His Highness taking over the full administrative duties of the State with the Council as a legislative and

CHAP. I. B. History. advising body. On 12th November 1903 His Highness was invested with the powers of a ruling chief by His Excellency Lord Curzon at a Durbár held at Baháwalpur, this being the first occasion on which a chief of the State had been so honoured by the reigning Viceroy.

The State during the minority.

The State had increased in prosperity during the minority under Colonel Grey's able supervision and its revenue rose to over 24 lacs of rupees. An extended scheme was drawn up for facilitating and extending the advance of *takávi* to cultivators (see Chapter III). Colonisation was further encouraged by improvements in the rules for granting of leases of lands. The irrigation system of the State was placed on a sounder bases and many *pakka* works were undertaken on the inundation canals. Much of the irregular force of cavalry and infantry in the State was disbanded and an Imperial Service Camel Corps was introduced in its stead (see Chapter III, Military). A permanent boundary between the State and Dera Gházi Khán District was demarcated and similar operations on the Montgomery, Multán and Muzaffargarh borders were begun. A general census of the State was carried out in 1901. The British Government was approached with a view to the introduction of a perennial canal system into the State by the construction of a weir across the Sutlej. The decision of Government on this project is expected very shortly, and there are great hopes that it will be favourable to the State.

Present condition of the State.

His Highness is continuing the work of reform. He is about to construct a large hospital in Baháwalpur as a memorial of Queen Victoria. He has had a scheme drawn up for improving the education of the State and the budget allotment under this head has been largely increased. He is improving the State Civil Service by sending promising young men to British districts to be trained in the various forms of administrative work, and he has lately reorganised his Council and executive and judicial service with a view to the better division of State work. The present constitution of the Council is as follows :—

1. Sheikh Muhammad Nasír-ud-dín	...	Mushír Ala.
2. Maulvi Rahím Bakhsh	..	Foreign Minister.
3. Sardár Mahmúd Khán	...	Mushír Mál.
4. Shaikh Allah Dád	...	Chief Judge.
5. Diwán Asa Nand	...	Mushír Mustaufi.
6. Sardár Abdul Rahmán Khán	...	Mushír Fauj.
7. Maulavi Muhammad Dín, B.A.	...	Mushír Támirát.
8. Shaikh Muhammad Dín	...	Mushír Tasrifát.
9. Chandhri Bahádur Ali	...	Private Secretary.
10. Sayyid Muhammad Siráj-ud-dín	...	General Secretary.
11. Maulavi Abdul Malik	...	Mushír Anhár.

In precedence His Highness ranks second among the Native Chiefs of the Punjab. He is entitled to a salute of seventeen guns, and he receives a return visit from the Viceroy.

Section C.—Population.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

General characteristics of the people.

The following remarks on the general character of the Bahawalpur people are extracted from the late Colonel Minchin's manuscript :—

"The isolated position of the Bahawalpur State which lies apart from the great lines of communication with India has tended to preserve the inhabitants in their primitive manners and customs and to this must be added the fact of its lying on the bank of a series of changeable rivers, the Sutlej, Chenáb and Indus, which has prevented any large towns being built, the population being always in a state of uncertainty as to whether they can retain a fixed residence anywhere within the influence of the rivers. The few towns that have sprung up are comparatively of recent date, none of them being more than a century old. The deserts, from the date of the drying up of the Hakra River, have added another barrier. We, therefore, see in the present residents a better picture of what their ancestors in remote periods must have been than amongst races subjected to the civilising influences of trade, contact with foreign races or the life of a native court.

The people are to a certain extent nomads, having different haunts for the varying seasons. Their wealth consists in cattle, and when driven away from the rivers by floods they migrate to the deserts where succulent grain is always procurable after rain. The women rarely accompany them, many of them remaining in the villages in their houses or on scaffolds called *macháns* built to keep them out of the water and afford a little shelter from the sun. In consequence of the absence of the men with the cattle the household affairs are entirely managed by the women, and the produce of the cattle, milk, butter and *ghi*, is made over to them, as well as the cloth they spin beyond what is required for home use. They make their own bargains with the *banias* and provide from the profits whatever is required for the wants of the household."

"The people," continues Colonel Minchin, "preserve the use of bows and arrows,⁽¹⁾ especially in hunting, but the arrows have no points and the game, partridges, hares and quail, are struck with the side of the arrow and stunned. Another curious use of bows and arrows is retained (and is evidently of Scythic origin) in the ordeal by water, whereby a person accused of any heinous offence may clear himself of the charge by consenting to remain under water holding a pole fixed in the well or stream, while an arrow is shot from the side of the well and brought back by a friend of the accused. If he can remain under water until the arrow is brought back he is innocent or not guilty."

"It is a practice of everyday occurrence when a theft is committed for all the members of the household to be obliged to pass a particular spot in the dark and throw down a handful of dirt, when the opportunity is taken to restore the stolen property; if any doubt of the possibility of retaining it safely remains, no further enquiry is made and the matter drops. The belief in vampires, a Bulgarian legend as I believed, but which must be a Scythic tradition, is also in force, as two cases were reported to me in the 20 years I resided in western Punjab. With the exception

(1) This is still true of the Lamma, where blunt arrows are still used, in secret, for killing game. But since 1880 game-laws have been in force. The ordeal by water is said not to have been in use in the Dáúdpothra times, though it used to be practised in Dájal and Harraod of Dera Gházi Khan. Ordeal by red-hot iron (*bhábhelis*) used also to be in use in the Indus valley generally, and especially in those part across the Indus.

CHAP. I, C.
Population.

General
characteris-
tics of the
people.

of their veneration for relics the people at large are now as lax Muhammadans as they were formerly, I believe, lax Buddhists. Even circumcision was not strictly enforced. This was brought to my notice in a very curious way; shortly after my arrival in the State, cholera had been generally prevalent in the Punjab and vague rumours of the measures adopted to prevent its extension were spread abroad. The news that a Civil Surgeon had been appointed to the State caused the most intense alarm and within twenty-four hours every boy and man who had not undergone the operation was circumcised. It is a painful operation if not performed on babies, and in every household there was wailing and weeping as, owing to the number of operations to be performed, the local operators, barbers and hakims, had to do it as quickly as possible, and consequently very roughly, and caused such a sensation that I was inundated with reports on the subject from all parts of the State. The fear of the people was connected with the expected advent of the Muhammadan millennium and the *Isām Mahdi*, but coupled with the notion that I was prepared to play the part of Herod.

The Jats as a rule are very timid and amenable to control. Their morals are lax, and the prevalent notion is that it is only wrong to be found out. This is certainly practised in their matrimonial relations. As a rule the husbands take no notice of the adulterous connections of their wives until it becomes the subject of village talk, when they feel themselves impelled to revenge the insult, which consists not in the fault of adultery but in the notoriety it has attained. This has been repeatedly found from the evidence in trials for murder. The custom of permitting women to purchase their divorce on payment of a fixed sum, called *lunda*, is simply a legalised form of prostitution. Women have been pointed out to me who have gone through the marriage ceremony more than twenty times. On the other hand, amongst many of the tribes, girls are not married until they have long passed the age of puberty and, being no longer in the bloom of youth, are married with less ceremony and cost. Poverty is no doubt one reason for this, but pride of race is another, as, when there is a difficulty in finding a husband in the superior tribe, which they consider their daughter alone should enter, they do not allow her to marry at all, and in such cases clandestine prostitution is largely prevalent. The habit of maintaining family bards (*mirásis*) also restricts marriages; as these men take advantage of their position to recite the prowess and generosity of former generations and contrast it with the poverty and parsimony of the present members of the tribe (especially in their treatment of their *mirásis*), and to avoid their abuse they put off the marriages and avoid any occasions for calling in their services more than they can possibly help. Their hospitality is proverbial, and Masson has borne his grateful testimony to the kindness with which he was received by the people when travelling through the State in 1826, when with two rupees in his pocket, presented by Rahmat Khan, he travelled comfortably a distance of 360 miles."

Density.
Table 6 of
Part B

The area of the State may be taken in round figures at 17,000 square miles, the most recent Survey figures being 17,285 square miles. Of this area the vast tract of the Rohi or Cholistán is a barren waste, virtually uninhabited save for the *thánás* on the Bikanir and Jaisalmir border and some old inhabited sites, such as Maujgarh, Dingarh, Charkoti, Phúlra and others. The only other habitations are the scattered hamlets or *jhoks* which are peopled after a good fall of rain and abandoned when the harvest has

been reaped. On the other hand, the Sindh or alluvium of the rivers is comparatively densely populated, but, as its precise area and population are not known, the exact density cannot be given. For the whole State, Rohi and Sindh together, the density of the total population was (1901) 48 persons to the square mile, and that of the rural, excluding the urban, was 43·4 to the square mile.

The densities in the area actually under cultivation and in that capable of cultivation are given in Table 6 of Part B.

The population and density of each Kárdári is given in the margin, the density shown being that of the total population on the total area.

Kárdári.	Population 1901.	Density.	Kárdári.	Population 1901.	Density.
Minchinábád...	99,030	83·3	Ahmadpur...	123,015	54·6
Khairpur ...	81,871	34·9	Khánpur ...	166,637	58·2
Baháwalpur ...	91,954	24·2	Sádaqábád...	158,370	83·7

The State contains 10 towns and 960 villages. The population of the former is shown in the margin. Baháwalpur only shows a decrease, due to the transfer of the Nawáb's residence to Ahmadpur. The towns of Minchinábád, Ahmadpur Lamma, Khánpur and Uch show very marked increases of 31, 27, 15 and 11 per cent., respectively.

The increases are, as a rule, substantial and are a result of the general development of the State.

The average size of the village is 678 souls—highest among all the western districts of the province. The population is almost entirely agricultural, 91 per cent. (49 males and 42 females) living in villages. The average number of villages to every 100 square miles is only 71, but as nearly all the villages are in the Sindh they must be much closer together in that tract. Moreover, the word *mauza* or "village" is a purely artificial revenue term, denoting a collection of scattered *jhoks* or "hamlets" and wells with the dwelling-houses attached to them, and the number of scattered hamlets greatly exceeds the number of "villages" in this sense.

The Kirár's house, which is usually *pakka* and of two storeys, is generally in the centre of the village, and is a conspicuous object for a long distance. If the village be a *zamindári* one the proprietor's house, usually *kachcha*, is also in the middle of the village. The houses of the cultivators and menials are scattered round the larger houses in the centre. Those of the former are surrounded by *lohra*s, or enclosures of dry hedge, *bar*, and are usually *kachcha*. The menials' huts are generally of reed, *káná*, and rarely of mud.

In the Ubha the Wattu, Joya, and peasant women generally may not have ovens in their houses, but must employ the *máchhar*

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Population.

The village.

to cook bread for their households. If this is not done, the *máchhan* and her husband at once get ready to leave the village. But in the cold weather the *máchhan* need not be employed.

Parda is rarely observed in the villages, except by the sacred tribes, such as the Sayyids, Qoraishis, Bodlas, and Chishtis, and by wealthy landowners, to whose families water is supplied by *máchhans*. Other women, Muhammadan and Hindu, draw water for themselves from the village well, which is in or near its site. In the hot season, when the canals and channels are full of inundation water (*seú páni*), that water is freely used by all classes though it is not free from impurities.

Growth of
population.
Table 6 of
Part B.

Table 6 of Part B shows the population of the State as it stood at the three enumerations of 1881, 1891 and 1901 :—

The population in 1871 was 438,699 (241,072 males and 197,627 females) and the density 29·2 per square mile. The increase in the decade 1871-81 was 30·7 per cent. Making every allowance for imperfect enumeration in 1871 it is clear that this decade was one of great expansion. Under the British Agency (1866—1879) the canal system was greatly extended and internal dissensions put down. The result was a considerable influx of population from the adjacent territories.

In the 1881—91 decade these causes continued to operate under the efficient rule of Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán, IV.

In the 1891—1901 decade the increase was 10·9 per cent. This was due to the colonisation of large areas in the Kárdáris of Sádiqábád and Khánpur under that Nawáb, to the freedom of the State from epidemics in the decade and to the immigration of considerable numbers of the poorer classes from Bikanér, Jaisalmér and Jodhpur in the famine of 1896-97, as well as to mild assessments and general tranquillity.

The increase in population has not been by any means uniform

Kárdári.	TOTAL POPULATION.			PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE.	
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1891 on 1881.	1901 on 1891.
Total for the State	573,494	650,042	720,877	13·4	10·9
Minchinábád ...	77,265	91,285	99,030	18·14	8·48
Kháirpur ...	68,369	74,732	81,871	9·3	9·55
Baháwalpur ...	75,819	90,031	91,954	18·7	2·13
Ahmadpur ...	96,383	105,505	123,015	9·47	16·59
Khánpur ...	143,515	158,072	166,637	10·14	5·41
Sádiqábád ...	112,143	130,417	158,370	16·29	21·4
Actual increase on previous census.	134,795	76,548	70,835

in the different Kárdáris as the marginal table shows. There has been a universal increase in all the Kárdáris since 1881, Sádiqábád showing the largest increase (41 per cent.); the Kárdáris of Minchinábád, Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur also show remarkable advances.

The following table shows the effect of migration on the population of the Bahawalpur State according to the Census of 1901 :—

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Population.

					Persons.	Males.	Females.	Migration. Tables 8 & 9 of Part B.
<i>Immigrants—</i>								
(i)	from within the Panjab and North-West Frontier Province	40,754	24,762	15,992	
(ii)	" the rest of India	38,476	21,079	17,397	
(iii)	" " Asia	491	448	43	
(iv)	" other countries	14	8	6	
Total immigrants					79,735	46,297	33,438	
<i>Emigrants—</i>								
(i)	to within the Panjab and North-West Frontier Province	28,172	15,481	12,691	
(ii)	to the rest of India	5,322	3,129	2,193	
Total emigrants					33,494	18,610	14,884	
Excess of immigrants over emigrants					46,241	27,687	18,554	

The bulk of the immigration is from the Districts, States and Provinces in India given in the table below. There is also a considerable volume of immigration from the countries outside India as shown :—

		Total Immigrants.	Number of males in 1,000 immigrants.			Total Immigrants.	Number of males in 1,000 immigrants.
Muzaffargarh	...	1,405	626	Bombay, including			
Hissar	...	1,621	543	Sindh	4,843	523	
Lahore	...	1,698	622	Rajputana	32,487	545	
Dera Ghazi Khan	...	3,648	617	Yaghistan and			
Ferozepore	...	5,955	581	Afghanistan	469	910	
Multan	...	7,739	602	Arabia	17	1,000	
Montgomery	...	9,857	567	United Kingdom	13	538	

The emigration is mainly to the Districts, States and Provinces noted in the table below :—

		Males.	Females.			Males.	Females.
Montgomery	...	3,146	2,870	Dera Ghazi Khan	...	2,087	1,325
Chenab Colony	...	578	468	Bombay, including Sindh	...	1,987	1,378
Multan	...	4,672	3,877	Rajputana	...	1,027	757
Muzaffargarh	...	1,995	1,812				

Nett gain from (+) or loss to (—).		
Hissar	...	+ 1,246
Ferozepore	...	+ 2,380
Montgomery	...	+ 3,841
Lahore	...	+ 1,451
Chenab Colony	...	+ 1,034
Muzaffargarh	...	+ 2,402
Bombay and Sindh	...	+ 1,478
Rajputana	...	+ 30,703

The State thus gains 46,241 souls by migration, and its nett interchange of population with the Districts, States and Provinces in India, which mainly affect its population, are noted in the margin.

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Population.

Comparison with the figures of 1891 shows that Bahawalpur gained, by intra-Provincial migration alone, 12,582 souls in 1901, or 5,518 fewer than in 1891.

	1901.	1891.
Total	... + 12,582	+ 18,100
Chenáb Colony	... - 1,034	...
Muzaffargarh	... - 2,402	- 1,753

Migration.

Taking the figures for intra-Imperial migration, *i.e.*, those for migration in India, both within the Punjab and to or from other Provinces in India, we have the marginal data.

	1901.
Gain by intra-Imperial migration.	45,736

Ages.
Table 10 of
Part B.

The following statement shows the age distribution of 10,000 persons :—

Age period.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Age period.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
Infants under 1	122	115	237	50 and under 55	262	193	455
1 and under 2	132	129	261	55 " " 60	67	46	113
2 " " 3	153	149	302	60 " " 65	181	150	331
3 " " 4	164	161	325	65 " " 70	24	24	48
4 " " 5	187	163	350	70 " " 75	47	41	88
5 " " 10	827	672	1,499	75 " " 80	15	7	22
10 " " 15	627	451	1,078	80 " " 85	35	29	64
15 " " 20	411	319	730	85 " " 90	4	3	7
20 " " 25	420	398	818	90 " " 95	7	5	12
25 " " 30	461	397	858	95 " " 100	2	1	3
30 " " 35	512	429	941	100 " " 105	2	2	4
35 " " 40	287	211	498	105 " " 110	1	...	1
40 " " 45	380	309	689	110 and over	1	...	1
45 " " 50	158	106	264				

Muhammadans generally, it is said, live to a greater age than Hindús. The Joiya, Wattu and Baloch tribes and the Abbási Dáudpotras are particularly long-lived.

Vital statistics.
Tables 12 and
13 of Part B.

Births and deaths are not registered in rural areas in the State, but in the towns of Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur they are recorded, and since 1901 or 1902 they have been registered in all the municipal towns, including Jánnpur and Kot Samáha.

Diseases.

Diseases are in the main climatic and have been touched upon under Climate on p. 21 above.

In the absence of vital statistics there are no data for infant mortality in this State.

Ceremonies
during pregnancy
and
after birth.

The Muhammadans of the Ubha do not as a rule observe any ceremony during a first conception, but villagers observe the *kanji* rite, though only very rarely.

Muham-
madans of
the Ubha.

In accouchment the mother is made to lie down on a quilt spread on the floor. Her head is kept towards the north and her feet to the south. She is also told to keep her face towards the

Qibla or Mecca, so that if she die during labour in child-birth she may do so in the posture in which the dead of the Muhammadans are placed in the grave. With the exception of near female relations and the midwife nobody is allowed to go to the mother. A woman in a state of impurity, or one whose children do not live, is not allowed to see her, until after the eighth day. Like Hindús the Muhammadans also tell the mother that she has given birth to a girl.

If the child is a girl, the parents give some gram in an old black *hándí* (an old used pot) to the midwife; but if the child is a boy they give her a rupee, and the relations present also give her money, called the *wel*, according to their means.

Whether it be the hot or cold season the mother remains in confinement for one week. If in sound health she is bathed on the eighth day, provided that it is a Friday, or a Monday, which was the day on which the Prophet was born.

Báng (or the call to prayer).—Whatever the sex of the child, the midwife severs the navel-string immediately after birth and it is carefully preserved in a vessel. Afterwards the *mullah* (priest) is sent for to read the *báng* (verses repeated as a call to prayer). This he does in a loud voice in the child's ears. If the child be a girl the *mullah* gets some wheat-flour and *gur*, and if a boy he gets a rupee in addition.

Ghutti.—After the *báng* the oldest and most respected matron in the family gives the infant some milk mixed with sugar, and in some tribes, such as the Joyas, Wattús, Baloches and Diúdpotrás, water, in which a knife, sword, or any iron implement has been washed, is given to the child, the object in view being that it may grow up hardy and courageous. This ceremony is termed *ghutti*. The mother then puts on new clothes, and bathes a second time on the 21st or 24th day, after the birth. Her cast-off clothes are the perquisite of the midwife.

Wehám.—The parents of the mother give her, on the 8th, 21st or 40th day, when she bathes, the *pinnís* (a mixture of *ghi*, flour, and *gur* made into balls, weighing generally about half a *páo* each), and clothes, called the *trewar* for her and her child, and if it be a boy a *dupatta*, a cap and a *chola* or shirt, but if it be a girl a *ghaghri* or trousers and a *chunní* or sheet are given. If the parents be rich they also give a silver bracelet, or *haslí*, a silver necklet, or a gold *mohar* for the child.

Jhand.—Within the *chilla*, i.e., the forty days, and on the 8th or 21st day after birth the child's head is shaved. The '*aqíqa*' is not common among the people of the Ubha, but if observed a feast is also given to relations. Parents generally perform the *jhand* ceremony at home, but when they make a *manotí* or vow they keep a lock (*choti*) of hair on the child's head and vow to invite a *pír* if the child lives

CHAP. I, C. to a specified date, or to visit a certain shrine and there perform the *jhand*. A cow is generally given in alms on such an occasion.

Muhamma-
dans of the
Ubba.

Some people make the child put on a silver *hasli* on the last Wednesday of the month of Safr (the 2nd month of the Muhammadan year), every year until it is 12 years old. Some use the *hamdail* (necklace), adding a rupee to it every year. After the twelfth year the *hasli* or *hamdail* becomes the mother's property.

The above customs also prevail in the Lamma, but there are some differences. Thus on the occasion of a birth (whether the child be a male or female) a goat is sacrificed and the flesh distributed. No contempt is shown for a girl.

The head of a child is also put into a deep cup-shaped earthen vessel in order to make the back part of the skull grow round in form. No age is fixed for the *jhand* observance, but it is usually performed at three or four years of age at different shrines, such as—

- (1) Sáhib-us-Siar (near Sammasatta).
- (2) Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál Bukhári.
- (3) Makhdúm Jaháníán.
- (4) Fazl-ud-dín Ládlá, at which shrine the child is also swung.
- (5) Rájan Qattál (in Uch Sharíf) (see Religious Life).
- (6) Hazrat Qibla-i-Alam (in Mahár in the Kárdári of Khairpur East).
- (7) Pír Khális (in the *iláqa* of Minchinábád).
- (8) Báwa Faríd (at Pákpattan).
- (9) Pír Channhar (in the Cholistan near Derawar).
- (10) Bahá-ud-dín Zakariya (at Multan).
- (11) Jamal Darwesh (at Uch Mogla).
- (12) Bándagi Sáhib (at Uch Gílání).
- (13) Shaikh Hakim (at Mau-Mubárák).
- (14) Jetha-Bhutta (near Khánpur).

The offerings made at these shrines consist of *atta ghatta* (i.e., flour, sheep, &c.). Before starting to perform the *jhand* ceremony at a shrine it is necessary to keep a fast, which is broken with *lappi* (a mixture of *gur*, *ghi* and wheat) on arriving at the shrine. The barber gets as much silver as the hair weighs.

The '*aqíqa*', if performed, must be within seven days after the birth. The '*aqíqa*' is a purely religious observance, in which the head is also shaved, but the difference between it and the *jhand* is that the latter is a kind of *manoti*, and can be performed at any time convenient to, or fixed by, the parents, whereas the former is a religious act

and must be performed within seven days. At an 'aqiqa goats are killed and relations feasted, or the flesh distributed raw. When the flesh is cooked the bones are carefully buried.

The *doyn* ceremony is observed among the zamíndárs of Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur. On the 6th or 11th day after birth *chillre* or small loaves, also termed *doyn*, are cooked, dipped in syrup and distributed among the brotherhood.

Circumcision.—Circumcision is termed *sunnat* or *sunnatán* in the Ubha and *tahor* ⁽¹⁾ in the Lamma. No age is fixed for the rite, some performing it a few days after birth, but it is generally performed before the age of 12, at the door of a mosque.

In villages the girls sing songs on this occasion, and distribute boiled wheat, called *ghungunián*, mixed with sugar, among the brotherhood. In the Lamma the rite is called *shádi*, cooked rice is distributed, and among the agriculturists the boy's mother remains standing with the Qurán on her head while the operation is being performed, her female friends standing round her while she dips the hem of her *ghagrā* or skirt in a *kundli* or earthen plate filled with water. The foreskin (or *khol*) is preserved in a secure place: thus in the Ubha it is buried in a pit in the floor dug in the part under the water-pitchers, where the ground is always wet. The father of the boy is given money or sweetmeats by his relations and friends on this occasion.

In the Ubha the barbers, and in the Lamma the *Pirháns*, are employed for a circumcision.

While a boy is being circumcised those round him tell him to slap the *Pirháin*, who receives from the father as many rupees as the child gives him slaps. The parents, however, usually direct the boy not to slap him as they will have to pay for it.

Rasúlia.—A child who is born naturally circumcised is called a *Rasúlia* (from *rasúl*, prophet), because the Prophet Muhammad was born circumcised. The *Rasúlia* therefore is exempt.

During a first pregnancy two ceremonies are generally observed:—

Birth
Ceremonies:
Hindús,
Pregnancy.

(1). The *adh-gabh* (or mid-pregnancy).—The parents of the girl send sweetmeats, such as *chúri*, &c., to their daughter in the fourth or fifth month.

(2). *Kanjí* ⁽²⁾.—In the seventh or ninth month the parents of the girl send clothes for her and her husband, with *chúri* and other sweetmeats for herself, and make clothes for the hoped-for child to ensure its being a son. They also give their daughter finger-rings.

(1) *Tahor*=purity.

(2) The *Kanjí* is also observed on a subsequent pregnancy.

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Population.

Pregnancy.

On the other hand, the husband's father performs a third ceremony, the *dew-dhmi*. This consists in lighting a lamp in a corner of the house, preparing an effigy of Ganesh and worshipping ancestors. While worshipping he stands with his face turned to the north or towards the Ganges. He must undo the string of his *chola* or shirt while prostrating himself, as it is believed that, if he does not do so, the gods will not accept his devotions.

The *Kanji* ceremony is also observed during a second and any subsequent pregnancy.

Accouchement.

Delivery is effected on the ground; and after the child is born the mother is seated on a mat or cassock (*kiri*) of reeds. During her confinement she is attended by a midwife and her nearest relatives. Special care is taken not to allow a sweeperess, or a woman in a state of impurity, to enter her room, so much that even the voice of any such woman would not be allowed to reach her ears. As a further precaution, a knife, sword, ploughshare, or a piece of iron, is placed under her pillow, and close to the outer wall of the house a pit is dug, or a *kunali* (earthen vessel) filled with water is placed there. A fire of goat's dung is also kindled at the door, and a bundle of *mendhi* leaves dipped in water is often hung at the outer door, so that the water trickles from them. All these three articles—the iron, fire and water—are believed to be three deities who protect the child against demoniacal influences.

If a mother gives birth to a son the women round her tell her that she has given birth to a girl, the idea being that the joy felt by the mother on hearing of the delivery of a son acts detrimentally on the coming out of the secundines.

On the birth of a boy the kindred are informed through the barber, and the Bráhmaṇ is immediately sent for to note the precise time of birth and prepare a horoscope. He ascertains the planet under which the birth took place, and greets the parents if it is auspicious, or, if the reverse, warns them to take measures to avert the evil. In the case of an unlucky birth the following remedies are used to counteract the evil influences of the various planets as noted against each:—

Saturn: seven kinds of grain, or anything black, such as iron or a black buffalo, should be given away in charity.

Mars: articles of a red colour, such as copper, *gur*, cloth dyed red, oil, &c.

The Sun: articles of a reddish colour, such as *ghi*, gold, wheat, a red coloured cow, &c.

The Moon: articles of a white colour, such as silver, rice, a white cow, white cloth, &c.

Mercury and Venus : articles of a green colour, such as *mung* (a kind of pulse), green cloth, or fruit, such as oranges, &c.

Jupiter : articles of a yellow colour, such as yellow cloth, gram-pulse, yellow sweetmeats (*nukhtí and laddú*), gold, &c.

To avert the evil effects of *Ráh* (or ascending node) : cocoanuts, *ghí*, sugar (*khnd*) and *másh* (a kind of pulse), and that of *Kret* or typhon (the descending node) : *smosá* (a kind of sweetmeat) and bluish cloth are given by way of charity.

The above is termed *gírah-púj* (or worship of the planets).

Sutak or Chhut.

The family in which a birth has taken place is considered impure (i.e., in *sútak* or *chhut*) for eleven or at most thirteen days, and with the exception of its actual members all others are strictly forbidden to eat anything from the house.

On the thirteenth day all the earthen-ware is broken and the iron and copper utensils purified. Bráhmans are invited and fed. This ceremony is termed *chola* by the Kirárs in general, while the Baniás of Minchinabad call it *dasoathan* (from *das*, ten, denoting that the ceremony is observed after ten days have passed).

The name *chola* is due to the fact that the child is clothed with a *chola* or shirt on that day.

The mother bathes on the sixth day after birth and again on the *dasoathan* or *chola* day.

Chhati.

She is looked after carefully till the *chola*, and during this period is not allowed to come out of her house, but after that the restriction is removed.

On the night of the *chhati*, or of the *dasoathan*, the members of the family, in consultation with the Bráhman, propose a name for the child. The Bráhman ascertains the auspicious moment (*logán*) and utters one of the 35 letters of the Gurmukhi or Shástri alphabet, and the eldest of the family chooses a name, beginning with the letter uttered by the Bráhman, e.g., if the Bráhman names the letter *khakha*, the name proposed by the elder must be *Khilandá Ram*, *Khem Chand*, or some other name beginning with *kh*.

If there be no male elder in the family, the right of naming the child devolves upon the eldest female.

The name of a girl is generally fixed upon by the members of the family themselves without consulting the Bráhman.

A peculiar ceremony is performed on the *chhati*-day. The mother is seated on a *kiri* of reeds; and six sticks of reed, to which are affixed iron spikes to represent arrows, are placed so as to point towards her pillow. These sticks are lent by neighbours for use on

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Population.

Accouchement.

such occasions. The *bahí* (account-book) is placed near her, with a pen and inkstand, or sometimes the *bahí* alone is placed in a *topa* (a measure), opened at a page which shows a large balance due from a debtor. The omen drawn from this is that the child will turn out a great banker or money-lender, and it is also believed that *Bid-Mátá* (the goddess of Fortune) makes in the *bahí* entries of wealth and prosperity for the child. If in the period of 13 days a death occur in a neighbour's house, great care is taken not to let the mother hear the sounds of mourning. Well-to-do Kirárs manage this by beating a drum day and night, while poor people beat trays to drown the sounds.

Some Kirárs do not employ their own Bráhman for the *cholé* ceremony, but visit the temple of *Mátá Rání* at Kahrór, *Ádamwáhan* (in the Multán District), or *Jaja* in *Khánpur Kárdúrí*, where, after making offerings, they get the child clothed with a *cholé* by the Bráhman of the temple. The offerings consist of money, cocoanuts and *chúri*.

Ghutti.

Two or three hours after birth the navel-string of the child is severed, and immediately after it is given a dose of *ghutti* or *janamghutti* (a mixture of aniseed, sugar, &c.,) which can be had readymade from druggists. It is usually given by a Muhammadan midwife, who serves all Hindús at births, and they do not object to her touching the mixture, the child not being considered a Hindu until the *cholé* ceremony has been performed. Sometimes the maternal or paternal grandmother or other elderly woman gives the *ghutti*, which is usually mixed with milk from the mother's breast and given to the child in a shell or twist of cotton. It is used in the belief that it averts all the diseases of infancy.

Jhand.

The mother often makes a vow before the child is born to take it to some temple for the *jhand* (or hair-shaving rite). This ceremony is performed from fifteen months to four years of age on the *Dasehra* or *Baisákhí* day, but some Kirárs merely ascertain an auspicious hour from a Bráhman and then perform the rite. The whole head is shaved. On this occasion the brotherhood and Bráhmans are fed.

The *bodí* (or lock of hair) is allowed to grow afterwards on the occasion of a relative's marriage.

Women who have made a vow to visit a particular place, such as the *Darbár Sáhib* (the Golden-temple at Amritsar), the Ganges, or a saint's shrine, go there to perform the *jhand*. Kirárs of the *Ubha* generally visit the shrine of *Báwa Faríd* at *Pákpattan* on this occasion.

Women who have not made any such vow observe the *jhand* rite in an auspicious hour fixed by a Bráhman, in a temple, a *shiwála* or *dharamsála*.

The number of males in every 10,000 of both sexes is shown below :—

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Population.

Sex.
Table 16 c
Part B.

Census of					In villages.	In towns.	Total.
ALL RELIGIONS	1871	5,403
	1881	5,482
	1891	5,405	5,354	5,482
	1901	5,456	5,548	5,483
	1901	5,483	5,487	5,489
CENSUS OF 1901	Muhammadans	5,465	5,487	5,474
	Hindús	5,553	5,408	5,584
	Sikhs	5,947	6,200	5,963
				

The marginal table shows the number of females under five

Year of life.	All reli- gions.	Hindús.	Muhamma- dans.	Sikhs.
Under 1 year
1 and under 2 years	945.3	939.5	947.7	746.3
2 " " 3 "	971.5	913.7	984.2	748.3
3 " " 4 "	968.7	938.9	977.6	741.2
4 " " 5 "	978.8	983.8	979	888.9
	872.8	924.6	867.5	684.2

years of age
to every
1,000 males,
as returned
in the Cen-
sus of 1901.
Thus the
proportion
of girl chil-
dren to boys

is fairly good. Prior to the establishment of the Agency in 1866 female infanticide was practised by certain tribes, such as the Joiyas, but it is now extinct, though its effects still survive in the general tendency to treat girl children with less care than boys.

CIVIL CONDITION.

Celibacy is disliked and avoided, for *chhare sir sare, dp pakende rotian, dp bharende ghare*, "bachelors are unlucky because they must cook their own food and fill their own pitchers." And a bachelor's character is said to be

Celibacy.

*Chhare gheo de ghare.**Tarapp de berí ute chare.*

"Bachelors are like pitchers full of *ghí*; they climb a *berí* tree at a leap." Matrimony is a far more expensive business for the Hindu than it is for the Muhammadan, and the latter are simpler in their religious and ceremonial observances than the former.

Table 14 shows the age distribution of the unmarried, married and widowed of all religions.

In this State the Hindús are given to infant marriage, but Muhammadans usually defer it until the girl has attained puberty; and even if a girl is married at an early age, the *sirmel* ceremony is only held when she has reached that age. Nevertheless, women marry early as compared with men, and very commonly men of full age or even old men are married to young girls. Among Hindús marriage, as a rule, takes place between 4 and 12, and among Muhammadans between 12 and 25.

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Population.

Polygamy.

Polyandry is unknown, and polygamy is only practised by the well-to-do zamíndárs, tribal chiefs and public servants, who draw good pay, whether Hindús or Muhammadans. The Hindús of this State are, to a great extent, influenced by Muhammadan customs and ceremonies, and do not consider polygamy objectionable.⁽³⁾ Some of the Sayyids and Qoraishis, who usually give their daughters in marriage to a near kinsman and have thus a very limited circle of alliances, prefer to give a girl as a second or third wife, within the degrees allowed by Muhammadan law. Some of the Jats and other agricultural tribes out of prejudice against the name of father-in-law do not marry a daughter at an early age, and, even if they marry her early, postpone the observance of the *sirne* ceremony for a long time.

Efforts have been made by officers from time to time to remedy this but without tangible results. Owing to this cases under Section 498 of the Indian Penal Code are often brought in the courts, and, although the offence is compoundable by law, yet taking into consideration the evil consequences of the custom, the authorities of the State have left it to the discretion of the courts to accept a compromise in such cases or not.

Marriage
ceremonies.
Muhammad-
ans of the
Ubha.
Betrothal.

The marriage ceremonies in vogue among Muhammadans in the Ubha are as follows:—

As a rule the men of the family, in person or through a *mirási* or a barber, first settle the preliminaries, and then the boy's father (*putreta*) with a few relations pays a visit to the girl's father (*dheta*), taking with him a silver *hassi*, *kárian*, a *pathi mundri* (or finger-ring), a *trewar* (i. e., a set of three garments, viz., a petticoat (*ghagra*), a sheet (*chunni*) and a *kurta* with a pair of embroidered shoes (*kannedér* or *bánati*), some *gur* (to be distributed among the girl's relations) and a few rupees (well-to-do zamíndárs give from Rs. 21 to Rs. 40). The *dheta's* relations come out to receive the *putreta's* party, and when the two parties are seated, one of the girl's party says: *niyat khair ákho*, i. e., "pray for the good of the couple."⁽⁴⁾ This marriage prayer is called the "*dúd-i-játiha-khair*," or prayer for blessings on the couple. The *dheta* barber now distributes *gur*, presents a *lungi* on behalf of the *dheta* to the *putreta*, and then tries to seize his *chadar* and keep hold of it until he gets a rupee from him. Then all present congratulate the parties, repeating *mubarak, mubarak!* No feast is given on this occasion.

Roti-khāwan.

After the betrothal and before the marriage the *roti-khāwan* is observed, thus:—The boy taking Rs. 11 with him goes to his father-in-law's house, and drops the money into the dish in which

(3) The number returned as having two or more wives, in the Census of 1901, was Hindús 45 and Muhammadans 677, but the actual numbers are far greater and the Census figures are much below the mark.

(4) Lit. 'proclaim the honourable intention.'

food is given him. The girl's parents take these rupees and give him a *lungī*, and sometimes a silver or gold ring as well. The boy remains at their house for one night. The marriage is celebrated not less than six months and not more than four years after this observance.

At the Id, or the last Wednesday in the month of Safr which follows the *roti-khāwan*, the boy's father sends the girl shoes, clothes and *pinnīān* (a kind of sweetmeat) or *seviyān* (vermicelli), a pair of shoes or sometimes a rupee and some *ghī*. The boy also takes a stout rope and a coloured board (called *pīrhi* in the Ubha) to her house and there swings his sister-in-law and other girls of the village (who are also regarded as his sisters-in-law). This ceremony is general among the *Wattū*, *Joyā* and *Kharl* tribes.

The *Bākhrīs*, and a few other tribes in the Ubha observe the *jhulka* ceremony, which is thus described.

Two or three days before the date of the marriage is fixed, the members of the bridegroom's family go with the *sabāla* (or best man) to a tank, or a well or canal, and there the latter endeavours to kindle a fire under a pan of water, while the others try to prevent his doing so and throw the water in the pan over each other, and return to their homes with dripping clothes.

The date for the wedding (or *gandh* having) been fixed the boy's father sends Rs. 21 as a *līg* (or due) to the girl's father, and invites his friends and relations by sending them a *mauli* or thread in which knots are tied. The brotherhood or *mel* is next given two feasts, called *rotī*. Before the departure of the marriage-procession the boy's sisters and brother's wives (*bharjāis*) bring pitchers (*gharolīs*) filled with water, with which the barber or *māchhi* (the village baker) bathes the *ghot* (or bridegroom) over a basket (*khārā*). After this the barber is paid his due, and the *tambol* or wedding presents are given. The amount of the *tambol* varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 101. Like the *Hindūs* the *Joyā* and *Wattū* tribes observe the *jandī* cutting rite. When the marriage party reaches its destination the *dhetā's* women receive them with abusive songs or *sithinis*. A lamp placed in a sieve is hung over the gateway of the girl's house and this the bridegroom must break. The girl's *ghagri* (or petticoat) is also thrown over the boy's head and round his neck. The bride's sisters also crack jokes with the bridegroom. Finally a few members of the brotherhood and the *Mullāh* read the *nikāh*.

The father usually gives the following articles to his daughter:—A silver *jorī* (*jorī* is a small ear-ring with silver pendants), a gold nose-ring (*nath*), a silver *buhatta* or armlet, a *chūr* (of 5 or 7 *tolās*), an iron-grate (*chulth*), a *karchhi* (or iron ladle), a cup, a tray, a fan, a *pitār*, a small *pitār* or basket, a *surme-dānī* (or a box for antimony), a quilt (*lef*), a plate, a pillow (*sarhāna*), a *muhārā* or curtain of a red colour to keep off mosquitoes, bedding (*vichāondān*),

CHAP. I. C. a table-cloth (*kandúri*), a couch (*palangh*) and a square stool (*píhrá*).

Population. Dowry. These articles cost about Rs. 40 or 50. He also gives his son-in-law a *lungí*, a turban (*pag*) and a silver ring (*mundrí*), or (*chháp*), which cost from Rs. 4 to Rs. 10.

Sattowára. The bride stays six days at her husband's house, returning on the 7th to her parents, where she remains about six weeks. This ceremony is termed *sattowára*.

Parda. The bride keeps *parda*, i.e., does not show her face to her father-in-law for six or seven days, after which her veil is removed.

The marriage ceremonies in vogue among the Muhammadans of the Lamma are described below :—

Betrothal. Betrothal is called *mangnán* or *míngeta*. On the date fixed for the betrothal the *pu'rets* or boy's father's party pay a visit to the *dheta* or girl's father, and this visit must be paid at night and on the 1st, 5th, 7th, 11th, 14th, 17th, 19th, 21st, 25th, 27th, or 29th of the lunar month. The bridegroom accompanies the party which takes a quantity of *patásás* (sugar cakes) with them, and on arriving at the girl's house the *du'á-i-fátiha khair* or *niyat-khair* is observed, the ceremony being begun by the person who arranged the betrothal. After this the parties exchange congratulations and the bridegroom is given a *lungí*. The boy's father usually distributes the *patásás*, while the bride's father entertains them with milk. The bridegroom's party returns home the same night. Subsequently a party of women visit the girl's father on behalf of the bridegroom's father, taking with them *patásás* and a *trewar*, comprising a *bochhan*, in which are tied some coins (varying from annas 4 to Rs. 25), fruit weighing from $2\frac{1}{2}$ *páos*^(b) to 5 *sérs*, a bracelet, a set of bangles and a ring (or *pathi-mundrí*), and these ornaments and clothes are put on the bride by the women.

In well-to-do families a woman who makes bangles accompanies the party to the bride's house and puts glass or ivory bangles on her. In other cases the bride is taken next day to a shop and the bangles are bought and put on there. After this the nose of the bride is bored, and as a compensation for the pain she is given $1\frac{1}{2}$ *chhatáks* or $1\frac{1}{4}$ *páos* of sugar-candy. Finally the visitors are feasted with *choba* (rice or bread with *ghí* and sugar) by the bride's father, but nothing that has been cut with a knife, such as meat, is given them. This ceremony is termed *nath-súrā*.

Chandránán. On the first day on which the new moon is seen in the lunar month following the betrothal the bridegroom visits his father-in-law in order to congratulate him on the new moon, and takes his meals in his house. This is termed *chandránán khiwan*. The bridegroom drops from Re. 1 to Rs. 10 according to his means in the plate in

(b) A *páo* = $\frac{1}{2}$ of a *sér*.

which food is given him, and his father-in-law in return gives him a ring. CHAP. I, C.

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Chandranán.

After the *chandranán* on both the 'Ids, on the 'Ashūra (the 10th of Muharram), the *Shab-barát* and the last Wednesday in Safr the boy's father sends uncooked food (rice, *ghí*, sugar, &c.) to the bride. Here, again, nothing that has been cut may be sent, and this rule is observed even on the *Baqr-'Id* day (the festival on which sheep, &c., are sacrificed).

The father of the boy, accompanied by his brotherhood and taking with him some *gur* or *patásús*, visits the bride's father, and after consulting him fixes dates for the following ceremonies :— Gandhin-
páwan.

- (1) the *mendhí kholan dí*, or unplaiting the hair;
- (2) the *chíkún-dí*, the day on which *batná* is rubbed on the bodies both of the boy and girl, and on which the *gánás* are tied; and
- (3) the *dhoe-dí*, the date of marriage.

These dates are generally fixed at some intervals, thus if the 11th be fixed for the *mendhí*, the 14th and 17th are fixed for the *chíkún* and *dho*, respectively.

From the date of the *chíkún* ceremony till her marriage the bride wears dirty clothes and is said to be in *máyán*, which the bridegroom also observes. The beating of drums, &c., begins from the very date of the *chíkún*. On the day of the *dho* the bridegroom mounts the *khéra* (a basket) and breaks some *chhunís* (small earthen covers for pitchers, &c.).

The marriage-procession starts in time to enable it to reach its destination at the time of the *zuhr* (the second prayer, recited between 1 and 3 P.M.), or in the first quarter of the night. Villagers prefer to receive the party at the *zuhr* time, while townspeople prefer the night.

Drums, trumpets, &c., are carried on the back of a camel along with the marriage-procession, and on arriving at the bride's village the bridegroom and his best man (*sabálá* or *sarbálá*) are made to stay apart in a hut (*sahal*) where they remain till the *nikáh*. But this custom is more general in villages than in towns.

The boy's father usually takes with him some fruits; *gur*; *tí*, *shakkar* (sesamum and sugar mixed); *haslí* (necklet); ring; *tarora* (an ornament worn on foot); *bukatti* (armlets); *takhtí*; *nawátin*, or *patrián* (square pieces of silver worn round neck); all of silver; *nath* (a gold nose-ring, which, however, is more generally given by the townspeople); and *tarewar*, or *tarear*, three garments, viz., *bochhan* or *dopatta*, *choldá* or *kurta*, and *ghagra* (petticoat) or *sulthán* (trousers): a *ghagra* being given by the Ját tribes in general and a *sulthán* by the Biloches.

Dowry.

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Dowry.

In villages the bride's father generally gives no feast to the bridegroom's party, and in towns too this custom is practised but rarely.

In the morning a *vakil* (guardian) and two witnesses go to the bride to ask her consent to the contract, and when she gives it the *nikāh* ceremony is performed according to Muhammadan law. The barber or the *mirāsī* distributes *til*, *shakkar* or sesamum and sugar among those present.

In villages the bride is taken to her husband's house on the back of a camel, ox or a mare, while in towns she rides in a *rath* (chariot) or on a mare, the custom of using a *doli* or palanquin being in vogue in this tract.

Sattowāra.

Three or six days after the marriage the bride's mother relations visit her, and in their presence and that of other women of the brotherhood the couple untie each other's *gāndās*. This is termed *gāndā-choran*. The women of the bride's family distribute *tikre* (a kind of sweetmeat) and those of the bridegroom's *chūrī*, and the women of the brotherhood put *patāsās* in the bride's lap. This ceremony is called *gadd*.

The bride is taken back to her parent's house on the 4th night and stays there for an hour or two only. (This custom is more general in towns.) On the morning of the 4th day both bride and bridegroom visit the house of the former's parents and there take their supper, after which they return. This ceremony is termed *sattowāra*.

Marriage
Ceremonies
among Hindūs.
Betrothal.

Among Kirārs the preliminary arrangements for the betrothal are settled by the women, which done, the fathers and other male relatives of the pair meet in a *dharamsāla* or *thākardwāra*, where the *dhetā* (bride's father) generally presents a rupee, a cocoanut and a turban or *lungī* to the *putretā*, the bridegroom's father. Upon this the assembly congratulate the two fathers and the betrothal is held to be complete. No presents other than the above are exchanged. The ceremony of betrothal is performed without regard to age, and sometimes children yet unborn are betrothed. Betrothal depends on the parents' consent, and not on the wishes of the pair. Khatris and Brāhmans likewise perform betrothals in this way. The Brāhmans, however, also observe the ceremony called *kesar-wāli chithi* (a letter sprinkled with saffron) if the bride's father lives at a distance. This consists in sending a letter to the bridegroom's father, accepting the latter's offer of the betrothal, by a Brāhman or sometimes through the post.

Some super-
stitions con-
nected with
betrothal.

Among the Kirārs in general some curious superstitions prevail. Their principle is that betrothal cannot be annulled unless the boy becomes impotent, leper or otherwise incurably diseased. If then the bride or bridegroom falls dangerously ill the ceremony called *mathe-lagāwan*^(*) is performed to cancel the betrothal. Thus, if the girl be

(*) (Lit, touching the forehead).

at the point of death the boy goes to her and standing by her death-bed gives her some sweets, saying '*hán káki mithái ghin,*' 'dear sister, take this sweetmeat,' and she must reply '*liá bhiráwá,*' 'brother give it me.' If the boy be sick the girl performs the same ceremony. This cancels the betrothal contract, but if the sick child recover and the parents of the couple agree to the renewal of the contract fresh betrothal ceremonies are again performed by the parties in the ordinary fashion. The *mathe lagáwan* must be done at the house of the sick child; but his or her parents would not allow this, as it would bring calamity on their family, so they do their utmost to prevent it. If they knowingly permit it no other Kirár will contract an alliance with them. Consequently guards are posted at the door of the sick child's house to prevent the intruder who makes every effort to do so. Both sides resort to violence, so much so that sticks are sometimes used and serious affrays ensue. Disguise is even sometimes resorted to in order to obtain access to the sick child; for instance, in the garb of a sweeper, etc.; but if this too fails, it is sufficient for the betrothed to strike his or her forehead against the wall of the sick child's house. This knocking the wall, which is termed *sawan*, must be performed within four days from the sick child's death, after which it is of no avail. If a child fails to perform the *mathe lagáwan* or *sawan* he or she cannot get a second betrothal, being regarded as ill-starred; but if the ceremony be duly performed, he or she is considered purified, and can freely contract a second betrothal.

Sawan.

After the completion of the betrothal no presents are exchanged by the parties, though Khatrís send some presents for the girl on festive occasions; but in Baháwalpur people usually give clothes, sweetmeats, toys, etc., to a son-in-law or daughter-in-law, and this custom is termed *subhá*. The Bhábrás give ornaments in addition to the abovementioned articles, and call the usage *pasni*.

Subhá.

The Hindús have two distinct forms of marriage :—

- (1) The *brahm biáh*, or marriage in which the bride's father, so far from receiving a price gives her as much as he can afford.
- (2) The *asur biáh*, or marriage in which the father receives consideration, the amount varying from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500.

Marriage
ceremonies;
Shadi
or
Biáh.

The latter is in vogue among the lower, and the former among the higher, classes.

Marriage is forbidden in the months of Chet and Poh, during the *Singh-gat* which occurs every twelve years and usually lasts 13 months, and the 2½ months, every year during which the planet Venus is invisible. No particular date is fixed to consummate marriage after the betrothal. It depends on the choice of the parents. When an understanding is come to, the *putreta* sends a message to

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the *dhetā* asking him to come and receive *gur*, termed the *bālri dá gur* (or *gur* for the bride). The latter together with a number of his relations visits the bride's house where he takes morning and evening meals. *Kesús* (flowers of the *dhak* tree) are boiled and the yellow water thus obtained is sprinkled over the bridegroom's party after the former meal, and then the bride's father presents four *lungís* and three other clothes (a *lungí*, a *dhotí* and a turban or two *lungís* and a red turban) to the bridegroom's father, and his companions are each given a rupee and a cocoanut.

The *Dakhaná* Aroras call this the *murhe* ceremony and observe it thus :

The bride's father sends, through his *Bhāt*, from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25 in cash, and an equal number of cocoanuts : from 5 to 11 seers of *gur*: and the same amount of rice and butter: with turmeric, *jalebís*, a cup, sugar, vegetables, women's clothes (usually one suit) and a cow, to the father of the bridegroom, and these things are shown to his brotherhood, who in return present rice and dried fruits cooked together (termed *giráhi* or *chhannán*).

Next the fathers of the pair consult their Bráhmans who ascertain in concert the *sāh* or *mahúrat* (lucky hour), and prepare two statements, called the *kāj-ganetrá* (marriage programme). These are first plastered with *gur* and then *kaṅgú* (a colour prepared from red turmeric) is sprinkled on them. Pictures of Ganesh⁽⁷⁾ are then drawn on them and worshipped.

The *kāj-ganetra* gives the times astrologically fixed for the following ceremonies :—

Cháng.

The fathers of the pair each invites seven young girls of his brotherhood to his own house.

These girls are called the *sat-suhágans*—*suhávan* is a young woman whose husband is alive, and the object of this ceremony is that the bride may never become a widow. They grind the flour to be first used on the marriage days as a good omen, the remainder required being obtained elsewhere. When this is done gram is soaked in water and distributed among the people of the village. The father of the bridegroom sees his near kinsmen personally and invites them to the marriage feast. Other relations are sent a clove in token of invitation, but this is usually only sent to those who have to give a *tambol* (present).

Pán-mohla.

The parents get the dresses to be worn by the pair on the marriage day dyed in their own homes at a particular moment fixed in the *kāj-ganetrá*. This dye is also prepared by the seven *suhágans* who grind the *pán* or dye to powder in a mortar (*mohla*).

(7) The picture of Ganesh is always drawn when beginning any writing, even in writing ordinary letters or the daily *khátdá* or *bahí* (account-books) it is not neglected. The figure drawn to represent Ganesh is read thus—'Sri Ganeshá annamá,' which means 'O God Ganesh, I bow before thee'.

The seven *suhāgans* generally grind about half a seer of wheat and the flour thus made is put into the *kūhli* (an earthen bin to store flour in) on the first *āmāwas* that follows, i.e., on the 29th of the lunar month, where it remains till the marriage is over, after which the flour is taken out of the *kūhli*, mixed with a large quantity of other flour, and then baked into bread and eaten by the married couple and other members of the brotherhood.

The fathers of the pair worship the nine planets.

This ceremony is in reality a repetition of the *chūng* and is sometimes called the *chhoti chūng*.

Oil is rubbed on the heads of the bride and bridegroom in their respective houses.

When *mutak-bāndhnā* is done the procession marches towards the *dheta's* house, a diadem (*mutak* or *mukat*) of paper or of silver is put on the head of the bridegroom; but the bridegroom may neither bathe nor put on new garments when going to his father-in-law's house remaining in the dirtiest possible clothes till he reaches the *dheta's*.

Before the marriage procession sets out the father of the bridegroom gives a feast of *sirā* (prepared of coarsely ground wheat and *gur*) and rice to the residents of the village. The procession usually starts in the day time. When beyond the boundaries of the village the bridegroom cuts a branch from a *jandi* tree, getting a sword from the *chaukidār*. While he is so engaged the Brāhman fastens the corner of the *dopatta* or *chaddar* of his sister or niece to the *chola* or *chaddar* of the bridegroom (*ghot*) and makes him move in a circle, followed by the sister or niece, six or seven times, at a slow pace. This circumbulation is called the *lāwān* or *lāwen*. The branch of the *jandi* so cut is taken back to the house by the mother and kept safely. When the *ghot* performs the *lāwān*, his mother or paternal aunt takes a small basin full of water on her hand, turns it round over her head, in the form of a *sinwārna* (as is done by the courtiers of a native ruler in presenting *nazars* to him at a *Darbār*) and drinks the water in the basin. This she continues to do until the *lāwān* are over. When the procession nears the bride's village some people of her party come out to meet them and indulge in practical jokes and try to lead them astray. When the marriage-party reaches the village, the bride's party give them a reception termed *Rām-sat*. At the door of the *dheta's* house the *khoja*⁽⁵⁾ (or *kotāna*) erects a *pattal* of reeds to prevent the marriage-party from entering. The bridegroom's father then pays the *khoja* a rupee, and spreads the *pattal* on the ground and the marriage-party and the *ghot* sit on it. The bridegroom's father then sends some clothes and ornaments to the bride's mother and she sends him a set of feminine garments. Meanwhile several girls, with the bridegroom's sister-in-law, if he has one, at their head, visit the bridegroom, and

(5) The *Khoja* or *Kotana* is the *Musalli* of the Punjab, i.e., a *Chuhra* or sweeper converted to Islām.

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play at *khodaknās* with him. The *khodaknās* are called *songidāwan-wātrā* in the State, and can be got ready made from an apothecary. The *dāwan-wātras* are sugar-balls, ten in number, of the size of an apple, and they are put in a brass plate by the girls and presented to the *ghot*, who is asked to pick them up, but when he tries to do so they are snatched from his grasp, and, until he picks them all up, he is teased by the girls who often slap him during the game.

After the game is over the *jājak* (or priest) measures the bridegroom, with a *mauli*, thread, from his feet to the *mutak*, and puts the thread in his sister-in-law's tray in which the *khodakna* game was played. This measuring of the *ghot* with the *mauli* thread and placing it in the *sālī's* tray is called *pashkora*, and is regarded as a *rakh* or protector of the *ghot*. It is included in the *kāj-ganetrā*. The *dhetā's* party then present the *ghot* with a cup of milk to drink, which, however, is first sipped by the *kawār*, who puts some of her saliva into it to ensure, it is belived, the perpetual love and adherence of the husband. The *ghot*, aware of the device, throws the milk away. Then he is taken to the threshold of *kawār's* house, where the ceremony of *lassiper*⁽⁹⁾ is observed, thus:—

Lassiper.

A large wooden dish is filled with *lassi* (diluted milk), and in it the pair put their right feet, the bridegroom placing his foot over that of the bride, the latter has in her foot a piece of *gur*, which the bridegroom tries to snatch away by force; and during this struggle the sister of the bride and other girls (*saheliān*) throw an old *ghagri* (petticoat) belonging to the *kawār* over his neck and then tie it as if his neck were her waist; the idea being that by so doing the bridegroom will always remain submissive to the bride.

Immediately after the *lassiper* ceremony, or a little before it, the *sabāla* (who is always the bridegroom's sister's husband, his sister's son, or if none are available a boy of the family in which a girl related to bridegroom is married), performs the ceremony of *neori* (or rope) thus:—

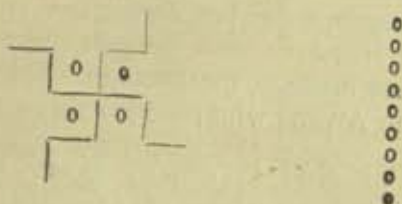
Neori.

A piece of rope is fastened so as to hang from the lintel or upper part of the door (*dahliz*). The *sabāla* cuts it with a sword, or a knife (*chhuri*), which he afterwards makes over to the bridegroom's mother-in-law or sister-in-law, to signify that he has thrown down his weapons.

To make fun of the *sabāla* the *neori* (or rope) is wrapped round an iron wire which the *sabāla* cannot cut, in spite of repeated attempts, while jokes are made by the girls at his lack of strength, and much humour prevails among the matrons standing by. The bride and bridegroom are then allowed to enter the inner chamber and bathed on two separate *khārās*, after which they are made to put on new clothes and seated on two other *khārās*. These clothes are supplied by the bride's father.

(9) *Lassiper* and *neori* are neither included in at the *kāj-ganetrā* nor is any special time fixed for their observance.

The *wedi* :—Now comes the time for the *wedi*, which is a part of the *kāj-ganetrā*. The bride and bridegroom are seated facing the Ganges and the Brāhman draws *Ganesh di lakir* (or the lines of Ganesh) thus :—



The *swastika* is to represent Ganesh, with nine small circles opposite it for the nine planets. He places some *chamba* flowers, rice, *gur* and two *takās* (the Bahāwalpūri copper coin) in the figure of Ganesh, while in the nine circles he puts the following colours :—

Kangu⁽¹⁰⁾ (also called *rori*, as generally in the Punjab). *Sandhūr* (vermillion). *Gulab* (pink). Powdered *mehndi*, or henna (green). *Hurmachi* (red). *Sirāla* (blue-black). Dead black is prohibited. Turmeric (yellow).

This done the Brāhman recites the *wedi*, and while he is so engaged the bride and bridegroom each hold a lamp of kneaded dough in the right hand: the hand of the latter resting on that of the former. This ceremony is called *hath-lewa* or *hath-mel* (taking or joining of the hands). Meanwhile the Brāhman performs the *harcan* or *hom* ceremony, pouring walnuts, barley, *grit* (*ghi*), sesamum, honey and sugar by means of a wooden-ladle, shaped like a human hand, into the fire. When the recitation of the *wedi* is nearly complete, the couple go thrice round the figures of Ganesh and the nine planets. During this circumambulation, which is termed *lāwān*, the skirt of the bride is kept fastened to that of the bridegroom, this is called the *pallopalli*. Without the rounds (or *lāwān*) the *wedi* is *kachchī*, or incomplete; but when they have been performed the *wedi* becomes *pakki*, or complete and binding. In the course of the *lāwān* the Brāhman makes the bride put on seven ivory bangles, other bangles being put on at any time afterwards. When the rounds have been completed the Brāhman separates their hands and makes them join their foreheads. This is the *sir-mel*. Then the couple stand with folded hands and prostrate themselves before the sun, addressing it according to the directions of the Brāhman, thus '*Sūraj bhagwān dewtā tūn sākhi hain*,' i.e. "O Sun god, thou art a witness (to our contract)." *Doli* (a palanquin):—The bride is then put in a palanquin and bidden farewell.

(10) It is the colour with which Brāhmins generally make the caste-marks (*tikā*) on their foreheads.

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Dowry:—A *dheta* of average income ordinarily gives ornaments worth Rs. 101⁽¹¹⁾ and one of better means gives 11 *tolas* of gold, but if very rich he may give 15 *tolas* of gold but not more. People usually do not go beyond these limits, though if a man be unusually rich he may give more in secret. If he gives more openly he calls the portion exceeding the 15 *tolas* a *dán* (or gift), and announces it as given to the bride by her brother, mother, etc. This custom only obtains in cities among the Aroras who practise the *brahm-biáh*.

In villages 2½ *tolas* of gold is usually given, but the rich villagers give 11 or 15 *tolas*. Those who practise the *asur-biáh* give but very few clothes and ornaments.

There are no such limits fixed for the bridegroom's father: he may give as much as he can afford.

The bride's father usually gives gold ear-rings, silver *takhtián* (a kind of necklace), (*tawiz-tilái*) and, if his means allow, he gives also a cow and a set of ivory bangles.

The bridegroom's father gives a *chámkalí* of gold (worn round the neck), a *katmálá* (neck ornament), a silver *hasli* (a ring worn round the neck), a pair of *karian* (or foot bangles), *kangan* (bracelet), *gajre* or *paunhchián* (bracelet), a silver necklace, *tore* or hollow *karian*, *charotri* or *chelkián* worn round the waist, gold and silver finger-rings, *chhalle* (or large rings enamelled), and a gold or silver *dáoni* (an ornament worn on the forehead). The above are the usual gifts among people of middling position. Poor people give what they can, while the rich give as much as their means would allow.

Sattowárá:—The bride stays at her husband's home for one day, after which she returns to her parents. This is termed the *sattowárá*; but if any *girah* (or unlucky planet) intervenes her return is delayed.

The ceremonies described above are in vogue among the Kirárs (or the Aroras in general). Some of them are also in vogue among the Khatris and Bráhmans, but these have some ceremonies peculiar to themselves. Thus the *káj-ganetra* of the Sársut Bráhmans and Khatris also includes the *sagan-pinni*, a rite which is thus performed:—

Sagan-pinni.

The bridegroom after bathing puts on new clothes and sits in his house. The bride's father and relations bring a pot filled with curd, some trays of *gur*, a vessel containing butter, and a *gadwi* full of reddish yellow water prepared from the grains of *tun*, or from saffron (according to their means). Both the parties then make their respective Bráhmans perform Ganesh-worship, and the

(11) Before 1866 the Baháwal Khani rupee was used; but now the townspeople give 101 rupees of the Government of India. The village Hindús, however, still give ornaments to the value of 101 Baháwal Khanis or nearly 80 rupees of British coinage.

bride's Bráhmaṇ sprinkles the coloured water on the bridegroom's party generally, and on the bridegroom in particular, while the bridegroom's Bráhmaṇ treats the bride's party in the same way. CHAP. I, C.
Population.

The bridegroom's father is now offered some *gur* on behalf of the bride's father, and the bridegroom is given a present in cash, varying from Rs. 5 to any sum that the bride's father can afford. Finally they disperse uttering the words 'Rám, Rám.'

A few women taking with them (on behalf of the bridegroom's father) a present called *gadd*, consisting of almonds, sugar, weighing in all about a maund; and gold and silver leaves, together with fresh and dried fruits placed in dishes, visit the house of the bride's father. A part of this present is put into the skirt of the bride. The remainder is, however, returned to the bridegroom's father by the *putreta*. In the evening again women of the girl's side bring to the *putreta* a large number of *pinns*, or balls made of a mixture of wheat flour with the syrup of *gur*, prepared by the special *jajak* of the *dhetá's* family. The above is called the *sagan-pinni*. Moreover the ceremony of *sagan-halúfa* (in observing which the bride's father sends 17 to 25 *pakwáns*, sweet bread parched in *ghi*, to the father of the bridegroom) is peculiar to the Khatris and the Sársuts.

The ceremony of *mutak* is called *ghori* (lit. a mare) by the Khatris and the Sársuts. The mare on which the Khatri or Sársut bridegroom rides is sent by the bride's father.

Noteworthy peculiarities:—Polygamy is not uncommon among the Hindús of the State. They can marry two or three wives actually but generally do so with the object of getting offspring. However rich Hindús, especially those in State employ, are habitual polygamists. Every Hindu male when he thinks of marrying goes to a Bráhmaṇ well versed in palmistry, and shows him his hand to find out if he is destined to have one wife or more in his life. If he is fated to have two wives a sham marriage is performed to allay the fears of the girl's father and to fulfil the decrees of heaven, i.e., he is first married to a *maliki* (earthen pot), the necessary ceremonies being strictly observed, and then marries his betrothed; this being considered his second marriage.

If one wants to have a third wife because his first two wives are dead or in the event of their being alive his childlessness prompts him to do so, the third marriage is performed thus:

The man is first married to a she-goat or sheep. The ears of the sheep or goat are bored, ear-rings put into them, and the marriage celebrated with all the usual ceremonies and *éclat*. This done, the sheep is carried to a jungle where she is buried alive in the presence of the marriage procession. It is believed that the third marriage is always inauspicious, and that its evil effects can only be averted by this device. This done the third marriage is performed in the ordinary fashion.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

Some people consider that the burying of a living goat is a *pāp* or sin; they therefore avoid the goat-marriage and celebrate the fictitious marriage with the *akrī* (a kind of *ak*) bush and then with the third wife.

As a preliminary to the *tambol* ceremony among the Khatrīs, the *bhāt* stands in the meeting assembled to contribute the *tambol* to the *putreta*, with a cocoanut in the right hand and exclaims: *Akbar Shāh bādshāh de ghar dā nārel*, i.e., a cocoanut of (or sent by) the house of the Emperor Akbar; and then makes it over to the *putreta*. Again taking another cocoanut in the hand he exclaims: *Toda Mal Tannan de ghar dā nārel*, i.e., a cocoanut contributed by Todar Mal Tannan, and gives the same to the *putreta* also. The practice is as old as the time of Akbar, when, it is said, both Akbar and Todar Mal sent one cocoanut each to every Khatrī in the country, who celebrated the marriage of his son, the former to please the latter who was his Revenue Minister, and the latter to please his caste people. The royal *tambol* ceased to exist on the death of Akbar, but the Khatrīs of this part of the country preserved the custom to perpetuate the memory of this popular potentate.⁽¹²⁾

The Brāhmans in general and the common Kirārs in the *ilāqā* of Kot Sabzal (in the Kārdāri of Sādiqabād) in particular always arrange to marry their daughters to real brothers of one and the same family, and in such cases marriage processions of bridegrooms (real brothers) visit the house of the father-in-law on one and the same day.

The Puskarnans, however, observe this rule more rigidly than others. The custom of *chhatar* (or large umbrella made of paper placed over the head of the bridegroom as the procession starts for the *dhetā's*) obtains both in the Ubha and in the Lamma up to the boundary of Muhammadpur Lamma; but it is altogether unknown in the Peshkāri of Kot Sabzal, where neither *chhatar* is employed nor are dancing girls engaged, Bhāgtīs⁽¹³⁾ being employed instead of the dancing girls.

Divorce.—A Hindu cannot, in theory, divorce his wife for any misconduct, while a Muhammadan may do so for any cause or even without a cause, and so the Hindu says:—*Al tillān nāl, gāi dillān nāl*, meaning “she came at no higher cost than the sesamum (*tīl*) distributed at the wedding, and was thrown away like a clod of earth. Elopements are of every day occurrence among the peasantry, and are due to girls being married against their will, or to a long interval being allowed to elapse after the betrothal before the actual marriage takes place.

(12) The officials of the *ilāqā* had orders from the Revenue Minister in Akbar's reign to present two cocoanuts to each Khatrī *putreta*, one on behalf of the Emperor, the other on behalf of himself.

(13) The Bhāgtīs are of two kinds, namely (1) *Khari-bhāgtis* (from *kharā*-standing) and (2) *Baithi-bhāgtis* (from *baithna*-to sit). The former sing and dance while standing; the latter doing it in a sitting posture. A Bhāgtī, however, is always a Hindu male who sings *kāfīs*, *dohras*, etc.

LANGUAGE.

CHAP. I, C.

Population. ✓

The native dialects of the States are—

1. Múltání or Western Punjábí.
2. Punjábí (Jatki or Obhechar).
3. Sindhí.
4. Márwári Ráthí.

(a). Múltání or Western Punjábí is spoken in the tract lying along the river line from the west of Khairpur to the skirts of Ahmadpur Lamma and extending southward to the margin of the Cholistán. It is also known as Baháwalpurí. This and the dialects spoken in the Dera Gházi Khán, Múltán and Muzaffargarh Districts are homogeneous, resembling the dialect spoken in the Sindh Sagar Doab.

(b). The Punjábí (Jatki or Obhechar) spoken in the State, closely resembles the dialect spoken in the Central Punjab, and its jurisdiction extends from Qaimpur (in Khairpur Kárdári) to the eastern extremity of the State.

(c). To the west of Ahmadpur Lamma and in the neighbourhood of Kot-Sabzal and Fatehpur-Machka, Sindhí and Baháwalpurí are the common dialects.

(d). The dialect of the Cholistan is Marwári Ráthí.

Language.	Proportion.
Bilochi	29
Pashto	9
Lahnda	7,349
Punjabi	1,792
Rájasthani	433

Language.	Proportion.
Western Hindi	25
Sindhi	355
Other Indian languages ...	6
Foreign languages	2

The marginal statement shows the distribution of languages per 10,000 persons according to the

census of 1901.

TRIBES, CASTES AND LEADING FAMILIES.

I.—MUHAMMADAN TRIBES.

Sacred Tribes.

Several branches of the Sayyids are represented in the State, the two most important being the Bukhári and Gílání Sayyids of Uch.

The Saddat.

The Bukhári Sayyids have their centre at Uch Bukhári, but they are found all over the State. Their principal representative is Makhdúm Hamid Muhammad Nau Bahár, Sajjáda-nashín of Uch Bukhári, whose descent has already been described. The centre of the Gílání Sayyids is at Uch Gílání, and their principal representatives are Makhdúm Muhammad Hamid Ganj-Baksh, the Sajjáda-nashín of that place, and Makhdúm Ashraf-ud-Dín, *ra'is* of Jamáldi-wali in Sádiqabad Kárdári. The Gardezi Sayyids are represented by a

CHAP. I, C. branch of the famous Gardezi family of Multan, which is settled at Khairpur. Sayyid Muhammad Nawáz Shah, Raís of Khairpur, belongs to this family. The Dur-Jamali Sayyids are represented by four branches of the family. The Shádezai branch left Multan when it was conquered by Ranjít Singh from Nawáb Muzaffar Khán and settled in Ahmadpur, then the capital of the State.

The Suddat.

Branch.	Present representative.
Adamzal ...	S. Ahmad Shah Háfiz.
Shadezai ...	S. Muhammad Shah.
Mamezai ...	S. Abdulla Shah.
Manozai ...	Abdul Hakim Shah.

presented by four branches of the family. The Shádezai branch left Multan when it was conquered by Ranjít Singh from Nawáb Muzaffar Khán and settled in Ahmadpur, then the capital of the State.

A few Hamdání Sayyids are found in the Khairpur East, &c. Their representative is Sayyid Ahmad Sháh of Khairpur. There are also the family of Mashhaddi Sayyids at Janpur, and two families of Bárá Sayyids at Ahmadpur East, of which place Sayyid Chirágh Shah is *lambardár*.

The Quraishis.

The Quraishis, who number nearly 7,000 souls in this State, are regarded as second only in sanctity to the Sayyids, and are like them addressed as Shah or Shah-Sáim. Their branches are :—

- (i). The Abbási or Dáúdpotra,
- (ii). Siddiqi, descendants of Abu Bakr, Siddiq,
- (iii). Fárúqi, descendants of Umar Fárúq, its second Khalífa,
- (iv). Ulawi, descendants of Ali, the son-in-law of the Prophet, and the fourth Khalífa, but not by his wife Fátima, daughter of the Prophet.

There is a Quraishi sept called Núhání in village Chaudhri of Gauspur Peshkári, and another called Mohli-potra whose claim to Quraishi descent is not universally admitted. The Korejas, a sept of the Sammas apparently, also call themselves Quraishis, but they are really Sammas. Notable Quraishi families are those of Shaikh Hakim in Mau Mubárah, and of the Makhdúms of Makhdúmán in Minchinabad Kárdári, already described. Others are :—

- (i). The family of Maulavi Shaikh Faríd Háshmi Sanjarpuri, in Kárdári Sádiqabad, branches of which also live in Baháwalpur and Allahabad. This family is descended from Shaikh Tájj-ud-Dín Shahíd and Azíz Khatíb, and one of its members, Maulavi Abul Fath Háshami was tutor to Akbar Begam Zeb-un-Nisa, daughter of Muhi-ud-Dín Alamgír.

The family holds *firmáns* of the Emperor Aurangzeb, from whom Maulavi Muhammad Shah, a grandson of Shaikh Faríd, the present Qázi of Sanjarpur, and its principal representative is also descended. It has also *firmáns* of Timur and Muhammad Shah, Kings of Khurasán.

- (ii). The Hakimán-i-Yunání family, which migrated from Delhi and settled in Khairpur East in the time of Baháwal Khán II. Its chief representative is Hakím

Hilál-ud-Dín, who holds considerable landed property in Multan. CHAP. I, C.

- (iii). The Ulawi family of Baháwalpur, whose ancestor Maulavi Hifz-ul-Islám came from Lahore in the reign of Baháwal Khán II, and whose leading member Qázi Sad-ud-Dín is Qázi of the city of Baháwalpur. Population.
The Quraishis.
- (iv). The Híshami-Quraishis, who live in Baháwalpur. Their representative is Shaikh Gulám Rasúl.
- (v). The Makhdúm-Quraishis of Makhdúmán in Minchinabad Kárdári. They are descended from Shaikh Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya of Multan. The representative of this family is Makhdúm Núr Shah, *ra'is* and *kursi-nashín*. The Chishtis.

The Chishtis are also by descent Quraish, though also believed to be of Mughal origin, being descended from Báwa Faríd-ud-Dín Shakar-Ganj. They hold large areas of land in Minchinabad Kárdári, including several villages,⁽¹⁾ and it is said that Pír Ali Muhammad of Minchinabad pays the whole of the revenue on his extensive estate by the sale of the *ghí* from his buffaloes alone.

There is in Peshkári Rahím Yár Khán a sept of the Chishtis called Kahál,⁽²⁾ so called because its ancestor was born near some *káhi*, a kind of weed, on the bank of the Indus where a band of Chishtis were encamped. The Kahals intermarry with the Chishtis of Uch and Goth-Channi and are scrupulous in the observance of daily prayers and fasts.

The Khaggas and Bodlas are also believed to be Quraishis by descent, and are here, as elsewhere, endowed with power to cure hydrophobia. The Bodlas in this State claim to be descended from Shaikh Alam, Dín whose shrine is at Jamsher in Tahsil Chúníán of the Lahore District.

The Kahírís are a quasi-sacred tribe, descended from Umar Shah, a theosophical *fugír*, after whose death the members of the The Kahírís.

Village.	Owner.
(1) Pír-Sikandar	...
(2) Mominabad	...
(3) Wari-Piran	...
(4) Mohárá	...
(5) Shadi-wála	...
	Qáda and Iláhi Bakhsh, Chishtí.

(2) The Kahals are distinct from the Kehals, another tribe which lives in the Sádiqabad Kárdári. The Kehals eat tortoises, crocodiles, &c., in consequence of which Muhammadans look down upon them. They are a wild tribe and cannot explain why they eat these animals, but some Muhammadans, who have a kinder opinion of them, defend them by saying that they are the followers of the Imám Sháfi'í, according to whom the eating of any sort of aquatic animal is allowable. They are believed to be able to cure hydrophobia by blowing upon the patient, and the latter also use the following *kálám* or charm.

Bismilláh awwal nám Khudá, dúrá nám Muhammad Rasúl Ulláh, tísrí nám Chár Yár, Kálám Khudá dí hudda Bádsháh Dastgír, Kará Sultan Ahmad Kabír chhitta giddar kattá.....láre barkat Pír Makhdúm Jaháníyán nál khair á jáwe.

By the name of God, the first name is God's, the second name of Muhammad, the Prophet of God, the third of his four friends (Caliphs). The word is of God, with the permission of Bádsháh Dastgír (i.e., Shaikh Abdul Kádír Jílání) and of Sultán Sayyid Ahmad Kabír, may the person bitten by a mad dog or jackal recover by the blessings of Makhdúm Jaháníyán.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Kahris.

tribe began to be called Shah, a title attached to their names. They were like the Mahrs, dependents of the Dáúdpotra with whom they fought against the Kalhoras at Shikárpur, and they then accompanied their patrons to this State. Thus they are Sindhís by origin. In the reign of Sir Sadiq Muhammad Khán IV, a Kahíri named Bandal Shah, acquired considerable influence in the Darbár, but he was eventually expelled from the State.

Secular Tribes.

THE DÁÚDPOTRAS.

The Dáúdpotra septs trace their descent from Muhammad Khán II, Abbási, 10th in descent from Dáúd Khán I. Muhammad Khán II had three sons:—

- (1) Firoz Khán or Piruj Khán,
- (2) Árib Khán (or Arab Khán), ancestor of the Arbáni sept.
- (3) Ísab Khán, ancestor of the Isbáni or Hisbáni sept.

The descendants of Piruj Khán are known by the name of Pirjánis, Fírozánis or Pir Pirjánis and the *gaddi* of the State has always been held by them.

A brief history of these three families is given below:—

The Pirjánis.—The history of the eldest branch of this family is that of the State itself, but some of the 'Pirjáni Kháns' of the cadet branches merit special notice. Such are:—

- (1) Ahmad Khán Pirjáni, the great-grandson of Piruj Khán, and the brother'sson of Nawáb Mubárák Khán I, who founded Ahmadpur East in 1162 H.
- (2) Ali Murád Khán,⁽¹⁾ grandson of Bakhkhar Khán III, the son of Piruj Khán, who built Taranda Ali Murád Khán in 1162 H.
- (3) Fázil Khán, the second grandson of Bakhkhar Khán III, who founded Fázilpur and constructed the Fázil-wáh (in Sádiqábád Kárdári).
- (4) Samába Khán, son of Ali Murád Khán, who founded Kot-Samába.
- (5) Sanjar Khán, son of Fázil Khán, who laid the foundation of Sanjarpur.
- (6) Gahne Khán, a nephew of Ahmad Khán, the founder of Ahmadpur, who founded Goth Gahne Khán.
- (7) Mehrú Khán, who founded Goth Mehrú Khán.

The Shamánis, a sub-division of the Pirjánis, derive their name from Shah Muhammad Khán. The Pirjánis and Shamánis of Goth Mehrú are closely allied. The Shamánis are found in Taranda

(1) Ali Murád Khán was known by the titles of *Szákí* (the generous) and *Khán-i-Alá* (the exalted Khán.) The latter title was conferred on him by the Emperor of Delhi, when the Baháwalpur State was split up into petty principalities.

Mundhu Khán in the Peshkári of Khánpur. The leading member of the family is Mundhu Khán, *lambardár*, who is a great landholder, and was a school-fellow of the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV.

CHAP. I, C.
Population.

The Arbánis.—The following are the septs descended from Arab Khán:—

The Arbánis.

- (1) The Músánis or Musánis, descendants of Músá Khán, son of Arab Khán, who founded Mauza Nalla Musáni in the Khán Bela Peshkári. A branch of this sept, the Kandáni, held Mauza Kandani in the same Peshkári.
- (2) The Ruknání or Rukrání, descendants of Rukn Khán, grandson of Arab Khán.
- (3) The Rahmání or Ramání, son of Rahm Khán, also a grandson of Arab Khán.
- (4) The Jambrání, descended from Jambar Khán, another son of Arab Khán.
- (5) The Bhinbrání, descendants of Bhinbar Khán, a relation of Jambar Khán.⁽¹⁾

The following are the chief representatives of the Arbáni sub-divisions:— (1) Qáim Khán, Rais or Qáim-Rais, a relative of Arab Khán in the 4th degree, who founded Qáimpur (formerly Goth Qáim Rais) in 1160 H. (1747 A.D.) and also constructed the Qáimwáh Canal. (2) Karam Khán, his son, who rebuilt the fort of Phúlra in 1166 H., 1752 A.D. (3) Wadera Yár Muhammad Khán (son of the above and maternal grandfather of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán (II), who quited Qáimpur and settled in the Alláhábád *ilāqa*. He had two sons, Hayát Khán, who founded Goth Hayát Khán, and Kabír Khán, who built Haveli Kabír Khán and Duphli Kabír Khán. In the time of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV, Ahmad Khán, a grandson of Wadera Yár Muhammad Khán, conspired with Nazar Muhammad Isbáni and others and rebelled, and in consequence his *jáگیر* was confiscated. One of his sons named Ghaus Bakhsh is now an agriculturist in the Firoza *ilāqa*. His second son, of Haveli Kabír Khán in the Alláhábád Peshkári, receives a pension of Rs. 13 per mensem from the State. (4) Súmar Khán, a grandson of Wadera Yár Muhammad Khán, founded Goth Súmar Khán, where Nabi Bakhsh Khán Arbáni, one of his descendants still resides. He owns but little land and is employed as a *sowár* in the body of the "Dáúdpotras" at the Daulat Khána.⁽²⁾

(1) Jambar Khán does not appear as a son of Arab Khán in the *Tárikh i-Murád*, but Khudá Bakhsh, Bhinbrání, *raís* of Beli now claims that he was a son, though tradition says that the Bhinbránis of Beli are by origin Kehránis.

(2) There is a body of horsemen called the "Dáúdpotras," who are kept to watch the Daulat Khána, or the palace of His Highness. These horsemen are not always Dáúdpotras.

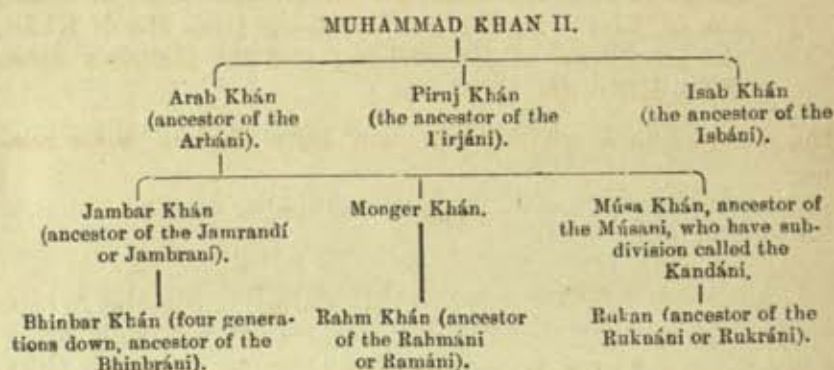
CHAP. I, C.

Population.

The Isbánís.

The Isbánís.—The centre of the Isbánís was in the vicinity of Alláhábád and Giddarwála. They have no sub-divisions. In the time of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV, Nazar Muhammad Khán, the Isbání chief, was *jagirdár* of the Giddarwála *iláqa*, the income of which was about Rs. 2,00,000 per year. His *jágir* was confiscated for opposition to the Nawáb and he himself thrown into prison. The representatives of the Isbánís are: (1) Hamza Khán, *lambardár* of Giddarwála and a *zamindár* of average means, and (2) Qádir Bakhsh Khán, a grandson of Nazar Muhammad Khán, Isbání, who is in straitened circumstances.

The pedigree table given below shows the descent of the three Dáúdpotra clans:—

Other Dáúd-
potras.

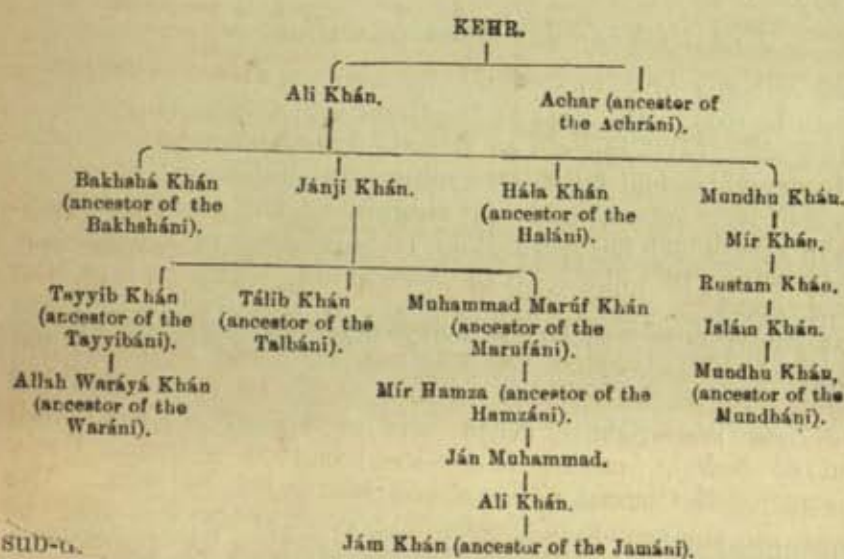
Other Dáúdpotra sub-division.—The legend runs that Amír Channi Khán, father of Dáúd Khán I, was a keen sportsman and that once a man by name Sara Mahr, told him of a lake on the banks of which game was to be found at night. So one night Amír Channi Khán visited the lake but no game appeared till mid-night. In the latter part of the night he saw something black in the water, at which he fired, but when he went into the water after it, he found he had wounded a man. Being filled with grief Channi Khán asked him who he was. The man was on the point of death and could only say that he had three sons and a daughter whom he confided to the Amír's care. Channi Khán entrusted the eldest son to Sara Mahr, renamed the second son Kehr, and the youngest Hasan, and took both into his service, while their sister became his wife. Kehr (whose descendants are known as Kehránís) had two sons, Ali Khán and Achar (from whom the Achránís, who owned Khán Bela, derive their name). The best known names among the Achránís are:— (1) Asad Khán or Hasad Khán, (2) Khuda Bakhsh Khán, and (3) Dín Muhammad Khán. Hasad Khán was a leading member of the party which rescued Nawáb Fateh Khán II from the fort of Nawán Kot, defeated Saúdat Yár Khán and restored the Nawáb to his throne. He is the only survivor of this old family, and receives a pension of Rs. 15 per mensem from the State.

Khuda Bakhsh Khán and Dín Muhammad Khán serve as **CHAP. I, C.**
sowárs in the body of the "Dáúdpotrás" in the Daulat Khána. **Population.**

Ali Khán, son of Kehr, had four sons, *viz.*,—

- (1) Bakhsha Khán (from whom the Bakhshánis derive their name).
- (2) Jánji Khán.
- (3) Hála Khán (after whom the Halánis are named).
- (4) Mundhu Khán, whose descendants go by the name of Kehránis. One of his descendants, Mundhu Khán, however, is the ancestor of Mundhánis. The Tayyibánis derive their name from Tayyib Khán, son of Jánji Khán; the Waránis from Alla Waráya Khán, son of Tayyib Khán; the Murúfánis from Marúf Khán, the second son of Jánji Khán; and the Talbánis from Tálib Khán, the third son.

The pedigree table given below will fully explain these relations:—



sub-
 the Kháns. there are seven branches of the Kehránis, namely,
 None of (2) Bakhsháni, (3) Haláni, (4) Mundháni, (5) Tayyibáni
 descent from wáni is a sub-division), (6) Talbáni, (7) Marúfáni
 the Ghumránis sub-divisions, namely, (i) Jamáni, and (ii) Hamzáni).

seven the following five are called Panj-páre.⁽¹⁾— (1)

(2) Jamáni, (3) Bakhsháni, (4) Mundháni and (5) Tay-

and Fateh in all disputes the Panj-páres formed one party and
 Ghuman against the other tribes. A brief account of a few of the
 Táríq-M- b-divisions and their leading men is given below.

any
 or 1) Pára=fold.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

The Bakhshánis.

The Bakhshánis.—The Bakhshánis are found in Khairpur East, and Goth Bakhshá, now called Khánqáh Sharíf after the *khánqáh* (shrine) of Sáhib-us-Sáir, was founded by them. There are a few survivors of the family in Goth Bakhshá in receipt of *kasúrs* (allowance) from the State. The representative of this subdivision is Qádir Bakhsh Khán of Khairpur who holds an *indám* of 500 *bigáhs*.

The Hálánis.

The Hálánis.—Sultán Khán, son of Hálá Khán, a member of the Háláni Dáúdpotrás, founded Sultánpur, and his grandson, Bahádur Khán, founded Bahádurpur in 1164 H. or 1748 A.D., in which his vaulted mausoleum stands.

Kabír Khán, son of Sultán Khán, constructed the Kabír-wáh, now known as the Kabíra Canal. He also demolished the old Phulwadda and founded a new village, which he named Naushahra.

Fazl Ali Khán Háláni, son of Kabír Khán, became a well-known man in his time. His prosperity reached its zenith towards the close of the 12th century, and he built many forts and villages. Whenever a son was born to any one among his subjects the people used to say—

Fazl Ali Khán da hík chherá wadhiyá he

The chief villages and forts built by him were:—(1) Dín-gadh Fort, which he sold to the Rájá of Jaisalmer for a *lakh* of rupees; (2) Amín-gadh; (3) Táj-gadh or *Táj-ul-bilad*,⁽¹⁾ built on the old site of Hurar, which had fallen into ruins; (4) Rájanpur, 16 miles north-west of Naushahra; and (5) Ihsánpur. He also built (6) Sáhib-gadh Fort, which lies in the Rohi, 16 miles south of Naushahra; (7) Bhágla Fort, 16 miles east of Naushahra, which is in a fair state of preservation though uninhabited; (8) Kandh Kot, 8 miles south of Naushahra; (9) Kot Alam Fort, 2½ miles north of Naushahra.

The Kehránis.

The Kehránis.—Sabzal Khán, son of Mundhu Khán (the grandson of Kehr), founded Kot Sabzal in 1170 H. (1756 A.D.) and constructed the Sabzal-wáh.

Muhammad Khán, a grandson of Mundhu Khán, founded Muhammadpur Lamma in 1164 H. (1750 A.D.) and coronamed the Muhammad-wáh, and Ahmad Khán, a great-grandson into Mundhu Khán, founded Ahmadpur Lamma, which is a *chir* (whose ishing town. Of Sabzal Khán's descendants, Sabzal Khán and present leader of the Kehránis. He gets a pension Bela, derive month from the State. Wadera Bakhtíár Khán, a *daránis* are:—Muhammad Khán (founder of Muhammadpur Lamma), Khán, and as the leader of his brotherhood.

The Mundhánis.

The Mundhánis.—The Mundháni Dáúdpotrás derive the fort from Mundhu Khán. From tradition and the genealogy of the Nawáb and

(1) *Táj-ul-bilad*, literally crown of cities.

produced by the Dáúdpotrás of Kot Sabzal it would appear that the founder of Garhi Ikhtiár Khán was Ikhtiár Khán, a brother of Sabzal Khán, but this is not the case. As a fact the old name of the place was Garhi Shádi Khán, and it was founded by Shádi Khán, an adherent of the Kalhora State, during the ascendancy of Khudá Yár Khán Kilhora, surnamed Sháh Quli Khán. After his death, Háji Ikhtiár Khán Mundhání (at that time settled in Mauza Gonbdhi) and seeing the decline of the Kalhoras took possession of Garhi Shádi Khán and re-named it Garhi Ikhtiár Khán.⁽¹⁾

The genealogy of the Mundhánis is thus given:—

“Ikhtiár Khán (founder of Garhi Ikhtiár Khán), son of Abdullah Khán, son of Háji Khán, son of Mundhu Khán (who gave the Mundhánis his name), son of Islám Khán, son of Rustam Khán, son of Miran Khán, son of Mundhu Khán, son of Ali Khán, son of Kehr.”

The Marúfánis.—The common ancestor of this sept, Muhammad Marúf Khán, conquered Kathála and the surrounding country from the Joyas and in 1154 H. (1741 A.D.) founded Khairpur East now a flourishing town. Many forts were also built by him and his descendants.

The Marúfánis.

These were:—(1) Maujgadh, built in 1157 H. or 1744 A.D., (2) Marúf-gadh, (3) Rukanpur, (4) Jahánpur, and (5) Zorkot, so called because it was built by force on land which belonged to the Wági tribe.

Marúf Khán extended his territory to a point 25 miles from Wallhar southwards.

The leading man among the Marúfánis now is Wadera Khudá Bakhsh Khán, Rais of Khairpur East.

The Jamánis.—The principal man among the Jamáni sub-division of the Marúfánis is Muhammad Nawáz Khan, Rais of Khairpur East.

The Jamánis.

The Ghumránis.—The Ghumránis also consider themselves a sub-division of the Kehránis. They had two prominent families, the Kháns of Hasilpur and the Kháns of Goth Channi.

The Ghumránis.

None of the present members of either family can give his descent from Kehr, but in the Táríkh-i-Murád, the genealogy of the Ghumránis stands thus—

NUR MUHAMMAD.

Ghumman Khán (from whom the Ghumránis derive their name), and Fateh Muhammad Khán, Rais of Goth Channi, who meets Ghumman Khán in the 12th generation, was alive when the Táríkh-i-Murád was written. But neither the Táríkh-i-Murád nor any other history of the Abbási dynasty shows Ghumman Khán, or his father Núr Muhammad as a lineal descent of Kehr. Even

(1) Táríkh-i-Murád, Volume II, p. 332.

CHAP. I, C. if it be conceded that Núr Muhammad was the son of Jánji Khán (son of Ali Khán, son of Kehr) this would partly be consistent as Jánji Khán's son Núr Muhammad Khán had only one son Khudá Bakhsh, who had two sons, both of whom died childless; which means that the line of Núr Muhammad Khán, son of Jánji Khán, became extinct at the very outset. (*Vide Tárikh-i-Murád, Volume II, page 45*). Hence the unanimous opinion of the real Dáúdpotrás that the Ghumránis are of an ambiguous origin is admissible. All the respectable Pirjáni and Kehrání Dáúdpotrás say that the Ghumránis are the descendants of one Ghumman, *mohána*, who was a boatman of the fore-fathers of the Dáúdpotrás. In their opinion the Ghumránis do not deserve to be called Kehránis, while to call them real Dáúdpotrás is an absurdity.

Miscellaneous sub-divisions of septs of the Dáúdpotrás.—Besides the above-mentioned there are many other sub-divisions which also claim Dáúdpotra descent.

The Daulatánis.

(1). *The Daulatánis.*—These Dáúdpotrás trace their descent from Daulat Khán, son of Dáúd Khán II. A ruined mound near Dera Bakha Railway Station is said by the Daulatánis to have been a fort, named Daulat Gadh, and which belonged to them about a century ago. But other Dáúdpotrás do not admit the Abbási origin of the Daulatánis. The present chief of this sept is Jamadár Gul Muhammad Khán, maternal-uncle of the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV. He holds a large area in *jagir*—six entire villages and parts of several others, the total area amounting to nearly 70,000 *bighas*. This *jagir* has been granted to him in *indám* for life.

He was lately Commander-in-Chief of the State forces and *ex-officio* member of the State Council.

The Ratánis.

(2). *The Ratánis* are found in small numbers in the Khánpur Kárdári. The leading member of the sept is Shahbáz Khán of Báhin-wála.

The Sidqánis.

(3). *The Sidqánis.*—Mauza Kotla Qáim Khán (in the Kárdári of Khairpur East) was founded by the Sidqánis.

The Jalánis.

(4). *The Jalánis.*—The Jalánis derive their name from one Jalál Khán, who founded the village Jaláni, in the Kárdári of Khairpur East.

The Mamdánis.

(5). *The Mamdánis* are a sub-division of the Ghumránis and reside in the Hasilpur and Janpur *iláqas*.

The Arsánis.

(6). *The Arsánis* are found in the *iláqá* of Khairpur East. Mauza Arsáni was founded by this family. They are also called the Asránis, and so their village.

The Fatánis.

(7). *The Fatánis* are found in the *iláqas* of Ahmadpur East, Alláhábád and Khairpur East. The villages of Fatáni and Umar-Fatáni in the latter *iláqá* are the monuments of this sept.

(8). *The Nohánis* are considered a sub-division of the **CHAP. I, C.**
 Kehránis. The ruins of a fort in Mának Naushahra in the Uch **Population.**
iláqa are believed to mark the site of their original settlement. The *The Nohánis.*
 Nohánis are numerous in the Kot Sabzal *iláqa*, where it is said
 the villages of Gidarwála, Nánduian, Kander, Sawel, Miránpur,
 Mubárák-Bhar and Jámpur were founded by them.

(9). *The Lorhías* are found in the Allahabad *iláqá* and Chakla *The Lorhías.*
thána.

(10). *The Karánis.*—Karáni, a village in the Baháwalpur *The Karánis.*
 Kárdári, was founded by the Karánis. Some say that they are
 descendants of Kero, a descendant from Kehr; others that Karáni
 is a corruption of Kehráni.

(11). *The Ronjhas or Ronjhes.*—The Ronjhas are in fact a *The Ronjhas.*
 sept of the Sammas. The Ronjhas of *Mauza* Goth Lal (in the
 Khánwáh Peshkári) and those of the Khánpur Kárdári are called
 Dáúdpotráis, but the neighbouring tribes do not admit their claims.
 Ranúhja and Ronjha are two different forms of the same word.

(12). *The Hasnúnis* are considered a sub-division of the *The Hasnúnis.*
 Kehránis, and are found in *Mauza* Bullanwáli (in the Goth Channi
 Peshkári). They are cultivators.

(13). *The Chandránis* are found in the Khánpur and *The Chandrá-*
 Baháwalpur Kárdáris. *Mauza* Chandráni (in the Khánwáh *iláqa*) *nis.*
 was founded by them. Their representative is Rahim Bakhsh,
lambardár of Chandaráni. They intermarry with the Músáni
 Dáúdpotráis who are Arbánis and hence the presumption is that they
 are Arbánis by origin.

(14). *The Dastánis* are found in the *iláqa* of Khairpur East. *The Dastánis.*
 Goth Kamal was founded by Kamal Khán Dastáni.

(15). *The Yaránis.*⁽¹⁾—Bunga-Yaráni in the Khairpur *iláqa* *The Yaránis.*
 was founded by them.

(16). *The Jhandánis* are found in *Mauza* Jhanáni (in the *The Jhandá-*
 Kárdári of Khairpur East) which was founded by Jhande Khán. *nis.*
 They are also found here and there in the Lamma.

(17). *The Jindránis.*—*Mauza* Jindráni (in the Kárdári of *The Jindránis.*
 Khairpur East) was founded by Jinde Khán, the ancestor of this
 sept. They are found in small numbers in the Kárdáris of Khair-
 pur East and Khánpur.

(18). *The Karnánis* are found in small numbers in the *The Karnánis.*
 Baháwalpur Kárdári.

(19). *The Mullánis* are said to be descendents of one *The Mullánis.*
 Mutrib Khán and are found in the Nárpur Peshkári.

(20). *The Gulánis* are found in the *iláqa* of Khairpur East *The Gulánis.*
 and the Khánpur and Baháwalpur Kárdáris. Shabbáz Khán, *zail-*
dár of Guláni, is the leading member of the sept.

(1) Y^á-ráni is also the name of a sub-division of the Ghalejas.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Bhúndá-
nis.The Hasbánis.
The Siryánis.
Khidánis and
Hashmánis.

(21). The *Bhúndánis* are settled in small numbers in the Kárdári of Khairpur East.

(22). The *Hasbánis* are a small sept found in the Kárdár of Khairpur East.

(23). The *Siryánis* and (24) *Khidánis* are found in small numbers in the Kárdári of Baháwalpur.

(25). The *Hashmánis* are found here and there in the Lamma.

Some so-called Dáúdpotrás.

The Wistránis.

(26). The *Wistránis*.—The Arbáni and Isbáni Dáúdpotrás do not consider the Wistránis real Dáúdpotrás. The reason assigned by the former for this is that four families of the Abra tribe migrated from Wísarwáh in Sindh and settled in Giddarwála in the time of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II. The Abbras gave a daughter in marriage to Baláwal Khán, Pirjáni, of Jungh Baláwal, a second to a member of the family of Sumar Khán Arbáni, and a third to Jind Wadda Khán Isbáni (father of Nazar Muhammad Khán, Rais of the Isbánis) and asked those to whom they had given wives to admit them among the Dáúdpotrás, so that they might then be entitled to all the privileges as regards *kasúr* and *inám* which the Dáúdpotrás enjoyed. This request was granted and they were called Wistráni Dáúdpotrás from Wísharwáh. They are few in number. Their leading members are Pír Bakhsh and Iláhi Bakhsh, of Mauza Mori Musáni, who are cultivators.

The Mulánis.

(27). The *Mulánis* are also considered spurious Dáúdpotrás.

The Thúmras.

(28). The *Thúmras* are found in Mauza Karáni. There is a well-known story that once Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III happened to pass through Karáni. On seeing one Núró Kharola with his head shaved (a shaven head being generally looked down upon) the Nawáb remarked in Sindhi (which he always spoke) *ho disso thora*, i. e., look at that bald head, and so they were nick-named Thúmra.

Converted
sweepers.

They are really Kharolas ⁽¹⁾ by caste.

(29). The *Widánis* and (30) *Kálres*.

Kálres, Bhan-
bhánis and
Kat-Báls.

(30). *Kálres*.—The *Kálres* live in the *iláqas* of Bunga Ramzán Khán and Jannpur.

(31). The *Jhámris* are found in the Qáimpur *iláqa*.

(32). The *Bhanbhánis*.

(33). The *Kat-Báls* are found in several places, especially in Mauza Mahtám in the Núrpur Peshkári, where they pursue agriculture. They are originally Jats of low status (and there is still a sept of Mohánas which is known by this name) but call themselves Dáúdpotrás. They would give their daughters in marriage to any tribe, while other Dáúdpotrás are particularly strict in forming alliances.

(1) Converted sweepers.

The above tribes are generally both proprietors and cultivators, but the majority of them are in straitened circumstances, and live by cultivation, only a small number being well off and owning land. CHAP. I, C.
Population.

Besides the above there are other tribes who call themselves *Dáúdpotrás*, such as—

- (34). The *Rajbánis*, (35). The *Hakrás* and (36). The *Bahánis*. *The Rajbánis and others.
The Kilhorás.*

The Kalhorás or Kilhorás.—The *Kalhorás* and *Abbásis* are descended from one and the same ancestor. Channi Khán Abbási, sixth in descent from Sultán Ahmad II, had two sons, Dáúd Khán I and Muhammad Mahdí Khán. The latter had a son, named Ibráhim, surnamed *Kalhóra*, whose descendants are known by the surname of *Serais*.

A full account of the tribe is given in Captain Goldsmid's "Memoirs on Shikárpur," and a brief description is also given in Section F of the Dera Gházi Khán Gazetteer. The *Kalhorás* of the State live by agriculture and labour, none are worthy of mention.

THE BALOCHES.

The *Baloches* in Baháwalpur are not organized into *tumans* as in Dera Gházi Khán, and no one tribe or sept owns any considerable tract of land. The leading men or *Sirdárs* among them have little influence or authority over their tribesmen, while physically the *Baloch* of Baháwalpur is inferior to his kinsman west of the Indus. *The Baloches.*

The following *Baloch* tribes are found in the State :—

- i. *The Gopángs*: found chiefly in Ahmadpur⁽¹⁾ and Khánpur Kárdáris. They trace their origin to Gobind, a city of Balochistán, and are descendants of Húrán. The *Gopángs* still regard *Sirdár* Khair Muhammad in Rájanpur Tahsil as their chief, but in this State Gahne Khán, *zaildár*, and Ahmad Khán, *lambardár*, of Bet Ahmad, in Ahmadpur Kárdári, and Allah Baksh Khán, *zaildár*, of Thull Hamza in the Khán Bela *peshkári* are their leading men. *The Gopángs.*

- ii. *The Chandias*: found chiefly in the Pakka Lárán *iláqa* of Khánpur Kárdári. They were formerly settled among the *Mazaris* trans-Indus, but owing to a dispute with them migrated to this State, taking service with Nawáb Muhammad Mubárah Khán, who gave them lands in *jágír*, but these they forfeited in the time of the Agency in default of feudal service. They have eight septs in this State, viz.,— *The Chandias.*

- (i) Marfáni, (ii) Hamzáni, (iii) Muhammad-Khanáni, (iv) Ali-Khanáni, (v) Gadláni, (vi) Husnáni, (vii) Shamráni, and (viii) Juráni.

(1) They own Bet Ahmad, Bakhtiári, Kachchi Makhan Bela, and Nur-wála village in this Kárdári.

CHAP. I.

Population.

The Baloches.

iii.

Fázil Khán and Bahrám Khán of Pakka Lárán, and Daulat Khán, *zaildár*, of Kotla Daulat, are leading members of the tribe.

The *Khosás*: chiefly found in Chaudhri, in Allahabad *wazirpeshkári*, in Samuka, in Gauspur *peshkári*, and Kunda-
original, in Naushahra *peshkári*. The *Khosás* were *kho*, mount, Hot Baloches, and derive their name from tongue. The *tain* and *sah*, inhabitant, in the Baloch

(i) Babel, (ii) *vir* main septs in Baháwalpur are—

(v) Tindwán, Isáni, (iii) Khalol, (iv) Umráni,

They regard Kaure Khá and (vi) Jiyáni.

Ghází Khán as their *vir* Isáni of Yaru Bathal in Dera Chaudhri is their leading chief, but Bahrám Khán of

iv. The *Rinds* are found scattering representative in this State. State. Some are addicted to *reed* more or less all over the are cultivators, some owning *reed*, but most of them

(i) The Tumrani sept of the *reed*.

Khán Bela *iláqa*. of *Rinds* is found in the

(ii) The *Kháltis* are numerous in

Kachchi-Zamán (in Sádiqabad, Hámidpur and owners and cultivators, and their *wardári*) as land- Ahmadpur East. The *Kháltis* are a few in usually regarded as Jats though they however claim to

The Dashtis.

v. The *Dashtis*: a forest tribe of the Baloches, g. theft and robbery, and found chiefly in the Kárdá of Khánpur and Sádiqabad. The *Dashtis* say they once lived on the banks of the Dasht-Gorán, a river in Qallat, whence their name, and that about 200 years ago they first settled in Shikárpur, under the Abbási Chiefs, whence they dispersed. They have feuds of long standing with the Shars and Gopángs, having they say been employed to repel the raids of the former into the State. They are on the other hand close allies of the Mazari Baloches to whom they give daughters in marriage. Their chiefs are Ahmad Khán and Jalál Khán, sons of Khuda Bakhsh of Basti Ahmad Khán in *mauza* Gullú-wáli, Khánpur *peshkári*. Though they own but little land these brothers settle nearly all the disputes between members of the tribe, but in serious cases recourse was had to the late Nawáb Sir Imám Bakhsh Khan, whose decision was regarded as final. The heirs of the late Nawáb also command their respect. The brothers go on tour every year receiving cattle and other presents from every Dashti house, and they have

influence enough to be able to recover stolen property from any Dashti, but only exercise it on condition that the criminal is not to be given up. Another leading man of the tribe is Barkhurdár Khán of Muhammad Ali Magassi, a village in the Naushahra *peshkári*. CHAP. I, C.
Population.
The Baloches.

The Dashtis have 11 main *qabils* in Baháwalpur:—

- (i) Isáni, (ii) Muryáni, (iii) Aghráni, (iv) Jallawáni,
(v) Dográni, (vi) Idráni, (vii) Zangiáni,
(viii) Thingiáni, (ix) Bhugiáni, (x) Miskáni, and
(xi) Hamdáni.

But the Lashari, Kurái, Rind and Jatoi Baloches deny that the Dashtis are Baloch, and say: *Phiphri na gosht, Dashti na Baloch*—"Lungs are not flesh, so Dashtis are not Baloches."

The Jatois. The Jatois of Baháwalpur were first enlisted by Baháwal Khán II to check the raids made on his territory by the petty states of Ahmadpur-Lamma, Garhi Ikhtiyár Khán, and Kot Sabzal. Four thousand Jatois under Abdulla Khán and Pathán Khán took service with the Nawáb who cantoned half the force under Jáhan Khán, brother of Pathán Khán at Nawán-Kot, formerly called Baháwalgadh, 8 miles south of Khánpur, and the other half at Kotla Pathán Khán under that leader. These contingents rendered good service against the three principalities mentioned above, and in 1848 furnished a detachment to Lieutenant Edwardes' force against Multan. The present Jatoi leader is Allah Wasáya Khán, *zaildár*, of Kotla Pathán, in Khánpur Kárdári. A sept of the Jatois called Bhand is found in *iláqa* Khánpur where they cultivate as tenants.

The Kuráis: found in *peshkári* Kot Samaba. They came to the State in 975 H. under their leaders Sultán Khán and Jagmal Khán, and still reverence the latter's shrine at Dera Ghabol in this *peshkári*. Their leader and *dan-gír*, or receiver of dues, is Muhammad Bakhsh Khán, *zaildár*, of Dera Ghabol.

The Nutkánis. Muhammad Asad Khán, chief of the Nutkánis in Dera Gházi Khán, was taken prisoner by Diwán Sáwan Mal, but released on the intervention of Nawáb Baháwal Khán III, to whom he gave a daughter in marriage. Muhammad Asad Khán joined, after some hesitation, the Baháwalpur forces which co-operated with Lieutenant Edwardes against Multan, and thereafter he settled in Ahmadpur East, where some of his family still live. Ahmad Khán, a grandson of Asad Khán, holds a *jāgír* of 500 *bigahs* of land at Dhúrkot in the *peshkári* of Uch, and receives a pension of Rs. 30 a month from the State. The Nutkánis.

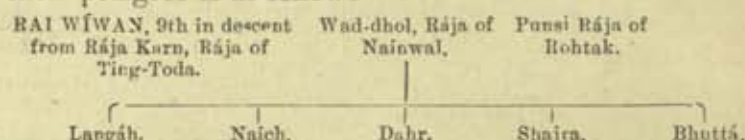
The Mazáris. There is a small number of this tribe in Sádiqabad Kárdári, where they hold large *jāgírs*, granted them by the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV, on their migrating from the Mazari territory trans-Indus. Sirdár Fauj Ali Khán, The Mazáris.

CHAP. I, C. Panonh Khán, and Núr Muhammad Khán, *kursi-nashins*, are the chief members of the tribe in this State.

THE AFGHANS.

The Langáhs.

The Langáhs. The Langáhs claim to be Afgháns, and they are so termed by Farishta,⁽¹⁾ but the *mirásis* of the Naich tribe say that their pedigree is as follows :—



And Tod also considered them Rájputs. The late Colonel Minchin notes that they were once called Mal-Khánis after their chief, Mal Khán, and that as among the earliest converts to Islám they are entitled to be regarded as *sibiqún*. Once rulers of Multán and part of Sindh they are now landowners or tenants in this State. A Langáh sept called Rid is found in the Baháwalpur and Goth-Channi *ilqas*.

The principal acknowledged Pathán tribes found in the State are :—

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| (1) Saddozai, | (5) Bádozai, | (9) Isab-zái, |
| (2) Khakwáni, | (6) Malle-zai | (10) Ghorí, |
| (3) Bábar, | (7) Alí-zai, | (11) Tarín, and |
| (4) Popalzai, | (8) Khilji, | (12) Bhábhe. |

Most of these are immigrants from Dera Ismaíl Khán and Multán, who have been settled in Ahmadpur East since the time of Muhammad Baháwal Khán III.

The following is an account of the leading Pathán families :—

The Saddozais.

(i) *The Saddozais.* When Ranjít Singh expelled the great Muzaffar Khán, Saddozai, from Multán, his family sought a refuge in Baháwalpur, where they still bear the title of Nawáb, and received handsome allowances from the State. The principal among their descendants are Nawáb Yúsaf Ali Khán, of Baháwalpur, who receives Rs. 30 *per mensem* from the British Government and Rs. 20 from the State, and Nawáb Abd-ur-Rasúl Khán and Ghulám Mustafá Khán of Ahmadpur East. Alláhditta Khán and Abd-ur-Rahmán Khán are the principal Saddozais in Uch Peshkári, where some of the family reside. Many Saddozais are in receipt of State pensions and the following are the amounts :—

- (1) The survivors of the late Nawáb Wazír Khán, Rs. 45.
- (2) The widow of Nawáb Háshim Ali Khán, Rs. 30.
- (3) The sister of Nawáb Muhammad Ali Khán, Rs. 10.
- (4) The family of the late Nawáb Jahán Khán, Rs. 10.

Some members of the Khudakká sub-division of the Saddozai family, Azhdar Ali Khán's sons, have acquired considerable property in the Ahmadpur Kárdári and have in consequence settled in the State. The leading member of the Khudakkáis is Abdur Raúf Khán, who pays an annual revenue of Rs. 800 to the State.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Afgháns.

The Khákwánis. Various etymologies of this name are given:—

The Khákwánis.

Khakán is the name of a village in Hirát, whence they came: it is also said to be a corruption of Kaghwán, which in ancient times was a district in Khúrásán of which the Khakwánis held the greater part and lastly there is a well-known story, told by Sir H. Edwardes, that the Khakwánis were so called because they afforded an asylum to a *khūk* (pig) against the ruler of their country, who was pursuing the animal. This however may be dismissed as an invention. The tribe claims that its leaders were once Maliks in Khúrásán, and one of them, Shahpal, came from Kákh with Humáyún and settled in Multan. Under Ahmad Sháh Abdáli Wali Muhammad Khán Khakwáni became governor of Multan, but he was supplanted by Shujá Khán Saddozai and put to death by Ahmad Sháh. He left two sons of note Muhammad Lakhi Khán and Ghulam Muhí-ud-Dín Khán, of whom the latter in 1204 H. obtained a *sanad* from Tímúr Sháh for the government of Kháfí, but died on his way to Multan from the court. His sons were too young to press their claims at Kábul and their descendants are ordinary *zamíndárs* of Bunga Ihsan Bibí in Minchinábád Kárdári, where Samundar Khán is headman. Táj Muhammad Khán, grandson of Lakhi Khán, entered the service of the Nawáb of Mankera, and when Ranjít Singh conquered that principality, his son Muizz-ud-Dín entered the Sikh service, but eventually took service under Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III and was for a long period Kárdár of Khánpur. He rendered good service in the Dáúdputra force which co-operated with Edwardes in 1849 and his descendants still possess the *sanad* given him by that officer. Of his three sons, Ahmad Khán, Muhammad Usmán Khán and Mahmúd, the latter now dead became Revenue Minister and Member of Council in the State. He owned considerable property in land and was the recognized chief of the Ahmadpuri Khakwánis. Muhammad Asad Khán, *ra'ís* of Chak Phogán, is a grandson of Muizz-ud-Dín's companion Sikandar Khán Khakwáni.

The Bábars. The Bábar Patháns came from Multan in the reign of Muhammad Baháwal Khán III. Muhammad Akbar Khán, their chief representative, was a Kárdár in the State, three years ago.

The Bábars.

The Mallezai. When the Sikhs took Multan Sher Muhammad Khán, Mallezai, fell into their hands, ut escaping from Lahore he took service with the Saddozais of Dera Ismail Khán, whence, with 140 Afghán horsemen, he crossed over into Baháwalpur and entered the Nawáb's service. His following included Músá Khán, Khákwáni,

The Mallezai.

CHAP. I. C. Nizám Khán, Ján Muhammad Khán, Bádozais, Sádiq Muhammad Khán, Tarín, Abdul Karím Khán, Naurang Khán, Alizais, and others,⁽¹⁾ most of whom have descendants in Ahmadpur.

The Afgháns.

Sher Muhammad Khán was made Jamadár of the Baháwalpur forces, and his son Ahmad Khán became a *Náib* (assistant Kárdár) and gradually rose to the rank of Madárul Mahám (Minister). He carried on his duties satisfactorily for some time, but eventually rebelled against Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV, and having raised force of his relations, etc., fought against the State Army, but was killed in action on the 25th of May 1861.

There is no descendant of Ahmad Khán in the State, but one or two families descended from his collaterals live in Ahmadpur, and their representative Háji Alláh Bakhsh Khán gets a pension of Rs. 14 *per mensem* from the State.

The Ghoris.

The Ghoris. A few Ghorí families are found in Baháwalpur. Maulavi Abdul Majíd of Bahawalpur, a Ghorí, was the son-in-law of Nawáb Wazír-ud-Daula of Tonk. The principal member of this family is Maulavi Fasíh-ud-Dín, Tonki, who pays Rs. 1,400 annually as revenue to the State.

THE RAJPUTS AND JATS.

Certain tribes were returned in the Census of 1901 as Jat which do not appear to be, at least by origin, correctly classed as Jats. Thus the Chishtis are or claim to be by descent Quraishis, the Ghoris are Patháns, the Khosas Baloches, and the Kalhoras Abbásis, while the Sumras, Sammas, Samejas, Dahrs and Kharls might be with equal accuracy classed as Rájputés. The distinction between Rájputés and Jats is in truth unknown in this part of the Punjab, and in the following paragraphs the tribes will be described without reference to this distinction.

The Joiyas and Wattús are almost entirely confined to the Ubhs, *i.e.*, to Kárdáris Minchinábad and Khairpur East, being rarely found in Kárdári Baháwalpur, while in the other Kárdáris they are virtually non-existent.

In the Lamma the Mahrs, Máchhís, Cháchars, Tarelís, Sammas and Kobhars are numerous, the remaining tribes being found comparatively in small numbers. Two sayings are prevalent in this tract: one runs *kul chhit-putar-dá Sardár Abra he*, *i.e.*, of all the petticoat-wearing tribes Abra is chief, because the women of these tribes wear the petticoat. The other proverb is: *kul ghaghe da Sardár Baloch he*, *i.e.*, the Baloch are the chief of the tribes whose women wear the *ghagha*, or long shirt.

(1) Muizz-ud-Dín, Khákwáni, Ghulám Muhammad Khán, Bábar, and Umar Khán, Popalzai, followed them at different times.

The Joiyas. The Joiyas are almost certainly the ancient Yaudheyas or warriors of the Jangal Desa or forest land, which now forms the Hariána, Bhatner and Nagaur *ilāqās*.⁽¹⁾ The *mirásís* of the Joiyas have compiled for them a pedigree-table which makes them and the Mahárs Quraishis by origin and descended from Iyás, a descendant of Mahmúd of Ghazni. But the *mirásís* of each sept of the Joiyas give a different pedigree above Iyás, a fact which tends to show that the Joiyas were in their origin a confederation of warrior clans.

The Lakhwera sept and others recount the following tale. They say that Iyás, son of Bakr, came to Chúharhar (now Anúpgarh), the capital of Rája Chúhar Sameja, in the guise of a *faqir*, and married Nal, the Rája's eldest daughter,⁽²⁾ by whom he became the father of Joiya in 400 H. Joiya was brought up in the house of his mother's father as a Hindu, though his father was a Muhammadan and had married Nal by *nikah* and so Joiya's children, Jabbu, I-sung, Bi-sung, Ni-sung, and Sáhan-Pál, received Hindu names. From the *youngest* (apparently) of these sons is traced the Joiyas' pedigree table :—

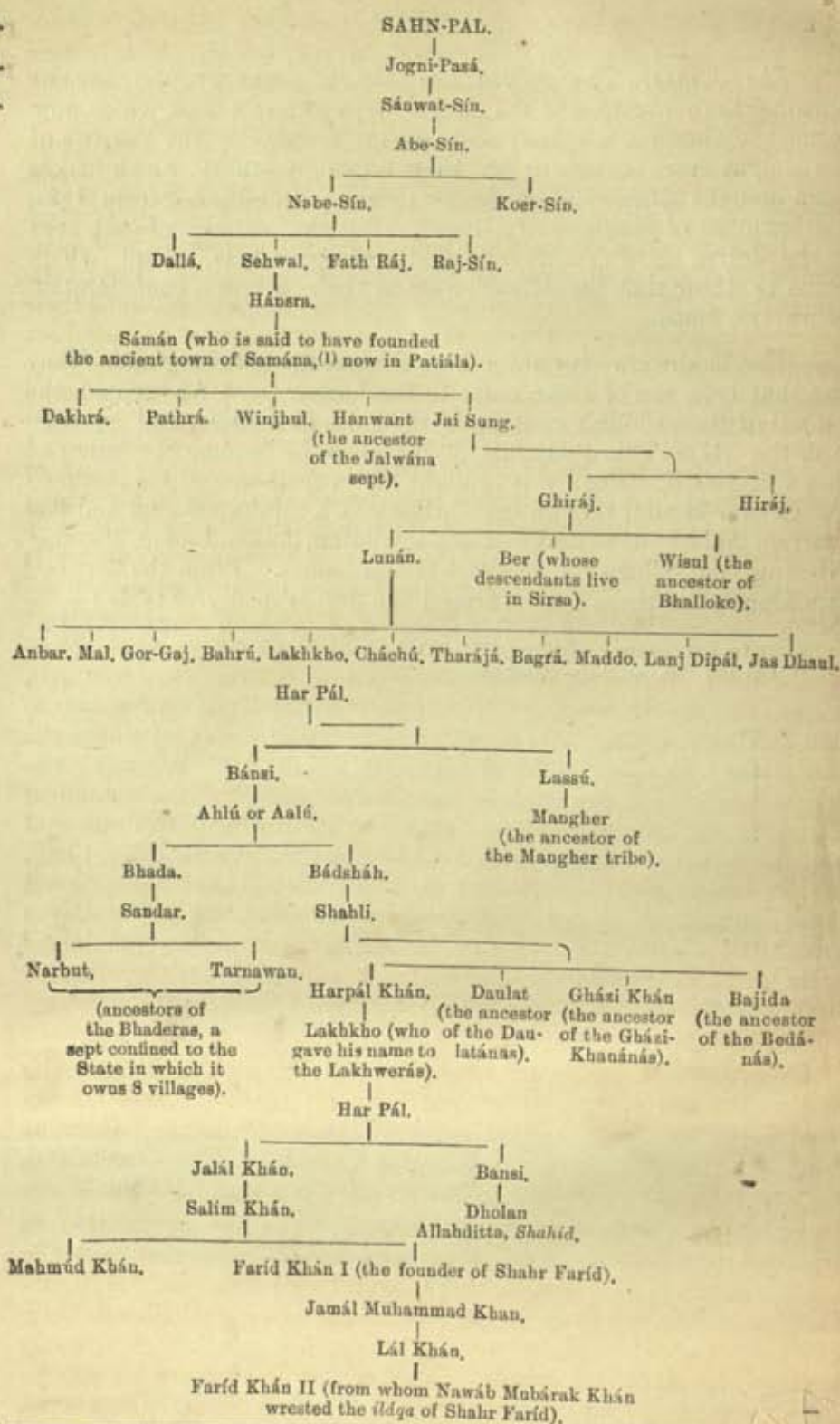
(1) Tod's Rájasthán, I, Chapter VII, p. 106.

(2) Pal and Sal being the other two.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

The Joiyas.



(1) But local tradition attributes its foundation to the Samanide of Persia.

Sahn-Pál is said to have coined his own money at Bhatner, a proof that he exercised sovereign power. Lunán, Ber and Wisul were contemporaries of Báwa Faríd-ud-Dín, Shakar-Ganj, who converted them to Islám and blessed Lunán, saying, "*Lunán, dunan, chaunan,*" i.e., "may Laman's posterity multiply." These three brothers wrested the fortress of Bhatindah from the Slave Kings of Delhi and ruled its territory, with Sirsa and Bhatner, independently.

Lakhkho, son of Lunán, headed a confederation of the Joiyas, Bhattís, Rathors and Waryás against the Víkas, or Bíkás, the founders of Bikaner, whose territory they devastated, until their King, Rája Ajras, gave his daughter Kesar in marriage to Lakhkho, and from that time onwards the Hindu Rájputs of Bikaner gave daughters to the Muhammadan Joiyas as an established custom up to within the last 50 years, when the practice ceased.

After Lakhkho Salim Khán rose to power in the time of Aurangzeb. He founded a Salemgarh which he gave to Pír Shauq Shah, whence it was called Mari Shauq Shah, and founded a second Salemgarh, which was however destroyed by Aurangzeb's orders, but on its ruins his son Faríd Khán I founded Shahr Faríd. After the downfall of the Mughal Empire the Lakhwera chiefs continued for some time to pay tribute at Multan and Nawáb Wali Muhammad Khán Khakwáni, its Governor, married a Joiya girl, Ihsan Bibi, and thus secured their adherence, which enabled him to find a refuge among the Admera and Saldera Joiyas when the Mahrattas took possession of Multan in 1757 A. D.⁽¹⁾ After this the Joiyas under Faríd Khán II revolted against Salih Muhammad Khán, whom the Mahrattas had appointed Governor of Multan, and plundered his territory, but in 1172 A. D., when Ahmad Shah, Abdáli, had expelled the Mahrattas from Multan, he re-appointed Wali Muhammad Khán to its Governorship and to him the Joiyas submitted. Under the Emperor Zamán Khán, however, the Joiyas again rose in rebellion, and at the instance of the Governor of Multan Nawáb Mubárák Khán of Baháwalpur annexed the territory of Faríd Khán II.

The Joiyas have always received favourable treatment from the Baháwalpur administration. Thus the *chatti* or fines levied from criminals of the Shahr Faríd *iláqa* were paid over to the Lakhwera Rais up to the time of Nawáb Baháwal Khán III. The descendants of Faríd Khán II still hold 5,000 *bigahs* as *inám* and 6,000 as *kasúr*.

The Joiya septs are very numerous, 46 being enumerated as principal septs alone. Of these the more important are the (i) Lakhwera, (ii) Daulatána, (iii) Bhadera, (iv) Nihál-ka, (v) Ghazi-Khanana, (vi) Jalwána, which has a sub-sept called Bhaon, their ancestor having been designated Nekokára-Bhai or the "virtuous brother" by Abdulla Jahánian. Most of the Joiya septs are eponymous, their names ending in -ka and sometimes in -era. These septs

(1) *Tárikh-i-Murád*, M. S. II, p. 402.

CHAP. I. C. give names to numerous villages in the Khairpur and Minchinābad
 Population. Kārdār's.⁽¹⁾

The Joiyas.

The Joiyas as a tribe regard Ali Khān, Lakhwera, *ra'is* of Shahr Farid as their chief, and his influence extends over the Joiyas in Multan. A Joiya who has committed theft will not deny the fact before this chief. Heads of septs are: Sajwara of the Akoka, Lakhā of the Chaweke, Muhammad Ali of the Laleke, Munsi Mahmūd Khān of the Jalwānas, Sikandar Khān of the Bhadera (who pays Rs. 2,400 as annual revenue) and Mahmūd Khān, *ra'is* of Luddan, of the Daulatānas.

A special custom.—The Lakhwera, Bhadera, Ghazi-Khanana, Daulatāna, Kamera and Mangher septs in particular, and a few others, observe the *windik* ceremony. This consists in slaughtering two rams (*ghattas*) and making a *pulao* (with rice cooked in *ghi*) of the flesh. This is given in charity in the name of their ancestor Allahditta, who single-handed resisted a party of 50 Baloches who tried to raid the cattle he was tending in the Cholistān. Allahditta was killed, but his bravery is commemorated in the *windik* and his tomb in the Taj-Sarwar is greatly frequented by the tribe. Lunān's name is also mentioned in the *windik* because he fell in a fight with Lahr Joiya, a descendant of Jai at Kharbāra in Bikaner, where his tomb still exists. The descendants of the Joiyas shown in the pedigree-table from Bansi upwards observe only the *windik* of Lunān, not that of Allahditta.

The Joiyas are brave, but, like the Wattās, addicted to theft. The Lakhwera sept is the highest in the social scale and has a great reputation for courage. The tribe is devoted to horses and buffaloes. No Joiya considers it derogatory to plough with his own hands, but if a man gives up agriculture and takes to trade or handicraft the Joiyas cease to enter into any kind of relationship with him. They numbered 19,122 souls in 1901.

The Mahārs.

The Mahārs.—This is an important tribe which claims descent from Mahār, an elder brother of Joiya,⁽²⁾ son of Iyās and Rāni Nal, daughter of Rāja Chūharhar. The Joiyas while admitting the claim

(1) The following is a list of the remaining Joiya septs:—

Mandere,	Beg-ke,	Jhunde-ke,
Kamere,	Hamānd-ke,	Sunatte-ke,
Bhirāj-ke,	Qāsim-ke,	Jhanbero,
Bhikrāne,	Billā-ke,	Mihra-ke,
Bedāne,	Jodhe-ke,	Chāwe-ke,
Salyera,	Hasan-ke,	Bhallo-ke,
Taghere,	Mammūn-ke,	Pahalwān-ke,
Fatwere,	Bahadur-ke,	Wazir-ke,
Belāne,	Bhūre-ke,	Lāl-ke,
Abhrere,	Sābū-ke,	Suldere,
Malere,	Ākū-ke,	Admere,
Malere,	Ājere,	Mome-ke,
Adlāne,	Yānis-ke,	Jamlere,
Surere,	Qāsim-ke,	

(2) There is a class of barbers in the Ubha who also call themselves *Joyas*, but they are not of the Joiya tribe.

(3) See the *Bāgh-o-Bahār aqwām Joiya wa Mahār* by Lakhe Khān Mahār of Montgomery.

to kinship, say that Mahár was the son of a sister of Joiya's mother. Mahár was born in Cháharhar, and Wág, his grandson, became *rāja* of Garh-Mathla and Kot Sánpli. He had a son, Sánwra, whose descendants the Sánwrepotre (or Mahárs simply) are found in Sirsa. Sanwra's brothers drove him out of Garh-Mathla and so he settled in Sartaní in the Shahr Faríd Peshkúri. Jandla and Chhajjude, now ruined villages near Chak Chopá Mál and Basti Humáyún Siál, were built by his descendants. Mahárán was founded by Fateh Khán, son of Waryá, from whom Daulat Ali Khán, the present Mahár representative, is eighth in descent, during the ascendancy of the Lakhiweras to whom the Mahárs used to pay a fourth of their produce by division and they continued to hold it down to the time of Baháwal Khán II. The son of the Khwája Núr Muhammad (Qibla-i-Alam), Mián Núr-us-Samad was however assassinated by Sarwan and Karm, both Mahárs, and Warsál Surera, a Joiya, and after a long time Qázi Muhammad A'qil of Mithankot claimed blood-money in the court of Sádiq Muhammad Khán II who was his *muríd*. The claim was allowed against the assassins' descendants, who were ordered to pay 200 buffaloes or 100 camels to the descendants of the 'martyr' Núr-us-Samad, but as they could not pay this fine the Mahárs had to transfer to them the ownership of a half of Mahárán village instead and since then they have sunk gradually and now only own three wells all told.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

The Mahárs.

The Wattús. The Wattús, according to their own traditions, came originally from Jaisalmir and settled in the Punjab, advancing as far as Batála (or Watála) which they founded. They then dispersed, along both banks of the Sutlej. Their conversion to Islám was effected in the reign of Firoz Shah Tughlak, after which period they were subjects of the kingdom of Delhi, and suffered greatly at the hands of the Sidhu-Barár Sikhs to whom they remained tributary until Nawáb Muhammad Bahawal Khán II expelled the Sidhu-Barárs from the Wattu territory and annexed it to Baháwalpur. The control of the State over the Wattús was however ineffective, and Hindu Kárdárs appointed to the charge of their territory were often, as the Wattús boasted, assassinated, until Mirán Imám Shah Kárdár brought the tribe under subjection by applying Muhammadan penal code, as for example by inflicting amputation of the hands for theft.⁽¹⁾

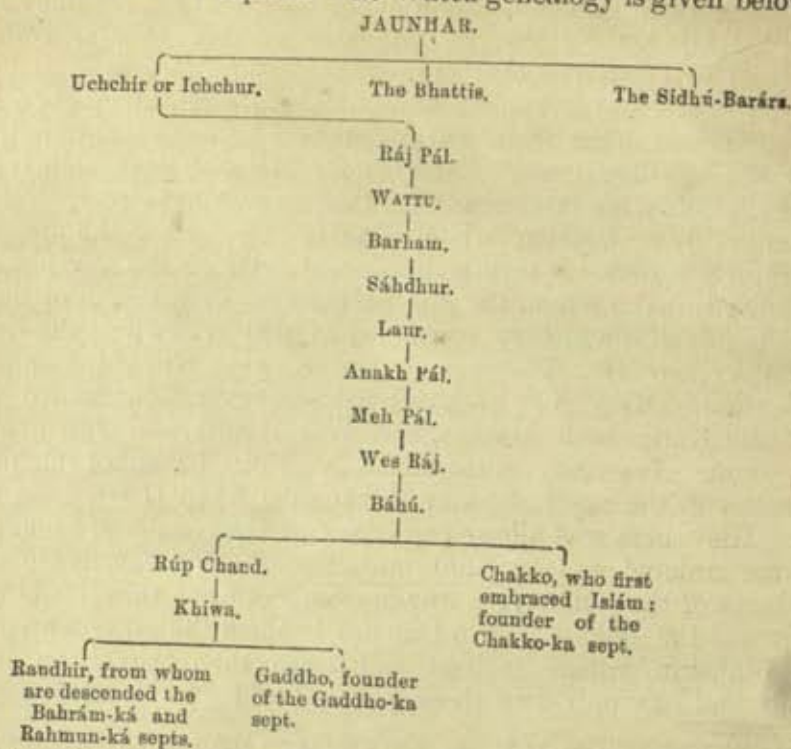
The Wattús.

The Wattu *mirásís* carry their genealogy back to Wattu, 8th in descent from Jaisal, the founder of Jaisalmer, and 26th in descent from Rája Risálú. These *mirásís* also preserve a version of the Legend of Rája Risálú identical with that given in Temple's Legends of the Punjab, but they localize Risálú's capital at Sáhúke in Tahsil Mailsi of the Multan District opposite the village of Rája Shah in this State, and in 1894 the Sutlej eroded some land near Sáhúke and disclosed a platform beneath which a number of skulls are

(1) One Koera Chhina, whose hands had been thus amputated, lived to a great age, and died only 17 years ago.

CHAP. I, C. said to have been found, thus confirming the popular belief that
 Population. Sáhúke was Risílú's capital. The Wattu genealogy is given below:—

The Wattús.



The principal septs of the Wattús are:—

- i. Sálím-ke, (i) Qáim-ke, (ii) Amrúke, (iii) Báre-ke.
- ii. Sáhru, with a sub-sept Darweshke. This sept holds Jiwan-Sahrú and Hásil-Sahrú, and their representative is Jiwan Khán of Dona Jíwan, a *kursi nashín darbári*.
- iii. Gaddhoke, (i) Ratte-ke, (ii) Báthe-ke, (iii) Dhaddí-ke, (iv) Daddú-ke. Their representatives are Bahádur Khán and Usmán Khán, *kursi nashíns*.
- iv. Rahmún-ke
- v. Malle-ke } with several eponymous sub-septs.
- vi. Miána. Their representative is Ahmad Bakhsh, Miána, Zaildar of Basti Miána.
- vii. Jassoke.
- viii. Ahloke.
- ix. Shekhú-ke.
- x. Chakkoke, whose leading representative is Sirdár Khán of Chakkoka.
- xi. Dalelke.
- xii. Kálúke.
- xiii. Dhíráke.
- xiv. Sahnke.

The Wattús have several strongly marked characteristics. CHAP. I, C.
 Divorce is unknown among them, women of loose character being Population.
 killed and declared to have absconded. It is considered foolish to
 talk of divorce. A widow or daughter inherits no share in her
 husband or father's property but receives maintenance only. A
 price is never accepted for a daughter, but a Wattu has often to
 pay Rs. 200 to 500 for a wife. The Wattús only give daughters in
 marriage to Sayyids, Chishtis and Joiyas, but they take brides from
 five septs of the Tuhars, and from Chauháns, Chhínás and Bhattis.
 Like the Joiyas they have no custom of adoption. In 1901 they
 numbered 5,898 souls. The Wattús.

The Chhínás.—The Chhínás are found mostly in the Minchiná-
 bád Kárdári, opposite Pákpattan. They have three septs, Táreka,
 Mahramka and Azamka, which own land and give their names to
 the three villages of Tara-Chhína, Mahram-Chhína and Azam-
 Chhína. The other septs are tenants. Their genealogy gives
 them a common origin with the Wattús:—
 UCHCHIR OR ICHCHUR.

Jag-Pál,
 Chhína.

Raj-Pál,
 Wattu.

Pheru, 18th in descent from Chhína, was converted to Islám by
 Báwa Faríd-ud-Dín, Shakar-Ganj of Pákpattan. The Chhínás are
 courageous and hard-working, but they are also professional thieves,
 though they will not steal from Sayyids, *faqírs* or *mirásís*, dreading
 the abuse of the latter. Though a small tribe in comparison with
 the Wattús they will not allow the latter to get the upper hand,
 and if the Wattús steal one buffalo from the Chhínás, the latter
 endeavour to retaliate by stealing five from the Wattús. Momanda
 Chhína is not only the recognised leader of the tribe, but respected
 by the Joiyas and Wattús alike. The Chhína is very unreliable;
 and hence the proverb, "*Chhína Kamína*," i.e., a Chhína is a mean
 fellow.

The Vehás, or Waihas. The Vehas are found mainly in Kárdári
 Sádiqábád and the *peshkári* of Allahábád. They trace their origin
 to Jaisalmir and aver that in the 4th century of the Hijra the
 Rája of that State gave Hurar, the modern Taj-gadh, in dower to
 his daughter Húrán, and that the place was named after her. At
 the close of the 4th century Sayyid Ahmad Billaury took up his
 abode at a place now called Amingadh close to Hurar which was
 then ruled by Rája Bhunak Bhátia who became a convert to
 Islám. The Vehas' folk-etymologies point to a change in their
 name on conversion, for one derives Veha from *vih*, 20, twenty
 leading members of the tribe having been converted with Rája
 Bhunak. Another derives the name from *wáhi* cultivation, because
 the Rája of Jaisalmir confiscated their lands on their conversion,
 and the Sayyid told them to take to cultivation. A third fanciful
 etymology derives Veha from *wah*, because their conversion was

The Vehás.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Lars.

applauded by the Sayyid's followers. The Vehas of Bahawalpur intermarry with those of Dera Isma'il Khán and the Tulamba *ilāqa*. Their leading member is Ghulám Sarwar, *zaildār* of Taj-gadh.

The Lars.—The Lars have several septs:—

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| i. Wagejas, whose leading representative is Hakím Iláhi Bakhsh of Ther in the Khán Bela <i>ilāqa</i> . | vii. Sab-Rája. |
| ii. Saníja, in the Feroza <i>ilāqa</i> . | viii. Jhargá. |
| iii. Rameja, in Feroza itself. | ix. Shaikh. |
| iv. Maráli-Dhan, in the Jajja and Naushahra <i>ilāqas</i> . | x. Gandia. |
| v. Alúria. | xi. Batta. |
| vi. Darúrhi. | xii. Lutfia. |
| | xiii. Ballha. |
| | xiv. Dammar. |
| | xv. Bhela. |
| | xvi. Kázar. |

Leading men are Ghulám Muhammad, Maráli-Dhan, *zaildār*, in *peshkári* Naushahra, and Jám Wáhid Bakhsh, *zaildār* of Wáhid Bakhsh in Ahmadpur Lamma.

The Ghallús.

The Ghallús.—The Ghallús are found in large numbers in the Kárdáris of Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur, and more particularly in the *peshkári* of Uch. Their story is that Ghallú, their ancestor, a Hindu Ráth (or Rájput) was converted by Makhdúm Jahanián whom he accompanied from a place in the east towards the source of the River Sutlej to Uch. He had seven sons, after whom the following sub-divisions of the Ghallús are named:—

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|
| (1) Hanbír-potre. | (3) Dipál. | (5) Kurpál. |
| (2) Ghanún-potre. | (4) Jhánbú. | (6) Kánji. |
| | (7) Gujj. | |

Thatta Ghallúan, a village in the tahsil of Shujabád, where many Ghallús live, was founded by this tribe. The following villages in the State belong to the Ghallús:—Bahawalpur Ghallúan, Ali Wáhan, Sarí Wasti, Bakhkhápur, all in Kárdári Ahmadpur, Makhwára, near Uch, Kot Dádú Ghallú and Kurpálán, both in Kárdári Bahawalpur. The Ghallús are both landowners and agriculturists.

The Guláms (a small tribe whose origin is unknown) were formerly the slaves of the Ghallús; and even in modern times the former are only found in the villages of the Ghallús, whom they serve as tenants or household servants.

The Girwánhs.

The Girwánhs.—The Girwánhs or Garwánhs are both landowners and agriculturists, and are met with in the Kárdáris of Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur, where they have their own *bastis* and a few villages, *e. g.*,⁽¹⁾ their septs are:—

- (1) Attá
- (2) Jálap, and
- (3) Karer.

(1) Sher Garwánh (in Bahawalpur Kárdári) and Garwánh (in Ahmadpur Kárdári).

The Mahrs.—The Mahrs, who have been identified with the Meds of the Arabian historians and others, have several sects:—

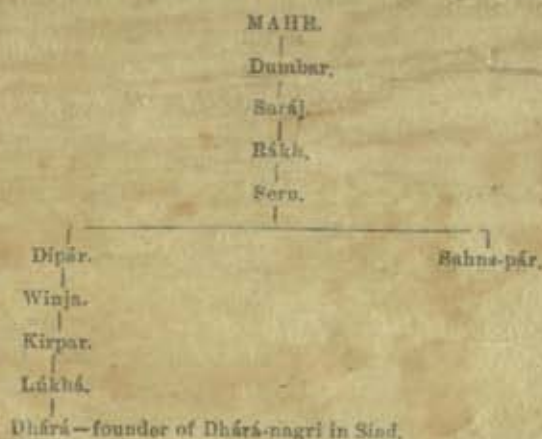
CHAP. I. C.

Population

The Master.

- i. Channar, ii. Hasnāne, iii. Rukrāni, iv. Tagani, v. Lalāni, vi. Sherwāni, vii. Māke-Mahr (in the west of Sādiqābād), viii. Matuje, ix. Sukhiye.

Their chief or Khán is Muhammad Bakhsh Khán, Sukhiya, rá'is of Khángarh in Shikárpur District, and no other Mahr will sit on the same *chárpaí* with him. They derive their name from Mihtar, 'prince', but some of them give their genealogy thus:—



These names also occur in the genealogies of certain Rájput tribes, such as the Joiya, Wattu and Sammá.

Sir H. Elliot⁽¹⁵⁾ was of opinion that the root Mahr, Mer or Man could be traced in various place-names in the Punjab, such as Mera, 10 miles west of Kallar Kahar, which would give them a northern origin, but this is not in accord with this fact that the Mahrs and Kahiris were the private attendants of the Abbási Dāūdpatris when they migrated from Shikārpur to the area of the present State of Bahāwalpur.

The Máchhis.—The Máchhis or Takráns (Sindhi *takkar* = mountain) are virtually confined to the detached area, lying south of the State, known as Fatehpur-Machhka, and which forms a separate *peshkâri*. They have ten septs:—

- | | |
|---|------------------|
| (i). Takrani or Dagrani,
the sept of the chiefs. | (vi). Gulani. |
| (ii). Lalani. | (vii). Sidgani. |
| (iii). Balani. | (viii). Kiryani. |
| (iv). Shahlani. | (ix). Ghati. |
| (v). Jumrani or Jumrai. | (x). Jamman. |

The Máchhis say they are a branch of the Solgís (Saljúkís) and claim to have had their first home in Halab (Aleppo) in Syria.

(15) History of India, I, p. 530.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Máchhís.

and to have migrated thence to the vicinity of Karbala, where they were settled when the Imám Husain was killed there, and they claim to have been followers of that Imám and to have carefully interred his body after his martyrdom, but their enemies say they were enemies of the Imám and that Shimar the Cruel was of their race. From Karbala they migrated along the skirts of the hills in southern Persia and Afghanistan to Kech-Mekrán, thence to Bela Jhal, now held by Sardár (now Nawáb) Kesar Khán, Magassi Baloch, and thence again to Qalát where they remained some time. Finally they settled in Shikárpur. Early in the 18th century they were allies of the Kalhorás against the Dáúdpotrás at the battle of Shikárpur. Masu Khan Máchhi founded Massuwála in the Kashmor *ilāqa* of the Jacobabad District and made the Massuwálh Canal, about the same period, but when the Kalhorás took Haidarabad and Shikárpur, they leased the extensive tract of Ubaura to the Dáhrs, who, unable to repel the inroads of the Sahu freebooters of Jaisalmer, called on Sultán Khán, son of Massu Khán, to aid them against the Sahus, in return for lands in Ubaura sufficient to maintain him and his whole tribe. Sultán Khán acceded and was migrating to Ubaura when he heard that the Sahus were besieging the fort of that name, and made a sudden attack on the besiegers. The Dáhrs also sallied forth from the fort and the Sahus thus surrounded were utterly defeated, but the Dáhrs and Máchhís lost as many men as their enemies, and the total loss on both sides was believed to amount to 100,000 men, whence the depression near Ubaura was named Lákhí. In return for this service the Dáhrs gave the Máchhís the tract between Lákhí and Massuwála, both tribes holding as joint lessees of the Kalhorás. But when the Talpur Wazírs usurped the government of the Kalhorás they resumed the lease and wrested all their lands from the Máchhís, except Fatehpur and Machhka, which Sabzal Khán afterwards amalgamated with his own domain of Kot Sabzal. When that State was annexed by Baháwal Khán IV Fatehpur-Machhka became a part of the Baháwalpur State and the Máchhís as a body remained loyal to the Nawáb when the Dáúdpotra Kháns of Kot Sabzal rose in rebellion, only Fath Muhammad Máchhi of Muhammad Murád in the Ahmadpur Lamma *ilāqa* siding with the rebel Kháns, in consequence of which his property was confiscated and he fled the State. The Máchhís still boast that they received Rs. 5 for the head of every rebel.

The Máchhi Sardárs are named alternately Sultán Khán and Jahán Khán, and the present Sardár, Jahán Khán, is aged 13, being the ward of Sardár Khán, his paternal grandfather's brother, during his minority. The Máchhís are exceedingly obedient to their chief, who is moreover sole owner of the tribal territory (78,000 *bigahs* in area, paying Rs. 18,900 in revenue) of Fatehpur-Machhka, the tribesmen being his tenants, and the Sardár settles all his disputes as to custom and other domestic matters.

The Máchhīs, like the Baloches, do not cut the hair or shave, nor do they wear black, and all Máchhīs usually live in *shabars*, for, however rich a Máchhi may be, he will always have a roof of reeds, not of beams and rafters. CHAP. I. C.
Population.

The Cháchars.—The illiterate Cháchars claim to be Mughal and they produce pedigree-tables tracing their descent from Timūr Lang (Tamerlane) whom they connect with Abbās, a cousin of Husain, the son of Ali. But tradition says that the Surar, Subhāgo, Sītro and Cháchar tribes were once slaves of Rāja Bunga Rai, rāja of Umrkot, and that Jām Jhakhār redeemed them, and there is a saying:— The Cháchars.

Surar, Subhāgo, Sītro, chāuthi, Chachariā,

Anda hā Jām Jhakhār hā bāhnān Bunga Rā,
to that effect.

The Cháchars have several septa:—

- (i) *Raj-de*, the highest in status; (ii) *Rahmāni*, whose ancestors were *Khalīfas* of Gaus Bahā-ud-Dīn Zakariya. Hence they are also called *Shaikh-Rahmani* and some sanctity still attaches to the sept; (iii) *Narang*, (iv) *Jugana*, (v) *Jhunja*, (vi) *Chhutta*, (vii) *Gureja*, (viii) *Rukana*, (ix) *Kalra*, (x) *Mudda*, (xi) *Dāwani*, (xii) *Dohija*, (xiii) *Gabrini*, (xiv) *Mīria*, (xv) *Kharyani* and (xvi) *Zakriani* or followers of Gaus Bahā-ud-Dīn Zakariya.

The whole tribe, however, are followers of that saint and never become disciples of any but his descendants. The Cháchars own the villages of Hājipur, Sardārgadh, Chak Abbās, Sultānpur, Dukki, Makhan Bela, and Bibipur, which they founded in Naushahra *peshkāri*, and Muhammad Yār, grandfather of Ghulām Rasūl of Dukki in the Naushahra *peshkāri*, was granted a *jāgīr* by Bahāwal Khān III in lieu of his furnishing 40 musketeers to the State army.

The Sammās.—The Sammās are represented in this State by the following septa:— The Sammās.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| | i. Abreja. |
| | ii. Khambra. |
| | iii. Sangi (found in Kārdārī Khān-
pur and Sādiqābād). |
| i. Abrah... | iv. Jamra. |
| | v. Abbal. |
| | vi. Nangana. |
| | vii. Bappi. |

The Abrahs are also called *Phal-potras* or 'children of the fruit,' because they first introduced agriculture into Sindh. Hence their motto:—

Lakha lakh lutāyo,

Karan bakhsho krōr

To Abrah bakhsho hal dī or

CHAP. I, C.

Population.
The Sammās.

'Lákhá (a Samma rája) gives lakhs, and Karn krors of rupees, in charity, but Abrah gives but what he earns by the plough.'

- ii. *Sawenta*.—(i) Sudr. (ii) Silra. (iii) Dandam.
- iii. *Nareja*, descended from pure Sammās on both sides.
- iv. *Dhareja*, } by Samma fathers, but by mothers of other
- v. *Dhári*, } tribes (cf. *dhi*, daughter).
- vi. *Warand*.
- vii. *Unnar*, descendants of Rája Lákhá. Their leading man is Jám Khán Muhammad Khán of Unnar in Khán Bela *peshkári*.
- viii. *Ujjan*, whose leading members are Mián Abdul Kháliq of Wárni and Maulavi Muhammad Isháq of Adhuja in Kot Sabzal.
- ix. *Sahta*.
- x. *Kala*.
- xi. *Gori*.
- xii. *Lákhá*.
- xiii. *Ranúhja* or *Runjha*, whose representative is Khuda Bakhsh, *zaildár* of Khairpur Daha in the *iláqa* of Uch. This sept claims to be of the Dáúdputra tribe. They have a sub-sept called Tarechri,⁽¹⁶⁾ a wild group, cattle-breeders by occupation. According to some, *Ranúhja* and *Runjha* are separate septs of the Sammās.
- xiv. *Káká*.
- xv. *Káhá*.

The Khohánras.

The Khohánras.—The Sangi branch of the Sammās has a tradition that in ancient times the Sammās had two grades, one comprising the 30 families of superior or genuine Sammās, the other 13 inferior septs who were *wazírs* of the Sammās. To the latter belonged the Khohánras. No other sept of Sammās has however preserved such a tradition.

The Sumrás.

The Sumrás.—The Sumrás in this State are by no means numerous and are confined to the Lamma. Few own land, and the majority are tenants, while others are blacksmiths, carpenters, boatmen or barbers. After their overthrow by the Sammās tradition says that only those men of the tribe escaped massacre who declared themselves to be artizans or menials, and so many of them were killed that nearly all the women were widowed, and

(16) A mound so named in the Cholistán, near Patn Munars, may once have belonged to this sept.

hence no Sumra wife to this day wears a nose-ring, for the tribe is still mourning its losses.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

The Sumras.

The main Sumra septs are:—

- i. *Bhattar*, whose leading member is Jám Táj Muhammad of Bhattar,
- ii. *Kakkik*,
- iii. *Khatrī*, found in Kárdārī Sádiqábád, are washermen by trade, so that Khatrī has become a general term for *dhobi*,
- iv. *Bhákhrī*,

The Ghalejas are divided into (i) the *khális* or pure Ghalejas, and (ii) sixteen sub-septs, Yaráni, Sáda, Lalla, Luthrá, Kuddan, Jára, Gehnri, Kekri, Láng, Natháni, Chhatáni, Midáni, &c.

The Ghalejas.

The Ghalejas are found in the Lamma, especially in the Kárdārī of Khánpur. They claim to be Abbásis by origin, but they appear to be a branch of the Sammās which migrated from Haidarabad Sind and settled in the Lamma in the time of the Náhars, and their ancestor Lál Khán founded Gauspur, naming it after Gaus Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya of Multán, his religious guide. When this tract passed into the hands of the Abbási Dáúdpostrás, the Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II assigned a thirteenth of the revenue of Gauspur to Lál Khán's descendants. Kaure Khán Ghaleja accompanied that Nawáb to the siege of Multán in 1848, and received a considerable *jágir* in Gauspur for life.

The recognised chiefs of the Ghalejas are Lál Khán, *lambardár*, and Qádir Dád, *zaildár* of Gauspur, and they receive *nazrána* on a marriage or birth of a son from all the members of the Ghaleja septs.

The Channars.—The Channars, or Channín-de are found chiefly in the Kárdārīs of Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur East, where they are cultivators, and in the Rohi, where they are landowners and cattle-breeders. The Channar septs are:—(i) Admáni, (ii) Rám, (iii) Wísál, (iv) Bhojar, and (v) Bharpál.

The Channars.

The Channars are said by some of the tribe to be descended from Pír Channar, but the more general belief is that the Pír never married and that the Channars are descended from his seven brothers, sons of Rai Sandhíla. The Channars are, however, believed to be an offshoot of the Mahrs. ⁽¹⁷⁾

The Junans.—The Junans are descended from Jám Juna, ⁽¹⁸⁾ who ruled Sind in the 8th century of the Hijra, and give their name to the State of Junagadh. The Junans of Baháwalpur migrated

The Junans.

(17) See Sec. Religions, p. *supra*.

(18) This must be the Jám Juna, Sammá, who succeeded Unar, the second ruler of the Samma dynasty. Duff, p. 302.

CHAP. I, C. from Qasba Jungal in Shikárpur to Kot Sabzal in the 18th century A. D. and were granted lands by Ismail Khán, son of Sabzal Khán. Their present *ra'is* is Salih Muhammad Khán, whose grandfather Jungal Khán constructed the Jungal-wah Canal and founded the village of Dhandi.

The Junans.

The Siáls.—The Siáls are found both in the Lamma and in the Ubha, but more especially in the former part, the Mughyána, Kamyána, Hasnana, Shaikhana (descendants of Shaikh Ali Bharmi) and Kirtwana sept being strongly represented in the Allahabad *peshkári*. The Siál tradition in Baháwalpur is that Sewa, son of Sangar, Rája of Pánipat and Karnál, was expelled from his country by his brothers, Teu and Gheu, and took refuge with Bába Farid-ud-Dín Shakar-Ganj, who converted him to Islám in the 7th century of the Hijra, and instructed him to settle in Jhang, where he married a Mekan⁽¹⁹⁾ girl. From his three sons are descended a number of septs:—

- i. From Mahni: (i) Muklána, (ii) Sajrána, (iii) Pandyána, (iv) Lakhnána, and (v) Panjwána.
- ii. From Bharmi: (i) Sargána, (ii) Kamlána, (iii) Chela, (iv) Alyána, (v) Hiráj, (vi) Thiráj, (vii) Kamyána.
- iii. From Koli: (i) Salyána, (ii) Rajyána, (iii) Borána, (iv) Daráj, (v) Sabána, (vi) Khichyána, (vii) Ambrána, (viii) Umrána, (ix) Metkána, (x) Chuchkána (descendants of Chúchak the father of Hir, Ránjha's mistress), (xi) Mughyána, and (xii) Jalál-Khanána.

The Bhattis.

The Bhattis.—This important and interesting tribe has 15 principal clans:—

- i. The Bhattis, or pure Bhattis, who are generally land-owners or cultivators, though some are weavers and blacksmiths.
- ii. *Pahor*: throughout the Lamma.
- iii. *Chús*
- iv. *Jogi* } in Sádiqábád Kárdári.
- v. *Jandáni*

These four septs are closely connected, do not give daughters outside the group, and usually intermarry.

vi. *Shaikhrá*: in Goth-Channi *iláqa*. They are descended from Shaikhú, who was converted to Islám by Makhdúm Jahánián and who used to fill the *sabil* for the ablutions of those who came to pray in his mosque.

vii. *Chakar-Hulle*: a small sept, whose ancestors seven generations ago acquired the name of *Chakar-ullah* or servant of God, found in Khán Bela *peshkári*.

viii. *Lallú*: mostly tenants in Uch *peshkári*.

(19) A Bhatti sept.

- ix. *Bhábhe* : a small sept in the *peshkári* of Khairpur East. CHAP. I, C.
 x. *Katesar* : also a small sept in this *peshkári*. They rear sheep and live by selling their milk and *ghi*. Population.
 xi. *Kulyárs* or *Kawalyárs* : found in the *Kárdáris* of Khairpur, Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur. They have an interesting history. The Bhattis.

Kulyár was a son of Rána Ráj Wadhan, who had four other sons, (1) Utterá, (2) Nún, (3) Kánjún, and (4) Határ. The tradition is that the ancestors of Ráj Wadhan lived in ancient times near Ghajní, whence they migrated to Delhi, which after a time they left for Bhatner. In the 7th century H. Ráj Wadhan together with his tribe left Bhatner and settled near Chhanb Kulyár (now in the Lodhrán Tahsil), which in those days lay on the southern bank of the Sutlej and formed part of the dominions of Rái Bhuttá, the ruler of a city, the greater part of which was destroyed by the Sutlej flowing over it; but parts of its ruins are still to be seen on the right bank of the Ghára (in Tahsil Lodhrán). Rána Ráj Wadhan had a beautiful daughter whom Rái Bhuttá desired to marry. The request was refused by Kulyár, the eldest son of Ráj Wadhan; and the result was that a sanguinary battle took place between the parties in which Rái Bhuttá was slain. The tract of the country thus conquered became known by the name of Chhanb Kulyár, which name it still retains. At this time Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál was living in Uch, and his miracles were the topic of the day. Rána Ráj Wadhan and his sons also went to see the Sayyid at Uch, and no sooner had they seen him than they embraced Islám. Their locks were cut, it is related, by Shaikh Jamál Darwesh Khojandí, at the instance of Sayyid Jalál. Ráj Wadhan spent the remaining days of his life in Uch. Utterá occupied the 'Viáh' (Bias),⁽²⁰⁾ Nún began to live on the Rávi, Kánjún at the Donári Mári (?), and Kulyár fixed Chhanb Kulyár as the seat of his residence. Határ was deprived of his share of the inheritance.

The following verse alludes to this event :—

Panj puttár Rána Ráj Wadhan de,
 Panján nind na kíte kái,
 Utterá Argan the peton,
 Chár jane Bhattení máf,
 Hissa na dío Határ kon
 Sadd puchchho Kánjún bhái.

"Rána Ráj Wadhan had five sons, in whom was no fault. Utterá's mother was Argan (a woman who did not belong to the tribe), and the mother of the other four was a Bhatti woman. Give no share to Határ, you may send for Kánjún and inquire this

⁽²⁰⁾ The tradition is that in those days the Bias flowed separately to the north of Kahrór towards Shujábad.

CHAP. I. C. from him (and he will quite bear this out)." The Utterás, Nuns, **Population.** Kánjuns, and Határs are found in large numbers in the State; most of them being landowners or agriculturists. The leading member of the Kánjuns is Mullah Jfwan, Náib Tahsildar, now retired, and the representative of the Kulyárs is Malik Núr Mohamad, *lambardár* of Goth-Gahna (Kárdári Baháwalpur).

The Bhattis.

xii. *Daragh :*

xiii. *Sangrá :* with a famous sept called Wági. In the 8th century of the Hijra the Sangrás migrated from Rájpútána and settled in Kathála, then a large town on the Gurang or Hariari, the ruins of which are still to be seen near Tibba Tánwin-wála. Kathála was at that time held by the Joiyas. The Sangrás when they reached Kathála had never seen sugarcane, so they cut down the fields of it, thinking they contained reeds, and built huts like those of the modern Marechás. The Wágis were converted to Islám by Abdulla Jahánián, at this period, and gathered together all their *janeos* to make a tether for the saint's horse. Hence they became known as Wágis—from *wág*, a tether. They have several sub-septs:—

i. Pherá-de—(i) Sahlon-de, (ii) Sultán-de, (iii) Hákún-de, (iv) Háji-de.

ii. Tole-de—(i) Shádi-de, (ii) Tatári.

xiv. *Mahtam :* the Muhammadan Mahtams claim to be Bhattis and say a *mirási* once ironically called their ancestor 'Mahtam,' or 'chief.' They appear to be distinct from the Hindu Mahtams.

xv. *Bhet :* confined to Kárdáris Sádiqábád and Khairpur. They claim to have been Bhattis who accompanied Shaikh Hakim from Delhi, but are said by others to be Dhedhs or Menghwáls, whom that saint converted. They have four septs:—

(i) Júnasáni or Yúnasáni, (ii) Admáni, (iii) Iliási, (iv) Lákri.

xvi. Markand, xvii. Bokha, xviii. Jhakhkhar, xix. Dhándla, xx. Phanbi, xxi. Birár, xxii. Dadu, xxiii. Kapáhi (cotton-workers and reed-cutters), and xxiv. Káhin, are the remaining Bhatti clans. These nine clans are descended from the same ancestor and intermarry. Some are landowners, others tenants, but some are boatmen, and though Bhattis by origin they are regarded as of low status.

The Khokhars.

The Khokhars.—The Khokhars are found in some numbers in the State, but are less numerous in the Ubbha than in the Lamma. They are usually landowners or cultivators and intermarry among themselves, sometime however giving daughters to Joiyas. There is a well-known sept of Khokhars called Missan, whose original home was Nawábpura in Multán. Their name is said to be derived from *missi* (bread made of gram flour), because they once gave a *mirási* a loaf of it and he in consequence composed a satire on them. They are numerous in Alláhábád *peshkári*.

The Punwárs.—The Punwárs have 15 septs, which are described below:—

i. *Dhándú* : found in *peshkárís* Kot Sabzal, Naushahra, and Kot Samaba.

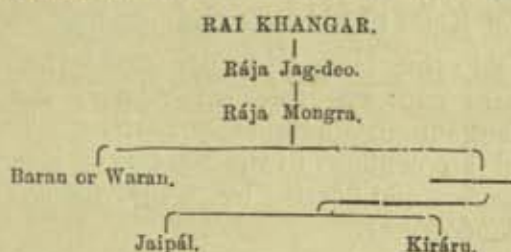
They are mostly goatherds and live by selling milk. A few hold land.

ii. *Gachchal* : found in the *peshkárís* of Naushahra and Khán Bela.

iii. *Pahna-Rúe* : a small sept.

iv. *Rán* : a small sept, mostly agriculturists, but in Ahmadpur East washermen.

v, vi, and vii



The Jaipáls and Kirárus came originally from Marwar. The Wáran had their home at Dhárá-nagri: their leading member is Yár Muhammad, *zaildár* of Dhúr-kot.

viii. *Wasír* : a small sept in Ahmadpur East and Khairpur.

ix. *Tangrá* : also a small sept, some tenants and others proprietors.

x. *Satthus* : tenants and cattle-breeders.

xi. *Butt* : chiefly found in Ahmadpur, but there are also a few in Khairpur *peshkári*. They refuse to give daughters outside the sept and usually intermarry.

xii. *Lakk* : chiefly found in Durpur and Muchran in the *peshkári* of Khairpur East.

xiii. *Labána* : the Muhammadan Labánás claim to be Punwars from Delhi.

xiv. *Parhar*, divided into three sub-septs, (i) Dangar, (ii) Nachna, and (iii) Mahpa. Prominent members of this sept are Rais Faqira, *zaildár* of Madd-Rashid, in the Kárdári of Ahmadpur East, and Rais Muhammad, *zaildár* of Chaudhri in Allahabad *peshkári*. A branch of the Parhars, called Burárna, lives in the Rohi and tends camels.

xv. *Dhuddi* : a widely spread clan found both in the Lamma and Ubbha and comprising several septs, of which the principal are:—

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|-------------|
| (i) Kadar. | (iii) Chanan. | (v) Pannan. |
| (ii) Katári. | (iv) „ <i>pakhiwár</i> . | (vi) Wáke. |

CHAP. I. C.

Population.
The Khokhars.

To these may be added the Buhars, who are akin to the Parhars,⁽²¹⁾ and the Dahas, who are *dohtras* or daughters' sons of the latter, Daha, a *faqir*, having married the daughter of a Parhar Rājput and founded this sept.

The
Chauhāns.

The Chauhāns.—There are three Chauhān clans in the State:—

i. *The Khālis Chauhān*, whose leader is Jām Qaim, headman of Kurman Singh, a village in Naushahra *peshkāri*. Maulavi Ibrahim, grandfather of Maulavis Muhammad Salm and Sharif-ullah, received certain assignments in recognition of his services to literature from the State, and these are still held by his descendants.

ii. *Hamshiras*: found mainly in Uch *peshkāri*. They claim that Muhammad Husain, their ancestor, was Akbar's foster-brother (*hamshir*), but others say they are Hashmiras not Hamshiras. Qādir Bakhsh Khān of Kotla Shaikhān is their leading man.

iii. *The Khichchi*: they claim to be descended from Khichchi Khān who 700 years ago was ruler of Ajmer, and say their ancestor founded Shergadh in Montgomery District. They are but few in number and are confined to the Kārdāri of Khairpur East, where they are carpenters and *khatiks* by trade, though in Multān they are well-to-do landowners.

The Tūhars.

The Tūhars: found in Kārdāris Minchinābād and Khairpur. They have six septs:—i. Sukhere, ii. Kalloke, iii. Bhane-ke, iv. Hindāne, v. Sango-ke, vi. Chadhrar.

The Dāhrs.

The Dāhrs hold an important position in the State and merit detailed notice. Their descent is traced from Rāja Rawan, ruler of Mirpur Mathila near Ghot-ki, who was converted to Islām by Sayyid Jakāl and was by him named Amir-ud-Dāhr, or "Ruler of the Age." He had two sons, Mahmūd, whose descendants live in Peshkāris Khānpur and Naushahra, north of Kot Sabzal, and Muhammad, whose descendants are found south-west of that place, about Khairpur Dahrki towards Sindh. Once rulers of part of Sindh the Dāhr power decreased in the time of the Langāh supremacy, and in Akbar's time they were addressed merely as *Zamīndārs*,⁽²²⁾ but the Nāhars conceded many privileges to them and these were maintained by the Dāūdpoṭrās on their rise to power. For instance, $\frac{1}{8}$ th or $\frac{1}{5}$ th share of the land revenue of Golani used to be paid to the Dāhrs, and 300 bigahs are still held in *inām* by its two *ra'ises*. The leading representative of the Dāhrs is Ghulām Nabi, *lambardār* of Bhutta Wahan, and among the southern Dāhrs, Sawai Khān, *lambardār* of Chak Naushahra in Fatehpur-Machhka *peshkāri* is a large landowner, paying Rs. 1,800 a year in land revenue. The Dāhrs are closely connected with the Gilāni-Makhdūms of Uch, to whom they have, it is said, given eighteen daughters in marriage from time to time.

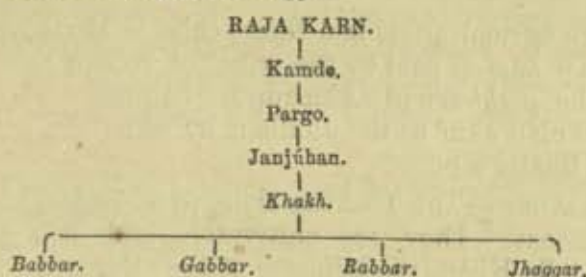
(21)

(22) Ilāhī Baksh Khān and Pīr Baksh Khān, *ra'ises* of Golani, still possess several sanads given by Akbar to their ancestors.

The Chaudhrís.—The Chaudhrís are found in the Ghauspur **CHAP. I, C.**
peshkári, and give their name to the village of Chaudhri. They **Population.**
 have four main septs, Janjáni, Jastráni, Samdáni, and Dhadáni.
 They say that their original name was Salúki (?) Saljuki. *The Chaudhrís.*

The Jhunjh.—This tribe claims to be a branch of the Janjuhas, *The Jhunjh.*
 though others say they are Bhattís. They have three septs :
 Gasúra, Gakhkhar and Tánwari.

The Babbars, Gabbars, Rabbars, and Jhaggars.—These four
 tribes have the following genealogy :—



The Araíns.—The Araíns are found in considerable numbers *The Araíns.*
 in this State as a tribe.

They have the following septs :—

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------------|
| i. Sahja. | xii. Sindhi. |
| ii. Nadhi. | xiii. Chaugatta, claiming |
| iii. Thinda. | Mughal origin. |
| iv. Bhutta. | xiv. Kamboh. |
| v. Baghban. | xv. Dhanjún. |
| vi. Thekri. | xvi. Dhot. |
| vii. Ghabar. | xvii. Pathan, also Kamboh |
| viii. Jindran. | section. |
| ix. Katuri. | xviii. Mirok. |
| x. Khokhar. | xix. Jiya Kamboh sec- |
| xi. Bhatti. | tions, not Araíns. |

The Araíns do not form an organized tribe and have no
 recognized chiefs. Bág Ali Araín of Núrpur in Minchinábád Tahsil
 pays revenue of 5,000 rupees annually to the State, and is a *kursi-*
nashín in Bahawalpur Darbar.

The Buraras.—The Buraras, originally named Hojali, are claimed
 by some as a Samma sept, but others say they are a separate tribe.
 Their tradition is that they are descended from a Rájá of Girnar
 near Junagadh, who migrated to Sindh and was converted to
 Islám. The saint who converted him gave him a *bur* (Ar. for
 'cloak'), whence their name.

They have three septs :—

- i. Bhojri or Bhojri-potra, the highest in status.
- ii. Sathia, and iii. Jokhia.

i. Sáyand (whose descendants are found in the *peshkáris* of Naushahra and Kot Sabzal),

ii. Jot (Descendants in the Khánpur *iláqa*),

iii. Bhára (Descendants in Khánpur and Ahmadpur East).

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The descendants of all these are called Marals. Their *mirásis* give the following folk-etymology: A certain Chauhán was told by his astrologers that a boy would be born in a Chauhán family who would destroy his kingdom, so he ordered that all the children born to the Chauháns should be killed, but Maral's mother concealed him in a drum, and the family fled to Sindh. The boy was named Maral, from *marhna*, 'to muffle.'

The Marals.

The Kambohs.—The Kambohs are not numerous in the State, but they offer some points of interest. The Hindu Kambohs 150 years ago occupied Jhullan, a village on the right bank of the Sutlej not far from Pákpattan. Being oppressed they migrated and founded Jhullan, a village in Tahsil Minchinábád. Jhullan was a Bodla *faqir*, to whom they paid special reverence and after whom they named their villages, and his descendant Ihsán Ali is still greatly revered by the Hindús. The Kambohs say they originally came from Amritsar and that they and the Arains have a common origin. The Arains, who are scattered all over the State, claim Rájput origin, and say their old headquarters was Uch, whence they migrated to the Rávi and the Ghaggar.

The Kambohs.

The Gujjars.—The Gujjars are represented by four septs, Nijre Sari, Panáh and Chhajju, which are confined to Tahsil Sádiqábád. Their *pagband* or representative is Kabir, Chajju, of Pallu Shah in that Tahsil. This office is hereditary, but the *pagband* has no control over his brotherhood and receives no *dan* or contributions from them, but at weddings and funerals he presides over their gatherings.

The Gujjars.

The Bakhris are found in the Shahr Faríd *iláqa*. They claim to be Sumrás by origin, and have Charan bards, which points to a Rájput origin. They migrated from Bhakhkhar to Multán, where they were converted to Islám by Gaus Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya, and fearing to return to their Hindu kinsmen settled down in Multán as weavers. Thence they migrated to Núrpur, Pákpattan and other places. Faríd Khán I brought the Bakhris of Shahr Faríd over from Núrpur. They manufacture the *lungís* worn throughout the Ubbha and also exported to Ferozepur, Montgomery and Bikaner.

*Some minor tribes.**The Bakhris.*

The Makkals are found in small numbers throughout the State and are blacksmiths by trade. They say they migrated from Mecca to Sindh in the 1st century of the Híjra.

The Makkals.

The Khás-Khelis.—These are an offshoot of the Machhis, whose members were in the service of the Abbási Kháns. A Khás-Kheli, Yákúb Muhammad, rose to be Wazír of Baháwal Khán III, but after the death of Baháwal Khán IV, their influence declined and now they have not access to the Darbár.

The Khás-Khelis.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Arbís.

The Arbís or 'Arbís.—Doubtless Arabs by origin who came to Sindh with the Arab conquerors, they are now landowners and tenants in Ahmadpur East.

The Shikáris.

The Shikáris are found only in Tahsil Sádiqábád. They are only Muhammadans in name, though some observe Muhammadan rites, for they eat food disallowed by the *shará*, even the flesh of dead animals and pork. They make small huts in the environs of towns and live by hunting, protecting crops, labour and occasionally cultivation.

The Lángs.

The Lángs.—The Lángs claim to be one of the four septs of the Polandars, the others being the Dalle, Lile and Kanjur, and say they came from a far land with Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál.

THE LOWER CASTES.

The Mahtams.

The Mahtams.—The Mahtams are scattered all over the State as labourers or tenants, but they also own Bachchianwali, Chak Diyál Singh, and Adlana Dhudhi, and shares in Ratteke and Tara Chhina in Minchinábád Kárdári. Their Guru, Lála Charn Dás, gives the following genealogy of the Mahtams :—

RAJA BHIM SAIN, OF DELHI.

Megh-Warn.

Gharoká.

Máhi,

Tat,

and the Mahtams claim descent from Máhi their eponym. This genealogy would give them an eastern not a western origin. The Mahtams are looked down upon by Muhammadans, because they eat pork, and Hindús do not associate with them, possibly because they have imbibed the prejudice of the Muhammadans against them.

The Labánás.

The Labánás.—The Labánás claim to be Rathors, and many were so returned in the census of 1901. They say that a male child was born to a Rathor, and that as the boy had long moustaches it was nick-named Labána, or "cricket." They have the following sections :—

Hypergamous group.	{	(i) Ramána	} do not intermarry.	
		(ii) Udána		
		(iii) Gharnot		} intermarry.
		(iv) Chihot		

The first two sections are closely allied and hang together in all matters. The Labánás rarely have recourse to the courts, a *pancháyat* deciding all disputes. Guilty persons are fined and the penalty (*dand*) is spent on a ritual feast (*karáhparsád*) which is eaten by the brotherhood. They are all Sikhs, claiming to have been converted by Guru Govind, and abstain from the flesh of

animals slaughtered in the Muhammadan manner as they consider it *harám*, and at the mere mention of it exclaim "*wah guru, wah guru*," deprecating any allusion to it.

CHAP. I. C.
Population.

The Dhedhs.—The Dhedhs or Menghwáls as they prefer to be called, are the people called Chamárs east of the Jamna. They eat the flesh of dead animals and are regarded as outcasts by the Hindús, though they have Hindu names. They have nine exogamous sections:—

*The Dhedhs
or Menghwáls.*

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| (i) Gandel. | (iv) Sapúne. | (vii) Japál. |
| (ii) Bárú-Pál. | (v) Lílur. | (viii) Lakhále. |
| (iii) Sáhdaí. | (vi) Bahmanián. | (ix) Turke. |

The Menghwál marriage ceremonies resemble those of the Aroras, and Brahmans serve them as *parohits*, accepting uncooked food from them but not food cooked by them. Marriage is usually effected by exchange. The Menghwáls venerate the shrine of Raham-Dhani or Raham Shah in the Runeja *iláqa* of Bikaner. By occupation the Menghwáls are generally weavers, manufacturing blankets (*bhura*, *lokar* and *bhaggal*). They dislike cultivation. Their huts are made of reeds, shaped like a dome and very narrow, so that it is said that when a Dhedh sleeps in his hut he puts his feet outside. The Thoris (Naiks) resemble the Dhedhs.

The Jhabels, Mohánas and Mallahs.—These three groups form one tribe, the *mohánas* or fishermen, and the *mallahs* or boatmen constituting groups within the tribe. The Mohánas claim to be "Mahesar" Rájputés and have the following nine septs:—

*The Jhabels,
Mohánas and
Mallahs.*

- (i) Ichhchhe, of whom some are agriculturists, others boatmen,
- (ii) Manchhari, who are boatmen and fishermen,
- (iii) Balhárá,
- (iv) Niháyá,
- (v) Khaurá,
- (vi) Hír,
- (vii) Hussre,
- (viii) Kat—Bál, some of whom pretend to be Dáúdpoetrás, and
- (ix) Sirre.

The Jhabels are numerous in the State and are agriculturists, owning a certain amount of land. Jamsher of Abádpur, a village founded by the Jhabels, is a leading man in the tribe.

II.—HINDU TRIBES AND CASTES.

The word Kírár is used as a general term by the Muhammadans of the State to describe Hindús of every caste. The majority of the Bahawalpur Hindús belong to the different sub-castes of Brahmans and the various *gôts* of Aroras. Of these a short account is given below:—

*The Hindu
Castes.*

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The

Brahmins.

The Sarsut.

The Brahmins.—The Brahmins in Baháwalpur are divided into four distinct sub-castes, viz., Sarsut, Párikh, Gaur and Pushkarna.

I. *The Sarsut sub-caste.*—This sub-caste is thus organized :—

- | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|
| Brahmins of Khatrís | { | Hypergamous group 1, comprising the Mohle, Jhangran, Jetli, Kamria and Tikha or 5 góts in all. |
| Brahmins of Aroras | { | Hypergamous group 2, comprising the Dhannan-potra, Same-potre, Bhoji-potre, Setpal, and Takht Lallhri góts—5 in all. |
| | { | Hypergamous group 3, comprising the Lallhri, Biás, Kandária, Kath-pála, Wed or Shangru-potre, Malakpure and Bhende góts—7 in all. |

Groups in turn take wives from the remaining 52 góts of the Sarsut Brahmins.

Other Sarsuts found in the State are the—

- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|---------------------|
| (1) Bhárdiwaj. | { | (i) Abat. |
| | { | (ii) Ratan. |
| | { | (iii) Dhan-Sultáni. |
| | { | (iv) Panjak. |
| (2) Sahar. | (8) Dhammin. | (14) Phirande. |
| (3) Panj. | (9) Rábare. | (15) Joisi. |
| (4) Naur. | (10) Gendar. | (16) Gangahar. |
| (5) Káhl. | (11) Choráwan. | (17) Hansrai. |
| (6) Konare. | (12) Datte. | (18) Khetopotre. |
| (7) Kákú. | (13) Gun-raj. | |

The Sarsuts minister as *parohits* to the Khatrís and Hindús in all their social and religious ceremonies, receiving fixed dues, so that Hindús say : *Marnon mung, te parnon sira*, i.e., '*parohits get mung or pulse at a funeral, and sira, a poor kind of sweetmeat, at a marriage.*' The Gosains of Baháwalpur, who are Lallhris by gót, are leading Sarsuts. They are also called Lál-ji-de-potre or descendants of Lálji, and immigrated from Multán in the time of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II. These Gosains are also found in the district of Dera Gházi Khán, and in the Lodhrán and Kahrór *iláqás*, in which tracts they have numerous followers, or *gursewa*. The present *gaddi-nashín* is Gosain Ghanaya Lál.

The Párikhs.

II. *The Párikh sub-caste.*—This sub-caste has six góts or sections, viz., Pándia, Bora, Parohit, Kathotia, Joshi and Tiwári, whose members are found in the Ubbha, and even there only in small numbers.

The Gaur.

III. *The Gaur sub-caste.*—Of the countless sections of this sub-caste four, the Kan-Kabajja, Gora, Utkal and Maithul, are found

in Tahsil Minchinábád. These Gaurs are Brahmans of the Banias and came with them to this State from Hissár.

CHAP. I, C.
Population.

IV. *The Pushkarn sub-caste.*—The Pushkarns or Siri-Malis as they were once called are held to be inferior to the other three sub-castes, and rank as Brahmans because of their skill in astrology. They have the following main groups in this State:—

The Pushkarns.

Group 1. Mareche or Pure (Khális) Pushkarns, comprising 15 *gôts*:—

(1) Ranga.	(6) Wissa.	(11) Kiráru.
(2) Ramde.	(7) Gujje.	(12) Ludhdhar.
(3) Kullhe.	(8) Khidane.	(13) Kabte.
(4) Parohe.	(9) Achárj.	(14) Bhore.
(5) Wias.	(10) Muchchan.	(15) Chhangane.

Group 2. Dasse or half-castes.

Group 3. Sendhu { (i). Mattar.
(ii). Wattú.

The Wattú section is the lowest of the Pushkarns, so that it is said "*Brahmanon men Wattú, ghoron men tattú*": "the Wattú is among Brahmans what a pony is among horses."

The Sáwani Brahmans.—These are outcaste Brahmans who claim to be descended from a Brahman Rishi, but Hindús in general say they are descendants of a Brahman by a sweeper woman; and Khattris, Aroras and the other Brahmans will not associate with them. They seldom wash, it is said, and lead a wandering life, receiving black gifts on unlucky occasions, such as an eclipse.

The Sáwani Brahmans.

The Aroras.—The Aroras of this State have four main territorial groups, viz., the Utradhi, Dahre, Dakhane and Sindhi, each comprising a large number of *gôts*. The Dakhane or southern group contain 100 *gôts*, the Utradhi and Dahre each over 40, and the Sindhi 32. The Aroras are very numerous in Baháwalpur and have the whole of its trade in their hands, dealing in every commodity, and even selling shoes and vegetables. Some are contractors, bankers or money-lenders, and in the latter capacity they have now acquired a considerable amount of land by mortgage or purchase from Muhammadan owners, though 40 or 50 years ago they did not own an acre of cultivated land. In the service of the State more Aroras than Muhammadans are employed, though the latter are nearly six times as numerous as the former. As several land-owning families have been ruined in their dealings with Aroras, such sayings as *Kirár howi yár, dushman dhár na dhár*, "he who has a Kirár for a friend, needs not an enemy," are current in the State.

The Aroras.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

The Bhátias.

The Bhátias.—The Bhátias claim to be of Yadubansi race, and say that when they left their country round Delhi they split up into two branches, one of which became rulers of Jaisalmer, while the other took to trade. The Bhátias of this State belong to the latter branch. They first settled in the Harrand, but, when the Dáúdpoitrás founded the present State, they migrated to the towns of Ahmadpur-Lamma, Kot Sabzal, Khánpur and Baháwalpur. In Ahmadpur-Lamma they have some 250 houses built in six or seven of the large rectangular *havelis* peculiar to the caste: in Khánpur they have 150 houses: and in Baháwalpur six. The best known sections of the Bhátias in the Baháwalpur State are the following:—

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------|
| (1) Sij-walla. | (6) Bable. |
| (2) Gándhi. | (7) Wanjak. |
| (3) Chachre { (i) Síp. | (8) Ra-rakhe. |
| (ii) An-síp. | (9) Challhar. |
| (4) Wadhoje. | (10) Rille. |
| (5) Dhagge. | (11) Wattu. |

Of these the Sij-walla stand highest and the Rille lowest, but there are no real social distinctions among the Bhátias, for they say, *dhan di wadiái*, i.e., "wealth is greatness." There are also Muhammadan Bhátias, claiming also to be of Yadubansi descent. They were converted to Islám by Musa Pák Shahid and are mostly bangle-makers by occupation.

RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Religions.

Table No. 16, Part B, has been prepared according to the Census of 1901 to give details of the religions of the whole State, while Table No. 7 gives the religions of the urban population. Below are given the numbers of each religion per 10,000 of the total population:—

Religion.	Rural.	Urban.	Total.
Hindús	1,239·9	350·7	1,590·6
Sikhs	104·4	6·3	110·7
Musalmánas	7,686·3	611·04	8,297·34
Christians	·19	·9	1·09

Religions
sects of
Musalmánas.

The distribution of the different sects of Musalmánas per mille of the total Musalmán population is as follows:—

Sect.	Proportion per mille.
Sunni	926·2
Shia	3·4
Shafai	·9
Others	69·5

The vast majority of the Muhammadans of the State are thus *Sunni* or *Sunnat Jamā'ats*. *Shias* are chiefly found in Uch Bukhāri, in small numbers in Ahmadpur and Bahāwalpur. The *Shāfai* call themselves the *Ahl-i-Hadis*, but they are commonly known to others in the State as *Wahābis*, or *Gair Muqallid*. They are mostly residents of Ahmadpur East. Table No. 15, Part B, shows the leading tribes and castes.

CHAP. I. C.
Population.

The following are the principal Muhammadan shrines and holy places in the State:—

Muhamma-
dan shrines.

In the Musāfirkhāna Police circle, Bahāwalpur *tahsil*, there are said to be seven tombs, known as the Ali Ashāb, but only six of them are visible. Five of these are 9 and the sixth 3 yards long. They are said to be the tombs of the Prophet's companions who were killed here in battle. Their names were—Ali Sāhib (after whom all the tombs are named) Gul, Ahmad, Pir Zakariya, Mubarak and Langre Sāhib. The tombs are frequented by people suffering from fever or headache, by those who desire off-spring or wives, and by anyone in distress. Even thieves make vows at these tombs that they may escape punishment and many *faqirs* retire to them for *chilakashi* or seclusion. Burnt bricks of 5, 10, 15 and 30 *sérs* in weight are always kept here and those who make vows take up one of these and promise, if successful, to offer as much sweetmeat as it weighs. It is not known when the large ancient town, the ruins of which still exist, was destroyed, but it is said that it was washed away by the *Kalron wāli chhal* or flood from the Kalran village. Fairs are held at the Ali Ashāb and vows offered on every Friday in Jeth and on three Fridays in Hār, *i.e.*, seven times in all during the year, and on each occasion about 500 people collect. Only on these Fridays are vows made at the shrine. If cattle suffer from *galghotu* (farcy), small-pox, enlargement of the spleen, *muhara* or *barchhi* (swelling of the legs) they are kept here during the night and earth from the tomb is thrown on them, the *mujāwars* or guardians being allowed 1½ pice per head as a fee, but if a herd (of goats for example) is left here, the *mujāwar* gets one animal as a fee for the whole. Hindús who are in debt or who have no children offer here the *attā ghatta* or goat and flour sacrifice. When a Hindu goes to the tomb to make an offering, both he and his wife must fast and he cooks a kid's liver and gets the *mujāwar* to recite a *khatam* or prayer over it. After reciting the *khatam*, the *mujāwar* gives the wife a piece of the flesh with which she breaks her fast. The *mujāwars* at these tombs are Thahims or Ansāris, and the post is hereditary among them. The peasantry of Bahāwalpur *tahsil* show them great favour and every cultivator in the vicinity gives the shrine about 18 *sérs* of wheat at the rabi harvest. The State also allows the *mujāwars* 15 *bighas* of land free of revenue as *tel-charāgh*.

Ali Ashāb.

About a mile north of Mau Mubarak in Sadīqābād *tahsil* is the shrine of Khāki Sahāba. Only the marks of its enclosure exist, Khāki Sahāba.

CHAP. I. C.
Population.Kháki
Sahába.

but hard by there are other tombs. Kháki Sahába is also acknowledged as one of the Prophet's companions. Vows are generally made at this shrine by barren wives, or by the owners of barren cows or cow-buffaloes. A woman on begetting a son should swing on a tree at the shrine—that being her *manoti* or votive offering; and if a cow or cow-buffalo begets a calf the owner should offer a very large rope to the shrine, fastening it to one of the *jál*, *beri*, *jand* or *ukánh* trees, which are so numerous round the shrine.

Adam
Sahába.

Four miles west of Rahímýár Khán is the *khánkáh* of Adam Sahába. The people regard him also as a companion of the Prophet. During epidemics many resort to the shrine and stay there for weeks together, the popular belief being that pilgrims to the shrine are preserved from infection.

Uch Sharif.

Shrines of
the Bukhári
Makhádím
and Uch
Sayyids.

Uch Sharíf is unrivalled for the number of its shrines, and it is said that every inch of the ground is occupied by the grave of a saint. There are two families of Sayyids in Uch Sharíf, the Bukhári and Jiláni. The most celebrated shrine of the Bukhári saints is that of the Makhdúm Sher Shah Jalál-ud-dín, Surkh-Posh, Bukhári, entitled the Second Adam. He was born at Bukhára, on Monday, the 1st of Ramzán, 595 Hijra. He is also known as Sayyid Jalál or Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál. His history and pedigree are given in *extenso* in such works as the *Nazhar-i-Jaláli*, the *Akhbár-ul-Akhyár*, the *Rauzat-ul-Ahbáb*, the *M'aárij-ul-Wiláyat*, *Manaqib-i-Qutbi*, the *Siyar-ul-Aqtáb*, the *Siyar-ul-Arifin*, the *Manaqib-ul-Asfiya*, etc. These books only exist in manuscript and are generally found in the possession of Bukhári Sayyids. Sayyid Jalál's life is given in brief below:—

Having completed his secular education in his 7th year he performed, even in childhood, several miracles. 1,500 learned men had accepted him before he reached manhood as their spiritual guide. He spent his whole life in travelling and several tribes, such as the Chadhar, Siál, Dahr and Wáran embraced Islám owing to his efforts. He also met Chingiz Khán, the Mughal, and endeavoured to convert him to Islám, but Chingiz Khán ordered him to be burnt alive. The fire, however, turned into a bunch of flowers and on seeing this miracle Chingiz Khán became a Muhammadan under the name of Jahángír Khán. The name of his Capital was likewise changed to Qubbat-ul-Islám. Chingiz gave his daughter in marriage to the Sayyid, who is called the Second Adam, because he at first refused to take Chingiz's daughter to wife, but when he heard a divine voice say that his descendants would spread far and wide and were destined to be Qutbs (saints) of the world, he consented to the marriage. This is no exaggeration as his descendants are exceedingly numerous, and many Sayyid families in the Punjab, Sindh, the United Provinces, Kutch and Hyderabad Deccan, claim descent from him, and trace their origin to Uch Sharíf. He had, however, no issue by his first wife, Zainab,

the daughter of Chingiz, but by his second wife, Fátima, the daughter of Sayyid Qásim Husain Bukhári, he had two sons, Sayyid Ali and Sayyid J'afar, whose tombs are at Bukhára. He brought the former's son, Sayyid Bahá-ul-Halím, with him to Sindh. The latter also was a worker of miracles, and his tomb is at Uch. Sayyid Jalál afterwards married Zohra, the daughter of Sayyid Badrud-Dín Bákhari, of whom was born Sayyid Muhammad Gaus. On Zohra's death he married the second daughter of Sayyid Badrud-Dín, who gave birth to Sayyid Ahmad Kabír, the father of Makhdúm-Jahánistán. In 642 H. when Nasir-ud-Dín Mahmúd, son of Shams-ud-Dín Iyaltimsh, was ruler of the kingdom of Delhi, Sayyid Jalál reached Uch, which was then called Deogarh, and its people began through him to embrace Islám. The Rájá, Deo Singh, its ruler, was greatly incensed at this, and spared no efforts to cause him trouble, but being overawed by the Sayyid's miracles he fled to Marwar. Innumerable miracles are attributed to him. The reverence which he enjoyed may be judged from the fact that rulers used to wait upon him at Uch Sharíf; for example in 642 H. Nasir-ud-Dín Mahmúd, the eldest son of Shams-ud-Dín Iyaltimsh, paid him a visit at Uch. He died in 690 H., in the reign of Giyás-ud-Dín Balban, and was buried at Sonak Bela 3 miles north of Uch, but the Ghára reaching quite close to his grave, his descendants removed his remains to Uch and buried them at the place where the shrine of Hazrat Sadr-ud-Dín Rájan Qattál is now situated. Again in 1027 H. the then Sajjáda-nashín Makhdúm Hámid, son of Mahmúd Nasir-ud-Dín, removed the remains, buried them in the present spot and erected a building over them. In 1261 H. Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III made some additions to it and built a tank and well, called the Khán Sar, in the compound of the shrine. In 1300 H. Nawáb Sadíq Muhammad Khán IV had it repaired and made some additions. Both Hindús and Muhammadans in and outside the State have a firm faith in this *khánkah* and all kinds of vows are made there. Over the porch of the shrine the following stanza (*rubáí*) is written '*Yá Rabb ba rasálat-i-Rasúl-us-Saqalain: Ya Rabb ba gazá kuninda-i-Badro Hunain: Isyán-i-mará do ním kun dar'arasát: Níme ba Hasan bakhsh-o-níme ba Husain*. This means, "O God for the sake of the Prophethood of the Messenger to mankind and genii, and for the sake of the fighter in the battles of Badr and Hunain, make two halves of my sins on the day of judgment, pardon one-half for the sake of the Imám Hasan and the other half for the sake of the Imám Husain."

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

Shrines of
the Bukhári
Makhdúm
and Uch
Sayyids.

Sayyid Muhammad Gaus and Sayyid Ahmad Kabír were sons of Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál. Many writings teem with their miracles and show in what reverence they were held by the people but they did not succeed to the *Khiláfat* (office) of their father. Their tombs are shown at Uch, but it is said they died on their travels and were buried near Karbala in Arabia.

Shrines of
Sayyid Mu-
hammad Gaus
and Ahmad
Kabír.

Population.

Shrine of
Hazrat
Makhdúm
Jaháníán.

The full name of Makhdúm Jaháníán was Sayyid Ahmad Kabír, grandson of Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál. He was born on the Shab-i-barát in 657 H. and owing to his wonderful spiritual powers he succeeded directly to his grandfather Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál in the *Khiláfat*, his father and uncle being passed over. A short sketch of his life and spiritual attainments is given in Farishta's History, Vol. I.⁽¹⁾ He was well versed in philosophy and theology and the whole of his life was spent in travel. He performed 36 pilgrimages to Mecca, of which six were the Hajj-i-Akbar⁽²⁾ or grand pilgrimages. He received spiritual training from all the saints and theologians of his time. Innumerable miracles are related of him. When he went to Medina, the Sayyids of that sacred city did not believe him to be a Sayyid because he was dark-complexioned. Upon this he asked them to follow him to the tomb of the Prophet, and there said *Assalamo-alaikum yá Jaddi*, 'Peace be with you my ancestor.' A voice from the tomb replied *Wa 'alaik-as-salámu yá waladi, anta minnī wa qurratu 'aini* "Peace be with you my son, thou art from me and art the lustre of my eyes." Thereupon people became devoted to him, especially the Sayyids of Medina who gave him the following sacred relics:—the holy sheet of the Prophet, which was spread over the *ahl-i-bait* or family of the Prophet, a sacred turban of the Prophet, a sacred sheet of Hazrat Fatimat-uz-Zahrá, the daughter of the Prophet, and *samsám* and *qamqám*, i. e., the swords of Hasan and Husain (grandsons of the Prophet). These relics are in the possession of the Makhdúm Muhammad Hamid Nau-Bahár, the present *sajjáda-nashín*. They are only shown after repeated solicitation and even then only to persons of rank and importance. Among the many tribes which accepted Islám through his exertions the following may be noted:—(1) the *Mettas*: Dáúd Jaháníán, one of his leading disciples, was a man of this tribe; his shrines are in the Muzaffargarh District.⁽³⁾ (2) the *Lárs*: Shaikh Jetha Bhutta, one of his leading disciples, was a member of this tribe; (3) the *Aulaks* or *Aulakhs*; (4) the *Dahas*, a branch of the Parhars; (5) the *Phándlas*; (6) the *Sauráhas*; (7) the *Khors*; and (8) the *Kharls*: Bhúpá the ancestor of the latter tribe embraced Islám at Uch together with his descendants.⁽⁴⁾ Makhdúm Jaháníán died at the age of 77. His shrine is visited by every class. On the gateway the following couplet is written:—

*'Tárik gasht jumla jahán be jamál-i-Sháh
Tárikh búd haft sad hashtád o panj sál'*

Which means—"The beauty of the King (of Saints) disappeared by which a gloom spread over the whole world. The date of his death was 785, *Hijrí*."

(1) See page 415, *Tárikh-i-Farishta*, Nawalkishor Press.

(2) A Hajj occurring on a Friday is called the Hajj-i-Akbar.

(3) Muzaffargarh Gazetteer, Religious life.

(4) Montgomery Gazetteer, page 31.

The name of this saint is Shaikh Sayyid Sudr-ud-Dín Muhammad, also known as Shah Wiláyat, and his title is Rájan Kattál or Rájúí Qattál. He was born on the 26th *Shabán* 660 H., and the traditions (*Mulfúzá*t) of the Bukhári Sayyids assert that 340,300 men accepted him as their spiritual guide. A detailed account of Rájan Qattál Sáhib will be found in the *Wiláyat Náma* of Makhdúm Hámid Ganj Bakhsh Sáhib, Kunjgir, and a brief account is also given in the *Tárikh-i-Farishta* (Volume II). The origin of the name Rájúí Qattál as explained by the author of the *Wiláyat Náma* is that he was an exterminator of the heathens. He is also called Rájan Kattál (*i.e.*, Rájan, perfect and Kattál, saint). It is said that Makhdúm Jahániyán and Rájan Qattál when on their way to Delhi one day lay down for a siesta under a tree on which some birds were twittering. Rájan Qattál cast an angry glance at them, whereupon all the birds fell down quite dead. The following is an extract from *Farishta* about him :—

CHAP. I. C.
Population.
Shrine of
Makhdúm
Rájan Qattál.

"Any man on whom he cast an angry look gave up his ghost forthwith. An infidel from among the *Jats* was converted by Makhdúm Jahánián and named Abdulla by him. The convert made great progress in holiness and acquired a high reputation among the *Jats*. One day Abdulla was sitting with Sayyid Sadr-ud-Dín Rájúí Qattál, when for some reason the latter cast an angry look upon the former. Abdulla fell down upon the ground instantly and cried, 'I am burning, I am burning.' Many waterskins were poured over his body but he died immediately."

Further, we are informed that what he foretold always came to pass. Ferozshah Barbak, king of Delhi, was a staunch follower to the Makhdúm. Various kinds of vows are made at this shrine and it is believed any one failing to observe them will suffer from dropsy. There is a wall of *naqqáshi* (glazed faience) in the shrine of Makhdúm Jahánián, which is known as the wall ridden by Rájan Qattál from Delhi to Uch, with a snake in hand which he used as a whip, the marks of the whip being still shown on the wall.⁽¹⁾

Besides the above there are the shrines of Mahmúd Násir-ud-Dín, Kalán, son of the Makhdúm Jahánián, of Shaikh Sayyid Faizulla, known as Shaikh Sayyid Fazal-ud-Dín, son of Mahmúd Násir-ud-Dín, Kalán, and of Shaikh Sayyid Abd-ul-Malik, brother of Sayyid Fazl-ud-Dín. All these were virtuous and saintly men, and many people visit their tombs. Shaikh Burhán-ud-Dín, Qutab-ul-Alam (also known as Abú Muhammad, or Abdulla) son of Muhammad Násir-ud-Dín, Kalán, and grandson of Makhdúm Jahánián went to Ahmadábád in Katbiawár at the invitation of its ruler and founder, Shah Sultán Ahmad, his disciple, and through him the *Bukhári Sayyids* spread over that part of India. In addition to above the following are

Other Bukhári shrines.

(1) An article appeared in the *Pioneer* of 24th October 1904, in which a correspondent held that the shrine of Makhdúm Rájúí Qattál was situated in Mauva in Hyderabad Deccan, State. This may be a similitude of the shrine erected out of respect for the memory of the saint.

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Population.

Shrine of
Bandagi
Muhammad
Gausat Uch.

Shaikh Abd-ul-Haq, the well-known Muhaddis of Delhi, was one of the latter's chief disciples. Akbar, the Mughal emperor, gave Sayyid Abd-ul-Qádir III the title of Makhdum-ul-Mulk or leader of the country, on account of his great sanctity, and to Músá Pák Shahíd, the title of Nawáb. The title Makhdúm is still used by this family. Músá Pák Shahíd was appointed governor of Multán by Akbar, but he deputed his son in his stead and returned to Uch Moghla where he led a life of seclusion. One day, while sitting in his palace, an old woman complained that her property had been looted by robbers. He at once pursued them, but was killed in the fight, and Sayyid Abd-ul-Qádir III buried him in the enclosure of Bandagi Muhammad Gaus Sábib. His son removed the corpse to Multán where his tomb is still frequented by many believers. His successors are also believed to be workers of miracles. The list of the *sajjádá-nashíns* is given under Uch in Chapter IV. The present *sajjádá-nashín* has the following sacred relics which are only shown on Fridays :—

(1) The foot-print of the Prophet; (2) the handle of a flute, called the *Dasata-i-Nai*, said to have been given by Giás-ud-Dín to Sayyid Abd-ul-Qádir, Giás-ud-Dín stating that the Prophet had given it to him in a dream as a cure for diseases like pneumonia, and it is still believed to be a cure for such; (3) Parts of the Qurán Sharíf written by the Imáms Hasan and Husain; (4) the sacred teeth of Khwája Owais Qárni; (5) the sacred gown of Sayyid Abd-ul-Qádir Giláni, this being the very gown (*jubba*) which robbers tried to take by force from Shaikh Abd-ul-Qádir but being struck by the sanctity of the Shaikh, gave up their life of crime; and (6) The turban of Sayyid Abd-ul-Qádir Giláni.

Jubba Sharif
Shaikh
Wáhan.

Shaikh Wáhan, known as the '*ziárát jubba Sharif*', is situate in the *tahsil* of Khairpur East. Mián Raushan Muhammad Kokarah, (1) the *mutawallí* or *sajjádá-nashín* of this shrine, is the 21st descendant of Shaikh Abdulla Jahánián. The pedigree of Abdulla Jahánián goes back to Muslim, son of Aqil, son of Ali Tálib, son of Abdul Muttalib, and he is the twenty-second in descent from Muslim, son of Aqil. He was the disciple and *khalifa* of the Makhdúm Jahánián Bukhári of Uch. From relics which he had brought from Arabia, Makhdúm Jahánián gave him a *jubba* (robe) of the Prophet and with it a sceptre of his own and a sword of Sher Shah Sayyid Jalál. These three relics are in the possession of Abdulla Jahánián, and every year on the 9th Zilhijj (the date on which pilgrimages are performed) they are publicly exhibited, some fifteen thousand people assembling on the occasion.

(1) The descendants of Abdulla Jahánián are called Kokarah and claim a Quraishi origio, but according to the *Tárikh-i-Murád* they are Rájpéts by origin and are converted Muslims. The Kokarahs are so called because when Abdulla Jahánián was once living in the company of Makhdúm Jahánián Bukhári the latter called his son Abdulla, but he being absent Abdulla Jahánián presented himself and said "This Abdulla *nd-karah* is present." Makhdúm Jahánián replied saying "you are not *nd-karah* (worthless) but a *nekokarah* (a virtuous man)." From that time he and his descendants have been called *Nekokarah* which by constant use has become Kokarah. The Kokarahs are found in the Jhang and Gujranwála Districts and in this State, and are generally agriculturists.

This shrine is situated at Mau-Mubárah in Sadiqabad *tahsil*. The real name of Shaikh Hákim was Shaikh Hamíd-ud-Dín Abulgais, and his title was Hákim. He was sixteenth in descent from Zaid-ud-Dín Háras Muhammad Asgar and seventeenth from Ali, and was therefore an Ulavi Quraishi. Shaikh Hákim was Governor of Kich Makran in 605 H. There is a story told about his abandoning the Governorship. It is said that he used to sleep at noon in a garden and a female slave used to superintend the room. Once she lay down on Shaikh Hákim's bed and slept. On finding her there he ordered her to be flogged. Nonait, that being her name, bore her punishment patiently and, bursting into laughter, asked, if this was the punishment for sleeping on that bed for a few moments, what would be the punishment for him on the day of judgment who had been sleeping on it for so many years. These words affected him deeply and in a fit of emotion he tore off his princely garment, betook himself to the jungles, and leaving his worldly dignity for ever, came to his maternal grandfather, Sayyid Ahmad Tokhta⁽¹⁾, at Lahore, where he spent a long period in penances. He also received spiritual training from Shaikh Shaháb-ud-Dín Suhrwardí, Hazrat Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya of Multán, Shaikh Sadr-ud-Dín, Arif, and Shaikh Rukn-ud-Dín Ab-ul-Fath, and was appointed a *khalifa* by Shaikh Rukn-ud-Dín Ab-ul-Fath. Shaikh Hákim after attaining to great spiritual power at Lahore and Multán, was ordered to preach Islám in the country between Uch and Sakkar. The first place to which he went to perform this duty was Mau, an ancient city. The Malfúzát of Shaikh Hákim show that it was originally a fort, founded by Rai Sahans Kahrór in the time of Christ, and was fortified by Rana Kalás. Afterwards, in the reign of Rai Bhoj, Sultán Mahmúd of Ghazni, on his way to Somnáth in Kachh, plundered it and levelled it to the ground. At Mau a Hindu *jogi* embraced Islám at the hands of Shaikh Hákim and the neighbouring tribes followed his example. The Jogi was named Zain-ud-Dín. The present *majdúars* of the shrine are the descendants of the Jogi. Ratan Bhoj, son of Rai Lakhsanj, the Rája of Mau and its neighbourhood, and his brothers Ballo Rai and Hindu Rai and his sons Shamír and Alesher also accepted Islám. After a short time Shaikh Hákim went to Baha-ud-Dín Zakariya, who took him to Delhi. Shams-ud-Dín Iyaltimsh had built a magnificent mosque, at great expense, but when completed it was discovered that it did not face due west, and so he had sent for Baha-ud-Dín Zakariya to Delhi, to correct its defective orientation by a miracle. Baha-ud-Dín Zakariya entrusted this to Shaikh Hákim, who corrected the mistake. Shams-ud-Dín Iyaltimsh asked Shaikh Hákim if he could be of any service to him, on which the latter asked for the hand of his daughter Áisba, known as Pat Ráni. Iyaltimsh, being offended at this, put him in prison, where he remained for some years, but

(1) Sayyid Ahmad was a well-known saint, whose tomb is situated in Mehalla Chhadd Bibrian, Lahore.

CHAP. I. C. at last seeing his many miracles he was obliged to give him his daughter. He stayed at Delhi after his marriage for a few days and then set out for Lahore with his wife and there presented himself before Sayyid Ahmad Tokhta. At the time of his departure Shams-ud-Din Iyaltimsh granted him a large portion of the country between Multán and Bhakkar in *jágir*, but it is said that on his arrival at Uch he saw a man lying unconscious from drunkenness and on enquiry learnt that he was Sayyid Badí-ud-Din to whom a well had been granted in *jágir* by the king. Struck by this, he at once destroyed the royal grant of his *jágir*, observing that, if a single well had caused such wantonness, so large an estate as his would certainly lead to the ruin of his descendants.

Population.

Shrine of
Shaikh
Hákim Sáhíb.

Iyaltimsh had given his daughter in dowry seven Hindu artizans as slaves of Shaikh Hákim, viz. :—

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (1). Katármal, (potter). | (4). Kattá, (baker). |
| (2). Kakh, (<i>mirási</i>). | (5). Has, (shopkeeper). |
| (3). Vidhá, (barber). | (6). Totan, (boatman), and |
| (7). Gánge, (bania). | |

When Shaikh Hákim had crossed the river, he emancipated these slaves who in gratitude accepted Islám. Their descendants are still found in the State. Those who call themselves *maliks* had also come with Shaikh Hákim from Delhi as his doorkeepers and their real caste was Palhár or Paryár, a branch of the Ramoth. Aisha, the daughter of Altamash, died at Lahore and was buried in Mohalla Chhail Bibrián quite close to the tomb of Sayyid Ahmad Tokhta. Shaikh Hákim died at Multán on the 12th of Rabí-ul-Awwal, 770 H., but his body was brought to Mau-Mubárák and buried inside the fort. He died at the age of 222 and no other saint of the Suharwardi sect is said to have reached that age. On the shrine of Shaikh Hákim and his successors vows of *atta ghatta*, (flour and sheep), &c., are made and many men sit there in seclusion for a *naurata* or nine nights or a *chaupahra* (four watches). The present *sajjáda-nashín* is Shaikh Ahmad Shah. As a grant towards the expense of *tel charág* (lit. lamp and oil for the shrine) the State has allowed a remission of 2 annas per *bigha* on the revenue of the private estate of the present *sajjáda-nashín*, besides which the shrine has 600 *bighas* of *inám* land in the villages of Tranda, Mau-Mubárák, and Bahádipur.

Mughal Shah.

This shrine is also situated at Mau-Mubárák. Mughal Shah was the grandson of Shaikh Hákim. Beardless men make vows at this shrine and offer a hen if they grow a beard.

Shrine at
Sarwáhi e

Sarwáhi, ancient Sevrái, is believed by General Cunningham to be the *Sodra* of the Greeks. In the accounts of the conquest of Sindh by Muhammad bin Qásim the name Sevrái does not appear to have been given by any writer. When the Arab power came to

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Population.

Shrines at Sarwáhi.

an end, parts of Sindh⁽¹⁾ were seized by different Rájput tribes. Sarwáhi or Sevráí came into the possession of one Rája Sevráj in the sixth century of the Hijra. In his reign Háji Muhammad Aráqi, Shaikh Táj-ud Din Shahíd, Sultán Muhammad Barkáti and Shaikh Azíz Khatíb, four saints from Arabia, came to Sindh and took Sevráí from Sevráj after a severe contest in which all except Azíz Khatíb were killed. The tombs of Shaikh Táj-ud-Din and Azíz Khatíb are situated on the Sarwáhi mound (now a mass of ruins), and are enclosed by four walls. The remains of the tomb of Sultán Muhammad Barkáti stood for a long time, but are no longer to be seen. The tomb of Háji Muhammad Iráqi lies at the foot of the mound to the south-east. Vows for offspring and the removal of difficulties are made on the tombs of Shaikh Táj-ud-Din and Azíz Khatíb, while on the tomb of Háji Muhammad Aráqi *faqirs* sit in seclusion, and people suffering from various diseases visit it for the recovery of health. The popular belief is that any one going seven times round the tomb, without taking breath, is certain to get what he wants. Though devotees have often constructed domes or roofs over this tomb, they have always fallen down, because Háji Aráqi dislikes them. He was a cousin of Shaikh Abd-ul-Qádir Gilani, and was a great poet.

Close to the north of the mound lies the shrine of Músa Nawáb, a Tíánán by caste and *khalifa* of Baha-ud-Din Zakariya. He is known as the Nawáb, because he was a grandson of a Nawáb of Kich Makran. He converted the Jhak and Indhrar tribes (of which the latter is represented by Rais Wali Muhammad of Ahmadpur Lamna) to Islám. On every Sunday in Chet a fair is held at this shrine, and horses and camels are sold there. Hindús and Muhammadans shave their children's heads here, the Hindús offering *átta ghatta*, the Muhammadans barren cows. A third of the offerings is given to the *mujáwars* and much of the rest to travellers as food. Mian Muhkam Din, Suhrwardi, the *sajjada-nashin* of the shrine of Háji Ayyúb in Shikárpur District, who has appointed a trustworthy guardian of his own, is also a sharer in part of the offerings.

Shrine of Músa Nawáb.

The shrine of Sultán Sáhib or Sultán Wali Muhammad Gandewále is situated in Naushahra iláqa. Sultán Sáhib, an Awán by caste, was born towards the end of the 11th century of Hijra in Multán and died in 1163 H. He always wore red clothes, carried a bow and arrow in hand and sat in the company of young spinsters, especially those of the Jhullan caste. Once the chief of that tribe endeavoured to murder him, but found that he was quite innocent, and had only adopted the company of females to conceal his piety and avoid becoming famous. He spent his life in celibacy. His *urs* is observed on the 27th of Ramazán. Nearly 3,000 people assemble on this occasion. Music, singing, etc. are strictly

The shrine of Sultán Sáhib.

(1) The ancient cities of Sindh were Sarwáhi, Mathila, (Shikárpur District,) Uch, Mau, Pattan or Patanpur, Bhutta wáhan and Harar, now Tájarh, which were founded before the Muhammadian period.

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Population.

The shrine
of Sultán
Sáhib.

prohibited. Hindús shave their children here, and those suffering from headache, paralysis (*jhola*), leprosy and eye diseases perform *nauratas*, i. e., pass nine nights at the shrine: more women than men visit the shrine and offer various kinds of vows there. The present *sajjāda-nashin* is Mián Ghulám Muhammad, who owns considerable lands, and receives large offerings.

The shrine
of Gajjan
Darwesh.

Gajjan Darwesh was a real brother of Dáud Jahánián (whose tomb is at Rámpur in Muzaffargarh District) and was his *khalifa mujáz*, i. e., had permission from him to make disciples. He was of the Metla⁽¹⁾ tribe, and converted many tribes, such as the Ronjhás, Ghotias, some branches of the Vehás, Mallhe and Mire to Islám and these tribes are specially devoted to this shrine, which lies two miles south of Khánpur Station. Forty-two *bighas* of land have been assigned to it by the State as *tel charág* (lit. oil and lamp). Cows, goats and *ghottas* (sheep) are sacrificed here, but Hindús generally offer *gur*, rice and flour. It is said that Makhdúm Jahanián gave a pair of scissors to Gajjan Darwesh with which he cut off the lock of the Hindús when converting them to Islám. The present *sajjāda-nashin* is Mián Pír Bakhsh.

The shrine of
Shaikh Abd-
us-Sattár.

The shrine of Shaikh Abd-us Sattár, son of Shaikh Arf Sáhib of the Pohar caste, originally of Sehván, or Siwistán, lie near the Basti of Ján Muhammad Lár and a short distance from Garhi Ikhtiyár Khan. He used to go annually from Sehván to Multán to visit the shrine of Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya (whose *khalifa* he was). Once in the seventh century of the Hijra, on his way to Multán, he was staying with his attendants at the place where his shrine is situated when, at the request of a helpless woman, he fought some robbers of the Sáhib tribe (who used to come from Jaisalmir and Bikanir to commit robberies in the *iláqa*), and was killed by them. Nearly a hundred years ago one Usmán came from Kambar in Shikárpur District and erected a *sahl* of reeds over his tomb and he began to dwell there as *mujáwar*, saying he had done so by the order of Shaikh Abd-us-Sattár. Usmán died at the age of 100 years, and Ghulám Muhammad, his son, who succeeded him died at the age of 80. In the time of Ghulám Muhammad, the shrine which had been buried in obscurity some five centuries, acquired great repute among the people and offerings began to be made there. It is still without a roof, being only surrounded by four walls. A fair is held every Chet from the 1st to the 22nd in honor of the shrine, when presents of *chúri*, *atta*, *ghatta* and cooked rice are offered, a fourth being taken by the *mujáwar* and the rest distributed. The present *mujáwar* is Pír Bakhsh, son of Ghulám Muhammad.

The shrine of
Haji Sayyid
Sadr-ud-Dín.

This shrine is at Tarandah Gorgej in *iláqa* Goth Channi. Háji Sayyid Sadr-ud-Dín was 23rd in descent from Imám Husain and a contemporary of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál. In the 7th century

(1) The Metlas of the State claim to be descended from one Sanáwát, a Hindu of Delhi, who had two sons Rána and Ghamal. The descendants of Rána are called the Metla. They are not Quraishis, as stated on page 93 of Muzaffargarh Gazetteer.

of the Hijra he came from Multán and settled at Uch. He is also called the Churási Roza Wála Sáhib, i.e., having 84 shrines, because, it is said, there have been 84 saints among his descendants. He often lived among Hindús, many of whom he converted to Islám. The Hindús call him Machhar Náth. Sayyid Sadr-ud-Dín died at Uch, but before his death he gave instructions that his corpse should be locked up in a box and placed on a camel and buried wherever the animal would sit and the present shrine is the place where the camel sat. He converted many Khojas of Sindh to Islám and the shrine was built by them. Vows of different kinds are made here and presents especially of *churi* and *ghatta* are usually offered. Close by is the shrine of Sayyid Giyás-ud-Dín, his son, also built by the Khojas. The present *sajjada-nashín* is Sayyid Iláhi Bakhsh Sháh who is 23rd in descent from Háji Sayyid Sadr-ud-Dín.

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The shrine of
Háji Sayyid
Sadr-ud-Dín.

Háji Sayyid Sadr-ud-Dín had five sons:—Hasan Kabír-ud-Dín, Zahír-ud-Dín, Giyás-ud-Dín, Rukn-ud-Dín, and Táj-ud-Dín Tarel. The first is also known as Hasan Daryá, and his shrine lies a mile to the east of Uch. He is said to have converted numerous tribes of the Hindús. Once a procession of Hindu pilgrims was going from Sindh to the Ganges, and when it came near Uch Sharíf, Hasan Daryá asked the people where they were going. They replied that they were going to the Ganges. Upon this he said that they could be shown the Ganges and Jamna flowing at the very spot if they only renounced their religion. They replied that it would only be the Panjnád; whereupon the Sayyid asked them to fix some specific mark of identification whereby to distinguish the Ganges and Jamna from the Panjnád, and accordingly signs were fixed and the Sayyid asked to perform the miracle. Next morning both the Ganges and the Jamna were seen flowing parallel to each other, and all the marks of identification agreed upon were discovered in them. Upon this they all embraced Islám. It is recorded that no sooner did he cast a glance upon a Hindu than the latter embraced Islám. A Hindu physician who was a Khoja by caste was employed by Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál, and once when sick, Hasan Daryá sent for him, but he refused to come, fearing lest he should be converted to Islám by the mere sight of Hasan Daryá. He sent word that he would examine his urine. When he looked at the urine he at once embraced Islám.

The shrine of
Hasan Daryá.

Sayyid Abul Khair was 17th in descent from Sayyid Ahmad Billauri, who migrated to Haidarloh, the old name of Jannpur, from Hurar. When Haidarloh was swept away by the Indus, Abul Khair founded the present Jannpur, formerly known as *Jannatpur*. Outside it is the shrine of Sayyid Fateh Ali Sháh, son of Sayyid Abul Khair. The present *sajjada-nashín* is Sayyid Muhammad Ja'afar Sháh to whom some *kasúr* is allowed by the State. There are two other shrines at Jannpur, one of Sháh Muhammad Núri, the other of his son Sayyid Alam Sháh. The former lived in

The shrine
at Jannpur.

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The shrines
at Jannpur.

the 11th century of the Hijra. The *mujīwars* of these shrines are butchers and from the very beginning they have been helped by the neighbouring agriculturists with grain, etc. The descendants of the saints, the Sādāt-i-Jannpur, take nothing from the income of the shrines as they are wealthy zamindārs, having received lands at different times from the Naich and Nahar (Lodi) tribes, the Makh-dūms of Sītpur and Ghulām Shāh Kalhōra, governor of Sindh, owing to their noble descent, and the Nawābs of Bahāwalpur have also assigned *jāgīrs* to them. The ancestor of these Sādāt was Sayyid Ahmad Shāh Billaūri Alrizwī-ul-Mashhadī, the 14th in descent from the Imām Husain. He came to Hurrar (Tājgarh) in the 4th century of the Hijra. Rāja Bhunak Bhāti, chief of the Vaha tribe, was its ruler and, seeing his miracles, he and his followers accepted Islām.

The shrine of
Jetha-Bhuttā.

Pīr Pathrā, Muḥammad, Yāsīn, Ghani Muḥammad, Jetha, Bhuttā and Ghulām Muḥammad were real brothers, said to have been the descendants of Shaikh Shajrā, who was of the Lār tribe and son of Bhuttā, son of Channi, son of Dahra, son of Bhuttā, son of Shajra, son of De, son of Vighia, son of Kānjūn, son of Kotla, son of Lār. Jetha, Bhuttā and their five brothers were contemporaries of Muhi-ud-Dīn Shaikh Abd-ul-Qādir Jilāni. Ghulām Muhi-ud-Dīn was so called, because he was in service of Muhi-ud-Dīn Gilāni at Baghdād. The tombs of Jetha, Bhutta and Ghulām Muhi-ud-Dīn lie 2 miles to the east of Khānpur in one shrine, where, it is said, they were martyred. The cause of their death was that a woman who was robbed, made a complaint to the three brothers who tried to take back her property from the robbers. They were killed in the attempt. They died childless, and their successors are the descendants of their elder brother Pīr Pathra, whose tomb lies in the jungle 4 miles north-east of Khānpur. He is also called Shaikh Pathra. The tombs of Jetha, Bhutta and Ghulām Muhi-ud-Dīn are collectively called Jetha-Bhutta Sāhib, and both Hindūs and Muhammadans shave their children there. The Sikhs also have a strong belief in Jetha-Bhutta Sāhib. The State has assigned 500 *bighas* of land as *tel charag* for the shrine. The annual income from offerings, &c., is nearly Rs. 1,200 which is divided among various share-holders thus: 5 shares to Imām Bakhsh, $7\frac{1}{4}$ to Shafi Muḥammad, $3\frac{3}{4}$ to Fazal Muḥammad, Muḥammad Arif and Pīr Muḥammad. Shafi Muḥammad and Imām Bakhsh are regarded as the *sajjāda-nashīns*, and are both equally recognised by the State authorities.

Shrine of
Sultān Yakūb.

The shrine of Sultān Yakūb is at Kot Sabzal. He was of Kobhar tribe and only Kobhars revere his shrine. After each harvest they bring new grain to the shrine, recite the *khatam* and feast together.

Chan-ra
Pun-ra.

Near Khānpur is the shrine of Chan-ra Pun-ra which is much visited by the people.

The roofless shrine of Khandú Shahíd lies on the Tamewála mound near Khairpur East. He was a Búhar, (a branch of the Panwars), and the mound shows the site of an old Búhar village, now buried under the sand. A woman of the Veba tribe fell in love with Khandú Búhar and the Vebas killed Khandú in consequence, and hence the title *shahíd* (or martyr). A *pakka* wall surrounds his tomb. The Búhars in particular and other Muhammadan peasants in general have a strong belief in the shrine where they take their suffering cattle and in almost all cases get them cured, they say, by the martyr's blessing.

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Population.

The shrine
of Khandú
Shahíd.

Another *shahíd* of the Búhar tribe was Jamál, also called Jamáldi Shahíd, who is buried at Marot. His tomb is visited by Kírárs (Hindús) and Muhammadans who go there to present their offerings after marriage. Hindús generally distribute sugar, and Muhammadans *atta ghatta*. Besides these tombs other Búhar *shahíds* are found at Rahri near Dera Nawáb Sáhib. These are called the Burke Shahíds and their names are:—Dodah, Bángan, Haidar, Chaus, and Míran. These martyrs were contemporaries of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál, in whose time a number of Búhars and Náichs accepted Islám, and as both families had long standing feuds, Sher Sháh tried to reconcile them by intermarriages. It was settled that first the Búhars should give a daughter in marriage to the Náichs. The Búhars obeyed, but the Náichs killed the Búhar bridegroom whereupon a great fight ensued in which twenty-two Búhar chiefs were killed; amongst these were the five *shahíds*, whose names to the present time are commemorated by their tribe. Vows are made to their tombs, especially by Búhars.

The shrine
of Jamáldi
Shahíd at
Marot.

This shrine is situated in Wární, a village in Sadiqabad *tahsil*. Sálih was a descendant of Adham Godaria, who was a Samma. Hence the Ujjan is a branch of the Sammas. All Muhammadan communities, and the Ujjans in particular, make vows there. The present *sajjāda-nashín* is Mián Abdul Khalíq, great grandson of Sálih Muhammad. He enjoys an *inám* of 500 *bighas* from the State, but he has to pay Rs. 60 annually as *nazrína*.

The shrine
of Sálih
Muhammad
Ujjan.

Mári Shauq Sháh is situated in the *iláqa* of Shahr Faríd where are also the tombs of Shauq Iláhi Sáhib and Sáhn Bismilla. Shauq Iláhi, Gilání, was a Hasani Sayyid, and *muríd* (follower) of Sayyid Sháh Jamál of Malik Wáhan in Multán in the Qadiriya—Suhrwardiya sect. His *urs* is annually held between the 13th and the 15th of Rajab, when nearly 2,000 people assemble. Hindús and Muhammadans of British territory and of Bikánir and Baháwalpur States make vows and offer presents there. The *sajjāda-nashín* is Sáidq Ali Sháh, who is a celibate. Succession to the *gaddi* falls to an unmarried disciple of the *gaddi-nashín*, no married disciple (*bálka*) being allowed to succeed. Rája Surát Singh, ruler of Bikánir, held Sáhn Bismilla Sháh, the disciple of Sayyid Shauq Iláhi Sáhib, in great

Mári Shauq
Sháh.

CHAP. I. C. esteem because the Rāja once obtained what he had desired by his prayers and he granted him the Dodewāla village in perpetual *jāgīr*.
Population. The present *sajjāda-nashīn* holds a *sanad* for the *jāgīr* engraved in Rathi Hindi character on a brass plate which will remain in force as long as the shrine of Sāin Bismilla Shāh exists. The chief Thākars of Bikānir State often visit the shrine. Since the time of Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān III, 7 wells have been granted in *inām* to the shrine, of which 4 are in Māri Shauq Shāh, 2 in Mahār Sharīf and one in Mahta Jhedū. The State also allows Rs. 8 per mensem as *tel charāg* to the *sajjāda-nashīn*. The agriculturists of the Joiya tribe on either bank of the Sutlej, namely, those in Mailsi Tahsil in Multān District and in Michinabadī *ilāqa* in the State give the *sajjāda-nashīn* a *ser* of grain per house at the Rabi harvest.

Shrine of
Nande Lāl.

For the accounts of the shrines of Nande Lāl and of Nande Lāl Di Kawār, see Chapter IV under Uch.

The shrine
of Shaikh
Tāj-ud-Dīn.

Shaikh Tāj-ud-Dīn Chishtī, whose shrine is at Chishtiana village founded by his descendants, was a grandson of Bāwā Farīd-ud-Dīn Shakar Ganj. The shrine is also called Rauza Tāj Sarwar. Various tribes accepted Islām at his hands, such as the Sodhas and Rāths of Bikāner State. The Rājputs of Bikāner picked a quarrel with him for having converted their tribesmen, and he went out to fight with them. Having set up a flag on his house, he instructed his females that so long as it stood firm in the ground he should be regarded as safe, but if it fell it would be the signal of his death. In the latter case, they should pray heaven to allow them to be buried alive in the ground. It chanced that the flag fell from the hands of a servant, and the women accordingly prayed to God to bury them in the ground. Their prayer was heard and the ground opened into a wide fissure which they all entered, leaving only their mantles outside. The gap then closed up over them. On the spot a tower was built which still stands; women often visit it to make vows. It is said that one of the females, who was a Bhatti by caste, did not join in the prayers of the rest and fled from the house. Owing to her cowardice the Chishtīs swore never to marry a Bhatti woman, and the descendants of Bāwā Farīd living in this State always observe the oath. It is said that near the shrine of Tāj Sarwar, at the site of the shrine of Khawāja Nūr Muhammad Sāhib Mahārvi, there were five *jand* trees called the *Panjān Pīrān de jand*, or *jands* of the five *pīrs*, and one of them still flourishes there. Bābā Nānak is also said to have sat in seclusion under these trees: on leaving the place he told a Hindu named Mānak Rāi, who lived in the neighbourhood, that the place was a part of paradise, and the man who would be buried there would be most fortunate. The fortunate man was Khwāja Nūr Muhammad Sāhib Mahārvi who left a will requesting to be interred there. Qiblā-i-Ālam used to come from Mahārān to the shrine of Tāj Sarwar every week. The Lakhweras and

other scions of the Joyas often make vows for begetting children at the Táj Sarwar. The Hindús of *iláqas* Shahr Faríd and Sádiqábád make two kinds of vows at the shrine:—

- (1) for the restoration of health, they offer a cover of *khássa* or *chhintz* for the tomb;
- (2) for rain they distribute sugar and *ghunghaníán* (boiled grain).

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Population.
The shrine
of Shaikh
Táj-ud-Dín.

Muhammadans after the *istisqá*, or prayers for the rain, sacrifice goats and sheep at Táj Sarwar. The present *sajjádá-nashín* is Diwán Muhammad Bakhsh. The Chishtís of this place are now mere zamíndárs. Shaikh Táj-ud-Dín had many sons, one of whom Shaikh Ahmad went to Hyderabad Deccan, Sir Ásman Jáh, the late Vazír of Hyderabad State, being one of his descendants.

A sacred place outside the Marot fort is known as the *baithak Maulá Ali*. Hazrat Ali is believed to have come there and prayed on the long marble platform close by, and this is why the marks of his hand, thighs and feet are seen on the latter. The marks of a horse's feet on it are also visible. There is another white stone which is said to have been butter of camel's milk that was offered to the saint, but it being of bad quality he turned it into stone in anger; since then it is thought that no butter can be made from the milk of *dáchís* (she-camels).

The Baithak
Maulá Ali.

There is a mound 4 miles east of fort Deráwar which seems to be a ruin of some building, and is called the tomb of Pír Channar or Channar Pír. Three miles from the tomb is a *thehr* or mound, which was in ancient times a city whose ruler was Rája Sandhíla, father of Channar Pír. It is said that once Sayyid Sher Sháh reached there and enquired if there was any Muhammadan in the town. Sandhíla replied that there was none. He again asked if there was any Muhammadan woman, but still the reply was in the negative. The Sayyid further asked if there was any pregnant woman, and when Sandhíla replied that his wife was so, he reflected a little and said "Appoint a Muhammadan midwife, as the child will be born a saint." Accordingly when the child was born, the Rája threw him on to the mound where his shrine is now situated in the hope that he might die. But a cradle of sandalwood descended from heaven so that in it he might be reared. Seeing this miracle, Sandhíla desired to take the child from the cradle, but could not, and when any one went near the cradle it ascended towards heaven. At last the child grew up and adopted Makhdúm Jaháníyán as his Pír. As Channar Pír was brought up in a state of destitution, the *ziyarat* of his tomo is believed to protect children. Channar Pír never married, but he had 7 brothers whose descendants are called the Channars. (1) The road leading to this shrine is very difficult and troublesome. Pilgrims always visit it either in the rainy season, or

Channar Pír.

(1) See details of the Channar tribe under *Tribes and Castes*.

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Population.

Channar Pir.

at the end of February or sometimes in the beginning of March. Both Hindús and Muhammadans believe in Channar Pír. *Ata ghatta* is offered when children are shaved, and out of this one-fourth is given to the keeper of the tomb. The Channars in presenting their votive offerings sacrifice a she-goat instead of a he-goat (*ghatta*) as men of other tribes do. Hindús and Muhammadans when at Pír Channar's shrine call one another brethren. The *rot* (a big loaf) and *kabáb* (roasted meat) cooked at the shrine are divided by the Muhammadan *mujáwír*, a Channar, among both Hindús and Muhammadans with his own hands, there being no pollution by touch for the Hindú pilgrims on this occasion.

The shrine of
Qiblá-i-Álam
at Chishtian.

Khwája Núr Muhammad, better known as Qiblá-i-Álam, was a Kharl by caste and a Panwár Rájput. He appeared at the time of decay of Islám in Baháwalpur. He was born on the 14th of Ramazán 1142 H., in Chautálá village, in *iláqa* Shahr Faríd, and his parents named him Báhbál. They had but small means, and shortly after his birth they settled in Maharán, where they put him under one Háfiz Muhammad Masúd to learn the Qurán, which he committed to memory. Núr Muhammad afterwards went to Bablána (in Tahsil Pákpattan), Dera Gházi Khán and Lahore to complete his education. Thence he went to Delhi, where he lived for 16 years with Maulána Fakhr-ud-Dín Muhibb-un-Nabi and after completing both his secular and spiritual studies obtained the *khiláfat* (deputy-ship) from him. His name Núr Muhammad was proposed by his Pir-o-Murshid (spiritual teacher) Maulána Fakhr. The *Munáqibul Mahbúbain* gives a saying from Maulána Fakhr, which he used to utter for the Qiblá-i-Álam; viz., *Tan mutke man jharna surt balowan hár; Makhm Panjábi legix, cháchh pio Sainsár*; meaning that the latter has carried away butter from the former and now only whey was left for others and nothing else. Referring to this Nazám-ul-Mulk Nawáb Gházi-ud-Dín Khán, the deposed Vazír of Delhi, used to quote the following verses in Persian:

Sálhá mánd dar harím-i-hazúr;

Gasht mámind-i-ism-i-khud hima núr;

Shaikh dar haqq-i-ú chunín farmúd,

Kín zi má har chí búda ast rabúd.

i.e., he lived for years in the company of the Maulána Fakhr and became a complete light (of God) as his name indicated. The Shaikh said of him that he took away from him all that he possessed (i.e., spiritual excellence). Innumerable miracles are ascribed to him. He often purified and enlightened benighted souls with a glance. He was able to send his imaginary body (*wajúd-i-zillí*) to various places at one and the same time; for instance he once saved the sinking ship of one of his *muríds* when on a pilgrimage to Mecca and Medína by his imaginary body, while his real body remained at Maharán. He had promised a *muríd* that he would read his *janáza* (death) prayers, but he chanced to die first and put many of his followers

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Population.The shrine of
Qibla-i-Ālam
at Chishtīān.

in doubt about his veracity, but it happened that the Qibla-i-Ālam actually appeared and read the *janāza* of the *murīd*. His leading *khalīfas* and successors, who influenced and benefited the mass of the Muhammadan population in the Punjab and Sindh, were: (1) Khwāja Nūr Muhammad, also called Nūr Muhammad II of Nārūwāla (originally the name of a well) or Hājipur; (2) Qāzi Muhammad Aqil of Kot Mithan; (3) Hāfiz Muhammad Jamāl of Multān; (4) Khwāja Muhammad Sulaimān Khān of Sanghar. The *gaddi* of the first is at Hājipur, that of the second at Chachran Sharīf, of the third at Multān and of the fourth at Sanghar (Taunsa Sharīf). The *sajjāda-nashīn* of the fourth and last *gaddi*, Khwāja Muhammad Mūsa, is the spiritual leader of Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān V, the present ruler of Bahāwalpur. The branches of the *khalīfats* of these four *khalīfas* spread abroad, and each has several subordinate *gaddis* in this State, in Sindh and in the Panjab. Besides these four there were numerous *khalīfas* of the Qibla-i-Ālam. Below only the names of those *khalīfas* are given whose descendants have continued the system of *pīri murīdi*, or making disciples:—

- (1) Hāfiz Ghulām Hasan, Bhatti, resident of Chela Wāhan in Tahsīl Khairpur Sharqia.
- (2) Muhammad Bakhsh Chishti of Chishtīān.
- (3) Muhammad Akbar of Rāniān in Hissār District.
- (4) Makhdūm Sayyid Mahmūd of Sītpur.
- (5) Makhdūm Sayyid Naubahār, *sajjāda-nashīn* of Uch Sharīf (who gave in *jāgīr* to Qibla-i-Ālam Jilanwāli, which is still held by his descendants).
- (6) Makhdūm Muhibb-i-Jahāniyān, Bukhārī of Shahr Sultān.

In short, the Muhammadans of this State, Montgomery, Multān, Dera Ghāzi Khān and some other districts of the Panjab, Baluchistān and Sindh are all related to the Qibla-i-Ālam. He was initiated into the *khalīfat* ceremonies at the age of 42 years, and after preaching for 21 years, passed away on Monday, the 3rd Zilhijj 1205 H. at the age of 63. The date of his death is given by the *tarīkh-i-abjad* in the verse:—“*Haif wāwaila jahān be nūr gasht*,” i.e. Alas! The world has lost its light (and become dark). According to his will he was buried at Chishtīān in a piece of land, about which he used to say:—“*Azīn zamīn būc dīlā mī-āyad*”; this land smells of the hearts (of saints); and this was the very land⁽¹⁾ about which Bābā Nānak had made a prophecy. Eight years after his death Khwāja Muhammad Aqil of Kot Mithan built a dome over the tomb and in front of it a small *majlis khāna*. The outer walls were built by Hāfiz Muhammad Jamāl of Multān. The lintel and door of the shrine and the poles of the canopy of the tomb, all of silver, and worth nearly Rs. 11,000, were offered by Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān III. Another version is that

(1) See shrine of Tāj Sarwar.

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The shrine of
Qiblá-i-Álam
at Chishtíán.

the *Haryári* at this time flowed close to Mahárán and there was no dry place in its vicinity where a tomb could be built, so he was buried at Chishtíán in a dry place where he often used to sit. The present *majlis khána* was built by his descendants a few years ago, by raising a subscription of Rs. 12,000. For the comfort of pilgrims the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV built quite close to the shrine a magnificent *seráí* at the cost of Rs. 26,000. In the enclosure of the shrine are the tombs of Sibgatulla, Lahori, Qári Azízulla, and Khwája Ghulám Hasan Bhatti, who were all leading *khalifas*. Under the very dome of the shrine are the tombs of his sons, Núr-us-Samad, Núr Ahmad and Nur Hasan, of whom the first is also called the *Shahíd Sáhib*, because he was murdered in cold blood while saying his prayers by Sarwan and Karam (Mahárs by caste) in Rabi-ul-Awwal, 1206 H. An *urs* is held annually at this shrine and a great part of the expenses of the celebration is paid by Mián Muhammad Yusuf *sajjádá-nashín*, another portion being defrayed by his brotherhood. One-third of the income of the shrine goes to Mián Fazl-i-Haq, who is a descendant of Núr Hasan, the third son of the Qiblá-i-Álam. He is called the *sajjádá-nashín* Manghervi and Mián Muhammad Yúsuf the *sajjádá-nashín* Mahárví. The remaining shares are distributed among the descendants of the other two sons of the Qiblá-i-Álam. The *mujáwars* are appointed to keep the shrine clean and to collect the offerings and are paid from the income, of which a regular account is kept. There was a mosque, built by Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II, inside the shrine. An Arabic Theological School was opened in this mosque by Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV, and is still maintained. Its expenses were at first paid from the privy purse of the late Nawáb but, according to the new scheme of educational reform inaugurated by Colonel H. Grey, late Superintendent in the State, in 1899, the entire expenditure of the Theological Schools formerly met from the Nawáb's privy purse was included in the State Educational Budget. As the mosque was not very spacious, Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, son of Nawáb Ghulám Qádir Khán, Khákwáni, Rais of Multán, levelled it to the ground and built a more spacious one on its site on recommendation of the late Khwája Alla Bakhsh of Taunsa, at a cost of Rs. 20,000. Large *jágírs* granted by the State are enjoyed by the *sajjádá-nashín* and his collaterals.

The shrine
of Maulavi
Khudá
Bakhsh.

This shrine is situated at Khairpur Támewáli. Maulavi Khudá Bakhsh was of the Mallan Hans tribe and disciple of Háfiz Muhammad Jamál Multáni (a *khalifa* of Khwája Núr Muhammad). He settled in Khairpur East from Multán at the invitation of Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II, who offered him one rupee daily and a *máni* of grain monthly for his expenses, but he only accepted six annas daily, which was his actual expenditure, and would not take more. Besides being a man of sanctity he was a great doctor of theology. It is said that it was the wish of Khwája Núr Muhammad

Sáhib that his burial prayer should be performed by one who had never missed a *mustahabb*⁽¹⁾ during his whole life. Of all the disciples and *khalifas* present at his deathbed no one was considered so qualified as Maulavi Khudá Bakhsh, and accordingly he recited the *janáza* prayers. His shrine was built by Jamadár Abdul Khálíq Khán (a leading dignitary in the Darbár of Muhammad Baháwal Khán III) with the assistance of his other *muríds*. He died childless, and was succeeded in the *khiláfat* by Maulavi Abd-ul-Gaffár, who was a descendant of his great-grandfather, Maulavi Mahmúd. Maulavi Abd-ul-Gaffár was succeeded by his younger brother Maulavi Abd-ur-Razzáq, whose successors (*sajjáda-nashíns*) were as follows:—

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The shrine of Maulavi Khudá Bakhsh.

(1) Maulavi Ábd-ul-Majíd, son of Maulavi Abd-ur-Razzáq III.

(2) Maulavi Abd-ul-Gafúr, son of Maulavi Abd-ul-Majíd, the present *sajjáda-nashín*.

The annual *urs* is held from 28th to 30th Muharram. A sum of Rs. 137 is allowed by the State to the *sajjáda-nashín* at each *urs* (equal to Rs. 200 Baháwal Kháni, which were current in the State before the Agency) and two wells are also granted to the shrine as *inám*. The income is equally divided among all the descendants of the second *sajjáda-nashín*.

This shrine is a mile from Khairpur Támewáli near the Támewála mound. The name of the saint is Maulavi Núrullah, who was a member of the Urya Bhatti tribe and a *khalifa* of Khwája Núr Muhammad. His *urs* is held on the 29th of Safr every year and is attended by nearly 1,500 persons. She-goats and cows are sacrificed on this occasion. The present *mutwalli*, Háfiz Nazr Muhammad, has been enjoying 1½ wells as *inám* from the State since the reign of Nawáb Fateh Khán.

The shrine of Bhindiwála Sáhib.

This shrine is in Khán Bela. Maulavi Sultán Muhammad was an authorised *khalifa* of Khwája Muhammad Aqil Sáhib of Kot Mithán. He died childless, and the management of the shrine is in the hands of Mián Hot of Shidáni. The annual *urs* is performed from the 1st to the 3rd of Rabi-us-Sáni, on which occasion, as on others, goats, sheep, cows and buffaloes are sacrificed. When Maulavi Sultán Mahmúd was alive, he was very fond of *missi* (gram) bread, fowls, and *naswár* (snuff), and so people vow to offer these three things in return for the fulfilment of their wants. The shrine was built by the widow of Maulavi Sultán Muhmúd under the patronage of Muhammad Yaqúb Khás Kheli, once a Vazír of the State.

The shrine of Maulavi Sultán Muhammad.

There is another shrine at Khán Bela of Mián Sharíf Muhammad, a *khalifa* of Háji Gul Muhammad of Ahmadpur East. The latter was a disciple and *khalifa* of Khwája Muhammad Aqil.

The shrine of Mián Sharíf Muhammad.

(1) *Mustahabb* are deeds performed in imitation of the Prophet which are over and above the usual ceremonies of daily prayers, fasts, *ishráq*, and *tahajjud* prayers, &c.

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The shrine
of Mián
Sharif Mu-
hammad.

The Pirs
of Cháchrán
Sharif.

This shrine is also under the management of Mián Hot of Shidáni. The annual *urs* is held on the 14th Jamádi-us-Sáni and is attended by nearly 1,000 persons. The people generally offer *chúri*, *paráthá* and a cover for the tomb in hopes of getting children, &c.

Khwája Muhammad Áqil, one of the four chief *khalifas* of Khwája Núr Muhammad, was the founder of the *gaddi* at Cháchrán. It is said that one of his ancestors, Málik, son of Yahya, Quraishi, came to Sindh in the reign of *khalifa* Abdul Malik, son of Marwan. After many generations Shaikh Muhammad, known as Kaurah, became famous as a saint, and his descendants became known as the Korejas. Accordingly the family of Cháchrán as well as the entire tribe of the Korejas is Quraishi by origin.⁽¹⁾ Qázi Muhammad Áqil before he became a *khalifa* of the Qiblá-i-Álam, used to be a teacher, and his ancestors always held *jágirs* from the emperors of Delhi, such as Sháh Jahán and Aurangzeb, Timur Sháh, king of Khorasán and others owing to their duties of *qazá*. Numerous tribes entered into *baiát* with Muhammad Áqil as well as many renowned personages of the time, such as the Giláni and Bukhári Makhdúms and many chiefs of the Ghumráni, Arbáni, Achráni, Kehráni, Pirjáni and Haláni septs of the Daudpotras, and the Baloches on either banks of the Indus, such as the Bozdar, Lund, Drishak, Gurehání and Lagári, &c., and even Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II of Baháwalpur became his disciple. Many miracles are attributed by the people to Áqil Muhammad. In his old age he had no shadow, his body being so transparent as to transmit the rays of the sun through it; he did not go abroad by daylight or by moonlight to conceal this prodigy. Any cloth could pass through his body, and a *lungi*, which thus went through him, is still kept as a relic by one of his *murids*. His shrine is at Kot Mithan in Dera Gházi Khán District. He was succeeded by his son Khwája Ahmad Ali, who died on the 9th Shaa'bán, 1213 H., after surviving him only 13 months. He is buried by the side of Khwája Muhammad Áqil. Khwája Ahmad Ali had two sons, Khwájás Khudá Bakhsh, entitled the Mahbúb-i-Ilábi (*lit.* the beloved of God), and Táji Muhammad. The former used to live at Kot Mithan, but when Ranjít Singh conquered Dera Gházi Khán he came to the Baháwalpur State and stayed at a place where Cháchrán is now situate. At first a *sahl* of *kana* reeds was made for his residence, which is preserved up to the present day and much visited by the believers. This new settlement grew into importance day by day and is now a handsome and well built town. As this ground was in the possession of the Cháchar tribe, the village was called Chácharán. He died on the 12th Zilhijj, 1269 H., and was buried by the side of his

(1) But Korejas and Sahlas are regarded as an ancient Rájput tribe of Sindhián origin by many authorities, such as Sir Henry Elliot, Murád, &c., and as such are believed to be branch of the Sammas.

ancestors. Mahbúb-i-Iláhi is also believed to be a worker of miracles, and Nawáb Fateh Khán of Baháwalpur was one of his disciples. He had two sons, Khwája Ghulám Fakhr-ud-Dín and Ghulám Faríd. The former was born in 1234 and died in 1288 Hijra. In 1281 Hijra, when he was *sajjáda-nashín*, an inundation of the Indus destroyed the town of Kot Mithan. Upon this the remains of the saints were taken out and buried at a distance from the bank of the river. The remains of Khwája Muhammad Aqil and Mahbúb-i-Iláhi were buried by Khwája Ghulám Fakhr-ud-Dín; and the remains of Khwája Ahmad Ali and Táji Muhammad were buried in another place close at hand by Khwája Muhammad. Accordingly there are two separate handsome mausoleums at Kot Mithan. Khwája Ghulám Faríd succeeded on the death of his elder brother in 1288 H. As *sajjáda-nashín* he was a spiritual guide of Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV. He was very pious and benevolent, and took special interest in the poor, and almost the whole of his income was spent in helping persons of high family reduced to straitened circumstances. He died on the 7th Rabi-us-Sání 1320 H. and was succeeded in the *gaddi* by his only son Mián Muhammad Bakhsh. The village of Waghúán is granted to the *sajjáda-nashíns* in *jágír*, and it yields an income of over Rs. 20,000 annually. The poetical writings (*káfis*) of Khwája Ghulám Faríd are elsewhere described.

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Population.

The Pirs
of Cháchrán
Sharíf.

Lál Sohanra was an Ulawi Quarishi and a relation of Shaikh Hákim of Mau Mubárak. He and Mahrán Samma were the *khalifas* of Shaikh Bahá-ud-Dín, Zakariya of Multán, and were commissioned by him to convert the Hindu tribes of the *Dhaddar* (the tract adjoining the Sutlej between Baháwalpur and Khairpur East) to Islám. The town of Lál Sohanra (mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as a *Mahál* in the Sirkár of Multán) was founded by this saint. He was a great traveller and in most places in Sindh he built *mabads* (grottos for worship), one of which, known as the *baithak*, is situated at Ránipur, and is much frequented by the believers as an object of adoration. He died a martyr (*shahíd*) while helping a handful of men against a gang of dacoits close to Thatta in Sindh, from which place his descendants brought his remains to Lál Sohanra. The first shrine of Lál Sohanra was situated about a mile northwards from the present Lál Sohanra village. In 1296 H. the shrine and the old village were submerged by the Sutlej and his remains were brought to the present site of his shrine near Tahlwála well. The tomb of Mahrán Samma was also opened on this occasion by his descendants and the remains of that saint buried on the Rohi border about three miles from the present shrine of Lál Sohanra. The *sajjáda-nashín* of Lál Sohanra held about 5,000 *bighas* of *inám* for the shrine; but the *inám* being *tá dawán-i-khángáh* lapsed with the disappearance of the old shrine under the rules in force in the State. The present *sajjáda-nashín* is Shaikh Husain Sháh, who is 11th in descent from Lál Sohanra.

Lál Sohanra.

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Population.

The shrine
of Pír Abdul
Kháliq.

The shrine of Pír Abdul Kháliq is in *Kasúrdar*, a village near Shahr Farid. Pír Abdul Kháliq was a Kharl Rájput and a resident of *Gogera*, a contemporary of *Sáin Bullhe Sháh* of Kasúr and his fast friend. They both travelled in search of a spiritual leader and Abdul Kháliq, when he was in his sixtieth year, saw in a vision and was adopted as a pupil and disciple by Khwája Owais Qarni, a contemporary and disciple of the Prophet. It is related of the saint that he remained always in a state of unconsciousness, except when he heard music, of which he was passionately fond. After preaching for 30 years he died at the age of 90. At first his shrine was at Mohibli (Muhib Ali), District Montgomery, but owing to the encroachment of the river his remains were brought to a village called *Budhi* (Tahsil Mailsi), and from there removed to the present site of the shrine. The present *sajjāda-nashín* is Hájí Muhammad Yaqúb, who enjoys a well in *inám* from the State as long as the shrine stands.

Shrine of
Sáhib-us-Sair.

This shrine is situated at a distance of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Samasata Railway station. Sáhib-us-Sair (*lit.* great traveller) was a title given to Mohkam Dín, who was a disciple and *Khalifa* of Pír Abdul Kháliq. The latter used to say that only a single rice grain of *faqr* (godliness) was given to the former and he multiplied it into thousands of grains. Many miracles are attributed to him. Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II had much faith in him, and used to make presents to him. The mosque in the *Tonki* mohalla of Baháwalpur town, which is standing to the present day, was built by him from a *nazar* presented to him by that ruler of the State. He was poisoned by his disciples of Kathiawár Kachh on the 5th *Rabi-us-Sáni*, 1197 Hijra, in order that his shrine might be built among them and so save them the trouble of a distant pilgrimage. He was buried at Durachi Bandar in Kachh, but after a time Míán Ahmad Dín first *sajjāda-nashín* brought his remains secretly to Goth Bakhsa close to Samasata. The offerings made here are generally *chúri*, *ata ghatta* and cows. Women are not allowed to enter the shrine, because the saint passed his whole life in celibacy. The annual *urs* is held on the 5th *Rabi-us-Sáni* (*see* Fairs). Rupees 303 are given on this occasion by the State, and if His Highness the Nawáb visits the *urs* personally a sum of Rs. 156 is given in addition. Besides these sums an *inám* and *kasúr* of Rs. 600 are assigned by the State to the shrine *ta duwám-i-khángah* (as long as the shrine stands). Pír Abdul Kháliq and Sáhib-us-Sair were descended from the same parents.

Religious
sects of
Hindús,
Brahmans.

Among Hindús the *Puskarna* Brahman are generally the followers of *Gokalya Gosáin*, and *Gokalie* religious leaders are called *Telangis*. The *Puskarna* Brahman are divided into three branches, *Marwári*, *Sendhu* and *Dassa*, all belonging to the same sect. The *Sársut* Brahman are generally the followers of *Grunja Málí*, *Lálji Kaládhari*, *Gopálji* and *Gokalya Gosáin*. The *Khatris* of the State are the *sowaks* (disciples) of *Shámji* and *Gokalya Gosáin*, while

Khatris.

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Population.

Aroras.

the *Aroras* are either the followers of *Gokalya Gosáin*, *Lálji* and *Gunja Máli*, or else they are *Nanik Panthis*, *Fagirs*, or *Náth Sewaks*. Some of the *Náth Sewaks* belong to the *Márgi* sect. Their *asthānas* (places of worship) are in subterranean chambers (*marhis*). These *Náth Sewak Márgis* mostly live in Ahmadpur East and its neighbourhood, Ahmadpur Lamma, and the suburbs of Khán Bela. They are said to have nine or ten *marhis* at Ahmadpur East. They observe two *Noratras* (festivals lasting eight days and nights) annually, viz., one on *Assuj Sudi Ashtmi* and the other on *Chet Sudi Ashtami*. On this occasion men and women, pure *Márgis* and half *Márgis*, gather together in the *marhis*, and perform religious worship in various sensual ways. The pure *Bám-Márgis* are not burned like other *Hindús*, but usually are buried in a sitting posture, a stick called *bairāgan* being placed under the chin or arms of the corpse to support it. Sometimes, however, their dead bodies are thrown into a river.

Jains.

The *Jains* are to be found only at Maujgadh, Phúlra, Deráwár, Baháwalpur town and Ahmadpur East. They are divided into three sects in the State, viz.,—(1) the *Diganbris* (or the *Bispanthis* and *Terapanthis*), (2) the *Shitanbris*, and (3) the *Dhúndias*, which have more female than male votaries. Of the 84 sects or orders of the Jain priesthood (or the *Samogi Sádhus* and *Jati-Gurús*) only four appear to be represented in this State; these are the *Khrátara*, *Tapá*, *Konwála*, and *Launga Gachhas*. The only *Upásara* (monastery) of the *Jati-Gurús* or celibate priests of these orders in the State is at Maujgarh. Pilgrimages are made by the *Jains* of the State to the *Upásaras* in *Bikáner*.

Hindu temples.

The principal temples of the *Hindús* are found at Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur East, Uch Sharíf, Khánpur, Khairpur East and Ahmadpur Lamma. These are consecrated to *Maharajji*, *Lálji*, *Kaladhári*, *Sáwal Sháh*, *Gunja Máli*, *Narsinghji*, *Gondhji*, *Mangaldásji* or *Gopi Náthji*. There are also *asthans* (places for worship) at Fort Deráwar and *Hurian* near *Adamwáhan*, dedicated to *Matránis* and *Alúdranis*, the well known goddesses, and one consecrated to *Gúngiráni* at Baháwalpur.

Grants to religious places.

The State allows grants to Hindu and Muhammadan places of worship or reverence in the shape of assignments and partial remission of land revenue called *inám* and *kasúr*. As a rule, a nominal *nazrána* (tribute) is annually realized by the State from the guardians of shrines and the custodians of temples. The total area granted in *inám* and *kasúr* amount to 37,873 *bighas* (a *bigha* = $\frac{1}{2}$ acre) and the annual *nazrána* charged thereon is Rs. 764. Beside the above, cash grants to Hindu temples and Muhammadan religious and educational institutions are made from the State Treasury. These are of two classes, viz., for religious places inside the State and for similar institutions outside it, the total amount of annual grants for the former being Rs. 5,239 and

CHAP. I. C. for the latter Rs. 2,258. The outside grants are chiefly given to
Population. Muhammadan institutions in Lahore, Amritsar, Saháranpur, Delhi,
Ajmer and Multán.

Grants to
religious
places.

SUPERSTITIONS AND POPULAR BELIEFS.

The following horses are unlucky :—

Unlucky
horses.

- (a). A horse or mare, with a white spot, small enough to be covered by the thumb, on the forehead. Such a horse is called *tára-peshdāni*, or starred on the forehead.
- (b). A horse or mare with three feet of one colour and the fourth of another. A white blaze on the forehead however counteracts this evil sign. Such an animal is called *anjāl*.
- (c). A horse with a black palate (*siāh kām asp* in Persian).
- (d). A horse with both hind feet and the off forefoot white. But a white *near* forefoot is a good omen, as in the Persian couplet :—

Do páish sufed-o-yake dast-i-chap,

Buwad láiq-i-shāh-i-ālī nasab.

“A horse with two white (hind) feet and a white near forefoot is worthy to be ridden by a king.”

- (e). A horse or mare which is wall-eyed (*mánki*) or which has an eye like that of a human being, is called *táki*, and is ill-starred.

Birth super-
stitions.

If a woman does not conceive for a long time and afterwards becomes pregnant, she is made to give birth to her child in a jungle which is afterwards set on fire. This is believed to prevent the evil effects of the birth. A Hindu woman with child is not allowed by her relations to cross a river by boat as that would cause abortion. If a woman does not conceive till 7 years have elapsed after the first delivery it is believed that she had given birth to the child at the same time as a tigress had brought forth her young. If a mare brings forth her offspring in the day time, it is considered unlucky. The remedy adopted to avert the evil effects is that the ear of the young one (colt or filly) is bored or the tip of the ear cut off.

Omens.

To hear a donkey bray behind when one is starting on a journey, or a partridge call on the left, is an omen that the journey will fail in its object. But a partridge calling on the right is lucky. Also it is fortunate to meet a sweeper carrying filth, or a coffin, when setting out on business. It is a good omen to see a bird, called the *malhāla*, on the right hand early in the day and on the left later in the day, and *vice versâ*. If a thief, when going to steal, hears a

pheasant on the left he considers it a bad omen and returns. If a *maina* or a *lāli* (also a bird) be heard warbling on the roof, the women reply, *Ata pihā pia he, ja mimhān kon liā*. "The flour is ready ground, go, fetch the guest," i. e., a guest is expected. The bird's note is supposed to be *piho piho*, the imperative of *pihnā* (*piśnā*), to grind. If a man sneezes when starting on a journey, the journey will be unsuccessful. Similarly it is a bad omen for a marriage procession to hear the roar of thunder or meet with a gale of wind on their way to the bride's house. Any additions to a house are made by the Hindūs in front of, or in line with, the buildings that exist, not in their rear. A new building at the back of the house is calculated to bring some calamity on the owner's head. A crow on the coping of the house-wall denotes that a relation is coming on a visit, or at least that news from one will soon arrive. On the other, if a woman gets hurt she will put it down to having heard a crow cawing on the coping. A kite sitting on the house is unlucky, so a black *hāndi* or scare-crow is usually hung on the loftiest part of the roof.

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Population.

Omens.

The following lunar dates are considered unlucky and agriculturists generally do not begin reaping on them:—

Lucky and
unlucky days.

3rd, 8th, 13th, 23rd and 28th.

But it is not unlucky to continue if the reaping has once been begun. The earth *sleeps* on the 1st, 5th, 7th, 9th, 10th, 21st, and 24th days of the lunar month and no agricultural work should be begun in these days or failure will be the result. Sunday is commonly regarded as a lucky day to begin cultivating or watering the fields, sinking or working a well, or reaping. Hindūs stop all field-work on a Tuesday, as it is "the son of the earth," and neither till, plough nor reap on that day. Thieves believe that if they commit theft on a Friday they will be caught. For travelling certain days of the week are inauspicious, and the rules are given in the verse:

Aitwār te roz Juma de lahn̄de mūl na jā,

Chhanchhan-wār, Sawār dihāre chār̄hde pair na pā,

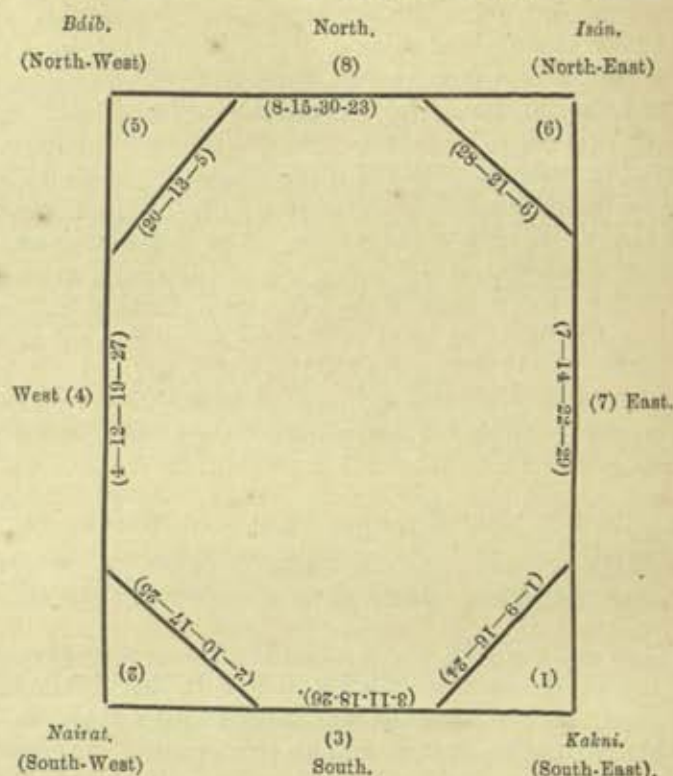
Mangal-wār te Budh dihāre qutb hargiz na jā,

Sun piārā wār Khamis de dakhān mūl na jā.

"Do not go towards the West on Sundays or Fridays, East on Saturdays or Mondays, North on Tuesdays or Wednesdays, or towards the South on a Thursday." Both Hindūs and Muham-madans believe in *Jogniān* or the *Chihil-Abdāl*. *Chihil-Abdāl* are forty saints who live in different directions on the various dates. Their number is invariably forty. If one of them dies, a new saint takes his place. To undertake a journey in any direction on the dates when the saints are in that direction is unlucky. Again,

CHAP. I. C. agriculturists do not reap a crop facing in the direction in which the saints are. The following figure shows the different dates on which the saints are believed to be in each direction:—

Lucky and
unlucky days.



The numbers within brackets inside the square denote dates. The following lines give the dates on which the *Chihil-Abdál* are in the different directions:—

Pahli, nánwin, solán, chawwi, *kakni*, wích pehchán,
Do, dah, satará, panjhi *Nairat* shak na án,
Tarai, chhabbi, athára, yáran wích *Janube* ján,
Chár, bára, satáwi, unni *Maghrib* shak na án,
Panj, tera, wih, tarai diháre, *Báb* de wích ján,
Chhe, ikki, atháwi sach much wích *Isán* pechhán,
Sat, chauda, unattiri, báwi *Mashraq* gaib rijál,
Ath, pandra, tarih, trewi rehnde wích *Shimál*.

That is, the *Chihil-Abdál* occupy *kakni* on 1st, 9th, 16th and 24th, the *Nairat* on the 2nd, 10th, 17th and 25th, the South (*janub*) on the 3rd, 26th, 18th and 11th, the West (*maghrib*) on the 4th, 12th, 27th and 19th, the *Báb* three dates, i.e., the 5th, 13th and 20th, the *Isán* on the 6th, 21st and 28th, the East (*mashraq*) on the 7th, 14th, 29th and 22nd, and the North (*shimál*) on the 8th, 15th, 30th and 23rd.

Certain hours of the days of the week are considered lucky. CHAP. I, C.
These are termed *zakki* or *chaugharia-mahúrat*. The following Population.
lines give the lucky hours of the various days:—

Lucky hours,

Zakki, Ait, (or Sunday), Juma, Khamis pahr dháyán pichchhe.

Adhe pahr thín pichchhe Chhanchhan jo koi *zakki* puchche.

Dedh pahr thín pichchhe *zakki* Mangal bujh Sawár.

Awwal sára ákhar adhá *zakki* hai Budhwár.

That is, the *zakki* hours on Sunday, Friday, and Thursday begin at 2½ pahr after sunrise (a pahr=3 hours); on Saturday, half a pahr after sunrise; on Tuesday and Monday 1½ pahr after it; and on Wednesday the whole first pahr and half the last pahr are *zakki*. The hours other than those mentioned are considered unlucky. Work undertaken in the hours given in the above lines is believed to end satisfactorily and well.

If anything goes bad it is believed to be bewitched (*bándhna*) by an enemy, and those skilled in combating magic are called in to undo the mischief by charms. But a dyer whose indigo has got spoilt retails some gossip or rumour he has heard in a highly exaggerated form, and then his indigo recovers its colour. Many of the diseases of the children such as *Umm-us-sibiyan*⁽¹⁾ (Arab., lit. "the mother of children") are ascribed to demons, and Bhangis and Chábras are employed to exorcise these, because they are believed to be in some way connected with those castes. Sometimes a vermin, called the *labána*, is tied in a cloth which is wrapped round the neck of a child suffering from convulsions. Diseases of the brain and womb in women are mostly ascribed to demons and genii, such as, *paret*, *bhút*, *pasháj*, *dít*, *rákhash*, *dáin*, *churel*, *dákan*, *shákan*, *pari* and *dev*, who also occasionally possess men. Khetr-palji's temple at Uch is a famous place for casting out devils, and the process usually takes a day, but may last a month. Scorpion-bite is cured by proxy. A man goes on behalf of the person bitten to the exorciser and the latter blows a spell on to some water, which the proxy drinks. This cures the sufferer. The spell runs:—

Witchcraft
and charms.

Ismún, Nismún kákar dāngá, oh kákar marjāgá,

An dānge ko páni píldāngá, dāngá bach / segá.

"Ismun, Nismun (these words are the whole secret of the charm), the scorpion bit, but the scorpion will be killed: I will give water to the person who was not bitten, and the person bitten shall be cured."

The following *mantar* is used for the diseases therein specified:

*Pár bayai Bantari jis Sawant joyá, Lút, kurát, ghunán-
dra, akh-ái, than thiliá panje káhút!*

(1) Infantile Convulsions,

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"Bantari gave birth to Sawant on the other side of the river, whereby ulcers, abscesses, toothache, ophthalmia, and swellings of the breast departed." If the right breast be swollen the left is exorcised, and *vice versa*.

Cure for hydrophobia.

The Khaggas and Bodlas are believed to be able to cure hydrophobia by blowing upon the patient, and the latter also use the following *kalām* or charm:

Bismillah, awal nām-i-Khuddā, dūsarā nām Muhammad Rasūl Allah, tīsarā nām chār yār, Kalām Khuddā dī, huddā Bādshāh Dastgīr, karā Sultān Sayyid Ahmad Kabīr, chhitta giddar, kuttā.....lār, barkat Pīr Makhdūm Jahāniyān nāl khair ā jāwē.

"I begin first with the name of God, then with the name of Muhammad, the prophet of God, then with the names of the four Khalifas. The word is of God, with the permission of Bādshāh Dastgīr (*i.e.*, Shaikh Abdul Kādir Jilānī) and of Sultān Sayyid Ahmad Kabīr; may the person bitten by a mad dog or jackal recover by the blessings of Makhdūm Jahāniyān.

Charms for crops and cattle.

If a crop of wheat, gram or maize be attacked by insects (*kungi* or *tela*) a charm (*kalām*) is recited to avert injury, or a camel's bone burnt so that the smoke may drift over the crop, a *kalām* being also read. The following charms are in use:—

*Kungi, kirā, mūlā, bakhrā chāre then bhirā,
Hukm Khuddā de nāl dī hawā ate gai udā.*

"Kungi, Kirā, Mūlā, and Bakhrā are brothers and sisters (of the same family); by the command of God a wind blew and drove them all away." This is spoken over some sand, which is then sprinkled over the crop. The following is recited and blown over the diseased crops:—

*Kungi, Kirā, Bakhrā tarije bhain bhirā,
Roti be nimāz dī gai wā udā.*

"Kungi, Kirā, Bakhrā are all three brothers and sisters; the bread of one who does not pray (*nimāz*) was carried away by the wind." And meanwhile the owner walks round the field, eating fried wheat. If he meets any one while so doing he gives him the wheat, but must not speak to him. When grain has all been threshed out by the cattle the owner digs a trench (*karā*) round it, which he fills with water. No one may enter this circle, which protects the crop from evil spirit. Blight is averted by hanging up a pot attached to a long stick, in a field, the pot being filled with earth from a saint's tomb. In selecting a place for a stack of corn, a pit is first dug and the earth excavated from it put back again. If it exactly fills the pit, the place is unpropitious and another place is chosen. But if some earth remains over after the

pit is full the corn is stacked and the grain winnowed there. Many cultivators set up a plough in a heap of corn, and draw a line round it with a knife to prevent genii from eating the grain. If when corn has been winnowed the grain appears less than the husks, it is believed that some evil genius has got into the heap and stolen the grain and a ram or a he-goat is killed and eaten jointly by the farmers to expel it. Such genii assume the shape of ants or other insects, and so, when the husks have been separated from the grain, the ground around the heap is swept and no insect allowed to get into it. When cattle, &c., are diseased they are commonly taken to the shrine of some saint, and the owner is told in a dream what means will effect a cure: or the *mujáwar* of the shrine hears a voice from the tomb or the cattle get frightened at night and run away, in either of which cases it is expected that they will recover. In the Ubha the following *mantar* is used in cases of foot and mouth disease:—

*Suranjít de tre bete Dar, Dathar, Buhárá,
Biwi Báí de páp dubban je dhan wich kare pasárá.*

“Suranjít had three sons, Dar, Dathar and Buhárá. The sins of Biwi Báí shall sink her down (*i.e.*, she will be annihilated) if she lives at all in this world.” In the Lamma this disease is called *muhárá* and to cure it the shrine of Jetha Bhutta is much resorted to. If grass does not agree with the cattle the following *mantar* is recited 7 or 11 times and the *mullah* blows into each animal's ear:—

*Kálá paththá pabbar wannán,
Zimín wich hik salú upanuán,
Ná kar paththá edá mánán;
Main lhi teri zát pichhánvin.
Ant nagri, ant gor,
Mare paththá te jíwe dhor.*

If a young tree is peculiarly flourishing or vigorous, it is dedicated to a *pír* or even called after his name, and offerings are made to it. Villagers often visit such a tree in small groups. Gradually the tree is supposed to be the saint himself and to distinguish it a flag is fastened to it. The *pír* chosen in such cases is the one most implicitly believed in by the villagers.

The five days during which the moon remains in Kumbh (Aquarius) and Min (Pisces) are termed *panjak* (from *panj*, 5). Among the Hindús, if a person dies in the *panjak*, the following ceremony is performed:—As many dolls are made of cloth or of the *darabh* or *dabh* grass as there are days remaining in the *panjak*. These are placed in the coffin along with the dead body, and burnt with it. For instance, if a person dies on the 2nd day of the *panjak*, three dolls, and if on the 3rd, two dolls are made,

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Population.

Charms for
crops and
cattle.

The Panjak.

CHAP. I, C. and burnt with the corpse. The belief is that, if this be not done, as many members of the family will die as there are days left in the *panjak* period. The body of a person dying during a *panjak* is not taken out of the house by the door, but a big hole is made in the wall over the door and through it the body is taken out. The Hindu women wear ornaments on the *panjak* dates, the idea being that they will get as many more ornaments as there remain days before the expiry of the *panjak*.

Population.

The Panjak.

Some Muhammadans in villages believe in the *panjak*, but according to them, a person dying in the first or last five days of a lunar month is said to have died in the *panjakān*, and the belief is that five or seven members of the family must then die. The following measures are taken to avert this calamity :—

- (1). While carrying the coffin they sprinkle mustard-seed on the road to the graveyard.
- (2). Blue *pothas* (*potha* are small beads used by girls for decorating dolls) are put into the mouth of the deceased.
- (3). A piece of the *ak* plant is buried with the body.
- (4). After the body is buried, an iron peg is driven into the ground outside the grave towards the deceased's head.

If a person dies during the *panjak* and his relations, being aware of the *panjak*, omit the above ceremonies at his funeral, and deaths ensue in the family, the relations exhume the body. Ignorant people believe that the deceased will by then have grown long teeth and be seen eating his shroud. Some cut off the head from the corpses, while others think it sufficient to drive a nail into the skull. This superstition is only prevalent among a few Muhammadan Jats in the villages—not among Muhammadans generally.

Council of
three un-
lucky.

For three persons to act together as a council or committee is unlucky. *Trehon janiān di majlis khoti*; i.e., a committee consisting of three members is unlucky (lit. counterfeit).

THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION.

The Christian
religion.

The number of Christians in the State in 1901 was only 83, of whom 6 were natives and the remainder Europeans and Eurasians. There is a Mission School in Bahawalpur administered by the Church Mission Society, Multān, and a yearly grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,200 is made towards its maintenance by the State.

OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.

Full particulars of the occupations of the inhabitants of the State will be found in Table XVII, Part B. More than three-fourths of the people (77 per cent.) depend for their livelihood on agriculture, and no other occupation calls for any special remark.

The statement below gives the recognized divisions of time among Hindús and Muhammadans, with a brief account of the duties performed at each of them :—

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Population.

Divisions of time.

Hindús.	Muhammadans.	REMARKS.
1. <i>Bharbhat-wela</i> .—(Hindús go to a river or temple.)	<i>Subh-Kásib</i> (or false dawn, also called <i>ashúr-wela</i>). Muhammadans eat <i>sahri</i> (food) before the false dawn during the Ramazán fasts, and some repeat the <i>tahajjud</i> prayers. Travellers start on a journey.	Before the true dawn.
2. <i>Poh-phutdi</i> .—Hindús go to their shops.	<i>Para-phutdi</i> .—Muhammadan <i>samindáras</i> begin ploughing.	The true dawn. It is called <i>bhabhdák</i> in the Ubbha.
3. <i>Waddé-wela</i>	<i>Subán</i> (<i>subha</i>), <i>namáz-wela</i> or <i>fajr</i> (1).	Morning.
4. <i>Kándán dehún charhid</i> .—When the sun (<i>dehún</i>) is as high as the <i>kándán</i> or <i>sirkanda</i> grass, i.e., 1½ yards in height.	<i>Kándán dehún charhid</i> ...	Used in the Lamma generally by the villagers.
5. <i>Dokándén dehún charhid</i> ...	<i>Dokándén dehún charhid</i> ...	The time when the sun is two <i>kándáns</i> high.
6. <i>Pahar dehún charhid</i> ...	<i>Pahar dehún charhid</i> ...	One <i>pahar</i> (or three hours) after sunrise.
7.	<i>Sehli dehún charhid</i> ...	<i>Sehli</i> means a camel's nose-string, hence the time when the sun is as high as the length of a nose-string of the camel.
8. <i>Chhdh-wela</i>	<i>Chhdh-wela</i>	Used in the Ubbha. The people eat stale bread with <i>lassi</i> .
9. <i>Kuláhar</i>	<i>Kuldhar</i>	A little before noon.
10. <i>Peshi</i>	<i>Peshán</i> or <i>sohar</i> (<i>suhr</i>) ...	The <i>suhr</i> prayers are said between 1 p.m. and 3 p.m.
11. <i>Digar-wela</i>	<i>Asar-wela</i>	The <i>asar</i> prayers are performed from 4 p.m. to 5-30 p.m. In summer the <i>asar</i> is said before sunset.
12. <i>Tarkaldán-wela</i> .—Hindús usually say <i>Tarkaldán thigai</i> (2) <i>díwa nahín balid</i> . Evening (<i>tarkaldán</i>) has come and the lamp is not yet lighted.	<i>Senk</i> or <i>shám</i> or <i>maghrab-wela</i> or <i>nimshám</i> .	Muhammadans perform the <i>maghríb</i> prayers, (<i>maghríb</i> sunset).
13. <i>Sanjón-wela</i>	<i>Kuftán-wela</i> or <i>Isha-wela</i> ...	Muhammadans perform the <i>isha</i> (the fifth prayer) in the evening after dark up to 11 o'clock at night.
14. <i>Bamb-wela</i>	Prior to 1866 there was a lofty tower in the Police Station of Baháwalpur, and on top of this a drum (<i>bamb</i>) was beaten at 9 and 11 p.m. and at midnight. After the beat of the drum the sentinels mounted guard. These hours were termed <i>bamb-wela</i> , and old people still call them by that name.

(1) *Bái fajar*=to-morrow morning.

(2) *Thi*=ho,

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	Hindús.	Muhammadans.	REMARKS.
Divisions of time.			
15.	<i>Pahar rdt gai</i>	<i>Pahar rdt gai</i>	Three hours after the evening.
16.	<i>Adh-rdt</i>	<i>Adhi-rdt</i>	Mid-night.
17.	<i>Sotá</i>	<i>Kunj-chhor-iceld</i>	<i>Kunj</i> means trouser-string. Hence <i>kunj-chhor-iceld</i> is the time when people undress. <i>Sotá</i> is used in the Lamma. Generally used in villages.
18.	<i>Pahar rdt rahndi</i> .—Literally when one watch (<i>yahar</i>) of the night remains.	<i>Pahar rdt rahndi</i>	

The following phrases also are commonly used.—*Sij jiúndá*, a translation of the Arabic phrase '*Ashshamsu hayyatun*' which denotes the time when the sun has not fully set (i.e., twilight). *Choti te sijj*, when the sun is in its zenith (literally above the top-knot), i.e., noon. *Pachchán*, 'to-night', e.g., *Pachchán-ási*, 'will come to-night' (*ási*=*avegá*). '*Jumarát kadán?*' *Pachchán* is a proverb which is used when a man is extremely anxious to find out something to make him understand that the thing which he is so eager to know will be revealed soon. (The phrase literally means 'When is *jumarát*? 'To-night').

FOOD.

Food.

Two ⁽¹⁾ regular meals are usually taken, one at noon and the second at *ishá* or after sunset. In the hot weather wheaten bread with whey (*lassi*) is eaten at noon and bread and milk (*khír*) at night. If the supply of wheat holds out bread is made of it all the year round, but if it run short *jawár* or *bájri* flour is used instead. But little maize (*makki*) is grown in Baháwalpur and there is a prejudice against the bread made of its flour. Bread with *lassi* or *khír* is essentially the staple food of the Jats, especially in the Ubbha. Pulses and vegetables are also eaten now and then, but chiefly in the cold season when turnips, radishes, mustard, &c., are plentiful. Delicacies include *dhoda* ⁽²⁾ *ság*, or *dál*, and these are also eaten by townspeople and persons of the upper classes, the *dhoda* being made of *bájri* flour. Villagers also eat *dál* or gram and *másh* mixed, pumpkins (*kaddu*, *tori*), and colocynths (*karela*), which all grow in abundance. *Chopri-roti* or bread spread with *ghi* is only eaten by the well-to-do, while the addition of sugar makes a food of surpassing richness:—

Jo kare shakkar te gheo,

Nán kare mán te nán kare peo.

"What sugar and *ghi* can do, can be done by neither mother nor father." Rice is grown in several parts of the Lamma and from it *sáriándá dhoda* or rice-bread is made. Fish too abound in the Khánpur and Sádiqábád iláqas and are much eaten by the Muham-

(1) The leavings of the evening meal are eaten at sunrise next day with *lassi*, as a breakfast, called *kánjhál* (supporter of the heart), *nihár*, *nirón*, *nirnihár*, or, *chháuvela* (teatime). Parched gram also is generally eaten in the afternoon.

(2) *Dhoda* is also eaten with onions (*wasal*, from the Arabic *basal*).

madans, especially in the winter months. A Lamma host will say: *CHAP. I, C.*
"māni machhi hāzir he," "loaves and fishes are ready," but a host
 in the Ubbha says, *"dāl sāg or dhoda sāj hāzir he,"* i.e., "pulse
 and vegetables or bread and greens are ready". In the Lamma
 the date (*pind*) is an important article of food, and there is a special
 name, *khajji-di-fasl*, for the date-harvest. The people remain in
 the palm-groves for days together during this harvest in the hot
 season, subsisting on the fresh fruit, and in the winter dry dates
 are eaten. Meat is only used on festive occasions. *Population.*
Food.

Tobacco is very commonly used, especially by the Jats and other cultivators. By villagers, especially Hindús, dry *kakkar* or *Kandhári* tobacco is used, while townspeople smoke *guráku*, or tobacco mixed with treacle, *rāb*. Snuff is also used in the Lamma. The older villagers eat opium and some 20 per cent. of the people drink *bhāng*, but the use of drugs is mainly confined to the wealthier landowners and is rare among the poorer cultivating classes. The Wattús and Joiyas of Minchinábád Tahsil abstain entirely from opium, though across the Sutlej their neighbours in Montgomery are great consumers of the drug. The Muhammadans of all classes abstain from liquor, the use of which is confined to the Hindús.

The Revenue Officers of the State in consultation with the landholders have made the following estimate for food consumption :

One man in one day consumes :—

Flour	... $\frac{3}{32}$ to $\frac{9}{4}$ <i>ser.</i>	Lassi or milk	... from 1 to 2 <i>ser.</i>
Pulse	... 2 <i>chhitáks</i> (or <i>sháraks</i>).	Salt	... 9 <i>māshas</i> (or $\frac{3}{4}$ of a <i>toldá</i>).
Ghi	... $\frac{1}{16}$ <i>chhiták</i> .	Red pepper	... 6 " (or $\frac{1}{2}$ <i>tola</i>).
		Vegetables and miscellaneous.	

Calculated on this basis the yearly expenditure of a man works out thus—

Article of food.	Required daily.	Required for year.	Rate per rupee, in sera.	Total annual expenditure.
Flour	$\frac{1}{2}$ sera	6 maunda and 34 sera.	18 sera per rupee.	Rs. 15 3 7
Pulse	2 chhitka	1 maund and 6 sera.	15 sera.	3 1 0
Lassi or milk	1 ser	9 maunda and 5 sera.	16 sera.	21 9 0
Ghi	$\frac{1}{2}$ chhitka	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ sera.	2 sera.	5 11 0
Salt	9 mdahas	Approximately 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ sera.	9 sera.	0 5 0
Red pepper	"	"	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ "	0 8 0
Vegetables	"	"	"	0 12 0
Gur, shakkar, parched gram, &c. ...	"	"	"	4 0 0
Total	"	"	"	51 1 7

CHAP. I, C.

Population.
Cost of
living.

This gives a monthly expenditure for a man in average circumstances of Rs. 4-4-1, but a poor man of course spends less, and women and children naturally require less food. Fuel is not included in this estimate as all that is required is obtained without cost, cow-dung being largely used in some parts of the State, for instance, in the Cholistán Tahsíl.

DRESS.

Men's dress.

The head-dress of a Muhammadan in the towns usually consists of a *patka* or turban made of *khásá* or *malmal* (muslin) from 10 to 15 or even 20 yards in length. Indeed it is often said, though with some exaggeration, that turbans two *tháns* or 40 yards in length are worn. The turban is twisted like a rope before it is put on, and this is the fashionable head-dress, the *shamlá* (or tail of the turban) being very short. Some people wear a *chaukanni* or peaked *topi* or *top* (cotton cap) under it, whether it be the hot or cold season. The turban is worn in this manner by the Dáúdpotrás, Baloches, Patháns, Sayyids and Quraishis and by the Joiya, Wattú, Dáhr, Lár and other *Jats*. Ordinary Kirárs wear a cap of linen (*lathá*) *khadar*, muslin or *khása*, but the so-called *Mahtás*, who live in the towns and who are wealthier, have a kind of head-dress called *pagri*, which looks at a distance like a Pársi cap. It is only from 5 to 9 yards in length and is tied in a peculiar way. Muhammadans in villages when buying cloth for a turban are careful to the length, and must purchase an odd number, 9, 11, 13, or 15 yards, of material. In the Lamma, especially in Khánpur and Sádiqábád *iláqas*, the Cháchránwáli *topi*, or hat, is worn by many Muhammadans, mostly by the followers of Khwája Ghulám Faríd, the late Sajjád-nashín of Cháchrán and Pír of the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV. This hat is made of calico or some richer material thickly quilted with cotton. It is about 15 inches high and shaped like the dome of a mosque. The weight is nearly a *ser*. In the Ahmadpur and Baháwalpur *Tahsils* the Diláwari or Deráwari *topi* is often worn. It is circular in shape with a flat top and is richly embroidered. But in the hot season Muhammadans in the towns wear caps of *doria*, *jáli*, *tálátain*, muslin or other fine stuffs. These caps are made long so as to confine the hair and fall over in a fold, *chanda*, on one side, and young men wear them with a border of gold or silver lace. In the villages Muhammadans wear hats of cotton, shaped like the Cháchráni hat, and a twisted turban. In the Ubbha a young peasant does not wear a *patka* till he is 20 years of age, and until recently a youth was not allowed to wear it unless he had committed a theft and succeeded in escaping detection. In the towns both Muhammdans and Hindús wear the *chola* or *kurta*. Villagers wear nothing but an *angrakha*, here called the *chola*, leaving the chest and abdomen exposed. Hence in the cold season fires are lighted in the *dálán*, in which a square pit is dug and lined with bricks, for warmth in the mornings and evenings.

Muhammadian women usually wear a *ghagra* (long flowing petticoat), a *chola* (bodice) and a *bochan* or *dopatta* (scarf). In the Ubbha, however, the *majhla* (cloth tied round the waist) and *choli* (small bodice covering the breasts in front only) are more common. In the Lamma, the *suthan* (trousers) is worn by women of Baloch tribes. Hindu women usually wear the *chola*, *ghagra* and *bochan*, or else the *suthan* with a *ghagra* over it. Their clothes are generally of more expensive material than those of Muhammadian women. They wear much more jewellery too, the *Kiraris* of the Lamma being specially remarkable for the size of their *karis* (ankle ornaments), which often weigh several seers. Muhammadian women can afford, as a rule, few ornaments, and these frequently consist merely of silken threads (*tukmas*) and necklaces made of rupees strung together (*duāen* or *hamail*).

CHAP. I, C.
Population.
Women's
dress.

In the Ubbha the *kannewāli* shoe, which is made in two parts sewn together under the hollow of the foot, is worn. In the Lamma are several kinds, e.g., *sādi*, *bandti*, i.e., of broadcloth, *Reshami-būtewāli*, *kalābattu-wāli*, and *chau-goshi*. Of these, the *sādi* or plain may be either *ultāwin* or *magziwāli* (or *zih-wāli*); the second is an embroidered shoe, and may be *chau-goshi* or *derh-beli*; the third is worked with silk thread covered with gold or silver in five patterns,—(1) *Gul-wāli* (or having one flower only), (2) *Sarā-wāli* (or having cypress), (3) *Sat-gulli* (or having 7 flowers), (4) *Derh-beli* (or having 1½ *bel*: *bel* means a creeping plant, here therefore metaphorically means flowers worked on a shoe), and (5) *chau-hāshi*.

Shoes.

The Bahawalpuris are distinguished, like the people of the South-West Punjab in general, by their long hair called *chūne*, and the Baloches and Māchhis (of Fatehpur-Māchka) consider it a disgrace to cut the hair. Curly hair, *vingre chūne*, is considered a beauty, and the longer it is the more it is prized, especially in the Lamma. Of late the State officials have begun to dislike wearing their hair long, owing to the Nawāb being averse to the old fashion, and not a single *Durbāri* can consequently be now seen wearing long hair.

The hair.

The whole body, but more especially the head, is constantly oiled, and there is a class of men who are experts in rubbing oil on the body and make their living in this way. It is thought that in such a dry climate the head must be kept oiled to prevent head-aches, and so the oil is rubbed on to the forehead, into the orifices of the ears, and on the neck and shoulders. In the cold season the body is rubbed with oil in the evening and a bath is taken next morning. In order to get rid of the oil, which permeates the clothes, a kind of yellow ochre, *met* or *Multāni* earth, is used, and the proverb runs:—

Tel Pana.

Az barāe talb-i-siflá, siflá rá báýad farist,

Khák chún dar sar fitad az khák mi-áyad burún.

“Set a mean person to catch one who is mean, for when dust falls on the head, it only comes off with dust.” After bathing

CHAP. I, C.
Population.

Tel. Pana.

young men, both Hindús and Muhammadans push the hair back and upwards, in order to make it curl, and scented oil is often used, though in the villages the common mustard oil, *ussún* or *tárámíra*, is used with the idea that an oil which does not cause a burning sensation is worthless. Such is the importance attached to the use of oil that a bridegroom has to promise the bride a fixed allowance, called *tel-met*, for her purchases of oil and earth. And when there are illuminations at the capital of the State the Jats steal the oil from the lamps with the remark '*sarkáron tel mile tán jutti wich pá ghinnien*, i. e., if oil can be got from the State it should be taken home somehow, even in one's shoes.

DWELLINGS.

Dwellings :
Muhamma-
dans.

The houses of even well-to-do Muhammadans are generally *kacha*, rarely *pakka*. Those belonging to the better classes usually have a *deorhi* or entrance room opening into a walled passage which bars the direct way into the *sahn* or courtyard, thus securing its privacy. Crossing the courtyard the main building is reached. This consists of a verandah, *dalán* or hall, and two *kothis* or apartments, one on each side of the latter. Behind is a yard or open space (*galli*) fenced by a high wall. This yard as a rule faces the south in order to give a free passage into the house of the south wind which generally blows in Bahawalpur. The houses of the poorer Muhammadans in towns are similarly built, except that they are usually made without the *deorhi* and the *galli*. As a rule they are all *kacha* and frequently tumble down on the rare occasions when heavy rain falls in the State. In the villages the houses of Muhammadans are generally merely huts made of *káná* reeds and are called *sahal* or *sahl khassi*.

Dwellings :
Hindus.

The Kirar class generally live in *paka* houses of several stories, but the rooms are mostly low, narrow and ill-ventilated. The poorer Hindús nearly always live in *kacha* houses of mud, rarely in reed huts.

Furniture
and utensils.

The ordinary furniture of the average houses consists of a *kira* or *parcha* (a piece of matting for sitting on made of *káná* reeds), some *khats* or *manjis* (charpois), *savhars* (quilts), and *gindi* (matting), a *tamálu* or *badhna* (kettle), a *káti* or *chhuri* (knife), a *tong* or *pitár* (a circular basket for holding clothes), a *pingha* (swing) for the children, a *punhgúra* (cradle) and a *ghaloti* (large earthen bin for holding grain). Hindús generally possess as well a *dol* (bucket), a *gágar* (pitcher of brass), a *waltoha* or *waltohi* (a large brass jar), *gadwá* or *gadwi* (a small brass jar) and a *karháí* (an iron pan). In addition the utensils in an ordinary house would comprise a *dhákván*, a large basin with a cover, one or two bowls, called *chhanna* in the Ubbha and *mungar* in the Lamma, and an iron pan or *tawa*. The earthen-ware would include several pitchers, *dillas*, cooking pots, *hándis*, and a *cháti* or large pitcher used for curdling milk, or for churning. Cows are milked into a *doháwa* or *dola*, in

which milk is also curdled. In the Lamma this is called a *matti*. CHAP. I, C.
 Grain is kept in a large jar, or *jhallar*, or a small one, *jhānwala*, Population.
 and flour in a *matka*, while dough is kneaded in a *kunāli*. Wooden
 utensils are the *doi* or ladle, *gharā-wanj* or stand for the water Furniture
 pitchers, *madhāni* or churning stick, *mandhnā* or mortar for grinding and utensils.
 pulse, *kanwa* or vessel in which whey (*lassi*) is drunk, *ukli*, mortar,
 and *mohla*, pestle. The *tagnā*, a hanging rack for the earthen-ware,
 is made of rope. *Amām-dasti* is a small pestle and mortar for spices.
 All the above articles would cost Rs. 15, or Rs. 30 at the most.

FUNERAL CEREMONIES.

After the funeral the brother or other near kinsman of the Funeral
 deceased gives a supper to the bereaved family, which is called ceremonies:
 “*kaure watte di roti*,” “*mundar chor*,” or “*mūnh chhor*.” In Muhamma-
 the deceased's house fire is not kindled (for cooking purposes) dans.
 for three days. On the third day the ceremony of “*Qulkhāni*”
 is performed, i.e., verses of the Qurān are recited for the benefit of
 the deceased's soul, and a new dress is made and given away in charity
 in his name. If the deceased was a female some ornaments are also
 given. On this same day the lawful heir has to put on a *dastār* or
 turban, and his friends and relations give him one or two rupees
 each. This is called “*pag (turban) da rupia*.” Verses of the Qurān
 are usually recited on the seven subsequent Thursdays. The *chaliḥā*,
 the feast given on the 40th day after death for the benefit of the
 deceased's soul, is customary only in the Ubbha and not in the Lamma.
 Bread is given daily for 40 days in alms, and every evening a
 small *khumra* or goblet of *sharbat* and a loaf with *ghi* and sugar on it
 are sent to the *mullah's* house, but it is essential that they should
 reach it before sunset. This is called “*sijj-karakka*,” and the
 woman who first cooks it must continue cooking it for the whole
 40 days. In the Ubbha the people also observe the *ikihā*, which is a
 feast given to the brotherhood on the 21st day after the death.

If a child of less than six months dies it is buried under a tree, Funeral
 and a cup of water is put beside the grave at its head. A child over ceremonies:
 six months but under five years of age is buried or thrown into a Hindue.
 river. Persons more than five years old are burnt, the bones being
 thrown into the Ganges and the ashes into running water. Those
 who cannot afford to go to the Ganges cast both bones and ashes
 into the Ghārá or Indus. When a man's body is burnt all his sons
 shave the head, moustaches and eyebrows, and the eldest son
 performs the *kiryā karm*. The family in which a death has taken
 place is held to be impure for 13 days, and other Hindús do not eat
 or drink with any of its members. The impurity extends to all the
 descendants of the common ancestor for five generations. After
 the 13 days the members of the family remove this impurity by
 bathing, by washing their clothes or putting on new ones, and by
 re-plastering their houses. A person affected by the *bhit* or
 impurity is called *bhittal*.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

Death super-
stitions
among Hin-
dus.

When a Hindu child dies its mother takes hold of its shroud and pulls it towards her, in order that she may thereby get another child instead of the deceased. After burying a child the relations bring leaves of vegetables (*sāg*) and put them in the lap of the mother, with the idea that she may continue fertile and get another child. If a child aged 4 to 6 years who has a younger brother dies, the parents take a red thread, touch the body with it and then fasten it round the leg of the younger boy, and it is not removed until he has passed the age at which his elder brother died. This thread is called *lākh*. When an old man dies leaving grandsons and great-grandsons his relations throw silver flowers (shaped like *chamba* flowers) over his coffin. People take these flowers and put them round the necks of their children, hoping that they by wearing the flowers may live as long as the deceased did. If the husband of a young girl dies his ashes are wrapped in a cloth which is put round the widow's neck in the belief that she will pass the remainder of her life in patience and resignation. If an infant, whose parents are greatly attached to him, dies and another child is subsequently born to them they are careful not to make any show of affection for it. Thus if on the occasion of the deceased child's birth they distributed *gur* or sweetmeats they now distribute onions instead.

AMUSEMENTS AND FESTIVALS.

Amusements
and festivals.

Fairs: Mu-
hammadan.

Amusements in the State may be treated under four heads: (1) fairs; (2) sports and games; (3) children's games; and (4) miscellaneous amusements. As regards the first Muhammadans have no fairs except the Urs or semi-religious ceremonies observed at the shrines of deceased *pīrs*. A list of these is given below:—

LIST OF THE MUHAMMADAN RELIGIOUS FAIRS OF THE BAHAWALPUR STATE.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Name of <i>Idga</i> .	Name of fair.	Where held.	Why held.	Date.	Duration of Fair.	Estimated attendance.	REMARKS.
Mitchinabad	...	Kasimko or Sadikpur.	Pleasure fair	10th to 12th Sudi Chet.	3 days	5,000	Pir Muhammad, a Baloch, was alive in 1837 when Shah Shuja and the British Army passed through Bahawalpur territory towards Kabul. The Shah is said to have paid his respects to the Pir, and begged him to pray for the victory of his arms in Afghanistan. Camels are very largely sold at this fair. The first mela was held in 1873.
"	Rausan Din, Nau-shahi.	Gauspur	In honour of the shrine.	14th Sudi Chet	One day	3,000	After attending the Pir Khalis fair the people forthwith gather in a body at this shrine.
Khairpur	Shaikh Wahan	Shaikh Wahan	To show the <i>jubba</i> or coat of the Prophet.	9th Zilhijj	One day	8,000	See <i>jubba</i> of Shaikh Wahan (Religious Life).
"	Urs of Khwaja Nur Muhammad Sahib.	Chishtian	To celebrate the <i>urs</i> or anniversary of the holy Khwaja.	1st to 3rd Zilhijj	3 days	5,000 to 7,000	In certain years there is an immense attendance. See Religious Life.
"	Urs of Shaikh Elahi Sahib.	Mari Shaikh Shah	To celebrate the anniversary.	13th to 15th Rajab	3 days	Nearly 2,000	See Religious Life.
Bahawalpur	Garib Shah and Chhatau Lal.	Village Gaddan	In honor of the shrines.	Begins on 15th Sudi Har.	3 days	Nearly 2,000	The fair is common to both the shrines on account of their contiguity.

CHAP. I, C.
Population.

Fairs: Muhammadan.

CHAP. I, C.

Population.

Fairs: Muhammadan.

LIST OF THE MUHAMMADAN RELIGIOUS FAIRS OF THE BAHAWALPUR STATE—CONCLUDED.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Name of <i>ildoga</i> .	Name of fair.	Where held.	Why held.	Date.	Duration of Fair.	Estimated attendance.	REMARKS.
Bahawalpur	Sakhib-us-Sair	Goth Bakhsa or Khankah Sharif.	To celebrate the <i>urs</i> .	5th to 7th Rabi-us-Sani.	3 days	8,000	Two miles from Samasata station.
"	Sambat	Bahawalpur	To enjoy the Sambat or new year's day.	On any date when the Sambat is.	3 or 4 nights	3,000	A purely Hindu fair. For details see Amusements.
"	Zahir Pir*	Maman Wahan, 3 miles to the east of Bahawalpur.	To obtain the blessings of the Pir.	Every Friday	...	1,000	...
Abmadpur	Sher Shah Sayyid Jalal.	Uch	<i>Urs</i> and a general fair.	Last week of the month of Chet.	Nearly a week.	50,000	See Religious Life.
Khanpur	Jetha Bhutta	Tallawala	In honor of the shrine.	First 3 Sundays of Chet.	3 days	4,000	See Religious Life.
"	Shaikh Abd-us-Sattar.	At shrine near Garhi Ikhtiyar Khan.	In honor of the shrine.	First three Mondays of Chet. On each Monday.	3 days	4,500	See Religious Life.
Sadikabad	Pir Wali Muhammad Sultan.	Badli	In honor of the shrine.	Each Monday and Friday in the month of Chet.	Altogether 8 days.	5,000	...
"	Pir Musin Nawab	Sanjarpur	In honor of the shrine. Also a general pleasure fair.	On first Thursday and Monday in Chet.	2 days	5,000	Wrestling matches and tent-pegging also take place.

* In February, 1902, a Ját, believed to be an impostor, gave out that a holy saint had appeared before him in a dream and said that his tomb was buried underneath a sand-hill near a mound at *Maman Wahan*. The Ját went to the spot, and on removing the sands it was found that a *pekka* tomb of a Pir was there. In a few days the tomb became the favourable resort of men and women, adults and children, both Hindu and Muhammadan. Note.—Other fairs on a smaller scale are also held at Pir Khali, Khairpur, Jhandani, Garhi Ikhtiyar Khan, Shidani, Khan Bela and Bahawalpur.

The Hindús of the towns hold fairs on their festive occasions such as, Bisákhi, Dusehra, Sambat, etc. In the country similar fairs are held at these times but on a smaller scale. Those celebrated at the capital of the State are alone worthy of mention. These fairs take place principally by night, the common reason given for this being that it is only in the night that the Hindus can spare leisure from their mercantile pursuits. *Denh kon hattí, rát kon mela* (shop-keeping by day, sport by night) is a well-known proverb to illustrate this. The principal Hindú fairs are : (1) The *Puranmáshí*, held on the 31st day of Kattik, to celebrate the last day of the Hindús' year ; (2) The *Bisákhi* is held on 1st Chét to celebrate the new year ; (3) The *Sambat* to celebrate the 1st day of the Vikarmaditya year ; (4) The *Játra Bij*, held on the first Friday after the Holi festival, to celebrate the birthday of the Darya Sahib (or Darya Devta) ; (5) The *Nand Lál Akádshí*, held in Jeth or Hár ; (6) The *Pardakhanán*, held nine days after the Dewáli festival ; (7) The *Gop Ashtmi*, held one day before the *Pardakhanán* and devoted to kine worship ; (8) The *Sukhrám Dás Thakkar*, held on the last Sunday of Sáwan and again on the Sunday after the Dewáli, at the tomb of Sukhrám Dás, Thakkar, near Baháwalpur ; (9) The *Dharmasál Sewa Panthi*, held on the last Friday of Sáwan ; (10) The *Narsingh Chaudas*, held in the sarai Bhabhran on the 14th of Jeth, in honour of Harnákash and Narsinghji ; and (11) The *Ram Naumi* on the 9th of Chét to celebrate the birth of Rájá Rám Chandar.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

Fairs:
Hindu.

The principal sports and games of the State are :—(1) Wrestling ; (2) *Shatranj* or chess ; (3) *Chaupat* or *Chaupar* (a game played with dice) ; (4) *Tásh* (playing-cards) ; (5) *Ikki-pur* (a gambling game played with cowries) ; (6) *Kabutar bázi*, rearing or keeping sporting pigeons with which contests are held, the owners trying to entice away each other's pigeons ; (7) *Jatáme* (or *mirhon*), *da shikár* or pig-baiting ; (8) *Nali pagran* (nali, a wrist, and pagran, to hold) ; (9) *Mallhan* (a kind of wrestling in which the performers try to pull their rivals to the ground by tugging cloths wrapped round their waists) ; (10) *Danda pagran* (*danda*, a club), a game in which two sit facing each other holding a club between their feet, and each tries to wrest the club by pulling it with his hands ; (11) *Panja pagran* (*panja* the hand and five fingers), a game played by interlocking of fingers ; (12) *Kaud-kabaddi*, the well-known game of the Punjab, deriving its name from the two words uttered by the players when playing it ; (13) *Warya*, a game like the English "prisoners' base" ; (14) Horse-racing ; and (15) *Saunchi*, the universal Punjabi game : it is played in the State by the people of the Ubha.

Sports and
games.

The principal games of children are :—(1) Cricket and football, played by students of the State schools ; (2) *Guddi urána*, kite-flying ; (3) *Detidanda* or *gull danda*, or tip-cat ; (4) *Goli* or *chidde*, played with small balls (generally coloured) of wood (*chidde*), or with marbles

Games of
children.

CHAP. I, C. (goli); (5) *Gerian* or *Gedian*, played with small pieces of wood; (6) *Khalle-jhup*, a game like "rounders", played with a shoe by boys riding on each other's backs; and (7) *Mundrpata*, a game played within a circle drawn on the ground with four spaces marked off inside it: a boy with a whip pursues the other players, who, in avoiding his blows, must not cross these spaces.

Games of children.

Miscellaneous amusements.

The principal miscellaneous amusements are:—(1) *Sāwani-mandāna*.—Every Sunday in the month of Sāwan the Hindús of Bahāwalpur assemble on the banks of canals and there bathe and feast and make merry. Similarly, on the Fridays of the same months the Muhammadans gather at the canals and bathe and feast. This is called *Sāwani-mandāna*. A similar celebration takes place after a shower of rain during the monsoon: (2) *Jhūmar*, a kind of dancing performed on marriage and other joyful occasions by rings of men (*jhumar mardāwān*), or of women (*jhumar zalāwān*), or of both (*jhumar rālāwān*). It has various forms, such as *sādi*, *sākianwali* or *Ohhej*, *bithāwān*, *sidhi* and *pherwān*: (3) *Dhamāl*, a singing and dancing game, common in Minchinabad only: (4) *Chāndni dā gāwan*, singing of songs in the open air on moonlight nights by girls of the Ubha villages: (5) *Bujhārat*, asking and solving riddles by the village girls in their houses by night.

NAMES AND TITLES.

Ordinary names

The names of Muhammadans generally begin with *Muhammad* or *Gulām* and end in *Khan* or *Bakhsh*. The names are mostly those of the saints in whom the people believe, e.g., *Pir Bakhsh*, *Ghulām Fakhr*, *Gulām Farid*, &c. As a distinction in social status a Daūdputra and a Pathan are called *Khan*. The Keh-rāni scion of the Daūdputra clan is addressed as *Wadera* (big person). A Baloch or a Māchhī rāis is called a *Sardar*. A *Sajjāda* of a shrine is called the *Miān Sāhib* or *Hazrat Sāhib* and his collaterals *Sāhibzādas*, by which last title the relatives of the ruling chief are also addressed. The big landlords in the Lamma are called *Rais*. The Hindús have generally *Rām* or *Mall* after their names. A Hindu of ordinary status in State service is called *Lālaji*; if he reaches a high position such as that of Tahsildar or Magistrate he is called *Mahta*, and if still further advanced *Diwān*.

Noteworthy peculiarities.

The Hindu women do not call by name their husbands, mothers-in-law, elder sister-in-law (*jithāni*), elder brother-in-law (*jeth*), father-in-law and other elder members of the family of their husbands. They call them by some particular signs or by saying "father of so and so," "mother of so and so." Similarly, no Hindu woman would call by name any senior male member of family after his death. Again, no Hindu calls by name on the god Hanúman, from morning till noon. If necessary he would call him *Mahābīr*, the idea being that the god is always asleep from morning till

noon. If a child is born to a Hindú in his old age, or if all of his children have died in their infancy and another child is afterwards born, he gives a contemptuous name to the new-born infant, such as, if it is male, *Khota* (ass), *Daddú* (frog), *Tindan* (a worm in dung), *Dallá* (go-between), *Makaura* (insect), *Chúhra* (a sweeper), *Chúha* (a rat); if a female, *Ha-ni* (a doe), *Chúhri* (sweeperess), *Chiri* (a sparrow), *Billi* (a cat). Such names, it is believed, save children from the evil influence of heaven and the genii.

CHAP. I. C.

Population.

Noteworthy
peculiarities.

PROVERBS.

Hindus and Muhammadans have various proverbs against each other, thus:—A *Ját*, complaining of an exorbitant rate of usury, extorted by a *Kirár*, will say, even before a court: *Bhed mul te utth jhúnga*, i.e., the principal is a sheep and the interest a camel. About a *Kirár* who is in appearance a *bhagat* or virtuous man, but who is of a cruel disposition, it is said:—*Dand qasói, múnh bhagtái*. 'The face is of a *bhagat* and the teeth of a butcher.' Hindús remark of Muhammadan prodigality:—*Hikke te Id barát, Hikke te Jummarát*. 'They enjoy day as if it were the *Id* and night as a *barát*, when suddenly *Jummarát*' (Thursday) 'falls upon them'—Thursday being the day of general begging and charity-receiving on the part of the poor. *Kirárs* consider agriculture a troublesome occupation and say:—*Jinhán jutte khúh, sukh na sutte rúh*. 'Those who work wells do not sleep undisturbed.'

Proverbs:
Hinda and
Muhamma-
dan.

Certain tribes and occupations are in general looked down upon. Thus there is a saying about *Sunárs* and *Kaláls*:—*Áse páse wesúá tha thákar suniár, Tínon mít na kunde te bándér, báz, kalól*. 'A *thag*, *thákar* and a *sunár* like a monkey, a hawk and a *Kalál* cannot be faithful, i.e., trustworthy friends.' So, too, it is said:—*Páolí charhe shikár te Rabb kháir guzáre*. 'The weavers have gone a-hunting, may God prevent evil.' *Mulla na Qázi thaththi wasse, á murádi*. 'If no *Mulla* or *Qázi* live in a village all goes well.' *Jat kunni chat*. 'Jats lick cooking vessels.'

Proverbs
against parti-
cular persons
and tribes.

Some names are looked on in a bad light, e.g.:—*Hári, nálaig dárhi*—'*Hári* is a bad lot; *Manghú te Jivanán, kujh nahín thivanán*—'*Manghú* and *Jivanán* cannot do any task whatever; '*Tára, pakhi*. '*wára*—'*Tára Chand* is a savage; '*Sáin margeo nen te nán Nathá Senhá*—'*His master died and he began to call himself Natha Singh*; '*Bothá budde, Kuddan kudde, Khota kháve gotá*—'*Botha Rám* deserves to be drowned, *Kuddan Mal* will jump about and *Khotá Rám* will be drowned; '*Jummán, kachh-karummán*—'*Jumma* (a proper name) is like a tortoise; '*Nanún giá Multán, na onon ne, na onon án*—'*Nanún Mal* went to *Multán*, he neither took a present from this place nor brought one back; '*Aya Mián Abulkhair, múnh kála te nile pair*—'*Here comes Mián Abulkhair with a black face and blue feet*' (a curse); '*Sir te chhábre, Basante hori áe*—'*Basantá ji* is come back with an empty basket at last.'

Opprobrious
names.

The following proverb is used of a *núnh*, or—*bahú* (son's wife) who is apparently foolish but who really intends to deceive:—*Sas kolon chori áían, mánh nál marchán watá de*—'*I have stolen másh* (a kind of pulse) from my mother-in-law and want it to be exchanged for pepper (i.e., for a more precious article!). About a woman destitute of manners it is said:—*Áp kochajji wehre dho*. 'She is herself a slut and blames the courtyard; (A bad workman quarrels with his tools.) *Nit kajji te purab oghári*. 'She; always wears fine dress, but is naked on a festive day. About a woman of notorious character it is said:—*Áp howe tarakri*

Proverbs
about wome

CHAP. I, C. *kaun láwe phakri.* 'If she be of good character, who is there to blame her.' About a woman who is loved by her husband it is said:—*Shoh de man bháni, te kamli bhi síáni.* 'A woman whom her husband loves is reckoned wise though she may be a mere fool.' About a woman whose husband is not pleased with her but who demands favours from him it is said:—(a) *Mián mính ná láe, bíbí shakar wandáe,* (or) (b) *Oh nak kappan kon phirdá he, oh akhendí he búla ghará de.* (a) 'The husband does not touch her and she is distributing sugar,' (b) 'the husband is trying to cut off her nose, and she asks him to make her a nose-ring.' It is considered wise to rule women with an iron hand, and there is a popular saying:—*Ghore kon tallá bhalló, Ran kon khallá bhallá.* 'Talla (a kind of grass) suits a horse and beating with a shoe a woman.' About a woman who is not on good terms with her husband's people it is said:—*Jende peke nere, sávarían nálkhere* (or) *Jende peke nere, perán nálkhere.* 'A woman whose parents' house is close to her husband's is always quarrelling unreasonably with his relations or is striking her foot while walking with a view to pick a quarrel. About a woman who frequently visits her parent it is said:—*Dhaindí paundi pekián de hadd.* 'Whatever may happen she must go to her parents. A woman usually treats her relations on her parents' side more indulgently than those of her husband, and there is a well-known saying:—*Áyá kunj wal dá sakká, Shatak man pakká, Áyá pag wal dá sakká, Tarak man pakká.* 'When a relation on the parent's side comes she at once cooks bread, but when one on the husband's side comes she will only cook it weeping (i.e., reluctantly).' About a bad tempered woman it is said:—*Pare dí ník máre, Kolon dí wá sáre.* 'When at a distance she displays much love, but when you get close to her even the air breathed in passing her burns.' Women are supposed to have less affection for their own kinsfolk than for strangers. Accordingly it is a popular saying:—*Apnián ná tel, práyán ná mel.* 'She is an enemy of her own relations but a friend of strangers. Women as a rule are considered to be of feeble understanding, and it is commonly said:—*Ran dí mat khuri wich.* 'A woman's wisdom is in her heels.' Speaking of the pretended mourning of women the people say:—*Ran gai siápe, dukh rove ápo ápe.* 'The woman went to condole with one and lamented the death of her own deceased relations.' A woman of good character is spoken of as the *bíbí sain* (gentle mistress), or, *Sitá rangi* (chaste like Sitá, wife of Rája Rám Chandra), but a woman of low character who pretends to be of high moral character is nicknamed the *Sitá-Sattí*. An outspoken and garrulous woman who would try to be heard without being attended to, or cared for, by those present is opprobriously styled as the *phatoka*.

Benedictions.

Generally speaking Hindús as well as Muhammadans are subtle flatterers. When meeting a person of rank they invoke blessings on him in such benedictory phrases as:—*Shálá bhalá thiwi.* 'May God bless you.' *Jind piá jícen.* 'May you live long.' *Waddí árjá thiwi.* 'May you have a long life.' *Shálá tárián jitti thiwen.* 'May you be like (prosper like) the stars.' *Jithe pair howi, uthe kheir howi.* 'May your feet be attended with welfare.' *Sohní síhat howi.* 'May you enjoy sound health.' *Jícen howen.* 'May you live long.' *Lakhen te qalam howi.* 'May your pen be over millions.' *Dushman dá wár kháli jáwi, dushman rádd howi.* 'May your enemy's attack never succeed against you and may he come to nought.' *Bachrián de shohr thiwnín.* 'May you have as many sons as may populate cities (i.e., a large number of sons).' *Shálá ghot thiwen.* 'May you become a bridegroom, i.e., may you be married.' This is addressed to youths. Addressing the Nawáb they say—*Motiánwálá Rjá*

sihat di bádsháhi howi. 'O Pearl-wearing Nawáb, may your kingdom be one of health.' CHAP. I, C.

Population.

Although everybody admits that generosity and hospitality are good qualities, yet if any one who spends more than he can afford or tries to pose as a very rich man or is self-conceited, he becomes the subject of the following sayings:—*Ghar gheo nahín te phulke shokh pakáwin.* 'He has no *ghi* in his house, but orders his wife to make the bread red in *ghi*. *Mán manjhon nangí, dhi dá nán bushká.* 'The mother has not sufficient cloth to cover her nakedness, but her daughter's name is bundle of clothes.' *Ghar na pakkan chátíán, te báhi chiman go!* In his house he has no bread to eat while he himself is walking outside in gardens. *Ghar Mochián da dhaj Pathánán dí.* 'His house is like that of a shoe-maker and he displays the pomp and magnificence of a Pathán.' *Ját dí kummi, Khwájá Khiz dí dohtrí.* 'She is a tortoise by caste and says that she is a grand-daughter of Khwájá Khizr (a sea deity, a prophet according to Muhammadans). *Ghar wich átá nahín bad hazmí dá khalal.* 'He has no flour in his house (i.e., he is too poor to afford daily bread) but complains of indigestion.' *Oh welá ná sambhá! jaden chabenda hen chholián dí dál?* 'Have you forgotten the time when you lived upon gram-pulse?' *Mán jainhdí ganj, sat ghore asbábi.* 'Her mother is bald-headed and she has seven horses laden with baggage.' *Qabr kutte dí, ghilef mashrú.* 'A dog's tomb with a silk covering.' *Akhi labbhe ná nán Chirágh Sháh.* 'He is destitute of eye-sight but his name is Chirágh Sháh (*chirágh* means a lamp.) About a person who very strictly observes *chhot* (literally touching which is considered to cause impurity) it is said:—*Ghar mochián dá, nen dharmśál.* 'The house belongs to shoe-makers and its name is *dharmśál* (a Hindu temple). Hindús strictly abstain from touching hide, &c. *Peo na mári tukkal, puttár tír andáz.* 'The father never shot a reed stalk and the son is an archer! *Jam na dháti, kaure tel.* 'Nothing good has fallen to his luck since birth, but still he boasts.'

Satirical and humorous sayings.

The people use the following proverbs about the authorities and their dealings with them:—*Sat khalle pag jhalle, Sáin pat rakhe.* 'Seven blows with shoes have been dealt to my turban, but thank God my honour is saved.' This is used of a stubborn and wilful person upon whom the penalties of the law have had no effect! *Dúdhe ná wapár, denhián ghindián Shah.* 'Have dealings with a mighty person (an officer) and you are sure to lose.' *Riyásat kiyásat.* 'Ruling is wisdom.' *Sipáhi dí agári ghore dí pichhári.* 'It is not safe to go in front of a policeman or to go to the back of a horse, for you must receive a kick.' *Jhar dí dhup gharib dí chup, gardan dí muk, súr dí gut.* 'The sunlight after the rains when clouds altogether disappear, the silence of a person oppressed by an official, a fist on the neck and the onset of a boar are too severe to be borne.' This proverb is used when a person does not meet justice. *Samán nit sáwáyá, jende karmen áyá.* 'He is the favourite of Fortune whose circumstances are favourable (i.e., is favoured by the rulers).' *Sáhibi karni te sarfá kehri.* 'The rulers cannot be niggardly.' This proverb is used to denote the prodigality of the ruling class. *Sarkári andhá.* 'The blind government official.' This proverb is used with regard to a *sipáhi* or official who is unduly severe. *Chitte kapre sálámán dí chatti.* 'Salutations are made to the authorities, but all such respect is fruitless.' This is used when an officer does not listen to the repeated solicitations of a candidate for service. *Yathá Rájá, tathá parjá* (Like master, like man). 'The subjects are the followers of their rulers.' *Phiphar na gosht, Dasht na Baloch, hákim na dōst.* 'The lungs are not flesh, Dashti is not Baloch, so a ruler

Proverbs about Government officials.

CHAP. I. C.
Population.Proverbs
about Gov-
ernment
officials.

is no body's friend. This proverb is used to denote the infidelity of the authorities. *Kandhi te wasna, te Khwáje nál wair.* 'While living on the bank of a river it is not proper to be inimical to Khwája Khizr.⁽¹⁾ This proverb is used to preach the idea of keeping friendship with Government officers. *Pad piádá te pallá tñon na karye ranj, je hik kon morie phir ke áwan panj.* 'Do not feel angry if a peon or grey hair appears; if you send back the peon or pluck the grey hair, mind that five others will appear. *Chor chákar, wanjára ghar áwe te jápe.* 'When the thief, the Government official and the trader return to their home safe, deem it good news.' This proverb is based on the idea that Government service is fraught with danger.

(1) According to Muhammedan mythology he is the ruler of rivers.

NOTE A.

ANCESTRY OF THE NAWABS OF BAHAWALPUR FROM FATHER TO SON.

(1) Abbás, (2) Abdulláh, (3) Alí, (4) Muhammad, (5) Abú J'afar Abdulláh Mansúr, second Caliph of Baghdád, (136—158 H.), (6) Abú Abdulláh Muhammad-al-Mahdí, 3rd Caliph (158—169 H.), (7) Abú Muhammad Músa Alhádí, 4th Caliph (169—170 H.), (8) Al-Hárún-ur-Rashíd, 5th Caliph, (170—193 H.), (9) Abú Is-háq Muhammad M'utasim, 8th Caliph, (218—227 H.), (10) Abul Fazl J'afar Almutawakkil-ala-Alláh, 10th Caliph, (232—247 H.), (11) Talha Muwaffaq, (12) Abul Abbás Ahmad Alm'utazid-billáh, 16th Caliph (279—289 H.), (13) Abul Fazl J'afar Almuqtadá-billáh, 18th Caliph (295—320 H.), (14) Abú Isháq Ibráhím Almuttaqí-billáh, 21st Caliph (329—333 H.), (15) Abul Abbás Ahmad Qádir-billáh, 25th Caliph (381—422 H.), (16) Abú J'afar Abdulláh, Qáim-bi-Amrilláh, 26th Caliph (422—467 H.), (17) Khair-ud-Dín Muhammad, (18) Abul Qásim Abdulláh Almuqtadí-bi-Amrilláh, 27th Caliph (467—487 H.), (19) Abul Abbás Ahmad, Almustazhir-billáh, 28th Caliph (487—512 H.), (20) Abú Abdulláh Muhammad Almuttaqí, 31st Caliph (530—555 H.), (21) Abul Muzáffar Yúsuf Almustanjid-billáh, 32nd Caliph (555—566 H.), (22) Abú Muhammad Alhasan, Almustafi-bi-Amrilláh, 33rd Caliph (566—575 H.), (23) Al-Abbás Ahmad Annásiri-li-dínilláh, 34th Caliph (575—622 H.), (24) Abun-nasar Muhammad-ut-Táhir, 35th Caliph (622—623), (25) Abul Qásim Ahmad Almustansir, the first Egyptian Caliph (659—660 H.), (26) Sultán Yásín, (27) Sháh Sultán Suhail, (28) Sháh Aqíl, (29) Sháh Muzammil, (30) Sultán Ahmad Sání, (31) Amír Ibban Khán, (32) Abdul Qáhir, or Káhir Khán, (33) Sikandar Khán, *alias* Sangrásí Khán, (34) Amír Fateh-ulláh Khán, *alias* Taull Khán, (35) Bahá-ullah Khán, *alias* Bhallá Khán, (36) Amír Channí Khán,⁽¹⁾ (37) Dáúd Khán I, (38) Mahmúd Khán, (39) Muhammad Khán I, (40) Dáúd Khán II, (41) Amír Chandar Khán, (42) Amír Sálíh Khán, (43) Haibut Khán, (44) Bhakhkhar Khán I, (45) Bahádur Khán I, (46) Bhakhkhar Khán II, (47) Amír Muhammad Khán II, (48) Fíroz (or Piruj) Khán, (49) Bahádur Khán II, (50) Amír Mubárák Khán I, (51) Amír Sádiq Muhammad Khán I, (52) Nawáb Fateh Khán I, (53) Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II, (54) Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán II, (55) Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III, (56) Nawáb Fateh Khán II, (57) Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV, (58) Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV, (59) Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán V, (present ruler).

(1) Channí Khán had another son, named Mahdí Khán, whose son was Kalhora, the founder of the Kalhora dynasty of Sindhián kings.

CHAPTER II.—ECONOMIC.

Section A.—Agriculture.

Three distinct zones of cultivation run parallel to one another the whole length of the State, viz., the Rohí or Cholistán, the Nahrí Cholistání, (the intermediate canal irrigated tract), and the Sindh or *daryái* (riverain). The Kharif crops in the Cholistán depend entirely on the small rainfall of July and August. They are generally sown, when the rain has permeated the soil to a depth of 24 or more *anguls* (finger-breadths), but this amount of moisture is hardly sufficient to mature them, and at least two more showers at intervals of a month or so are needed after the seedlings have sprung up, though sometimes one heavy shower will suffice. The Rohí lands are regarded as *thandí* or *sard*, i.e., cool, and have a great capacity for retaining moisture. Excepting the *dahrs*⁽¹⁾ of Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur, which are unmixed loam, they have generally a layer of sand scattered over them by hurricanes from the great Indian desert, which while facilitating the percolation of rain water to the loam below also prevents evaporation of the moisture beneath it, so much so that a heavy *aur-dá-mín* (late rain in Assún or September-October) is quite enough to ripen the Rabi in the Cholistán, where, however, the Rabi area is generally small. In Minchinábád and Khairpur, however, the Cholistán has more *ratúla* than *khíra dahr*, and this soil is extremely retentive of moisture. The *Tibba ratúlas* are damper than the level soils, and therefore produce more luxuriant crops. Between the Cholistán and the riverain tracts the Kharif crops depend mainly on inundation canals aided by rain, or where the lands are *autar*, i.e., above the level of canal irrigation, the cultivation is dependent on wells (*kuráh wáhi*). In the *nahrí*, or intermediate tract, there is an ample supply of water from the inundation canals for the Kharif. For the Rabi irrigation commences on the 20th of Sáwan and lasts until the canals cease to flow, i.e., generally till the end of October. The lands of this *hithár* (or intermediate zone) are also regarded as *thandí*; and *rej* or *rauní* (irrigation) effected in September-October will suffice to ripen the Rabi crops. Old deserted beds of the river or depressions (generally called *nashebs*, *haryáris*, *budhís*, *taráps*, *talás*, *dums*, *salúnáns*, *nawáns*, etc.,) are, however, filled with canal water, which is lifted by *jhalírs*, or Persian-wheels to high-lying lands and also spreads by capillary attraction (called *ugajj*) into the adjoining lands. The *ugajj* is greatly accelerated by a shower of rain in Bhádon or Assún when the moisture from below, added to the rain from above, gives the land a good *wáttar* (or moistening). Lands on the canal banks benefit by *ugajj* and are regarded as excellent for cultivation. The extreme *hithár* (*dhur hithár*), or riverain villages, are entirely dependent on floods (*chhal*, *sailáb*, *dhák-phissi* or *tughyání*). No Kharif harvest can be grown in

CHAP. II.A.

Agriculture

Agricultural
conditions.

(1) See soils.

CHAP. II, A.

Agriculture

Agricultural conditions.

Cultivated area.

Soils.
Ratūlā or
Gasrewālā.

Rakrā.

Tibba-
Ratūlā.Tibba-
Rakrā.

them, firstly because the floods prevent sowing altogether or else wash away any crops that may have been sown. Thus the riverain tract is *hik fasla*, i.e., bears only a Rabi crop. Villagers in the riverain tracts generally excavate *nakāses* (outlets) at suitable places within reach of the floods and connect these with natural depressions through which the water can easily find its way to the inlying (*wich-kārtī*) lands. Often *nakāses* are dug under the orders and supervision of State officials. Besides this the depressions or *phāts* which fill with water on the rise of the river are dammed with bunds and from them *nakāses* are constructed to irrigate the adjoining lands. Lands on the river bank and on the *phāts* benefit also by *ugajj*.

Of the total area cultivated in 1903-04, 928,950 acres, or nearly 94 per cent. were classed as irrigated. Of this area 130,520 acres, or 14 per cent. were irrigated by canals and wells; 8,935 acres, or nearly 1 per cent. by wells alone and 635,224 acres, or 68.39 per cent. by canals only. In addition 96,278 acres, or 10.36 per cent. were irrigated by the river floods (*sailāb*); and only 57,993 acres, or 6.24 per cent. were dependent upon rain (*bārānī*).⁽¹⁾

The Rohi soils in the Ubha are of four kinds:—(1) *Ratūlī* or *Gasrewālī*, containing two-thirds sand and one-third clay, which assumes a blackish colour after rain. The particles of sand and clay are closely intermixed. If rain falls this soil yields spontaneously the following plants:—*chhinbar* (a kind of grass), *khara-par*, *khādi*, *gorakh-pān*, *lāna*, *baphālī*, and *hazārdānī* (a plant used as a preventive of the burning sensation of the liver in gonorrhoea simplex), *chapri*, (an aphrodisiac), *braham-dandī* (often used to cure gonorrhoea), *khīr-butī* used to prepare calx of tin, *bakhra*, *bhurt*, *bhobra* and *khūb-i-kalān*. If this soil be ploughed after rain, *bājrá*, sesamum, moth, barley, *tārāmīra* or *ussūn*, mustard, water-melon, and *phut* (a kind of cucumber) can be grown in abundance. (2) *Rakrā* or *rakkar* is soil of a red colour, free from sand and almost as hard as stone. The *phesak-lānī* is the only species of grass which will grow in it. After rain this soil appears to ferment and becomes a blackish colour, but when dry it hardens again. (3) *Tibba-Ratūlā* is soil covered by hillocks of shifting sand. After the rains plants such as *lāna*, *sain*, (a kind of grass), *tummān* and *phog* grow spontaneously on it, but in the absence of rain nothing is produced. If it rains heavily, *bājrá*, moth, sesamum, cucumbers and water-melons are sown, but only yield a moderate return. (4) *Tibba-Rakrā* consists of mounds shaped like a camel's hump and resembles the red *rakrā*, being composed of hard unyielding earth. It contains no sand and nothing will grow on it. The Rohi soils of the Lamma are of three

(1) The well-irrigated area includes *chāhī-jhalāri*, and *chāhī-daryāf*.

(2) Ubha (East) is commonly used to include the Minchinābād Nizāmat, and similarly Lamma (West) for the remainder of the State, the boundary thus lying roughly near Bahawalpur town; but in common speech people often draw the line at their own places of residence.

kinds :—(a) *Dahr* which is of three qualities, namely :—*chitta* (white) *dahr*, or *khírá-dahr*, which forms a bare plain of a whitish and very hard even surface on which a horse's hoof leaves no impression. It is impossible to cultivate this soil and nothing grows in it as it does not absorb rain-water. If the water lies over it for a long time *ghongas* or shells are found in it. The upper layer of the *dahr* to the depth of half a yard is of white clay, while the second layer is red in colour. The *chitta-dahr* generally covers very large areas. The second kind of *dahr* is called the *kakrándwálá*, and is a mixture of coarse sand (*balú*) and gravel (*kankar*), as big as grains of gram, in the proportion of one-third of the former and two-thirds of the latter. While walking on it a man sinks into it ankle deep. If there is rain the *ratálánd* or *phullíwálá-lánd* plant grows in it, but nothing else. Another name for this soil is *polá-dahr*. It usually covers but small areas. *Rattá-dahr*, also called *bandh*, is the third kind of *dahr*. This *dahr* is the most common and occupies the largest areas. It consists of an upper layer of red coloured clay which extends to a depth of two feet, and a second layer of black clay. Both are soft and easily ploughed. This is the most fertile soil. The total area covered by it as compared with the areas occupied by the other Cholistáni soils is roughly as 1 to 4. If rain falls crops of wheat, barley, gram, *bájrá*, *jowár*, mustard, *ussún*, moth, sesamum, mung, *másh* and *gawdrá* can be grown in it, as may the following vegetables and fruits :—*tarbúz* or *matíra* (water-melon), *kharbúza* (or musk melon), *kakrí* (or cucumber), *chibbar*, *hinzil* or *kortummán*, *ghorewal* (a fodder for camels), and *mehra* (or *tínda*), which springs up spontaneously. During the rainy season *mehra* or *tínda* grows so abundantly in the *rattá-dahr* that the nomadic tribes generally subsist entirely on it. Of the spontaneous grasses *lanbh* (a kind of grass like *dabh* which reaches the height of one cubit), *sin*, *katran*, *gandhíl*, *hobhra*, *dromman*, *láthiá*, *kalánj*, *bophalí* and *karwílon* are found on this *dahr*. Of trees the *jand*, *karính*, a few *okánhs* and the *ber* grow in it; of shrubs the *lándá*, *khár*, *phog*, *kokan-ber* (a plum-bearing shrub), *chagan*, *kip*, *bhangrí*, *koru*, *dhaman*, and *baggi-boen*; and of herbs the *hazárdání*, *brahamdandí*, *gorakhpán*, *gidarwal* or *gandí-búti*, *tirhatha*, *chorhatha*, (which is used to cure pains in the kidneys) and *chhaprí* (an efficacious remedy for spermatorrhœa).

(b) *Tibbas* or sand-hills: These are of four kinds :—(1) The *kakka-tibba* or *thal* which is of sand; in it *phog* and *kip* are found growing. Sandhills of this kind are constantly shifted by the wind. (2) *Thers* :—These are mounds formed by the ruins of ancient habitations and are met along the banks of the Hakra depression. The following *thers* are well-known (1) *Kud-wálá*, (2) *Gulwálí-therián*, (3) *Kachchíwálí-therián*, (4) *Záhir-pír*, (5) *Miláwá-wálí-therí*, (6) *Kheotalwálí-theri*, (7) *Báriwálá*, (8) *Muháriwálá* and (9) *Pathániwálá*. (3) *Ratta-Tibba* :—This kind of sandhill does not change its position. If rain falls, plants such as *phog*, *lándá*, *chag*, *bhurt*, *murt*, *bhobara*, *gum* and *kip* grow on it; also

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Niwān.

janā and *karīn*. (4) *Pakkā-Bhaththa*.—This is a hard mound of unyielding earth on which nothing but *lūnā* will grow. (c) *Niwān*.—By this is meant the tract lying between *dahrs* and sandhills. The word literally means low. *Niwāns* are believed to be the beds of rivers of ancient times. A *niwān* serves as a basin for the water which flows down from the sandhills and is culturable, *tobbas* or small tanks being dug in it to collect rain-water.

Nahri soils
in the Ubha.

In the Ubha there are two kinds of *nahri* lands; namely, *Nahri Cholistāni* and *Nahri-Daryāi*, i.e., land which is adjacent to the river. When irrigated by canal water, the former produces in the Rabi, gram, barley, *tādmīra* or *usūn* and in the Kharif, moth, *bājra*, *gawāra*, mung, *jowār* and *makkī*. Canal land near the rivers is of four kinds:—(1) *Dardhanti*, mostly composed of white clay with a small quantity, perhaps one-eighth, of sand. It produces all the Rabi and Kharif crops and is a first class soil. (2) *Kabrāchhi*, which has an upper layer of white and a substratum of black soil, just reached by the point of the plough when cultivated. It yields no Kharif and only a scanty Rabi crop of inferior quality. (3) *Malokhra* or *Mal* is a reddish soil having a surface of clay with an average depth of $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and a substratum of pure sand. In the Kharif it only produces *jowār* of inferior quality, or *chari*. It does not yield a Rabi crop because it requires a very large amount of water. (4) *Shor-kallar*, a composition of white or black efflorescence in which nothing is grown. The *nahri* lands in the Lamma are as follows:—(1) *Dramman* which has an upper layer one or two feet deep, of clay, and a substratum of pure sand. *Dramman* is of two kinds: (a) *nanā dramman*, in which nothing will grow, and (b) *khās dramman*, in which trees, plants and herbs generally grow. Usually only Kharif crops are raised on it, as additional water from wells is necessary for Rabi crops sown on this soil, and canal water is seldom obtainable after October. *Dramman* is also called the *tāwālī* or *tāwalī* (*tā*=heat), i.e., easily dried up by heat. (2) *Chiki*, a first class soil having a deep layer of clay on top, with sand lying some distance below. If canal water is allowed to stand for a *chaupahra* or 12 hours in *chiki* soil it retains sufficient moisture for the ripening of Rabi crops, such as wheat, gram, &c., no second watering from a canal or a well being necessary. (3) *Sainsāri*, though mixed with *kallar*, has a good deal of clay and provided it gets plenty of water yields rice. Without water it is useless. If water lies on the surface for a long time rice (*shālī*) decays, and hence an outlet is required to secure a good crop. Generally *kongni* is sown in it. *Sainsāri* is of two varieties:—(a) That which produces on its surface a fine layer of white efflorescence after it is watered. This is called *lūn ugāi* (i.e., producing salt) and is best suited for growing wheat. (b) That which has always a fine layer of white efflorescence over its surface, and on being watered produces more. This is a bad soil and incapable of cultiva-

Nahri soils in
the Lamma.

tion. (4) *Tapeli* (in Baháwalpur Tahsil) is a hard saline soil of inferior quality; rain or canal water over its surface evaporates quickly. The Kharif crop can only flourish by repeated waterings. There are several tracts of *tapeli* in Ahmadpur and Gothchanni iláqas. (5) *Gis* or *gasár* in the Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur tracts contains more sand than clay. Without abundant watering (*sek*) crops will not flourish. Only *bájrā*, *tíl* and *jowár* (Kharif crops) are suited to this soil. (6) *Korá* in Gothchanni iláqa is a hard clay which can hold water for a long time and is adopted for rice cultivation. (7) *Tikka shor* in Ahmadpur Tahsil is a soil with white efflorescence covered with *darabh* grass: much water is given to it and *Sánwak* is sown while the water is still standing. *Sánwak* diminishes its efflorescence so that rice can be sown in it the next year. (8) *Chikáwat* is a very firm and cohesive soil. Large clods of loam remain unbroken by ploughing and *sohágá*-levelling. It is a good soil, only one watering being sufficient for maturing Rabi crops. (9) *Gusar* in the Lamma iláqa is a soft loam, which is easy to plough and retains moisture. It is suitable for maize and *jowár*.

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Agriculture

Nahri soils
in the
Lamma.

The riverain lands in the Ubha are of the following kinds:—

(1) *Dar-ghosrá*, a mixture of sand and clay in the proportion of 1 to 2. It is generally white in colour and low-lying. It is a *sailāba* soil yielding only Rabi crops such as wheat, gram, barley, *masar*, and *masar*. It is also called *dharti-kundh*. (2) *Malokhra* is a heavy *sailāba* soil, which owing to its adhesive nature clogs the ploughshare. It gives only Rabi crops of *masar* and *charal*. (3) *Het-Ratūla*, or land adjoining the river banks is of two kinds:—(a) with an upper layer of clay about one foot deep and a substratum of sand (*rappar*); (b) with an upper layer of sand 1 or 1½ feet in depth and caly underneath. Both kinds are unculturable. In the Lamma the riverain soil is of the following kinds:—(1) *Latár* or the soil on which alluvial deposits accumulate. All the Rabi crops can be grown on it. *Latár* is of two kinds; namely, (a) *Diamman*, and (b) *Chiki*, both of which have already been described. (2) *Kalráchhi* or *kábráchhi* is nearly sterile *shor*, generally covered by a plant called *leí*, and is unculturable, until floods wash its upper surface and either the lower stratum of good soil, appears, or new alluvium is deposited. (3) *Pakki Dar* or *Dar* is hard impermeable soil, retaining water on its surface for a week at a time. It bears good Rabi crops, provided it has two or three waterings after the crop is sown. (4) *Uhárkán* is loam (*nopi*) about a foot deep with a layer of sand below and is practically unculturable, until it receives deposits of alluvium (called *af*). When the rains are plentiful the clayey bed of the Hakra (see page 3) produces very good Kharif crops.

Riverain
soils in the
Ubha.Riverain
soils in the
Lamma.

The rainfall in the State, as has already been shown, is small and uncertain—see page 20 where the subject is treated fully.

Rainfall.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Ploughing is begun by dividing the field into portions, called *úrāhs*. Three *úrāhs* form a set and it is the custom always to

Ploughing.

CHAP. II, A. start ploughing three *úrāhs* simultaneously, and when one *úrāh* is completed, another is at once marked out on the ground and operations started in it to bring the number of portions simultaneously under the plough up to three again. Different crops receive different ploughing. Some crops receive no ploughing at all, such as *charāl*, a kind of pea, which is thrown into the fissures of drying alluvial deposits, and indigo when it is sown broadcast in the stubble of wheat after watering. Some crops such as peas, gram, *ussún*, *sarhon*, etc., are ploughed after the seed is sown, while others receive ploughing before as well as after, such as wheat in lands where it is sown broadcast. In the case of Rabi crops, where lands receive more than one ploughing, it is the custom to leave the land to rest after the first ploughing for a month or so, after which interval it is again turned up (*uthái wendí he*) by a second ploughing. The first ploughing is called the *pahl*; the second *dohr* or *bel*; the third *trehr* or *terl*; the fourth *chauhr* or *chaul*. In the Minchinábád Nizámat, however, one ploughing is known as *sín*, and a field that has been ploughed more than once is said to have had *dohrí* (double), *trehrí* (treble), and *chauhrí* (quadruple) *síns*. It is not uncommon for the neighbours to help each other in ploughing and sometimes four to five scores of ploughs are seen following each other in a line. This system of mutual help is called *wingár*, and is the custom also in other agricultural operations, such as the reaping of crops and *chher-wigár* (statute labour for the annual clearance of canals). Oxen are generally employed in ploughing, but camels are also used in the Cholistán *ilāga*. The task of ploughing is mostly entrusted to grown up men: it is looked upon as very laborious and as requiring both practice and strength. *Hal kadhende wal* (ploughs remove the graceful curves of the body); *hal kya sukhāl* (ploughing is not an easy task); and *gābe hal wahāwīn te dāndān kon kaun puchehhe ha*:—i. e., if calves (raw and slender youths) were fit for ploughing who would care for bulls, (namely, stout and strong young men), are common sayings with regard to ploughing.

Rolling and
levelling.

After ploughing the ground is smoothed down and the clods broken by means of a heavy wooden roller called the *merha* or a beam called *sohāga*. The breaking up of the clods is supposed to preserve the moisture (*wattar* or *sek*) beneath the surface. In *gasār* lands, where no clods exist, or where clods have already been broken up, it is usual to employ a light variety of *sohāga*, or a flat beam known as *ghíhal* (lit. dragged). Where land is *nawtor* (i. e., newly broken) it is sometimes necessary to level the ups and downs of the field. This is done by means of *dandāl* or *ken* which is a screen of wattles with a rake at the bottom. It is pulled by bullocks after the fashion of a plough. The process is also employed for turning up the soil and so increasing its productive capacity. Canal-irrigated lands are not usually divided into small plots, but well lands are generally split up, the partitions (*kiáris*) being rectangular in shape and surrounded by *wats* or *lannas* to prevent the escape of water.

Land is sown either broadcast or by *nālī* (drill). Some crops such as *sarhon*, *til* and *assūn* are sown broadcast after mixing them with earth. Cotton seeds (*pewe*) are mixed with cowdung and dried before being scattered over the ground. Sugar-cane is grown by the well-known process of cutting the cane above the knots and planting the knots in the ground, great care being taken in preserving the *akh* (eye) of the knot. Rice, tobacco, red pepper and onions are first raised in nurseries which are called the *bīja*, *angūr*, or the *panīrī*, and then transplanted. The grain used for sowing generally comes from the previous year's crops. Of crops such as indigo, peas and turnips, which are cut before they seed, a special plot is set aside for the purpose of seed production. No great care is taken in the selection of grain for seed. Some cultivators, however, pick out good ears of *jowār*, *bājrá* and wheat and keep them unthreshed till the time for sowing arrives. Wheat thus preserved in sheaves is called *phamman* or *pamman*; it produces first class wheat, but the *pamman* seed must have been produced at the harvest of the previous year. If kept longer it deteriorates.

Weeding is not a general agricultural practice except in the case of tobacco, red pepper, poppy and vegetables. Wheat fields are also weeded out, but not so much to improve the crops as to get fodder (*chīra* or *ghā*) for the cattle. Cotton fields are weeded when they lie near the homestead. Weeding is known as *godī* (in the Ubha) or *drogrā* (in the Lamma) and is carried on with a 'spud' (*ramba*). The principal weeds that grow among crops are *pāpra*, a small plant about a foot high with purple flowers, *sinjī*, a small plant with yellow flowers, *jausāg*, *dh-nak* or degenerated wheat, *patrála*, *rārī*, *tandula* and others mentioned under *Flora* in Chapter I.

Fencing (*lohra*) is not common in villages except in the fields close to the village site, where fences made of branches of *kikar*, *jand*, *karīnh* or *berī* trees are generally put up. Round towns nearly all the fields have walled fences to protect them from wandering cattle, pig, jackal and hog-deer. This is especially necessary round Bahawalpur town owing to the proximity of the *zakhīra* (*shīsham* forest preserve).

Watching (*rākhi* or *rakhāī*) is necessary to keep off flocks of birds (*jhur*) at the time of the ripening of all crops, but especially of wheat, *jowār* and *bājrá*. The watchman sits on a high platform sometimes made of an earthen pillar (*turjī*) but more often of a wooden stand raised on four stakes about 10 or 12 feet from the ground, called the *mannah* or *mannhī*. He throws stones with a sling (*khambānī*) at the birds, or cracks a rope (*trat*), or merely cries and shouts at them as they appear. The watching is generally done by the tenants themselves, but, if necessary, a special watcher is also employed and receives a wage of from one to two annas a day, or, more generally, is

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Agriculture

Watching.

paid by a share of the crops. Fruit trees are also usually watched by boys armed with bows and pellets of mud (*ghulel* and *ghulele*). Scarecrows are put up in the fields to frighten away birds. These are often black rags tied round poles stuck into the ground. Heads of dead animals are also hung on poles fixed in the ground. Jackals, pigs and foxes do much mischief and have to be kept off by watching day and night. Field rats also cause great damage and the farmer is powerless to protect his crops from them.

Reaping.

Reaping (*kápi*, *láí* or *wádhí*) is generally done by the cultivators themselves. However, when the fields are large it is not unusual to engage labourers called *láihárs*. These *láihárs* are paid in kind and the scale of their wages is described under "Agricultural labourers." Cotton and red pepper are picked mostly by women. In the case of *jowár* and *bájrā* heads alone are cut off. This process is known as *lápa* or *lápi*.

Threshing.

When the corn is reaped, it is gathered into bundles which are taken to a clean plot of land, called *pir*, where the threshing (*gáh*) takes place. The first step is *kán khindānwān* (to lay out the corn in a circular heap round a stick called *munni*). In the case of wheat the crop thus laid out is left to dry for three days, while *jowár* and *bájrā* take seven or more days, after which threshing proper begins. The process consists in fastening together two or more bullocks by a rope (*mer*) which is fastened to the central stick, and driving them round and round from right to left. The man who drives the bullocks is called *gaherā*. When the threshing is completed the corn is gathered into a stack called the *dhara*. When the crops are not very large the grain is beaten out with sticks. This is invariably the case with *makki* (maize). *Til* is held upside down and shaken by hand, and *chína* is beaten out against the sides of a pit in the ground. The best time for threshing is supposed to be the midday when solar rays fall perpendicularly upon the head, and hence the local distich: *Ráh rahn, te gáh gahn*; i. e., when paths are deserted (by travellers owing to the noonday heat) then is the time of threshing.

Winnowing.

When threshing is over and the corn stacked, it is cleaned with a basket (*chhaj*) held in a man's hand above his head to catch the breeze. The stronger the breeze, the quicker the winnowing. The winnower is almost always a *khoja* or *kutāná*, but *páolís* (weavers) and *mochís* (shoemakers), as also some of the cultivators, occasionally do the work.

Storing.

The grain, when ready, is stored in *pallís* which are circular chambers with mud domes and made of *sar* (leaves of *kína*), or *trúá* (matting made of *sar*). These *pallís* are raised about 2 feet above the level of the ground to keep off white ants. They are plastered over with mud and vary from 8 × 4 feet to 20 × 8 feet in size. The *pallá* is always erected in the open air to save the grain from weevils. People storing only a small quantity of corn keep it in mud bins or jars (*kalhota*, *gand*, or *bholrí*) furnished

with a hole at the bottom, which is called *ain*. Big *zamindárs* have usually granaries of burnt brick with paved floors and mud-washed cells (*poche kotha*), in which the grain is stored. Leaves of tobacco, which are supposed to destroy white ants and other insects, are sometimes strewn in these cells. A number of *pallás* lying together is called a *bhānda*.

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Agriculture

Storing.

The most important agricultural implement is the plough (*hal*). It is of two kinds, the *kung hal* and the *chúni hal*. The *kung hal* consists of a wooden beam (*hale*) to the upper end of which the yoke (*panjālī*) is attached, while the lower end is fastened to the *kurh* (a piece of wood in which the iron blade is fixed) and to the *chaúrí* or *jānghí* (a piece of wood to which the *muthira* or handle is joined). The *chúni hal* is made up of a bevel-shaped piece of wood, in the interior angle of which is fixed the *hale* (pole), and at its lower extremity a short piece of wood, called *chúni*, on which the plough-share is placed. The *panjālī*, or yoke, comes next. This consists of a bar of wood, called *pathora*, into either ends of which two pegs, called *thambl* and *welan*, are fixed and between them the necks of the bullocks are placed. The other implements commonly used by the cultivator are the *nālī* (drill for sowing seed) which consists of two halves of bamboo or some other wood 3 feet long, joined together to form a tube fitting into the circular hole of a wooden cup called a *topa*; *kahí* or *kasí*, an iron mattock; *wahaula*, a small iron mattock with a long wooden handle; *kuhārí* or *kulhārí*, an axe; *dandālī*, a wooden spade; *jundra*, a wooden rake; *dātrī*, a sickle; *merha* or *sohāga*, used for breaking clods and smoothing the ground; *chhaj*, a winnowing basket; *khambhānī*, a sling made of rope, to scare away birds; *triāngul*, a pole 3 feet long, to the lower end of which are fastened from 8 to 10 sharp pointed pegs about 1½ feet long, used for winnowing; *dandāl*, a kind of rake used for levelling and sometimes for clearing silt in beds of canals; *amba* (spud) used chiefly in weeding; and *diphphí* for making holes to fix wooden poles in the *pir* (threshing floor).

Agricultural
implements
and appli-
ances.

As a rule, very little attention is paid to the rotation of crops and fallows. In the Khairpur Tahsíl, however, rotation is now being practised. The rotation generally commences with wheat in the Rabi followed by an indigo crop which lasts for three years and then wheat again. Another series begins with wheat in the Rabi followed by *jowār* in the Kharif; after this the soil is allowed to lie fallow for two years, the same rotation then being continued. Maize (*maklī*) and rice are generally followed by wheat all over the State. Another common system of cultivation is to divide land into two portions and sow one with Rabi crops and the other with Kharif: then in the following year, the first is sown with a Kharif and the second with a Rabi crop.

Rotation of
crops.

Manure (*ahl*, *kallar*, *páh* or *rúrí*) is not in common use in the State, nor is any scientific method of manuring known to the

Manure.

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Agriculture

Manure.

people. The only crops which are manured are those which are at the same time weeded, such as tobacco, red pepper, vegetables, &c. Onions, too, are sprinkled over with *páh* (powdered cowdung). The droppings (*mengan*) of sheep and goat form an excellent manure, and owners of flocks are induced by payment to keep their animals near wells. Usually, too, the cattle of several persons are collected together and kept on the lands of the different owners in turn for periods of about a fortnight. Some well-to-do farmers collect manure in large heaps and have it carried to the fields by *Dáyas* or *Bathyáras* at a cost of one pice per *lora* (sack). The *walh* or stalks of indigo forms good manure for wheat fields. The silt deposited by canals and river floods (*mal*, *nawán*, *at*, *nopí* or *jillh*) too is considered very fertilising. Ashes of cowdung are also used in nurseries, the seed being mixed with it and then sown. The sewage and sweepings of Bahawalpur town are sold by the municipality at the following rates:—

Cow or buffalo dung	5 carts per rupee.
Sheep or goat's dung	4 " "
Nightsoil	3 " "

In towns where vegetables are largely produced, such as Ahmadpur, Khánpur and Khairpur, cowdung and nightsoil are largely used. Animal bones are not thought much of by the people.

Double cropping.

In areas where rice is cultivated, the rice lands are always double-cropped (*dofash*); viz., rice in the Kharif and wheat or *charál*, gram, *ussún* and *sarhon* either separately sown, or in combination, in the Rabi. Wheat fields are sometimes sown with *jowár* or *bájrá* in the Kharif, but in this case a large quantity of manure is required, especially in the case of *jowár* which is believed to exhaust the land greatly. In well lands the plots sown with vegetables are frequently under crop all the year round. In such cases the patches are very small and, generally lying near towns, receive plenty of manure.

Population engaged in area dependent on agriculture.

The agricultural population of the State amounted in 1901 to 555,814 persons, or 77.1 of the total population of the State. The cultivated area of the State amounted in the same year to 1,338 square miles, so there were 415 agriculturists to the square mile of cultivated area.

Agricultural labourers in the Lamma.

Day labourers are not generally employed except at harvest time. They are, however, hired to clear silt from canals and water-courses (*kassís*). In this case daily wages vary from 4 to 8 annas, the work being generally done by contract. Labourers are also sometimes employed for ploughing, receiving per head from 3 to 6 annas a day and also their noonday or evening meal as well (*chopri rotí* and *shakkar*). Some well-to-do *zamíndárs* who consider ploughing derogatory and also *kirdár zamíndárs* or *baikhars* not infrequently engage labourers by the month at a time at a wage of Rs. 7 or 8. Faim labourers are generally paid in kind. Reaping is done by

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Agriculture

Agricultural
labourers in
the Lamma.

lāihārs who get one sheaf in every forty as their wages. In parts of the Khānpur Nizāmat, the reapers have to work all day long, and in the evening receive a sheaf sufficient to cover a daily wage estimated at 4 or 5 annas. Cotton and pepper are picked by women and children who get one-tenth of what they pick for their labour. Winnowers receive from 1 to 2 *paropis* in the *chauth*. Indigo is prepared by men whose wages are mentioned under "Indigo." Persons employed as farm labourers belong to all castes except that of Sayyid. Where there is a large family, some of the members will work at home, some cultivate the family lands, while others take employment as farm servants. Washermen, weavers and potters add to their earnings by working as field labourers at harvest time. Besides this, cultivators themselves often give *wingār* to each other, that is, labour to be repaid by labour.

Lāihārs or day labourers employed to reap crops in the Ubha are paid in three ways—1. Some take daily wages which consist of as much of the crops as can be tied in a rope 2 to 3 cubits long (2 *munna hāths*). 2. Some receive their wages every alternate day, or if labourers are numerous, every fourth day. Each receives as much of the crop as can be bound in a blanket (*bhaggal*) 12 cubits long. 3. Some receive their wages in a lump at the time of *batāī* (partition of produce) at a rate calculated on a basis of from 5 to 12 annas per day. *Gaherās* or threshers are generally paid a wage of 4 to 8 *ser*s a day in a good season. In times of scarcity, less is given.

Agricultural
labour in the
Ubha.*Gaherā.*

Besides these voluntary agricultural labourers there are also the village menials who play an important part in agricultural life. A description of the work done by these and of the payment they receive is given below:—

Village
menials.

The Tarkhān makes ploughs, couches, *sahls*, and other wooden articles of household use. For this he (*a*) gets 4 *ser*s per plough at the time of sowing the wheat crop, provided he makes a hole in the plough to fix in the *nālī* (drill); and (*b*) divides with the *lohār* one *pāī* in the *māni* and one *topu* per *pir*, in the proportion of 3: 2. The *Lohār* makes the *dātrī*, *kahī* or *kassī*, *wahola*, *kulhārī* and other iron agricultural implements, getting the iron from the *zamīndār* except for the *dātrī* which he supplies at his own cost. For this (*a*) at sowing time he divides with the Tarkhān the share described above, and (*b*) also gets a rupee from every house in which a wedding takes place, and cash payments for constructing well gear equal to half the actual price of the apparatus.

Tarkhān.

Lohār.

The Kumhār carries seed to and grain from, the fields on his own asses and furnishes earthen pots for the well, and earthenware for domestic use. He also sometimes assists in carrying home bricks for repairs: but if a whole house is being rebuilt, or a new one erected, he gets separate wages for this. As wages (*a*) on *sailāba* crops he gets one *pāī* in the *māni* and one

Kumhār or
Kubhār.

HICS 7

CHAP. II. A. *topa per pir or khirman*; and (b) on well lands two *páis* per *mání* and one *topa* per *pir* or *khirman*. The Khoja makes *chhappar* or thatches for *sahls*, and assists in all agricultural work, *e. g.*, looks after cattle, does clearance of canal work, acts as messenger to the *zamíndár* and is in fact a Jack of all trades. For this he (a) gets one *pand* of the unthreshed crop, *i. e.*, as much as he can tie up in a blanket 6 yards long and carry on his head; and (b) at harvest time he is entitled to one *pái* per *mání* and one *topa* per *pir* or *khirman*. The *dhanwái* measures the produce, divides it among the *zamíndár* and his tenants according to fixed proportions; weighs or measures corn for sale by the *zamíndár* or the tenants; provides necessary commodities in his shop for the villagers; looks after the guests of the *zamíndárs*; keeps the household accounts of the *zamíndár* and is a treasurer of village revenue collections made by the *lambardá* and often goes to the Tahsíl to pay the village revenue. For these services he gets (a) one *topa* per *mání* and three *topis* per *pir* or *khirman* by measure; or (b) one *ser* per *man* (by weight); and (c) he is also entitled to one pice per rupee on the sale of grain. The *dhanwái* makes a good income by the commission he receives in weighing or measuring corn. The annual income of *dharat*, (*dhanwái's* commission) is therefore auctioned or sold by the *zamíndárs*, generally at an average of Rs. 7 for every 100 *bighas* of standing crop. The money goes to the *zamíndár*, or to the *zamíndárs* (if the village is *pattidári*). It is the *zamíndár's* duty to see that no weighments or measurements in the village are done by any one except the contractor. The *muhassil* watches the crops, and prevents pilfering by the tenants. For this he gets (a) one *topa* in the *mání*; (b) a *pand* of unthreshed crop (per *banní* or holding). Strictly speaking the *dhanwái* and the *muhassil* are not menials; a *dhanwái* may be any *Kirár*, and, a *muhassil* of any caste.

Agricultural statistics.

The area dealt with in the revenue return in 1903-04 was 9,102,663 acres, or 14,222 square miles, of which 67 per cent. was not available for cultivation, 22.55 per cent. was culturable waste other than fallows and 928,950 acres or 10.45 per cent. was cultivated. 839,495 acres of crops were harvested in 1903-04. The principal staples of the spring harvest were wheat and gram, the areas under which were 388,585 and 52,747 acres respectively or 46 and 6 per cent. of the area cropped in that year. Barley covered only 8,835 acres or 1.05 per cent. The staple food-grains of the autumn harvest were *bájrā*, covering 57,407 acres or 6.84 per cent., rice covering 117,207 acres or nearly 14 per cent., and *jowár* covering 54,458 or 6.5 per cent. of the area cropped in 1903-04. Pulses and other minor Rabi and Kharif crops covered 160,256 acres.

Crops: Wheat.

Wheat is the most important crop of the State. It is grown on all lands—well, canal, *bájrání*, *sailába*. On *cháhi nahri* lands the fields are watered and when dry are ploughed two or three times and harrowed. Then the seed is sown by means of a drill

(*nālī*). On *chāhī* lands the seed is generally sown broadcast (*kurāh di wāhī*) and the field is ploughed and harrowed afterwards. On *nahri* and *bārānī* lands a drill alone is employed. Six *topas* or nearly 28 *sers* of seed go to one *bigha*. The outturn averages from 12 to 16 maunds per acre on irrigated and *sailāb* lands and varies greatly on *bārānī* lands. The chief varieties sown in the State are—*ramak*, *kinhjari*, *sathra*, *pamman*, *nahri*, *paunri*, *tindan*, *mendhiānwālī*, *kaisrī*, *thori*, *sarbatī*, *rattī*, *chittidūdī*, *kankū*, and *gojī*. *Ramak* is generally considered the best, but some people prefer *pamman*. *Tindan* stands next after these in quality, while the seed of *sathra* is considered the most productive. *Ramak* straw is much prized as fodder for bullocks. *Sarbatī* is suited to the Cholistān soils and *chittidūdī* or *shonī* to the *hithār*. Wheat is employed as fodder, especially near large towns. The straw (*bhon* or *tūri*) is stacked in *pallās* surrounded with wattles (*pallhiār*) plastered with mud at the top. The proportion of straw to grain by weight is three to one.

Rice is next in importance; in the Khānpur and Allāhābād Tahsils it is the chief crop. It is chiefly grown on *pakkāwat* (hard clayey soil). The land, if not ploughed immediately after the previous harvest, is watered and then ploughed twice or thrice. Then the seedlings, which are grown generally on well lands, are transplanted. This process is called the *rāhī* and is mostly done by hired labourers. The seedlings produced by one *topa* of grain are considered sufficient for one *bigha* of crop. Another method of cultivation is *chhattā*, sowing broadcast. The land is ploughed twice or thrice and watered, and then seed is scattered and ploughed in. A third method is to soak the seed in water till it germinates and then sow it broadcast in the ploughed land, four *topas* going to an acre. There are five main varieties of rice: *kulangā*, *motā* or *thullā*, *sathra*, *bamblā* and *mahllan*. The outturn varies from 6 to 18 maunds per *bigha*. *Sathra sath din*, i.e., *sathra* ripens in 60 days, is a well known saying; but actually the ripening of this crop takes from 75 to 90 days.

Rice.

Gram is extensively grown in the Minchinābād *ilāqa*, and it is not uncommon in the rest of the State. It is grown both on *sailāba* and canal lands. The average produce per *bigha* is 4 or 5 maunds. Gram is also sown mixed with *ussūn*, *gonglūn* and sometimes with wheat. Its leaves fertilise the soil and serve as manure. Hence the combination is considered advantageous.

Gram (*chhola*).

Barley is little cultivated. It is sown usually as a fodder crop, especially for horses, and seldom as a grain crop, except in the Cholistān *bārānī* soils. It is cultivated like wheat. The average outturn is 12 maunds per acre. The standing crop is sometimes sold for Rs. 20 per *bigha*. Two varieties are common in the State—the *sufed*, or indigenous, and the *kāla* or *indarī jau*, both being chiefly used for parching. *Jau* seed often by chance gets mixed with wheat and it is then considered to deteriorate the quality of the wheat crop.

Barley (*jau*).

CHAP. II.

Agriculture

Makai
or *makkī*

Makai (Urdu *makkī*) is chiefly cultivated in the immediate vicinity of the larger towns and is seldom grown for grain except in the Ubha. It is much valued for its *chhalān* or cobs. The crop has to be watered 3 or 4 times. It is seldom manured and the average yield per acre amounts to 6 or 7 maunds. Maize stalks are considered highly beneficial for kine, but only when they are given with the cobs, as without the cobs they make only an inferior fodder.

Indigo

Indigo is grown in nearly every Tahsīl, but that of Khairpur is by far the best known. Though it requires plenty of water it does not grow well on moist lands. As the crop is cut in early autumn an early stoppage of water does not affect it, but what it wants is that the canals should not begin to run too late in the year. The land is watered, and, when dry, ploughed 3 or 4 times, and small compartments or *kīārī* are laid out. The seed is either sown broadcast on the ploughed land which is then watered, or, if the soil is clayey, it is first watered and then the seed is sown broadcast. The crop is frequently watered, at first every 3 or 4 days for about a month and then every 8 or 10 days, but great care is taken not to allow much water to collect at one place, as it rots the plants. Cattle are let in among plants to graze down weeds. The plants when cut are tied up in bundles in the morning and in the afternoon taken to the vats (*hauz*), which are generally in sets of three—two large ones and a small one (*hauznī*) in the middle. These are called *jorī* and cost from Rs. 35 to 40 per set to construct. The bundles are placed upright in the large vats with the stalks downwards, each vat holding from 8 to 10 bundles. In the evening sufficient water is let in to cover the stalks, which are kept down by heavy beams. It is important that this steeping should be done as soon as possible after the plants are cut; otherwise they dry up. Early in the morning at about 4 a.m., the bundles are taken out, leaving the liquid in the vats. This is then churned up (*wilorīd wendā*) with an instrument like a large paddle (*mandhānī*). This operation lasts for about four or five hours, in the course of which the liquid changes its colour first to *kajlā* (deep blue), and then to *sāwā* (greenish), and finally to *pūnra* (mauve). It is then left to settle for nearly an hour and a half. The *māl* (indigo) is then deposited at the bottom of the vats, while the liquid is let off by means of a hole in the side of each vat about four *ungals* (finger-breadths) above the bottom. The deposit is then transferred to the smaller vat in which it is left to settle for the night. Early in the morning the water is again drawn off, the sediment is collected, tied up in a cloth one side of which is plastered with *gāchnī* or *Multānī mittī*, and drained on a heap of sand; finally it is dried in the sun, kneaded into a paste with the hand and made into *tikiān* (small pieces or balls). The produce is about 2 *seers* per set of vats, in other words, 7 or 8 *seers* per *bigha*. But it entails heavy expenditure as the following table shows:—

Wages for cutting the crop ..	Rs. 6 to 8 per month.
Wages for churning a set of vats ..	" 10 to 11 "
Hire of set of vats	" 4 "
Miscellaneous	" 7 "
Total	" 27 to 30 "

CHAP. II.A.

Agriculture

Indigo.

The produce per month of a set of vats is about a maund, which sells at an average of Rs. 80. Thus the owner makes about Rs. 50 per set per month, or, to put it more clearly, he gets Rs. 50 for every 5 *bighas* of standing crop. Indigo is generally of three classes which realise the following prices:—

1st grade sells at ..	Rs. 80 to 110
2nd " " " ..	" 65 to 75
3rd " " " ..	" 40 to 60

The crop is cut down 6 inches from the ground and the stubble (*mundhiān*) produces a further crop in the second year, and a third crop in the third year. But usually the third year's crop is left to seed as it gives a very small outturn of indigo. Sometimes the same field (either growing a first or second year crop) is made to yield the seed also; in which case a shoot is left uncut on a plant here and there, and this runs to seed. The seed is ready in December when it is threshed out by bullocks and sells at 5 *seers* a rupee. If the entire field is left to seed the outturn per *bigha* is 4 to 10 maunds. Besides the ordinary dye of commerce the leaves of indigo supply hair dye (*khināh*), while the stalks (*valh*) after steeping form an excellent manure for wheat fields.

Jowār is sown in *Wisákh*, *Jeth* and *Hár*. The soil is watered and, when dry, the seed, 6 *seers* to the *bigha*, is sown broadcast and ploughed, in; *kidris* are then made and the crop is watered four times the last time when it is ripening. The outturn per *bigha* is from 2 to 6 maunds. Eleven principal varieties are grown, *ratra*, *baggar*, *sathri*, *hájí kubbí*, *chúhí*, *gam man*, *chíchká*, *tondan*, *reorhā*, *sharbat* and *dohdí*. The last named is very sweet and is commonly used for parching, but the stalks are useless. Its husk is black and its grain of oval shape. *Bājrá* or spiked millet is grown in every *Tahsíl* but is most common in *Minchinábád*. In the *Lamma* it is known as *bājri*. It is cultivated like *jowār*, 2 *seers* of seed per acre being sown; the produce is 2 to 3 maunds, and the price obtained by the *zamíndár* in ordinary years is 20 *seers* per rupee. The ears are cut near the top and the process is known as *lápá*. As the stalks do not make good fodder, they are only cut in famine years when they are carefully stored. *Kangni* is an inferior food grain and is seldom grown. It can be sown at any time of the year and ripens in three months. It requires 4 or 5 waterings. The average outturn is 5 maunds per acre. *Kawānh* is grown on canal and *sailāba* lands and is usually sown with the drill. The average outturn is about 4 maunds per acre. *Kawānh* is gene

*Jowār.**Bājrá.**Kangni.**Kawānh.*

CHAP. II. A. rally cut green and forms a good fodder for cattle, especially oxen. Its pods are very tender and a local adage says "*hath rawánh dí phallíán*", hands as delicate as *rawánh* pods. Peas are sown on *sailába* and canal irrigated lands. On the former they are usually sown when the land is still under water or has been lately flooded in which case the seed is thrown into the fissures in the ground, and on the latter usually after a rice crop has been cut and the land ploughed at least once. Peas form the principal fodder crop and are given to cows and buffaloes when green, the average price realised for the crop varying from Rs. 6 to 12 per *bigha*. When allowed to ripen, however, the average outturn is nearly 13 maunds per *bigha*. Peas are also grown mixed with *ussún* or *gonglín* (turnip), the object being that if one crop fails the other may mature. *Moth* is only grown for fodder and is often sown in combination with *jowár* or *tíl*. It is considered good for horses. *Moth* yields a fair grain on *bárání* lands, but when sown on canal irrigated soil, it produces little or no grain.

Agriculture Turnips (*gonghín*) are grown for fodder and also provide a staple vegetable for the cultivator, the tender shoots (*gandlín*) being much prized by the people. The roots are used both as human food and as fodder for bullocks. The plants required for seed are allowed to grow till Chetr. Seed is obtained by the special process known as *dak*. Turnips grow to a large size, sometimes weighing up to 10 *sers*. *Chína* is sown, both as a Zaid Rabi and Zaid Kharif crop. The average outturn is 5 maunds per acre. The crop has to be watered every 3rd or 4th day, and receives 12 waterings in all. *Chína* forms an inferior food for the poor but it is mostly used green for fodder. *Ussún* is grown largely on *bárání* and also on canal and *sailába* lands, generally after rice. It is often grown in combination with other crops such as peas, gram, &c. The average outturn is 4 maunds per *bigha*. *Sarohn*, rape, though grown for fodder, is cultivated mostly for the seed from which oil is extracted. The usual practice is to sow it in combination with wheat, *ussún*, or peas, though it is also found as a separate crop. The average produce per acre varies from 6 to 7 maunds. *Tíl* is extensively cultivated throughout the State. It is usually grown separately, but sometimes is mixed with *jowár*, *moth*, &c. It receives two or three waterings in all. The average produce per acre is 6 to 7 maunds. The crop when cut is tied into bundles which are stocked and left to dry for a fortnight. The pods split in the heat and the grain is then shaken into a cloth. *Tíl* stalks form a favourite fodder for camels.

Peas (mattar or chardí.)

Moth.

Turnips.

Chína.

Sarohn.

Tíl.

Cotton is chiefly grown in Ahmadpur, Khairpur and Minchinábád Tahsils. The seed is generally mixed with cowdung. The crop receives 5 or 6 waterings. Picking, which commences in October and continues till December, is generally done once a week by women. The picker receives a tenth or 1½ *chhatáhs* in the *ser*, of

the cotton picked. Only two kinds of cotton are widely grown in the State, viz., *baggá jethí* or common *vanwár*, and *narma*. The former has white flowers and produces cotton and seed in the proportion by weight of 1: 3; while the latter yields cotton and seeds in the proportion of 1: 2. The outturn for the normal year averages 2 to 3 maunds per *bigha*. The plants yield cotton for three years in succession; but it is usual to sow a fresh crop every year. *Wiláyati kapáh*, or American cotton, which produces coloured *rúi* is also grown in the Minchinábád Nizámat.

CHAP. II.A

Agriculture

Cotton.

Gawárá, a Kharif crop, is peculiar to the Minchinábád Nizámat, and more particularly to the Nahr Sádiqiyah Tahsíl. It grows luxuriantly in the Cholistán soils that are irrigated by the Sádiqiyah Canal. Its grain is as big as gram; but it is a cheap cereal selling sometimes at a maund a rupee. It is only eaten by cattle as it is believed to be productive of various diseases in men. Cows and buffaloes yield more milk when fed upon it. *Gawárá* chaff is a first class fodder for cattle and is especially suited to camels. Red pepper or chillies, *mirich*, *morich*, or *march*, is extensively cultivated especially in the Khánpur Tahsíl. The seeds are sown in nurseries and transplanted when about nine inches high. The plants are watered every fourth day, and then once a week. The crop requires weeding (*darográ* or *chauki denán*) and manuring at least twice before it flowers. Picking commences in Bhadráh and lasts till Poh, and is done once a week. The pickers, generally women and children, get 4 *seers* in the maund as their wages. The average produce per *bigha* is 15 maunds of green chillies. The standing crop is sometimes sold at Rs. 25 a *bigha*. *Zíra* is confined to Khairpur and Minchinábád Tahsíls. The land is watered and, when dry, ploughed two or three times and harrowed. The seed is sown broadcast and the field smoothed down and made into beds (*kiáris*). After a fortnight the first watering is given, and in all 5 to 6 waterings, or more, are necessary. These are given either by day or on dark nights, because it is supposed that if watered on moonlight nights, the crop will produce no grain. Similarly lightning at the time of watering is believed to turn it into *zíri* (degenerated *zíra*). Its average produce is 4 maunds per acre. *Saunf* and *dhaníán* are only cultivated on well lands, chiefly by *baikhars*. They are not sown as separate crops, but in combination with other vegetables, and sometimes along the edges of a wheat field, in which case the drill is used, but when sown with other vegetables, the *chopa láwan* method is employed. This consists in making holes in the ground at intervals, putting the seed into them and then covering it up with earth.

Gawárá.

Red pepper.

Zíra.

Saunf and
dhané or dha-
níán.Tobacco
(*tamákán*).

Tobacco is only grown on well lands. It is raised in nurseries and transplanted. It receives as many as 10 or 12 waterings, is manured at least four times and also weeded twice. All the flowers, except those reserved for seed, are nipped off to prevent the plants from growing too tall, and to make the leaves large and

CHAP. II. A.
Agriculture

Poppy
(post).

Bhang.

Times of
sowing and
reaping
(Agricultural
Calendar).

thick. The crop is cut in Hár and left to dry for three days after which it is buried in large pits dug for the purpose. After a week, or at most 15 days, it is taken out and made into twists called *naur*, *khabbar*, *jeori*, or *subb*. The average outturn varies from 12 to 15 maunds per acre. Only two varieties of tobacco are usually found in the State, the indigenous *talwála* and the *harauti* or *mustangi*. The latter is inferior and fetches a very poor price. Poppy is chiefly grown in the Ubha. The land is manured, and then ploughed and harrowed six or seven times. The seed is then sown broadcast. The crop has to be manured at least twice and generally receives five or six waterings. The average outturn is about two maunds per acre. Bhang is manured, ploughed and sown in the same way as poppy, and receives the same number of waterings. But the average yield is only about one maund per acre. Other crops are *máuh*, *mung*, *masar*, *methra*, *alsi*, *isabgol*, melons (*pittán*, *khakhrián*), and most of the vegetables generally met with in the Punjab.

A table showing the time of sowing and harvesting the principal crops is given below:—

Crops.	Times of sowing.	Times of cutting.
SPRING CROPS.		
Wheat	From the beginning of Kattik to middle of Poh	Wisákh and Jeth.
Barley	Kattik and Maghir	Chetr.
Gram	Assún and Kattik	Chetr and Wisákh.
Peas	Ditto	Phagan to Wisákh.
Ussún	Ditto	Chetr.
Methra	Kattik	Phagan.
Turnips	Assún and Kattik	Poh and Máugh.
Sarson	Assún	Chetr.
Mauhi	Do.	Do.
Tobacco	Máugh and Phagan	Hár.
Poppy	Assún and Kattik	Chetr and Wisákh.
Bhang	Ditto	Ditto.
Zira	Assún to Maghir	Wisákh.
Saunf	Kattik and Maghir	Do.
Vegetables	Assún to Maghir	Poh to Chetr.
SPRING AND AUTUMN CROPS.		
China	(1) Phagan (2) Bhadrá and Assún	Wisákh and Jeth. Assún and Maghir.
Rawáb	Wisákh and Jeth	Hár.
Kangai	Any time	Three months after sowing.
AUTUMN CROPS.		
Rice	Phagan to Sáwan	Assún and Kattik.
Jowár	Chetr to Sáwan	Assún to Maghir.
Bajrá	Ditto	Sáwan to Kattik.
Maize	Phagan to Sáwan	Assún and Kattik.
Til	Jeth and Hár	Maghir and Kattik.
Moth	Hár to Bhadrá	Ditto.
Gawára	Ditto	Ditto.
Máuh	Bhadrá	Kattik and Maghir.
Cotton	Wisákh and Jeth	Assún to Poh.
Red pepper	Phagan to Wisákh	Kattik to Maghir.
Sugarcane	Phagan	Maghir and Poh.

Kunqi attacks wheat and tobacco. It is caused by continued cloudy weather. If the disease attacks wheat before the grain has set, the ears bear no grain; if the grain has set, it withers and shrinks. See "Superstitions" for some popular beliefs regarding the removal of this and other diseases of crops. *Dāsa* is another disease of wheat. The plants do not grow but become stunted and turn yellow. Ears do not form, or, if there are any, they produce black grain and are twisted into coils. This disease usually attacks the later crops and is caused by excessive rain especially when the ground is already moist. *Nugari* strictly speaking is not a disease, but is a characteristic quality of a particular soil which is clayey on the surface, but has sand or *kallar* a little below it. The crop at first grows very luxuriantly, but as soon as the upper layer of soil is exhausted as the roots eat downwards, the crop withers away at once. No amount of watering can restore it to life. *Tela* is an insect which attacks nearly all crops, especially tobacco and melons. It eats away the tender offshoots and prevents the plants from growing. The only remedy is rain. *Kutti* is an insect which attacks gram. It eats away grain inside the pods. One remedy is to beat a drum through the field once every morning and evening for three days. Another remedy, or rather preventive, is to sprinkle the seed of gram before sowing with asafoetida water or rub it in the hands with the urine of cows. *Kira* is an insect which mostly attacks *jowār*. It eats the stalks, generally just below the ears, with the result that the ears are cut off from all nourishment and bear no grain. The only remedy is the blowing of a wind from the south (*Dakkhan*). *Chittri* is an insect which attacks melons. It is red in colour and a little bigger than an ant. It is brought usually by an excess of rain and absence of the south wind (*Dakkhan*). *Mūla* attacks all flowering plants (*phulwālī shai*), e.g., red pepper, tobacco, cotton, *til* and melons. The plants wither away without any apparent reason. Some think that white ants eat up the roots of the plants while others are of opinion that it is due to some unknown cause. The popular remedy is to take hold of a *kirār* named *Mūla* and beat him with shoes until he leaves the field. *Toka*, field rats, gnaw the stalks of wheat, etc. The name is derived from *tukkan*, to gnaw. Another insect which attacks crops is the *sundī*. It is destructive principally to gram, *moth*, *rawānh* and *gawārd*. Locusts (*mahrī*) also damage the crops in the State, but fortunately their appearance is rare.

CHAP. II. A.

Agriculture

Diseases,
insects, etc.,
by which
crops are
damaged.

The total number of live-stock in the State, as ascertained in the enumerations of the year 1901, will be found in Table 22, Part B.

Live-stock.

A buffalo (*majh*, *menh*, *dāg* or *dāgrī*) is the most favourite animal for the *zamīndār* to keep, especially in the Ubha. A *zamīndār's* position is determined by the number of buffaloes he has. '*Mahīn ghar waryāmān*, *Ghore ghar Suitānān*,' i.e., buffaloes can be kept by great persons and horses by chiefs. '*Majhīn bannān yā*

Buffaloes.

CHAP. II.A.

Agriculture

Buffaloes.

khannán, Bai dá pása bhannán, i.e., buffaloes can be kept by persons possessing lands or by wealthy men, any other person who keeps them will have his ribs broken (get into trouble). The popular idea among the *zamíndárs* is that riches come only by keeping buffaloes. *Majh wále de al has, Bae de gal bhas,* i.e., he who keeps a buffalo has a neck-lace to wear, he who keeps none has to wear dust about his neck. Different names are given to she-buffaloes according to their colour as *kalí sháh* (jet black); *kailí* (grey brown); *kailí baggí* (white brown); *lál kailí* (reddish brown); *bolí* (with white feet and forehead); *kailí bolí* (with white forehead); *panj kalán* or *bar-rí* (with white forehead, mouth, legs, tail and udders); *kalí chingí* (with a very small white mark in the forehead). According to the shape and size of their horns the names are:—*kuddhí* or *wáldánwáli* (with winding horns); *mussí* (with half winding horns); *hibbí* (with one winding and one straight horn); *dhelí*⁽¹⁾ (with drooping horns); *choppi* (with horns stretching out horizontally); *khundi* (with broken horns). According to age the names of she-buffaloes are: *kattí* up to the age of 6 months and *tirhání* up to the age of 1 year; *khurí* is also used instead of either *kattí* or *tirhání* to denote a she-buffalo up to the age of six months or 1 year; *naugar*, *gharúp*, or *pahlan*, when she is fit to be covered by a bull, of two years of age; *dundí* of 2½ years; *chaugí* of 4 years; *chhaggí* or *pírí* of 6 years; *trinjan*, when she has her 3rd or 4th calf; *khánba*, *khola*, or *waderí*, a very old buffalo. A she-buffalo lives up to 35 or even 40 years and can have 21 calves. Most male calves are killed and eaten. *Puttar koháwan*, *Dudh piyáwan*, *Bhall mahín de jere*, i.e., a buffalo will allow her male calf to be butchered and still give us milk to drink, how great is her patience and forgiveness! The price of a she-buffalo varies from Rs. 40 to Rs. 200 and the daily yield of milk from 4 to 12 seers. Bullocks and buffaloes are gelded when 3 years old with a *munj* rope drawn very tight. This process is called *subtaror*. The ordinary surgical method is also practised.

Cows.

Cows are called in by various names according to colour, age and the length of the horns. As regards age they are called:—

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| (1). <i>Khírí</i> | up to 1 year. | (6). <i>Dhalí</i> or <i>valiá</i> | of full age. |
| (2). <i>Dundí</i> | " " 3 years. | (7). <i>Adh-dandán</i> | up to 12 years. |
| (3). <i>Chaugí</i> | " " 4 " | (8). <i>Tirhá</i> | " " 14 " |
| (4). <i>Chhaggí</i> or <i>Chhiggí</i> | " " 5 " | (9). <i>Chauthá</i> | " " 16 " |
| (5). <i>Korí</i> | " " 9 " | (10). <i>Be-dand</i> | upwards of 16 " |

With reference to colour they are called:—*gorí* or red; *shaulí* or white; *sáwí* or greyish; *kakrí* or brown; *gadri* or spotted; *kálí-gadri* or piebald with black spots; *rottí-gadri* or red and black with white spots; *nílí* or blue; and *lákhi* or jet black, cows of which colour are considered to give the best milk, and hence the saying "*khír*

(1) The *dhelí* yields the best milk and is considered a very lucky animal: *Dhelí hose pári Sauda kar lo wuér*, meaning "If a *dhelí* is on the other side of a river, buy her at once without waiting to cross," is a well known adage.

lakhí dá bayá khair;" i.e., only *lakhí* gives (the best) milk and no other (cow). As regards length of horns they are called:—*ghoní*, with short horns; *mainí chhainí* with horns about 8 inches long, and *náhrí*, with long horns. Calving begins with the third year and a cow generally has four calves. The milk of the first day is called *nárd* and is not given to the calf as it is indigestible, but is consumed by the people who boil it hard and mix sugar in it. This preparation is called *bauhlí*, or beestings, and should not be cooled by blowing or with a fan, as this would injure the calf, which would learn to eat clothes and earth. The calf is allowed milk till it begins to graze, i.e., up to 4 months or so. The yield of milk varies, but a superior cow will give 10 seers. The fodder given varies in different months of the year. In Jeth and Hár straw is given: in Bhadráh, Assún and Kattik green *tándá*, *charí* and *makáí*: in Maghir and Poh dry *tándá*: in Máng and Phagan *gonglún* (turnips): in Chetr green *methrá* and *masang* (or *mattar*) and in Wisákh gram, wheat and stubble. Merchants from the Punjab visit the State every year to purchase cattle. The price of a cow ranges from Rs. 25 to Rs. 150 and a bull from Rs. 40 to Rs. 100 according to size and other qualities.

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Agriculture

Cows.

A foal is called *wachherá* or *wachherí* when under one year; *sarl* while under 2 years; *panjen* when over 3 but under 5 years, and *malepanj* in its sixth year when the blackness of its teeth is disappearing. With regard to colour the following names are given:—*kumait* (bay), *siyáh zánú* (with black knees but no other black marks), *kiththá kumait* (dark bay), *telis kumait* (chestnut), *samand* (brownish), *son samand* (dark chestnut), *bádámí samand* (almond brown), *siyáh zánú samand* and *dínárí samand* (other varieties of *samand*), *chína*, (flea bitten grey), *sabz nuqra* (pure white except for some black hairs in the mane and tail), *panj kalyán* (bay with white fetlock and blaze), *ablaq* or *gar-rá* (piebald or skewbald). A foal is suckled for a year and generally never ridden till $1\frac{1}{2}$ years old but in rare cases *wachherás* are broken. The price of a well bred horse ranges from Rs. 100 to Rs. 350. The best known breeds of horses are the Bilochí, Sangharí, Desí or Watní. Crosses between Watní and Arab horses are called *dogla* and are considered good animals by the people.

Horses.

A Stud Farm was established by Major Minchin in 1867 "on the system introduced by Colonel Probyn at the Probynábád Stud Farm in Montgomery".⁽¹⁾ About 250 acres of waste land were enclosed for a run for the mares. This area was irrigated by canal water and gave an abundant supply of grass. A start was made with 44 mares (purchased for Rs. 9,980) and 2 Arab Stallions.⁽¹⁾ The Farm was greatly improved by the late Nawáb. It contained 85 animals in March 1891, and 10 years later 450. Of these 91 died, 212 were sold, and 31 removed to the Bagghí

Stud Farm.

(1) Baháwalpur Administration Report for 1867-68.

CHAPTER A. Khána. The number of animals in the Farm, or Lohra, as it is called, in March 1904, was—

Stud Farm.	Stallions	11
	Donkeys	5
	Mares	27
	Mules	6
	Colts and Fillies	6
	Total	55

The Horse Farm, or Stud, is managed by the Tahsildár of Baháwalpur; its establishment consists of a Dároga on Rs. 30 with a jamadár on Rs. 8 and 43 syces. The stud has no veterinary assistant, but the services of one from the Military Department are obtained when necessary. In addition a horse and a donkey stallion are kept in each Tahsil.

Goats.

A kid under 3 months is called *halwán*, one under 6 months is called *leli*, one under 9 months *path*, and a yearling *gesh*. A he-goat kept in the flock to cover the females is called *sáhn*. A she-goat gives 3 *ser*s of milk daily and varies in price from Rs. 4 to Rs. 10. A goat is shorn twice a year, in Kattik and Chetr, and about $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of a *ser* of hair (*jatt*) are obtained each time. The hair sells at 5 *ser*s a rupee and is used in making *sehlis*, *borás*, *tarappars*, *lokárs* and *bhúrás*. Sheep and goat's skins sell at 12 annas to Re. 1 per piece.

Sheep.

A sheep (*bhed*) yields 2 *ser*s of milk per day and is shorn in Kattik and Chetr. The wool (*unn*) sells at from Rs. 35 to 40 a maund and is largely exported to Europe. The milk is sold at an anna a *ser*. *Doka* (unripe dates) in Sáwan and Bhadráh, *phogh*, *lána*, *sin*, and *dar-mman* in Jeth and Hár, *kikkar*, *jand* in Poh and Máugh, grass in Chetr and Wisákh, form the fodder of sheep and goats.

Camels.

Camels have various names according to age:—

Name.	Age.	Name.	Age.
Todá Uthorappar or Kotela.	1 year.	Chaugá	6 years.
Marát	2 years.	Chhaggá	7 "
Tirhán	3 "	Nesh	8 "
Chhatr	4 "	Yak-fasla	9 "
Do-ak	5 "	Do-fasla	10 "
		Armanah	11 " or above.

Camels are also called after their colour, e.g., *sáwa* (grey-red); *baur* (red); *makhná* (white). A she-camel bears young 9 or 10 times at intervals of two years, first bearing in her 4th year. She-camels are generally kept solely for breeding and are seldom loaded. They give between 4 and 6 *ser*s of milk a day. The Dakhnás, Ghab-esars, and Biloches are great camel-breeders and live on camels' milk which they also sell. The milk acts as a violent purgative for patients with spleen or dropsy. In giving the milk as a purgative the she-camel's tail is also stirred in it, as that is supposed to add to its laxative qualities. In the Uba, camels are of three kinds:—

Sohāwā, *Hazāra* and *Marecha*. The *Sohāwā* is brown and large, the *Hazāra* red and medium-sized, and the *Marecha* grey with a small mouth and thin skin. In the Lamma camels are also divided into three classes:—the *Kechi*, *Marehi* and *Tal-dā*. The *Kechi* is medium-sized either brown or red, fit for riding as well as loading: "*Lādi chārhi duhān dā hangān*," i.e., excellent both for riding and loading. The *Kechi* has very great powers of enduring fatigue and hunger, and does more work and eats less compared with other classes of camels: "*Khārī nāl raj waindā*," i.e., he is satisfied with only a small basket of fodder. The *Marechi*, also called *Mahrā-marechā*, is a lean swift camel, grey in colour. It can travel more than 60 *kos* (80 miles) in ten hours. The *Tal-dā* is the ordinary pack camel but it is also used for riding and goes at a fair speed. The paces (*chāls*) of the camels in the order of their swiftness are:—*Thuski*, also called *jatāki* or *kirāri* (a very slow jogging pace), *warikh*, *gām*, *ralla*, and *kharwāh* (the swiftest pace a camel can go, averaging between 10 and 12 miles an hour). The *kharwāh* is so called because it leaves the wind behind (from *khar*, stand, *wā*, wind).

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Agriculture

Camels.

As a rule villages have their own pasture grounds set apart for the cattle, but sometimes many villages combine, and each contributes a stretch of waste to form a joint pasture. Cattle, especially buffaloes, are seldom brought into the villages, but are kept on or near the pastures in pens called *bhānīs*, *bhainīs*, *wārās*, *dhoen*, or *lohrās*. Cattle of one village can graze in another by permission of the owners, either free in return for a similar concession, or on payment of *bhanga* to them at rates varying from 6 pice to 8 annas per head per month. In riverain villages *kundhs*, *b-las*, *bilāris*, *bildrās*, *bets*, *donds* or *tokās* are set apart for grazing. In the canal tracts the *zamīndārs* possess large pastures. In the rainy season the Cholistān is one stretch of grass. The *tobhās* or *toldās* are filled by the rain and the Rohi lands grow various grasses, herbs and shrubs, many of which are fragrant and valued on that account. People take their cattle to the banks of the well-known *tobhās* and pay the proprietors a nominal rate of *bhanga*, so that the Cholistān in the rains is a vast common pasture for the *Sindhians*.

Pasture grounds.

There are no organised cattle fairs in the State. At the fairs or *urs* of Pir Muhammad Biloch, Shaikh Wāhan, Uch and other places cattle are sold, but not on a very large scale.

Cattle Fairs.

The ordinary cattle diseases with the usual remedies employed are as follows:—(1) *Pahār*, or swollen udder caused by an injury. Branding with a red hot iron (*danb*) is the usual remedy. (2) *Palithā larnān* or indigestion caused by grass or dry *jowār* fodder. It is rarely fatal. Ashes diluted in water are given. (3) *Phiphri*, consumption or chronic catarrh affecting the lungs. *Sat-lohā* (a red hot iron) is applied to the chest close to the dewlap. (4) *Ghotā*, sore-throat or chronic bronchitis, usually fatal in a few days.

Diseases of cattle.

CHAP. II, A.

Agriculture

Diseases of cattle.

Shrines are generally resorted to. (5) *Kālī wā* or *satt*, heart disease to which the animal often succumbs in a few minutes. The forehead is branded, or the ear bled, or the animal is beaten with a shoe seven times. (6) *Māī rānī* or *sīhal* (small-pox) is not always fatal and lasts for a week or so. The animal is taken to a shrine to invoke the blessings of the *pīr*, or *mauhri* (a pulse) is cooked and given to it. (7) *Ogū*, another name for *ghotū*. The animal is immersed in water. (8) *Dhāb* or *Wale*, in which the animal foams at the mouth and the limbs at once get benumbed. It is supposed to be caused by a chill. One ear is bled or an *akmakra* (grass-hopper found on *ak* plants) is given. The animal is also kept warm and protected from draughts. (9) *Avāns*; a cow or she-buffalo in labour gets the uterus displaced, and it sometimes comes out. Pressure is applied and *katīra* (a gum) and a decoction of *menhdi* (henna) leaves are given. (10) *Mūhn khur*, rinderpest, or ulceration of the hoofs and mouth, supposed to be caused by a bird's settling on the part, or by bad weather. A mixture of *jowār* flour and water is given, and also water over which *mantars*, or the *kalāms*, have been recited by the village *mullā*. (11) *Hanglī*, contraction or elongation of the muscles caused by a strain in fighting. The part affected is fired, but generally without result.

Diseases of horses.

Diseases to which horses are subject are as follows: (1) *Khub* or *khunāq*, i.e., laryngitis. A plaster of mulberry leaves or branding round the neck are the remedies. (2) *Sār*, malarial fever, with very high temperature, contracted on a pasture containing pools of standing water. (3) *Nābar*, caused by drinking when heated. The lungs and stomach get deranged. *Post* (poppy-head) and *phatkari* (alum) water is given. (4) *Chapar haddi*, a splint. Gram is put in a blanket, which is wrapped round the affected part and water poured on it. Sometimes a strong solution of acid is applied to corrode the bone in its primary stage, or a surgical operation is performed. (5) *Kachāwal*, or *chakīwal*, rheumatism causing extreme pain in the joints, which are generally fired with a red hot iron. (6) *Mūtrā* or *hadda mūtrā*, water collected in the joints. The disease is hereditary. The joints are generally fired. (7) *Machhe* or the twitching of the muscles, caused by slipping down a hard gallop. Warmth is applied or fomentation employed. (8) *Berhaddi*; a spurious growth of bone on the back-bone similar in construction to the *chapar haddi* is formed. Salt fomentations are employed. (9) *Sargir* or catarrh which has two varieties, *sargir* and *suk sargir*. In *suk sargir* no liquid matter exudes from the nose, whereas in *sargir* the nose is always running. Garlic and salt are given and smoke of burning black rags is made to enter the nostrils. (10) *Kām* (lampas) or swelling of the palate, which is generally bled. (11) *Wil* or pain in the kidney. Salt and *karwār būti* (a herb) are given. (12) *Ahgir* or colic; a purgative is given. (13) *Malāish* see *malāish* (camels); and (14) *Chārdand*, the growth of an unnatural additional tooth, which has to be extracted.

CHAP. II A.

Agriculture

Diseases of sheep and goats.

The diseases of sheep and goats are as follows:—(1) *Phiphri*, consumption, generally fatal. (2) *Kāliwā*, as in cattle. (3) *Aphar*, swelling of the stomach due to over-grazing and constipation. (4) *Hūngnī* (lit. groaning), cough accompanied by the coat becoming rough and abstinence from eating and drinking. It is fatal. (5) *Pānī-lāg* caused by bad grass, or foul water, inducing diarrhoea and loss of appetite. It is not fatal. (6) *Angāri*, the udder of the animal swells on account of contact with the hot ground or from dirt; water of henna leaves mixed with sugar is given and *chūheker* (earth from the holes of rats) and *bhang* is also plastered over the udder. (7) *Paththā laryā*; *paththā* or *jowār* fodder, *methra* or *sinjī*, which has not been washed over by the rain generally has a layer of dust over its leaves, and when eaten produces stomach-ache, colic and other maladies which go by the name of *paththā laryā*.

Diseases of camels.

The diseases to which camels are liable are as follows:—(1) *Sīruk*, swelling of the knees, shoulder or thighs, caused by derangement of the assimilative system, popularly attributed to long retention of urine in the bladder. Bleeding, or branding, or both are the usual treatments. The camel is also given beef to eat. (2) *Kāliwā*, as in the case of cattle. (3) *Kambri*, convulsion of the muscular system due to a chill. Skins of wolf or jackal are boiled and the soup is administered, care being taken to remove the hair from the skin, as this is supposed to be injurious. (4) *Maldish*; sore-eye, which sometimes leads to loss of sight. *Zirī* (a medicine) is diluted in water and given to the animal and this remedy is generally efficacious. (5) *Rag tal*, over-strain upon the muscular system of a young camel which has been loaded more heavily than his strength can really bear. The animal is given rest for a few months. (6) *Kachh badr*, brushing of the ankles, causing bleeding and wounds, sometimes leading to bad ulceration. (7) *Machhe*, rupture of muscles in the chest of an over-fatigued camel caused by the animal falling down in running. Fomentations are applied. (8) *Tut*, an ankle disease. Fomentations are employed. (9) *Lipphe*, hæmorrhage from the nose, constant but slow. The slow bleeding gives the animal relief, but its complete stoppage leads to death. (10) *Jokhām*, or catarrh, which has two varieties, *pāpri* and *sendhī*; black pieces of cloth are burnt and their smoke made to enter the nose. (11) *Maror*, dysentery; powdered chillies and onions are administered. (12) *Gaththar*, ulceration deep into the skin close to the ribs. *Majīth* and clarified butter are given. (13) *Hibbi*, a nervous disease in which the neck of a camel bends towards one side. The neck is branded with red hot iron on the opposite side; a stick of *karinh* wood is warmed at a fire and applied to the neck every now and then; or the tip of the camel's tail is scalded in boiling oil.

Veterinary.

There is no organised Veterinary Department in the State. Veterinary Assistants are employed for the Camel Corps and the *Orderly Risāla*. The people do not appreciate scientific methods

CHAP. II. A. of treatment. Having been cattle breeders for centuries, they prefer their own methods.

Loans to
agriculturists.

In 1878 rules for State loans to agriculturists were first introduced into Baháwalpur by Major Grey, the Political Agent. Advances were, however, at first made on a very small scale. In 1900, during the minority of the present Nawáb, Colonel Grey, the Superintendent of the State, proposed *taqávi* advances to *zamíndárs* for the construction of wells as a safeguard against failure of the river floods; and, under new rules, Rs. 8,00,000 were sanctioned for this purpose. The eagerness displayed by the agriculturists was so great and the demand for money so urgent that Rs. 4,91,593 were advanced for the construction of 1,280 new wells and about Rs. 2,200 for the repairs of 159 old ones in less than 8 months after these rules came into force. Up to 1904 Rs. 7,57,967 had been distributed. These loans have done a vast amount of good and the State is always willing to sanction additional grants on the same conditions. A statement showing particulars of the distribution of the original grant up to 1904 in the different Tahsils is given below:—

Tahsil.	Taqávi loans.	Sum real- ized.	Balance due.	Wells con- structed.	Wells repaired.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
Minchinábád and Nahr Sádiqiyah	2,69,602	76,483	1,93,118	710	19
Kháirpur	58,999	10,998	48,000	126	43
Baháwalpur	77,019	23,541	53,477	180	60
Ahmadpur	1,48,229	33,150	1,15,079	351	72
Kháopur and Alláhábád	57,506	15,162	42,343	160	17
Nauslahra and Ahmadpur Lamma	1,46,612	27,497	1,19,114	422	15
Total	7,57,967	1,86,834	5,71,131	1,940	226

Indebted-
ness of culti-
vators.

Before 1866, *i. e.*, the year when the State came under British administration during the minority of the late Nawáb, the system of *batáí*, or division of the actual produce, obtained in the State and the general belief is that there was no indebtedness, firstly owing to this *batáí* or *húibúí* (lit. take what there is) system, and secondly because the landholders and cultivators by the connivance of the petty officials did not pay the ruler of the State his due share of the produce. There was no land alienation then and the Hindus held hardly one in every thousand acres. At present the land proprietorship of the Hindus has increased about a hundred-fold.

CHAP. II. A.

Agriculture

Indebtedness of cultivators.

The causes of the indebtedness of the Muhammadan agricultural classes are extravagance, litigation, which has increased in cost by the introduction of the Court-fees system, secret payment to petty officials (*bhāra denā te pār langhā*, i. e., payment of fare to cross the river), payment of fines (*chattī*) and redemption money (*muāwiza*) in lieu of imprisonment (both of which go by the name of *chānī dā khallā*, lit, beating with silver shoes) to Judicial Courts for convictions for crimes such as cattle stealing and abduction of women, carelessness, exorbitant rates of interest, dishonest money-lenders whose evil practices are rendered easy by the illiteracy of the vast majority of the people, loss of cattle and bad seasons. The expenses of the majority of the Muhammadan agricultural population now exceed their incomes. Even the *jāgīr*-holders are in most cases in debt, as are also the great *Sajjāda-nashīns* of shrines in spite of the grants given them by the State and their incomes from *nazar-niyāz* (offerings by devotees). A *dera* (or guest-house) has to be maintained according to the old custom by the Muhammadan *zamīndārs* all over the State and this is a great drain on their resources especially as this act of hospitality is much abused. Moreover, it is a matter of *izzat* for the well-to-do *zamīndārs* to keep buffaloes, cows, camels and horses and to set apart for their maintenance very large tracts of cultivated land, a relic of the olden times when cattle-breeding was their only occupation, the popular idea among them being *māl nāl zamīndār sohān he* (it is only by the possession of live-stock that a *zamīndār* can be looked up to). Hindu landowners combine money-lending and farming, and are generally free from debt as they are exempt from the expenditure necessary to keep up traditions of ostentation and hospitality. Hence the saying *eh kirār hai* (i. e., he is a *kirār*) applied to a Muhammadan who does not entertain guests and friends. The class of landholders who own small holdings and the tenants or farm labourers live more or less from hand to mouth, and in years of scarcity are reduced to extremities. The tenants generally all over the State, except in a few cases in the Lamma of hereditary tenants, are tenants-at-will and can be evicted without notice by the proprietor at any time after a harvest. This renders their position very precarious and gives the proprietor opportunities to exact from them what he can. Frequently when evicted they wander helplessly from village to village with their ploughs and cattle.

Mortgages in the State are generally of the following descriptions:—

Mortgages
and sales of
land.

- (a). *Sūd-mahār* (or *sūd panāla*) *barābar*: the mortgagee receives the full proprietary possession of the land, manages the cultivation, pays the revenue and takes the produce in lieu of interest. This is also known as *rihn bilqabza*.

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Agriculture

Mortgages
and sales of
land.

- (b). *Rihn-bilá-qabzá* : the mortgagee agrees to take interest on the loan at a fixed rate and the mortgagor remains in full possession and management of the land.
- (c). *Lekhá mukhí*, which is either *bilá-qabzá* (without possession) or *bil-qabza* (with possession). In the former case the mortgagor remains in possession of the land but cultivates it under the supervision of the mortgagee, and takes a tenant's share of the produce, handing over a proprietor's share (less the revenue which he pays himself) to the mortgagee, who credits its value against the interest agreed upon. In the latter case the mortgagee takes possession of the land and the mortgagor becomes his tenant only or, as not unfrequently happens, leaves the land and contents himself with getting the net profits accredited to his account. In this case the mortgagee (usually an astute money-lender) tries to prevent the mortgagor from ascertaining the net profits or from seeing that they are properly entered in the account book, with the result that the estate frequently becomes over-burdened and its redemption impossible.
- (d). *Rihn shartí* or *bai-bil-wafá* : Conditional sale.
- (e). *Rihn-dar-rihn* : Re-mortgage on the same conditions by the original mortgagee to another mortgagee.

The mortgagees are generally Hindu money-lenders, though well-to-do Muhammadan *zamíndárs* and State officials also occasionally take land in mortgage. The mortgagors are usually Muhammadan agriculturists or the Sikh emigrants from Patiala, Farídkot, Ferozepore and Ludhiána who were brought into the State in 1868-69 on the establishment of the British Agency in order to improve its agriculture.

Extent of
alienation.

The following statement shows in acres the quantity of land alienated, between 1867-68 and 1900-01, by sale and mortgage, by the agricultural tribes in the State to non-agriculturists (Hindús) and to agriculturists (mainly Muhammadans).

Tahsil.	MORTGAGE.			SALE.			TOTAL.		
	To agriculturists.	To non-agricul- turists.	Total.	To agriculturists.	To non-agricul- turists.	Total.	To agriculturists.	To non-agricul- turists.	Total.
	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.	Acrea.
Udha	12,250	27,515	39,765	44,124	114,353	158,477	56,374	141,868	198,242
	1,971	4,952	6,923	8,438	22,886	31,324	10,409	27,838	38,247
	1,751	2,795	4,546	6,775	9,383	16,158	8,526	12,178	20,704
Lamma	479	1,008	1,487	4,988	14,485	19,473	5,467	15,493	20,960
	1,753	3,229	4,982	12,367	16,983	29,350	14,060	20,222	34,282
	5,743	10,903	16,646	13,219	28,230	41,449	18,962	39,133	58,095
Total	23,947	50,402	74,349	89,851	26,330	296,181	113,798	256,732	370,530

CHAP. II. A.

Agriculture

Extent of
alienation.

CHAP. II. A.]

Agriculture

Rates of
interest

The common rate of interest in the State is very high, generally reaching or nearly approaching a *pakká paisa* (4 pies) in the rupee per month, or 25 % per annum. Compound interest, too, is usually charged. Grain loans are generally repaid after harvest and one and a half times or double the amount borrowed, has to be given back, no interest in cash being taken. In cash loans 10 or 20 % (*chilkāna*) is usually deducted from the principal, but the full amount is entered up against the debtor and interest charged on it. The above rates of interest are not allowed by the State Courts, as a law was passed in Bahawalpur in 1896 called the "Law of Interest and Imprisonment in satisfaction of Decree," to check exorbitant rates. An examination of the records of the State had shown that, for the period 1890-1894, 311,953 *bighas* of land had been alienated for Rs. 9,56,204, out of which 239,033 or more than three-fourths had been sold for Rs. 7,48,000 or at the rate of Rs. 3-5-7 a *bigha*. The immense amount of land permanently alienated at a small price per *bigha* seemed to be the result either of the fear of imprisonment for debt or of a dread of the accumulation of compound interest. The law was accordingly passed in 1896, and it divided debts into nine classes: (a) oral debts; (b) debts based on *bahí* accounts; (c) debts based on a written instrument; (d) debts secured by pledge of ornaments or dwelling-houses; (e) money loans to be repaid in produce at fixed times for a price much below market prices; (f) debts secured by a mortgage on agricultural land; (g) debts to be repaid at enhanced rates in case of non-payment at fixed times; (h) judgment debts; and (i) grain loans to be repaid in grain. For (a), (b) and (c) the rate of interest was not to exceed 18 % per annum, and the total interest was not to exceed the principal. For (d) the highest rate was fixed at 6 % and the total interest was not to exceed half the principal. For (e) the value of produce to be paid was fixed at market rates and interest was not to exceed half the amount of the original loan. For (f) the rate of interest was not to exceed 6 % and the total interest charged was never to be more than half the principal in the case of simple mortgage; and in the case of usufructuary mortgages no interest was to be allowed, as the produce was to be taken by the mortgagee in lieu of interest. For (g) the rate of interest was not to exceed 24 % per annum and the total interest was not to exceed the amount of the principal. For (h) no interest was to be allowed by Courts for the period commencing from the date of the decree except in special cases when it might be allowed up to a rate of 3 %, and on (i) the total interest was not to exceed half the quantity originally lent. In addition to these provisions, the Act enacted that Courts could not enforce payment of debts by cash instead of by produce and cattle, and these latter (*gesh*), where tendered in payment of decree before Court, were to be valued by arbitrators appointed by the Court. This Act is still in force and has worked and still works well in the State.

With its scanty rainfall anything like *bārāni* cultivation in the State is next to impossible. Agriculture depends almost entirely on irrigation from wells, inundation canals, river floods, *jhalārs* on the banks of rivers and canals. Even well irrigation unless supplemented by canals, or river floods, is a precarious means of cultivation, except in rare seasons of good rainfall. The composition or quality of soil has much less to do with the produce than the amount and character of the irrigation received. For this reason land has always been classed in the State revenue papers according to its method of irrigation—see Settlements, Chapter III, Section C. All the Kharif crops require at least 3 to 4 waterings, while indigo, maize and rice need at least 6. Rice in particular requires constant waterings, and on most of the canals where the demand of water for other crops is great, rice cultivation is ordinarily not allowed by the State. The Rabi crops, especially wheat and gram, when they are sown on well lands, require at least three waterings. If canal irrigation is also available, on well lands the canals give only the preliminary flushing. On canal and *sailāb* lands wheat, gram, *ussūn*, turnips, mustard, *chardāl* and other Rabi crops can generally be matured with the single watering they receive during the flood season even without the help of winter rains, as the soils are so retentive of moisture. With one or two fair rainfalls in winter the Rabi crops grow as luxuriantly as the crops of the districts regularly irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The Cholistan *bārāni* areas require from 2 to 3 showers of rain to mature Kharif and Rabi crops. This tract, says Mr. Barns, "is in its general level from 10 to 25 feet higher than flood level and about 9,000 square miles in extent: it is divided from the desert by a depression locally called the *Hakra* or *Wāhand* through which the surplus waters of the country drained by the *Ghaggar* find their way through Sindh towards the sea; large proportions of this central tract are here and there covered by sand-drifts from the adjoining desert, but on a rough calculation about half of the total area, or say 4,500 square miles of first class land, is fit for the plough if water for irrigating it were available; should a channel be brought down from Colonel Anderson's proposed dam at Ferozepore it would be perfectly feasible to place every acre of the good land in this tract under high level irrigation."⁽¹⁾ Since Mr. Barns wrote the *Ghaggar* waters have but very seldom reached these tracts, but the local *Hakra* depression collects a large quantity of water in rainfall which it retains for a long time, and Rabi cultivation in its bed is matured without the aid of further rains after sowings.

The only form of well in use in the State is the Persian wheel. *Lān* and *charsa* wells are never used. The ordinary well is either lined with baked brick masonry and known as a *pakkā khūh*, or with

Wells.

(1) Bahawalpur Administration Report for 1870.

CHAP. II. A.

Irrigation

Construction
of wells.

logs, in which case it is known as *kachchá* or *ghat dá kharora*. A well lined with wattles is called *lei* (or *pilchhi*) *dá kharora*, wattles being made from the *lei* bush (*Tamarisk dioica*). Without a lining *kachchá* wells cannot be built except in the nearer Cholistán where very narrow wells, usually from 2 to 3 feet in circumference, are sunk for obtaining drinking water only. In the extreme Rohi, this is impossible owing to the fineness of the sand in the lower substrata of the soil.

Generally a spot over which *suchcha kána* grows is selected for sinking a well, as under that plant sweet water is supposed to exist. The site having been selected, a hole larger than the brick cylinder proposed is excavated down to the *sach* or the stratum of water giving sand. This hole is called *pār*. The wooden base of the brick work, called the *talwang* or *chak*, is then laid down in the *pār*, and the cylinder (*kothí*) of brick work is built upon it till it reaches a few feet above the surface of the ground. The sand or *hán* at the bottom of the *pār* and under the *chak* is then dug out. This process of removing mud inside and under the *chak* enables the cylinder to sink down gradually as the additions are made to it at the top. This removal of mud is called *tobhí*, and is performed by *tobhás*, a class of professional well-sinkers, generally sent for from Hoshiárpur and Jullundur Districts by the inhabitants of the Ubha. As soon as the cylinder reaches the true water stratum, which is usually from 8 to 10 feet below the place where water is first found, the parapet (*gal*) portion of the cylinder above the ground is completed. There is no fixed depth to which a cylinder should be sunk below the water level. If the soil is firm a smaller depth is sufficient than when *jillh* (soft mud) or *hán* (clay which is hard like stone) is encountered. But in the State very few wells are sunk to the *sach* or the true spring of water, the cylinder being always allowed to rest on firm soil, although this is higher up than the *sach*. This accounts for the drying up of most of the wells in the State in a season of drought. Wells, especially those situated near the river, are subject to much influx of sand and have therefore to be cleaned out by *tobhás* every third or fourth year.

Well ap-
paratus and
estimated
cost.

The wood-work of a well is known as *chakkal chob*. Its chief parts are the large horizontal wheel (*chakkal*), the vertical pole on which it turns (*phurjal* or *bharol*), the horizontal beam fixed in the *mannas* or the small walls raised outside the *bharol* (*kánjan*), the vertical wheel fixed in the *kánjan* (*chakli*), the lever furnished with a seat for the driver (*gádhí*), the ropes hung with pots (*máhl*), the sticks fastening the pots to the ropes (*arerían*), the piece of wood hanging close to the mouth of the well to keep the *máhl* in their proper place (*sútar tor*), the cog (*tháka* or *kuttá*), the wooden trough into which the pots empty the water (*párchhá*), the longer conduit which takes away water from the *párchhá* into the cistern (*nisár*, generally made of the trunk of a date tree),

CHAP. II. A

Irrigation.

Well apparatus and estimated cost.

the log on which the *nisār* rests (*jhat*, lit. prop), and the cistern into which the water falls from the *nisār* (*khāda* or *chabachcha*). The cost of the wooden frame work varies according as wood of superior or inferior quality is used. Generally it is between Rs. 35 and Rs. 45, but often the owners of wells use their own trees and have to pay the carpenter only. Wells are sometimes built large enough to allow of two Persian wheels working at the same time. Such double-wheeled wells are known as *wān* or *dohatta*. A *wān* costs about one-third more than a single-wheeled well of the same depth. *Wāns* are worked when the water supply in the well is sufficient to allow it, and when the water runs short only one wheel is used. Before the construction of perennial canals on the Punjab rivers the river floods were more than sufficient for purposes of irrigation and the *zamīndārs* constructed very few wells. When subsequently the rivers failed to supply the usual amount of water, in spite of the construction of new canals in the State, irrigation was reduced to an unsatisfactory condition: *zamīndārs* were then instructed to sink wells and various encouragements were held out to them to do so. *Taqāvi* grants were freely made, and under the rules repayment was to be made by instalments within 12 years. Moreover, the wells so constructed were exempted from *parta* or water-rate for 12 years and wood for the well gear and apparatus was given at half the usual price. In addition to the amounts advanced as *taqāvi* (see p. 234 above) the *zamīndārs* themselves spent the following amount on the construction of wells:—

		Rs.	a.
From 1878-79 to 1882-83	...	1,82,599	10
" 1883-84 to 1893-94	...	2,45,200	0
" 1894-95 to 1898-99	...	84,284	10
Total	...	5,12,084	4

The depth of wells in the riverain tracts is generally from 25 to 30 feet, whereas previous to the opening of the Punjab perennial canals it was from 10 to 20 feet. In seasons of drought some of the wells retain their water though at a lower level, but most of them then give water only for 12 hours in the day, while others get quite dry. The average area irrigated by a well lying on lands near the river, the ploughing and sowing of which are done with the aid of the river floods is 40 *bighas*. Similarly the average area irrigated by a well at a distance from the river, but situated in the canal irrigation zone, and where ploughing and sowing are done with the aid of canal water, is 30 *bighas*. The wells which are helped neither by floods nor canals can irrigate 15 *bighas* only. In years of drought the average in all cases falls by over one-third. This average is in the case of the Rabi crops; in the case of the Kharif when irrigation is generally done only at night time and the excessive heat of the atmosphere and the land causes rapid evaporation, the area irrigated is hardly one-third of the average of the Rabi irrigation.

Depth of wells and average area irrigated by each.

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The number of wells and their depths in 1878-79 when the British Agency was withdrawn was as under:—

Number of
wells in
1878-79.

Number.	Name of <i>Ilāqā</i> .	Number of wells.	Depths.				REMARKS.
			10 ft. to 15 ft. or 12½ ft. on the average.	16 ft. to 20 ft. or 18 ft. on the average.	21 ft. to 25 ft. or 23 ft. on the average.	26 ft. to 30 ft. or 28 ft. on the average.	
1	Minchinābād and Nahr	676	311	145	125	95	
	Khairpur	2,479	859	781	488	351	
3	Bahāwalpur	1,788	758	428	392	210	
4	Ahmadpur	1,449	401	398	345	305	
5	Khānpur and Allāhābād	3,266	1,026	823	797	620	
6	Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamā.	2,155	795	675	357	298	
	Total	11,813	4,150	3,250	2,534	1,879	
	Multipled into	...	12 (average).	18 (average).	23 (average).	28 (average).	
	Product	...	51,875	58,500	58,282	52,612	= 221,269.
	Divided by	= 19 ft. average depth.
		11,813					

At present (1903-04) the number of wells in the State with their approximate cost, depth, etc., is as follows:—

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Irrigation.

Number of wells.	DEPTH IN FEET.		Average cost in rupees.	Pairs of bullock to work 24 hours.	AREA IRRIGATED BY A WELL (IN ACRES).		Number of wells in 1903-04.
	From	To			Rabi.	Kharif.	
1,706	18	20	300	3	19	6	
3,978	21	25	350	4	16	5	
4,870	26	30	420	4	15	4	
3,611	31	35	450	5	15	4	
1,955	36	40	490	5	13	4	
925	41	45	530	6	12	4	
108	46	50	575	6	10	4	
52	51	60	650	6	10	3	
15	61	70	720	7	8	3	
Total	17,220						

Of these 13,630 are in working order and the remaining 3,590 have fallen out of use. In addition to the above there are 2,420 unbricked wells (*kharoras*) in the riverain tracts.

All the State canals are inundation canals. In connection with the old canal irrigation of the State Mr. Barns says:—"Irrigation must have always been in vogue and, equally with Sindh and the Punjab, the canals received more or less care according as the ruler for the time being was energetic or otherwise. My opinion is that at a period less than 50 years since the irrigation of this State was in a far more prosperous condition than when Major Minchin took charge of the State; the number of canals large and small (omitting all under 10 feet breadth) then in existence was as follows:—vi., 26 from the Sutlej, 6 from the Chenáb, and 6 from the Indus." (1) Moreover in Khairpur Tahsil there were three large natural depressions, by means of which irrigation was effected and there were many small cuts, to be scarcely called canals, and other old depressions (*haryáris*) across which dams (*bands*) were constructed for the irrigation of areas in the riverain. "These cuts," says Mr. Barns, "were for the most part such as may be termed local, each District officer resorting to that part of the river nearest to where the land to be irrigated lay, the local knowledge of the relative levels of the ground being a sufficient guide for the comparatively short distance water had to be led. In all these cuts it was an accepted condition that only the land on the last few miles in length would be irrigated by natural flow and that for about two-thirds of the total length of the canal cultivation was more or less dependent on irrigation by lift." Except the canals enumerated in the footnote all other canals and branches in the State were constructed either in the Agency period or after.

Canals.

Canals before the first Agency.

Canals improved under the British Agency.

(1) The canals, large and small, that existed before the establishment of the Agency were: (1) Qáimwáb, (2) Tallharwáb, (3) Máruwáb, (4) Gáganwáb, and (5) Tolawáb, in Khairpur Tahsil; (6) Parpáta in Minchinábád Tahsil; (7) Nauranga, (8) Khánwáb in Bahawalpur Tahsil; (9) Qutbwáb, (10) Sultánwáb, (11) Mubárákwáb, (12) Bibáráwáb, (13) Channíwáb, (14) Baháwalwáb Khurd, (15) Súmarwáb, (16) Banwáb and (17) Fazlwáb in Ahmadpur Tahsil; (18) Kudanwáb, (19) Kanbírúwáb, (20) Bahádurwáb, (21) Faizwáb, (22) Ahmadwáb, (23) Faizwáb, (24) Sabzalwáb, (25) Muhammadwáb, (26) Diggawáb, and (27) Khuranwáb in Kháspur Nizamat.

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Irrigation.

Canals improved under the British Agency.

wards. The first step taken towards improving the State irrigation under the British Agency was to revise the gradients of the existing canals. This is thus described by Mr. Barns :—

"As the success of irrigation may be measured by the relative proportion which cultivation by lift bears to that by natural flow, our first care has been to revise the gradients of existing canals and extend their heads to so much higher up stream as will command high level lands for irrigation by natural flow. In this manner not only are we enabled to utilize every canal on the line whether in use or not, but all the old zamindari cuts therefrom, excavated, perhaps, by the forefathers of the present generation, came at once into play as distribution channels, and thus revived the latent fertility of a district that may have lain fallow for a century past.

"This extension of the heads upstream and the simultaneous revision of gradient has, as may be supposed, considerably increased the ordinary flow of water, and in many instances has enabled us to increase the area of high level irrigation by extending the tail ends of the canals so improved. A water gauge has been erected on the banks of the Sutlej near Bahawalpur.....The greatest rise above zero of the floods in 1869 was 6½ feet and an addition of 2½ feet will give the highest rise above zero to which the Sutlej is ever subject at this place ; with this moderate rise and a slope of country fully one foot per mile, it will strike the engineer as affording great facilities for irrigation as compared with many of our Indian rivers.....As a first step towards conservancy a dárogah and one or more náibs are appointed to each large canal, and many water gauges have been erected. One overseer for each nizamat has been sanctioned, but great difficulty is found in getting experienced men from the Panjab where works of such magnitude are in progress, and the sub-overseers employed to fill up the vacancies have not had sufficient experience to be trusted out alone. The amount of engineering work going on in each nizamat is quite sufficient to occupy the whole time of an experienced Assistant Engineer, and whenever the state of our finances may admit I believe it will be to the interest of the State to have one Assistant Engineer stationed in each nizamat.

New canals under the Agency.

After improving the existing works the British officers took in hand new works. The most important canals excavated by them between 1867-77 were :—

<i>Nizamat.</i>		<i>Canal.</i>	<i>Cost in Rs.</i>
Minchinábád ..	(1).	Fordwáh ...	3,63,468
"	(2) to (5).	Murádwáh with branches, viz., Right Branch, Kallarwáh, and Faizwáh	77,244
"	(6).	Greywáh (Ubha) ...	15,228
"	(7).	Sotri Escape ...	11,211
"	(8).	Katorawáh ...	5,508
"	(9).	Daulatwáh ...	47,650
"	(10).	Harewáh ...	
Bahawalpur...	(10).	Burnewáh ...	
"	(11).	New Head of Husainwáh ...	
"	(12).	Birchwáh ...	
"	(13).	Calthropwáh ...	
Khánpur ...	(14).	Barnswáh (with Beckettwháh and other branches).	12,09,667
"	(15).	Sádiqwáh (with branches) ...	
"	(16).	Minchinwáh (with branches) ...	
"	(17).	Greywáh (with branches) ...	
			<hr/> 17,29,976

The Fordwáh was named after Mr. Ford, Commissioner of Multán, who in 1866 took over charge of the State as first Political Agent; other canals were called after the various British and native officers of the Agency period.

In the reign of the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV two most important canals were excavated, *viz.*, the Sádiqiyah Sharqiyah in Minchinábád Nizámat and the Sádiqiyah Garbiyah in Khánpur Nizámat. The Sádiqiyah Sharqiyah Canal was first undertaken in 1889 with a head of 20 feet wide for the irrigation of the Cholistán tract of Minchinábád Nizámat for a distance of about 26 miles in length. In 1898 the head was further widened to 50 feet, and the tail of the canal was extended 14 miles, or 40 miles in all. It was previously intended to carry it to the Deráwar Fort, a distance of 165 miles, from the head. Part of the head of the canal was up to 1892 in Fázilka Tahsíl for which the *zamíndárs* of Pakká Chishtí and Jhangar gave lands without a rent to the State authorities, as the piece of land utilized was so small; but in 1893 the Sutlej changed its bed, and a larger piece of land about 16 *bighas* in size had to be obtained from the *zamíndárs* of these villages for the head of the canal. In 1900 the river again changed its course, and the British *zamíndárs* refused to give land for its head. The Deputy Commissioner of Ferozepore was requested to use his influence with the *zamíndárs* in getting land for the State under the Land Acquisition Act, but to no avail. At last His Highness the present Nawáb went to the spot in April 1901 and obtained from the British *zamíndárs* permission to cut a head through their lands, on payment of an annual rent of Rs. 20 per acre. Since that date rent is annually paid not only for the head of the Nahr Sádiqiyah but also for the head of the Fordwáh, which also lies in Fázilka Tahsíl. In 1904 His Highness sanctioned 10 lakhs of rupees for the extension and widening of the canal. The excavation work has been in progress since September 1904. The present width at the head is 150 feet and the length of the canal is to be 66 miles. More than six lakhs of rupees were spent on it up to the end of March 1906. It is intended in the future to take this canal to the Marot Fort, a distance of about 120 miles from the head.

The Sádiqiyah Garbiyah Canal with a head 80 feet wide was excavated in 1887-89 at a cost of Rs. 4,92,833, with a view to supplying a feeder for the Pírwáh, Kuddanwáh, Kabírwáh, Greywáh, Bahádúrwáh, Muhammadwáh and Khánwáh which have been cut off from the river on account of the intervention, under "Avulsion" rules, of *chakkars* of Mazárí lands of Dera Ghází Khán District between the State area and the Indus.

The irrigation system placed on a regular footing and conducted on scientific principles by the British officers between 1867-78, was allowed to fall comparatively into neglect on the termination

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Irrigation.

Canals
excavated in
the time of
the late
Nawáb Sir
Sádiq Muham-
mad Khán
IV.

Colonel Grey,
Superinten-
dent (1899-
1903),

CHAP. II. A.

Irrigation.

Colonel Grey,
Superintendent (1899—
1903).

of the Agency. The result was that the canals lost much of the value of their scientific construction, the distribution of water was defective, gradings of beds and benchmarking being neglected. Silt in the course of clearance was not thrown far enough to keep the berms clean but accumulated on the margin of the banks like sand-hills and soon filled the beds of the canals again; embankments were not strengthened, and there was a large escape of water through the breaches. Moreover, the number of *mirábs* was very small and little supervision was possible. Many of the necessary improvements were effected during the superintendency of Colonel Grey. In certain cases canals were regraded; in others only furnished with regulators, in which respect much still remains to be done. A large number of *mirábs* was appointed, and honorary *munsifs* from among the *zamíndárs* were selected at suitable distances on canals to help the irrigation staff in the annual clearance of silt and the distribution of water of the canals.

The canals constructed and readjusted in Colonel Grey's time were—

- (1) *Qutbáwáh in Ahmadpur Tahsil.*—This was enlarged, its head being taken out about 15 miles higher up the Sutlej. The head was also made 20 feet wider than before (or 60 feet in all). It was renamed Baháwalwáh.
- (2) *The Fordwáh.*—This being 110 miles long, gave little water supply in comparison with the area depending on it. It was closed at mile 63 and confined to Minchinábád Tahsil. The areas depending on it below mile 66 were provided with a new branch from the Daulatwáh, called the Masúdwáh.
- (3) *The Daulatwáh.*—This was closed at Mahta Jhedú and a new canal, called the Mahmúdwáh, was taken out from the Sutlej to irrigate areas below Mahta Jhedú village.
- (4) Two new branches called the Baháwalwáh and Zamarrudwáh were also taken out from the Fordwáh to irrigate the areas to the north and south of Chabiána and Baháwalnagar.

Various other branches were constructed on other important canals, but the most valuable work done by Colonel Grey was the improvement of the existing canals. These canals and *rájbahás* were excavated in lands which stood in great need of canal irrigation and generally paid a low rate of revenue.

Recent extension of canal irrigation.

The State is always ready to excavate canals and *rájbahás* on the *takávi* system, the money spent being realizable in instalments by levying water-rate (*ábíána*), varying from annas 2 to annas 6 per cropped *bigha* in each harvest over and above the revenue fixed. The canals and *rájbahás* constructed in this way are the Nahr Sádiqiyah Sharqiyah, Azam Chhína, Baháwalwáh, Zamarrudwáh,

etc. When the money spent by the State is paid back a modified revenue rate is imposed. In the Lamma Tahsils where the rents are generally two-fifths the statute labour has to be performed by the landowners, but in the Ubha Tahsils where the *batái* is from one fourth to one-third the *chher* is furnished by the tenant.

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Irrigation.

Munsifs' dues.

The honorary munsifs appointed to help the Irrigation Department are granted a remission of 2 seers, $1\frac{1}{2}$ seers, or 1 seer, respectively (see *chher* system of silt clearance below), according as they are first class, second class or third class in rank. They receive no other emoluments.

The total area commanded by the State Inundation Canals as returned in the latest revenue records is 2,870,928 acres, of which 970,604 acres are returned as cultivated and 1,900,324 acres, including areas under forests and plantation, as uncultivated. The latter area is being gradually brought under cultivation by owners and lease-holders. In certain canals escapes have been constructed at considerable distances for the irrigation of uplands near the banks of those canals. These escapes supply water only during the flood season and contribute towards the cultivation of the Rabi crops of the uplands where flood irrigation is impossible at ordinary times. The decrease in the supply of water available in the rivers has gradually been followed by the lowering of the beds of canals. The State has therefore constructed *pakká* regulators or small weirs with a view to facilitating the irrigation of the higher lying lands. The distribution of water is conducted after the *wárabandí* (turn by turn) system, and a large establishment has been organised to carry it out. The construction of the regulators has cost the State over five lacs of rupees and the work is still going on on a larger scale, regulators to the number of three or four being built every year as funds permit.

Irrigated area and improvements in irrigation system.

The total number of canals drawn from the Sutlej, Chenáb and the Indus is 36. From these 260 big channels have been conducted well into the State; all these are cleared by the Irrigation Department under the *chher* system. There are also 24,875 small distributaries, the clearance of which is done by the *zamíndárs* themselves. The statement below gives the particulars regarding the canals, the area depending upon them, etc., etc. :—

Total number of canals and branches.

No.	River.	Canal.	Length in miles	Breadth in feet.
1	Sutlej	Nahr Sádiqiyah Sharqiyah	66	150
2	"	Fordwáh	63	100
3	"	Azam Chhína... ..	12	20

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Irrigation.

No.	River.	Canal.	Length in miles.	Breadth in feet.
4	Sutlej	Parpáta	20	40
5	"	Doulatwáh	45	50
6	"	Mahmúdwáh	42	60
7	"	Qáimwáh	22	25
8	"	Ahmadwáh	45	60
9	"	M'arúfwáh	20	20
10	"	Gáganwáh	20	30
11	"	Tolawáh	25	20
12	"	Husainwáh	25	40
13	"	Burawáh	36	72
14	"	Baháwalwáh	35	50
15	"	Pírwáh	10	16
16	"	Sultánwáh	28	30
17	"	Fazalwáh	9	15
18	"	Mubárawáh	10	10
19 & 19a	"	Bakhatwáh	24	36
		Sonwáh	10	
20	Chenab	Burwáh	14	30
21	"	Biháriwáh	28	50
22	"	Minchinwáh	42	80
23	"	Barneswáh	40	70
24	"	Sádiqwáh	35	80
25	"	Daggawáh	29	35
26	Indus	Nahr Sádiqiyah Gharbiyah	56	80
27	"	Greywáh	28	35
28	"	Bahádarwáh	13	30
29	"	Muhammadwáh	23	30
30	"	Ahmadwáh	37	40
31	"	Fázilwáh	27	30
32	"	Khúnawáh	10	20
33	"	Sabzalwáh	24	30
34	"	Máhiwáh	8	12
35	"	Walluwáh	5	12

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Statement of Irrigation accomplished.* [PART A.

The following table gives the cultivated and uncultivated areas irrigated by the foregoing Canal :—

CHAP. II.A

Irrigation.

Irrigated area.			Uncultivated area including area under Forest.	Total.
Kharif.	Rabi.	Total.		
35,620	15,690	51,310	173,690	225,000
31,995	28,293	60,288	165,810	226,098
3,120	6,715	9,835	2,620	12,455
1,140	12,675	13,815	15,210	29,025
18,392	22,031	40,243	148,640	188,063
16,225	20,900	37,125	22,510	59,635
3,668	4,303	7,871	1,228	20,063
10,390	19,650	30,040	17,720	47,760
4,538	4,828	9,366	10,024	19,390
2,362	3,814	6,176	6,967	13,143
910	2,181	3,091	6,302	9,393
19,300	19,947	39,247	21,460	60,707
28,781	29,131	57,912	55,357	113,269
36,639	15,711	52,350	52,750	105,100
8,300	2,500	10,800	13,402	24,202
9,600	4,800	14,400	17,789	32,189
5,680	2,809	8,489	24,822	33,311
835	700	1,535	4,035	5,570
17,285	26,190	43,475	53,817	97,292
6,300	11,000	17,300	16,296	33,596
18,540	26,275	44,815	48,737	93,552
36,100	41,377	77,567	120,023	197,590
28,625	22,190	50,815	7,723	129,538
49,531	38,873	88,404	140,242	228,646
23,270	9,935	33,205	38,927	72,132
58,597	41,960	101,557	397,103	498,660
6,963	4,017	10,980	40,302	51,282
4,242	1,069	5,311	20,520	25,831
6,317	1,757	8,074	35,107	43,181
10,963	2,082	13,045	53,327	66,372
8,562	3,857	12,419	51,465	63,884
1,491	416	1,907	6,105	8,012
3,099	2,392	5,491	23,313	28,804
942	535	1,477	3,157	4,634
339	530	869	1,680	2,549
518,751	451,853	970,604	1,990,324	2,870,928

CHAP. II. A.

Irrigation.

The maintenance of this canal system has cost the State Rs. 21,53,583-14-2 during the years 1878-79 to 1901, as detailed below :—

Serial number.	Year.	NEW WORKS.				COST OF CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENTS REFLECTED.			
		Provided by the State.	Takavi advance.	Total.		Provided by the State.	Takavi advance.	Total.	
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
1	1878-79	1,22,247 3 8	3,537 5 9	1,25,784 8 5		19,726 12 7	..	19,726 12 7	
2	1879-80	67,815 5 4	..	67,815 5 4		6,176 15 1	..	6,176 15 1	
3	1880-81	40,816 15 9	..	40,816 15 9		29,237 12 11	..	29,237 12 11	
4	1881-82	55,745 7 1	..	55,745 7 1		14,639 11 1	..	14,639 11 1	
5	1882-83	38,537 8 5	..	38,537 8 5		17,052 5 1	..	17,052 5 1	
6	1883-84	21,855 8 7	..	21,855 8 7		23,424 3 1	..	23,424 3 1	
7	1884-85	18,595 4 4	10,890 0 0	29,485 4 4		19,292 0 4	..	19,292 0 4	
8	1885-86	7,929 12 4	13,231 10 8	21,161 7 0		16,494 3 3	..	16,494 3 3	
9	1886-87	1,09,160 6 8	..	1,09,160 6 8		13,121 2 1	..	13,121 2 1	
10	1887-88	69,226 8 10	..	69,226 8 10		11,609 10 6	..	11,609 10 6	
11	1888-89	3,86,884 11 9	24,120 0 0	4,11,004 11 9		15,651 1 2	..	15,651 1 2	
12	1889-90	30,722 5 11	20,905 0 0	51,627 5 11		19,284 13 8	..	19,284 13 8	
13	1890-91	29,545 8 5	1,224 10 2	30,770 2 7		12,201 7 11	..	12,201 7 11	
14	1891-92	27,421 3 11	1,221 0 0	28,642 3 11		13,294 9 10	..	13,294 9 10	
15	1892-93	12,576 15 4	12,880 0 0	25,456 15 4		2,896 5 11	..	2,896 5 11	
16	1893-94	51,331 15 0	..	51,331 15 0		21,753 3 11	..	21,753 3 11	
17	1894-95	..	3,000 0 0	3,000 0 0		25,692 8 10	..	25,692 8 10	
18	1895-96	17,229 0 0	2,806 2 0	20,035 2 0		18,673 8 3	..	18,673 8 3	
19	1896-97	31,847 4 10	24,533 9 11	56,380 14 9		16,341 3 2	..	16,341 3 2	
20	1897-98	15,352 0 0	6,846 6 9	22,198 6 9		23,210 5 3	..	23,210 5 3	
21	1898-99	16,458 0 0	60,360 11 0	76,818 0 11		17,128 0 7	..	17,128 0 7	
22	1899-1900	1,76,241 8 8	26,891 0 0	2,03,132 8 8		3,136 8 8	..	3,136 8 8	
23	1900-01	77,985 10 8	12,722 4 0	90,707 14 8		8,452 14 8	..	8,452 14 8	
GRAND TOTAL		14,28,826 9 9	2,25,469 12 3	16,54,296 6 0		3,68,092 7 10	..	3,68,092 7 10	

Serial number.	Year.	Cost of Repairs in sluices, sundelars and of compensation, etc.			GRAND TOTAL.		
		Provided by the State.	Takies advance.	Total.	Provided by the State.	Takies advance.	Total.
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1	1878-79	2,578 6 9	...	2,578 6 9	1,44,552 6 0	3,537 5 9	1,48,089 11 9
2	1879-80	2,485 3 2	...	2,485 3 2	76,477 7 7	...	76,477 7 7
3	1880-81	3,239 3 5	...	3,239 3 5	73,294 0 1	...	73,294 0 1
4	1881-82	919 6 8	...	919 6 8	71,304 8 10	...	71,304 8 10
5	1882-83	4,741 11 6	...	4,741 11 0	60,331 9 0	...	60,331 9 9
6	1883-84	1,464 10 10	...	1,464 13 10	46,744 9 6	...	46,744 9 6
7	1884-85	1,136 1 3	...	1,136 1 3	39,023 5 11	...	39,023 5 11
8	1885-86	4,254 12 8	...	4,254 12 8	28,678 12 3	...	49,613 5 11
9	1886-87	2,908 14 7	...	2,908 14 7	1,25,190 7 4	...	41,910 6 11
10	1887-88	1,636 9 8	...	1,636 9 8	82,472 13 0	...	1,25,190 7 4
11	1888-89	863 13 6	...	863 13 6	4,03,394 10 5	...	82,472 13 0
12	1889-90	945 12 3	...	945 12 3	50,952 15 10	...	4,27,519 10 5
13	1890-91	762 6 8	...	762 6 8	42,499 7 0	...	71,857 15 10
14	1891-92	1,538 2 8	...	1,538 2 8	42,254 0 5	...	43,724 1 2
15	1892-93	2,666 2 0	...	2,666 2 0	18,439 7 3	...	43,475 0 5
16	1893-94	598 1 2	301 8 0	899 9 2	73,093 4 1	...	31,319 7 3
17	1894-95	1,433 3 0	...	1,433 3 0	27,126 11 10	...	73,984 12 1
18	1895-96	3,462 9 1	...	3,462 9 1	39,365 6 7	...	30,126 11 10
19	1896-97	12,209 2 0	...	12,209 2 0	63,897 10 0	...	42,171 3 11
20	1897-98	3,057 1 5	...	3,057 1 5	41,619 6 8	...	88,231 3 11
21	1898-99	1,355 3 9	...	1,355 3 9	34,941 4 4	...	48,465 13 5
22	1899-1900	3,531 13 10	...	3,531 13 10	1,82,909 15 2	...	95,201 15 0
23	1900-01	3,344 8 0	...	3,344 8 0	89,783 1 4	...	2,09,800 15 2
GRAND TOTAL		61,123 2 10	301 8 0	61,424 10 10	18,58,442 4 5	2,35,771 4 3	21,58,583 14 2

GRAND TOTAL

CHAP. II.A.

Irrigation.

Besides the above cost the value of the statute labour done by the *zamin-dars* is Rs. 1,11,31,632-13-6 as detailed below:—

Serial number.	Year.	New Works.			Annual clearance of canals.			Repairs in sluices, gunádas, etc.			Total for canals.			Excavation of watercourses.			Grand Total.		
		Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.			
1	1878-79	40,231	15	5	2,39,203	12	11	2,79,435	12	4
2	1879-80	40,913	6	11	2,69,684	3	3	8,649	14	0	8,20,038	9	3
3	1880-81	43,189	15	11	1,86,776	12	0	300	0	0	2,45,193	0	6
4	1881-82	36,814	9	7	3,99,023	4	0	3,68,030	4	2
5	1882-83	3,909	3	3	1,96,340	4	0	2,02,806	7	3
6	1883-84	10,567	0	2	3,02,657	0	0	3,18,481	14	2
7	1884-85	14,032	0	7	3,00,697	12	0	3,20,891	12	7
8	1885-86	80,542	6	5	3,35,447	8	0	4,18,585	4	10
9	1886-87	11,295	7	1	3,18,691	4	0	3,31,988	2	3
10	1887-88	3,904	3	0	3,49,995	12	0	3,56,597	9	0
11	1888-89	1,120	14	0	3,91,539	0	0	51	10	0	4,01,309	2	11
12	1889-90	14,078	6	11	5,36,768	0	0	8,607	10	11
13	1890-91	18,361	15	8	5,10,838	4	0	138	0	0	9,015	13	6
14	1891-92	10,281	11	6	5,97,493	4	0	1,030	6	4	2,907	15	1
15	1892-93	14,056	8	3	6,04,383	1	3	550	0	0	8,686	11	6
16	1893-94	26,535	10	2	6,41,911	5	4	4,705	0	0
17	1894-95	37,829	11	0	5,49,769	9	7	4,404	0	0
18	1895-96	17,903	3	11	7,07,113	1	0	2,075	8	0
19	1896-97	26,786	13	8	6,46,349	14	0	1,866	3	3
20	1897-98	26,573	9	7	7,32,688	13	0	116	3	4	5,900	11	11
21	1898-99	65,223	12	1	4,09,530	3	5	202	5	4	6,054	5	3
22	1899-1900	99,230	14	9	3,44,229	3	5	3,691	1	10
23	1900-01	4,08,594	1	4	4,29,968	2	9	10,925	8	0	9,779	3	1
GRAND TOTAL		10,61,978	9	8	98,10,932	5	11	21,963	15	0	1,09,94,874	14	7	1,36,757	14	11	1,11,31,632	13	8

No water-rate (*ābidna*) being levied except in the case of *takāri* canals or *rājbahās* to be described further on, the annual clearance of silt and other excavation of the heads of canals is done by the *chher* system. The *chher* system was a very old institution in Sindh. In the pre-Agency period in Bahawalpur when canals ceased to run, during the month of November the *kārdārs* of the *ilāqa* used to fix the number of *chherās* (labourers) they considered necessary to complete the work of the clearance of silt and the excavation of the head of a canal before March. The number of labourers to be furnished by each village was then determined on. Some villages furnished labourers according to the number of their wells, or *pattīs*, or yokes; others according to the area irrigated, a certain number of labourers being fixed for each Rs. 50 worth of produce gathered at the last harvest. There were others who were made to furnish labour in the hope of obtaining water next season. The labourers thus furnished were required to be present during the entire season of clearance except when their substitutes relieved them: non-attendance was punished by fines. The system was popular, and canals were always made ready to run in time. This system was also upheld by the British Agency, but with this modification that each owner of an irrigated estate had to supply labour according to a fixed area, e.g., one labourer for every 50 or 100 *bighas* of cropped area. The unit of labour depended on the number of men required to remove the estimated amount of silt in the time available. The total irrigated area of the canal was then divided by this number of men and a unit of area was arrived at. Each owner had to supply one labourer for every such unit of land in his holding. In the first regular settlement, however, a *chherā* (or labourer) per hundred rupees of revenue demand was fixed as the unit, and this still obtains. The amount of excavation that can be done by one labourer is locally designated a *ser*, and fractions of a *ser* are called the *shāraks* and *shāīs*: (thus a *chherā* = a *ser* = 16 *shāraks* = 64 *shāīs*.) The total amount of excavation to be done is divided into *sers*, *shāraks* or *shāriks*, and *shāīs*, and distributed accordingly. Thus a man paying Rs. 130 as revenue has to clear or have cleared a *ser* and 6 *shāraks*, and one paying Rs. 5 has to clear 3 *shāīs*. The total number of *chherās* distributed by revenue demand for the various State canals is given below:—

Nizāmat.	Canal and branches.	Number of <i>chherās</i> and of <i>sers</i> .	Shāraks.
Minchinābād ...	Fordwāh ...	950	8
" ...	Daulatwāh ...	500	...
" ...	Mahmūd wāh ...	225	...
" ...	Ahmadwāh ...	232	4
" ...	Marūfwāh ...	85	3
" ...	Gāganwāh ...	81	8
" ...	Tolawāh ...	45	7

CHAP. II.A.

Irrigation.

Silt
clearance:
Chher system.

CHAP. II.A.	Nizámat.	Canal and branches.	Number of <i>chherás</i> and of <i>sers</i> .	Sháraks.
Irrigation.	Baháwalpur	Husainwáh	288	...
Silt	"	Burnewáh	715	...
clearance :	"	Baháwalwáh	377	3
<i>Chher</i> system.	"	Mubárákwáh	67	...
	"	Pirwáh	113	...
	"	Sultánwáh	294	4
	"	Mubárákwáh	12	$\frac{1}{2}$
	"	Fazalwáh	141	...
	"	Bakhtwáh	248	3
	"	Banwáh	119	3
	"	Harewáh	34	...
	"	Beháriwáh	388	1
	Khánpur	Minchinwáh	885	4
	"	Barnswáh	413	...
	"	Daggawáh	172	...
	"	Sádiqwáh	1,001	...
	"	Nahr Sádiqiyah Gharbiyah	1,896	...
	"	Sabzalwáh	125	...
	"	Fázilwáh	133	...
	"	Mubárákwáh	48	...
	"	Baháwalwáh	22	...
	"	Greywáh	152	...
	"	Bahádurwáh	110	...
	"	Muhammadwáh	115	...
	"	Ahmadwáh	223	...

Frequently, when work has to be urgently carried out, the number of *chherás* is increased, so that sometimes a landowner has to supply up to even as much as 16 times his due share of labour. Besides the above there are other canals and *rājbahás* on which *chher* is still levied on the measurement of the irrigated area, usually a *chherá* per 50 or 100 *bi has*. This practice obtains in the case of the canals and *rājbahás* that were excavated by advances of *takávi* to the *zamíndárs* after the conclusion of the last settlement.

Dams or
bands for
irrigation
purposes.

Besides the canals enumerated above there are many natural creeks running for considerable distances into the interior of the State in the beds of which dams are made. They are thus utilized for irrigation purposes. The following is a list of such dams :—

Tahsil.	Name of dam.	Date of erection.	Cost incurred. Rs.
Minchinábád	... Rám Singh	1870	2,900
"	... Azamchhína	1899	1,500
"	... Parpáta	1903	5,300
"	... Habíb ke	1868	1,000
"	... Khairsháh	1904	2,000
"	... Mammúnke	1905	1,000
"	... Wachhera	1905	2,500
Khairpur	... Núrpur	1902	500
"	... Mal Sháh	1902	500
"	... Bagdád	1902	900
"	... Luddan	1903	400

Besides the above a *band* close to Goth Lashkar in Baháwalpur Tahsíl, built at a cost of Rs. 10,000 in 1871, and the Minchin *band* in Khánpur Tahsíl, built in 1875 at a cost of Rs. 32,000, were made to protect the town of Baháwalpur and the towns of Alláhábád and Khán Bela, respectively, from unusual inroads of floods. For similar purposes dams were also made at Gauspur, Kot Samába and Tájgarh.

CHAP. II. A.

Irrigation.

Dams or
bands for
protection.

No tanks exist for irrigation purposes. *Tohbás* (or tanks) are excavated in the Cholistán for storage of drinking water. The old depressions in the Hithár called the *haryáris*, *dhands*, and *talás* are filled with water from canals in summer and utilized for irrigation by *jhalárs* in winter. Sometimes these depressions are only filled to produce the *ugajj* (see Chapter II, A. above) in the lands on the margin of the depressions, and this is considered the best kind of irrigation.

Tanks.

A *jhalár* is merely the Persian -wheel of a well transferred to the bank of a river, a lake (*dhand*), a *haryári*, or a canal. As the expenditure is small, consisting in the cost of wood-work only, *jhalárs* are constructed in great numbers and abandoned again without much loss to the *zamíndár*. In the case of *jhalárs* erected on canals only Kharif cultivation is possible; but *jhalárs* produce splendid Rabi crops on the banks of rivers and generally irrigate double the area irrigated by wells. They are now the main stay of the riverain villages where *sailába* has failed. *Jhalárs* are only erected close to the heads of the canals at places where flow irrigation is impossible. For such *jhalár* irrigated areas the *zamíndárs* have to pay *chher* at half the prescribed rates described above. An area irrigated by *jhalárs* from river water or *sailáb* water in a creek is called *ábí*.

Jhalárs.

Lands flooded by the overflow of the rivers are called *sailáb* or *sailába* lands (lit. *sail*, flood, *áb*, water). Generally floods from the rivers are very fertilizing, as the water brings with it much fine silt which is deposited on the land. Such silt is called *napi*, *latá*, *mair*, *mat*, *ot*, or *naván*. The effect of a plentiful deposit is said to last four years, for which period manure can be dispensed with. *Sailát* floods are always beneficial except when the water becomes in its course impregnated with salt washed away from *shora kallor*, as this then renders good soils unfit for cultivation. On the other hand, it often carries away the surface salts, sweetens wells and brings with it seeds of trees and of valuable grasses. A favourable flood season is one in which the floods last from the middle of July to the middle of September. If they last to the end of September or to the middle of October it is regarded as unusually fortunate. Practically there is no Kharif crop in the riverain. The general riverain cultivation begins in September when gram, peas, *methra* and *masar* are sown, to be followed in October and November by wheat, which is the main staple of the riverain. River floods become available in one of the following ways:—

Sailáb.

CHAP. II, A. viz., (a) by striking against the apex of a sudden curvature of the stream, where the bank is not too high; this is called *dhāk phissi*; (b) by a *nakās* or artificial cut leading into an adjacent old depression of the river: the floods thus available are either utilized by *jhalārs*, or dams are constructed to raise the water to the required level⁽¹⁾; (c) by flowing down creeks (*budhs*) over the shelving banks of which they spread, irrigating the adjoining low-lying land; and (d) by entering a creek which runs out of the stream in a direction back towards the river's source; this is called a *makúsi* flood, and is considered the best because the water enters the creek free of silt and does not block up its channel for many years. The construction of the Sirhind Canal has greatly affected *sailāb* cultivation on the Sutlej as will be seen from the following table:—

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
AVERAGE AREA IN BIGHAS IRRIGATED DURING THE FIVE YEARS PRECEDING 1883-84.					AVERAGE AREA IN BIGHAS IRRIGATED DURING THE LAST FIVE YEARS 1894-95—1899-1900.				
Area under cultivation.	Forest and <i>rañh</i> area.	Pasture area.	Area irrigated but not brought under cultivation.	Total.	Area under cultivation.	Forest and <i>rañh</i> area.	Pasture area.	Area irrigated but not brought under cultivation.	Total.
297,520	550,436	128,078	64,900	1,040,934	325,237	172,648	91,302	59,436	*648,623

* 392,311 bighas less than at last Settlement.

The following table gives the total *sailāb* areas of the Panjnad (Chenāb) and Indus rivers in the State for the last ten years:—

	Acre.
1895-96	72,651
1896-97	71,580
1897-98	72,370
1898-99	74,612
1899-1900	78,558
1900-01	76,547
1901-02	84,558
1902-03	1,15,255
1903-04	96,278
1904-05	1,26,294
1905-06	2,18,790

(1) This raising of water level by dams is called *śr*.

Canal water is believed to be superior to well water for all the various crops except tobacco, melons (*wári*), onions, garlic, and cotton (when the plants are about to flower). Well water is believed to produce salt efflorescence in soils whereas canal water removes it. Of the different sorts of irrigation *zamíndárs* have a proverb, viz., *Khúh dá púra, jhalár dá adhá, sailáb dá chauth*, i.e., well irrigation yields full crops, *jhalár* irrigation one-half, and *sailáb* one-fourth. (*Jhalár* here means *jhalárs* on canals).

CHAP. II A
Irrigation.

Canal and
well water
compared.

When proposals for the construction of the Lower Bári Doáb Canal were before Government in 1899, the State applied to Government to save it from the ruin which would result from the measure. The State Council thus protested against the measure in their proceedings of 31st January 1900:—

Proposed
Lower Bári
Doáb canal.

“When the State is deprived of water, and the contiguous parts of Montgomery and Multán Districts will receive a constant supply, the population of the five said *kárdáris* numbering 519,625 persons will feel the loss most painfully. Many villages shall be desolated by their inhabitants migrating to Multán and Montgomery. The Sutlej has ever contributed most greatly to the prosperity of the State and it has lent an importance to the towns (like Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur, Khairpur, Uch, &c.) which are situated on its bank. The project threatens to lower the *status* of these towns. Observing such an all-round loss, the State, with perfect confidence in the protection that has ever been accorded to its interests by the Government, begs to represent its dangers and to request that a full consideration be given to the matter before the project is finally sanctioned.

“It is not the first occasion on which the proposal for building a weir across the Sutlej has been made. The proposal is an old one and dates far back to 1856 when the idea was first suggested. In 1869, and later, levels and survey were taken of the area likely to be affected. At that time Colonel Minchin, then Political Agent of the State, had, in his letter to the Government No. 32 of 22nd July 1869, represented the interests of the State. The Chief Engineer to the Punjab Government in his letter No. 3788, dated 19th October 1869, proposed to allot a certain amount of water for the State. It shows that the rights of the State were considered. But the project, if it was dreaded as a blow then, would prove a death blow now, demolishing, as it will, the results of years of constant efforts and expenses incurred. But, if it be found indispensable to construct the weir, then to secure for itself some compensation, the State would beg to propose, as an alternative measure, that the Government should, at its own cost, conduct a canal from the site of the weir to feed all the canals of the State drawn from the Sutlej, and should also take upon itself the responsibility of its future clearance. The State would undertake the portion within the State. But, if the construction of such a canal be objected to, on the ground of the water being insufficient, even for the tracts for which it is intended or there be anticipated some other difficulties in the way of it, then the State would be justified in requesting to be compensated annually for the loss incurred by the fall in the assessed demand: Rs. 17,51,013, and in the *mirbahri* Rs. 12,738, and in the fuel income Rs. 1,03,634 and to be paid the sum of Rs. 27,07,467 on account

CHAP. II.A.

Irrigation.

Proposed
Lower Bári
Doáb Canal.

of the wells rendered useless. The proprietors' and tenants' share, *i. e.*, Rs. 68,26,299, shall also suffer from the diminution of water supply and a granting of compensation in this case also would be quite in keeping with justice. One instance of compensation being given already exists. When the North-Western Railway was laid through this territory, this State, in compliance with the instructions of the Government, had stopped to realise income from the customs duties and from the manufacture of earth-salt. In compensation for this the State annually receives Rs. 80,000 from the Government. Similarly, when the Opium Commission was, in 1894, conducting enquiries regarding the sale and product of opium, the State had duly brought to the notice of the Government that, if the sale of opium would be stopped by the orders of the Government, the State will be justified in asking for compensation. But compensation, even if granted, is a poor consolation, for it cannot, in any way, make up for the loss the State would suffer, as a damage to its means of cultivation shall take away every hope of future advancement. It should also be noticed that, if the several lakhs that would be spent in the completion of the weir would afford means of cultivation in certain new parts, there would be a corresponding diminution in areas already under cultivation in which not only the Baháwalpur State but also Ferozepore, Montgomery, and Multán shall have to share: Baháwalpur, however, shall be the greatest sufferer. It is a fact, supported by history as well as by custom, that territories through or alongside of which a certain river passes have a right to the use of water to the extent that the exercise of this right by one of them may not infringe upon that of the others. This territory receives its supply of water from the lower part of the Sutlej course, and is justified in claiming a due consideration to its interests. Such being the state of things to result from the completion of the project, it is incumbent that the Government should be humbly requested to arrive at a conclusion that should not only be not prejudicial to the welfare of the State, but should also allow to it room for future progress, thus enabling it to give proof of its everlasting gratitude by its constant faithfulness and prompt services."

On this subject correspondence was carried on with Government by the Council and Colonel Grey, Superintendent. The last proposals for the construction of a weir on the Sutlej, above Pákpattan, at the joint cost of the British Government and the Baháwalpur State on the proportion of benefits, was submitted to Punjab Government on the 8th of April 1903 by Colonel Grey—the State asking for 14,372 cusecs of water from April to October and 5,400 cusecs during winter. The proposals are still under the consideration of Government. In the meantime a contour survey of the Cholistán tract in Minchinábád Nizámat is being carried on by a large party of surveyors.

Section B.—Rents, Wages and Prices.

CHAP. II, B.

Rents,
Wages and
Prices.Relation of
landlord and
tenant.

The relations of owners of land to their tenants are fairly well defined by custom. No occupancy tenants have been recorded in the revenue records. Ejectment can in all cases be effected without official intervention after either harvest. Even a *god-kash*, or tenant who cleared the waste, can be evicted. On the other hand, tenants are much given to throwing up their holdings. Nevertheless the relation is a fairly close one. Tenants find their own seed, well cattle, plough oxen, and all the ordinary well-gear, except the wood-work which is supplied by the landlord, who is also responsible for the repair of the well. Landlords, however, often make advances to their tenants for seed, cattle and even food, or give security to the money-lender, if the advance is obtained from him. A tenant often absconds after obtaining an advance, and generally there is a tendency for tenants to be on the look out for a wealthier landlord. As a rule, however, a tenant only absconds to escape the dues, described below, which are exacted from him over and above the actual rent. In certain cases the tenants are much better off than their landlords, and prefer to remain mere tenants to becoming landlords themselves. Their position is independent and profitable, and they are often masters of the situation. To a limited extent, landowners are beginning to cultivate themselves in order to escape from the tenants' vagaries, but it is difficult for them so to cope with the large areas they hold. Tenants on the other hand have begun to secure holdings of their own; but in neither case is the tendency as yet very marked. Rents differ in the Ubha and Lamma. In the latter the proprietor's share is larger than it is in the Ubha, because he has to furnish *chher* and generally gets his share of the canal cleared by hired labourers, whom he pays out of his own pocket. In the Ubha, or Minchinábád Nizámfat, the tenants have to clear the canals and *rājbahās* under the control of the Canal Department, only the *kassís* or *paggús*, i.e., small private channels taking out of the canals or *rājbahās*, being in certain cases cleared by the proprietors at their own expense.

The *batáí* rates vary. In most parts of the State they are $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$. The rate of *batáí* on *nahrí* Kharif land is $\frac{1}{3}$ of the produce which is paid to the proprietor plus a *lichh* of $\frac{1}{6}$ th of the remainder, or $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}$ of $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$. The rate on *cháhi-nahrí* is $\frac{1}{2}$ th with a *lichh* of $\frac{1}{6}$ th, equivalent to $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6}$ of $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{5}{6}$. In the Hithár if a proprietor receives $\frac{1}{2}$ *batáí* on *nahrí* land, he is bound to supply *chher*, but if he only gets $\frac{1}{3}$, the *chher* is furnished by the tenant. Similarly, in *cháhi-nahrí* lands if the proprietor receives $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6}$ of the balance as *lichh* he pays the cost of canal clearance. The following table shows the average percentage of the produce received by the owner, after deducting the menials' shares, in each *iláqa*:—

Batáí.

CHAP. II. B.

PERCENTAGE OF RENT IN KIND.

Rents. Wages and Prices. Bataf.	Ilāqa.	Chāht.	Chāht- nahri.	Nahri.	Saildā.	Bārāni.	REMARKS.
	Minchinābād ...	25	33·3	33·3	33·3	20	
	Cholistān	33·3	...	40 to 50	No wells or saildā.
	Khairpur { Shahr Farid and Khairpur ...	33·3	33·3	33·3	33·3	33·3	
	Qāimpur ...	25	25	20 or 25	33·3	33·3	
	Bahāwalpur ...	25	33·3	33·3	50	20	
	Ahmadpur ...	25	33·3	50	50	20	
	Khānpur ...	25	33	50	55	20	
	Naushahra and Ah- madpur Lamma.	25	25	33·3 or 40	33·3 or 40	25	The straw of each crop is divided in the same proportion as the grain, and this is generally the case with green fodder also.

Cash rents.

Cash rents when taken are either (a) ordinary lump cash rents, which are very rare, except in the immediate vicinity of Bahāwalpur and Ahmadpur towns; (b) payments made under a mortgage deed, the mortgagor taking a *mustājiri* (lease) from the mortgagee and binding himself to pay the latter a lump sum at each harvest; (c) cash rents equal to the revenue demand on the land, with or without an addition by way of *mālikāna*; or (d) cash rents fixed by *kankūt* or appraisalment of the standing crop.

Zabti rents.

Zabti or cash rents on particular crops are occasionally taken by Hindu proprietors in both the Ubha and Lamma. Sometimes the *dānkhāni* classes (State officials who hold lands in the State) also take cash rents on certain crops. Zabti rents per *bigha*

Tobacco, from ...	Rs. 2 to 3 per <i>bigha</i> .
Poppy ...	
Zira ...	
Chillies ...	generally at „ 4 per <i>bigha</i> .
Sausf ...	
Vegetables ...	
Onions ...	generally at „ 2 „ „
Garlic ...	
Chawal or ...	generally at „ 1 „ „
Peas (fodder) ...	
Jowār ...	generally at Rs. 12 to Rs. 1 per <i>bigha</i> .
Wheat ...	„ at Rs. 4 to 5 „ „

on particular crops are detailed in the margin. There is no tendency to substitute cash rents for those in kind except in the very few cases where *kirārs* or *dānkhānis* are the proprietors. Rents in kind are taken in nearly 99 cases out of 100.

ness in ex-
cess of rent.

Besides the rent some owners according to ancient custom levy certain extra dues. These are called *jholi*, *tobra*, *rājkharcha*, *kharcha piyādgī*, *kuṭrāna*, *sardāri* and *bahtāliya*. *Jholi* was originally

the amount of grain which the landlord could carry away in the folds of his shirt, but it is now by far the heaviest due. *Tobra* was the amount which he could put into his pony's nose-bag, but the due is now larger, a considerable quantity of grain being given. *Rāj-kharcha* is levied to entertain the owner's guests, and *piyādgī* is paid for his private servant, whether he has one or not. *Kutrāna* is a quantity of winnowed grain, levied in lieu of the uncleaned corn left at the bottom of the heap: it is taken at random and generally exceeds the amount fairly due to the owner. *Sardāri* levied in some tracts, is a relic of the old exactions of the feudal chiefs and is now taken in a lump by the owner by right of chieftainship. Sometimes proprietors claim to have their shares weighed at 42 *sers* to the maund and this exaction is known as *bahtāliya* (from *bahtāli*, 42). These dues are not of course universally taken by every proprietor, but only obtain in tracts where the owner is either head of the tribe, which cultivates for him, or a representative of an old family which once exercised powers like those of a *tumāndār*, or where the landlords are strong and the tenants weak. These extra dues are also imposed in villages where the tenants have built *pakkā* houses, or have strong family connections, and will endure exactions, however onerous, rather than abandon those houses or sever those ties. Such extra dues or cesses are in fact so indefinite that the people say:—*Chattī pāi mahr te: mahr ghattī shahr te*. "The *mahr* (*zamīndār* or landlord) got fined, but he realized it from the village.

CHAP. II. B.

Rents,
Wages and
PricesDues in ex-
cess of rent.

In the Ubha tenants often plough for the proprietor one field, from 10 to 500 *bighas* in area, according to the size of the estate and the number of tenants on it, at each harvest. The seed is supplied by the owner, and the field is called *hath-rāhki* (ploughed by the owner's hand) or *kiyāra* (field). The whole produce goes to the owner.

Kiyāra.

The wages of labour are given in Table 25 of Part B. Though the figures cannot be taken as quite trustworthy in every case or for every part of the State, they may be accepted as generally correct, and roughly reflect the degree to which wages of labour as well as the hire of animals have risen during the last few years. The system of payment in kind to day labourers and village artisans and menials has been described in Section A of this Chapter. A rise or fall in wages is caused by variation in the prices of food-grains. In 1898, however, when food-grains were very dear, wheat selling at 10 *sers* the rupee, both skilled and unskilled labour, but more especially the latter, were comparatively cheap, owing to the famine. *Mārwarī* refugees inundated the State with the result that wages of unskilled labour fell to Re. 0-2-6 per day, in the towns, while labourers employed on canal excavations and clearances were only allowed annas 2 per day. The kind of labour most in demand in the State is unskilled labour

Wages of
labour.

HAP. II. B. for buildings, canal clearances, &c. It earns from annas 2 to 6, generally, according as food-grains are dear or cheap. The Railways and factories have hardly affected wages. The ten factories provide labour for a number of men, roughly estimated at 10,000, most of whom are immigrants from Ferozepore, Hissár, Bikanér and Jaisalmer, who have now found permanent employment in these factories. These immigrants come in bodies and settle in hamlets of thatched houses of their own near the factories, and thus tend to attract their relations from their old homes. The wages of the labourers in the factories depend on the nature of their employment, as given below:—

Forests.
Wages of
labour.

	<i>Daily estimate of earnings.</i>
A labourer employed in collecting raw saltpetre material from village sites.	From 5 to 6 annas a day.
A labourer carrying raw saltpetre material on donkeys.	Rs. 2 a day for a man with four donkeys, and so on (depending on the number of donkeys the labourer possesses).
A carrier, or miscellaneous labourer ..	Rs. 6 a month or annas 4 a day.

Besides factory labour, canal improvements and annual clearances provide labour to thousands of immigrants from the Districts and States mentioned above. The pecuniary condition of these people has improved, their thrifty habits enabling them to save, with the result that in many cases they have purchased lands and cattle, of which they use the latter not only in cultivation but for other work as well.

Prices of
land.

In the Cholistán culturable *bārānī* land realises from Re. 1 to Rs. 5 per *bigha*; canal-irrigated land from Rs. 10 to 20; and *chāhī-nahri* from Rs. 10 to 25. In the Sindh culturable *bārānī* land sells from Rs. 2 to 10 per *bigha*; canal-irrigated from Rs. 8 to 30; and *chāhī-nahri* from Rs. 6 to 40. *Sailāba* land without a well fetches from Rs. 5 to 10 and with a well from Rs. 8 to 25 per *bigha*. Purchase of *sailāba* land close to the river used to be regarded as a speculative investment, as before the fixed boundary was laid, large accretions were frequently made to the *sailāba* lands owing to the di-alluvion rules that obtained in the riverain.

Section C.—Forests.

Forests,
Cholistán.

The Cholistán tract, over 9,000 square miles, is for the most part a sandy waste, but within it lie certain areas covered with jand (*Prosopis spicigera*), karính (*cupparis aphylla*), lána (*coronylon griffithii*), gora lána (*Salsolas*), phesak lána (*Sanæda mollifloras*), and sajjí or ashkhár (*barilla*). Of these the sajjí and the areas of grass for which *tirní* or grazing dues are realized alone yield revenue to the State. Very little income

CHAP. II.C.

Forests.

Hithār.

accrues from wood sold as fuel, apparently because of the distance of the tract from the Hithār where the only regular arboriculture in the State is found. The Hithār tracts before they came under the rule of the Dáúdpotras were covered with thick jungles of vast size except in the neighbourhood of such old habitations as Shahr Farid, Uch, Khán Bela, Mau Mubarak, Jajja and Bhutta Wáhan. But when this clan conquered the country they gradually cleared and brought under cultivation many of the jungles, and almost three-fourths of the cultivated area that existed before 1866 was the result of their exertions. In 1866 when a British Agency was established in the State a systematic effort was made to bring more jungle tracts under cultivation, and waste and forest covered lands were leased to outsiders and a vast system of canals was established for their irrigation. Similar efforts were made during the reign of the late as well as during that of the present Nawáb. Yet the number of forests still remaining is large and amounted to 202 with an area over 495,544 *bighas* or 247,772 acres at the close of the year 1904-05. These forests are either reserved or unreserved. The reserved area is of superior quality and contains much good timber, which is sold to the Railway and to any purchaser who comes forward and is also utilized by the State Public Works. The reserved area is not commonly given on lease. The unreserved area is given out on lease generally to the people of the State as well as to settlers from British districts or Native States under the "Lease Rules" in force in the State.

These forests generally receive irrigation from the adjacent canals and from the river floods. The trees commonly found are the *janá*, the *jál*, the *ukáñh*, the *karính* and the *ber*. The forests abound with various wild animals such as pig, deer, wolves, hares, foxes and jackals.

During the first agency (1867—1876) Mr. H. Calthrop, Conservator of Forests, made plantations of *shísham* and *kíkar* trees in every Tahsíl on level ground near canals. (1) He also planted trees on the banks of many canals, on roads, and round rest-houses and other public buildings. These plantations now yield a considerable income to the State.

Plantations.

Trees and jungle in proprietary villages are not the sole property of the *zamíndárs*. As they pay but a nominal revenue for areas covered with jungle or wood they can use the produce only for their personal requirements, such as agricultural implements, fuel, &c.; they are not allowed to sell timber or wood to any person residing outside the village. Wood in such areas is sold, when necessary, to persons who hold a contract for some State or Railway work, and the money realised is divided between the *zamíndárs* and the State in the proportion of 5:31.

Zamíndárs
not the sole
proprietors of
wood in their
villages.

(1) The largest plantation is the "Samasata Zakhíra," made between 1874-76 by Mr. Calthrop at a cost of 64,023 rupees. It extends 6 miles and contains trees of superior quality, mostly *shísham*.

CHAP. II.C.

Forests.

The following statement gives the total area under forests and the profits made from them during the last five years:—

Total area
under forests.

Year.			Area under for- ests in bighas.	Income.	Expenditure.	Profits.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1900-1	527,663	1,01,171	14,132	87,045
1901-2	513,797	1,19,923	12,486	1,07,487
1902-3	528,404	1,45,362	14,804	1,30,968
1903-4	542,084	1,54,520	13,899	1,40,621
1904-5	495,544	1,58,594	12,773	1,45,821

Manage-
ment.

The forests of the State are under an officer, called "Muhtamim Janglât," subordinate to whom are Dároghás, Jamadárs, and Chap-rásís posted to each tahsíl to look after the forests and to measure wood when sold. The Forest Establishment will be dealt with in Chapter III. The fuel is sold to the Railway through contractors or to the dealers in wood in the State who are given a *rawanna* (permit) authorising them to purchase. The *Lambardárs* and *Zail-dárs* of adjoining villages are required to look after the forests and to prevent any loss of wood either by theft or fire. Tahsildárs and Naib Tahsildárs are also responsible officers in their respective *iláqas* and have control over the Dároghás and Jamadárs. There is no practical method of protecting forests from fire except this general supervision. Defaulters, through whose negligence or carelessness any damage by fire is done to forests, have to pay an indemnity according to the extent of the loss.

Fruit culti-
vation.

The State is well known in the south-western Punjab and Sindh for its gardens and nurseries and its large exports of mangoes and pomegranates. The number of *sarkári* gardens in the State is 35, detailed as under:—

Baháwalpur town	14
Baháwalpur <i>iláqa</i>	3
Khairpur	1
Khánpur	1
Alláhábád	1
Ahmadpur	15

The number of gardens belonging to the *zamindárs* is given below:—

Mínchinábád Nizámat	37
Baháwalpur "	289
Khánpur "	312
Total	638

Section D.—Mines and Minerals.

The State has never been fully explored for mineralogical purposes and its mineral resources are unknown. The only minerals that are worked are salt and nitre. But the manufacture of earth salt which once yielded a large income to the State and gave employment to the Nunari caste is prohibited under the treaty of 1877⁽¹⁾ (see page 86). Nitre, however, is manufactured in the Bahawal Factory at Bahawalnagar and in the Minchinabad Nitre Factory as will be described in the next section. The present Nawab is anxious to develop the mineral resources of the State, and temporarily engaged Mr. P. T. Bose, B. Sc., a retired Deputy Superintendent of the Geological Department of India, to investigate its minerals. Boring machines are being employed in the Cholistan lands as directed by Mr. Bose, and there is some hope of discovering coal there. *Met* or *Multani mitti* is also believed to exist in the subsoil of the Rohi near the Jaisalmer border and has been discovered in the *dahrs* near Derawar. *Kankar* mixed with sand or loam is fairly abundant in several places, especially in the McLeod Ganj *ilaga* in Minchinabad, and the Public Works Department of the State uses it extensively. Mr. Bose's preliminary report on the mineral resources of the State, dated 1st October 1904, was to the following effect :—

N.B.—This report is provisional. A supplemental report will be submitted when the boring started at Rahmyar Khan is finished and the samples of *kallar*, &c., collected by me have been analysed and their commercial value ascertained by inquiries at Delhi and elsewhere.

I have made a rapid traverse through the Sindh portion of the State and seen as much of Cholistan as could be accomplished by making short trips from the places at which I have halted, viz., Minchinabad, Bahawalpur, Ahmadpur, and Naushahra (Rahmyar Khan).

The State forms part of a great undulating plain with sand dunes usually running in a north-eastern direction roughly parallel to one another. There are numerous depressions in the plain known by various local names, such as the Hakra, the Garhla, the Sej. They testify to important and interesting changes in the courses of the Punjab rivers. The Cholistan has not always been such a desolate looking arid desert as it is now. Mighty rivers, navigable for large vessels, once flowed through it; and the key to the solution of many interesting problems of Indian History and archaeology lies buried in the sands of Cholistan. A systematic archaeological survey of the State would be fruitful of important results. The attention of the archaeological surveyor of the Punjab may be invited to this matter as it is of Provincial, if not of Imperial interest.

There is not a bit of rock (except alluvium) exposed anywhere in the State or close to its borders. The plains, however, of which the State forms a part, are surrounded by a fringe of rocks which are of tertiary age in Sindh and the Punjab, and of tertiary as well as pretertiary age in Bikaner and Jaisalmer, and it is not unlikely that such rocks may occur at no very great depth under the alluvium. In order to ascertain whether such is the case or not, I have started a boring at Rahmyar Khan in the compound of the dispensary there. It would probably be necessary to carry the boring down to a depth of 200, if not 250, feet. Coal sometimes occurs in association with the tertiary rocks; and if the boring reveals the presence of such rocks, there is a possibility of the occurrence of coal. Besides, there is just a chance of the bore-hole striking an artesian spring which would be an inestimable blessing in a riverless country like this. The boring is expected to be completed within two months, and the cost of labour and contingencies should not exceed Rs. 300. I have asked the Hospital Assistant in charge of the Rahmyar Khan Dispensary to submit progress of the boring to the Foreign Minister.

(1) Aitchison's Treaties, Engagements and Sanads, Vol. IX, pages 202-04.

CHAP. II.D.

Mines and Minerals.

Geological Survey.

The upland alluvium underlying the blown sand in Cholistan differs somewhat markedly from the more recent lowland alluvium in the Sindh portion of the State, the former being much more indurated and far less sandy than the latter. The Cholistan clay (*bangar* as it is called) is exposed in level spaces called *dahars* surrounded by sand hills (*tibas*) and varying in extent from a few square yards to several square miles. The clay is, at places, greyish white which colour is due to the presence of calcareous matter. *Kankar* frequently occurs in such clay, sometimes in thick deposits, out of which lime is made in the Minchinabad Tahsil. But the lime, I am informed, is not of good quality, and the *kankar* deposits do not appear to be so abundant as to ensure a large supply.

At places, as in a *dahar* 9 miles south of Ahmadpur on the way to Dilawar, the clay is tinted slightly reddish, and is rather hard and minutely pitted. The *khār* plants thrive on it, especially when the rainfall is favourable. *Sajji* is made by drying and then burning them in shallow pits. It is an article of considerable commercial importance, and is a good source of revenue to the State. At present the *khār* plants grow naturally. It would not, however, be amiss to make an experiment or two to see whether its propagation may be effected artificially or not. I shall probably have to say something further about this matter in the supplemental report.

Gypsum is reported to exist at several places in the Cholistan, such as Rukanpur, Khángarh, &c. It is used as a plaster for wells. I have sent for specimens from Rukanpur. When they arrive I shall examine them. But under existing conditions of transport, I do not think the gypsum could be profitably exploited even if it existed in sufficiently large quantity about which I am very doubtful.

The denuding action of sand-laden wind is well seen in Cholistan when the indurated alluvial clay is scoured, polished and straited by it. But the vesicular character of the clay in some parts referred to above, which somewhat resembles that of laterite cannot be accounted for by such action. I shall have to consider the matter further before suggesting an explanation. Its importance is of course only theoretical.

In all the Tahsils in the State, there are extensive areas of what is known as *kallar*. There are two kinds of *kallar*. The more widespread of them contains a large proportion (about a third or so) of common salt. Since the prohibition of the manufacture of salt within the State, the *kallar* has not been utilized in any way. There are means by which sterile *kallar* lands can be rendered cultivable, but in a State like this, which is not over-populated, it would not be advantageous to adopt such means at present. Besides the common salt, however, the *kallar* contains a large proportion of sulphate of soda, which is, I believe, extensively utilized in other parts of the Punjab and in the United Provinces. I intend halting at Delhi and one or two other places and making inquiries on this subject. The results of these enquiries and of the assays of the samples of *kallar* I am taking with me will be embodied in the supplemental report to be furnished hereafter. If the enormous deposits of *kallar* within the State could be economically utilized, they would prove a good source of revenue to the State, especially if tanneries and glass and soap factories spring up in the State, as I hope they gradually will.

Besides the *kallar* noticed above, there is another kind the distribution of which is rather restricted; saltpetre is obtained from it. There are two fairly large factories, one at Minchinabad and the other at Rohánwālī. Their output last season was, I am informed, about 800 maunds. There is also a petty factory in the Sadiqabad tahsil. Licenses for the manufacture of saltpetre are obtained on payment to the State of Rs. 2 for a small *karát* and Rs. 50 for a large *karát*. *Kachhá shora* which contains a large proportion of common salt is made in the former. It is then boiled in a large *karát* (about 25 maunds of the stuff being placed in it), the common salt being precipitated in the process.

Shora kallar specially affects the sites of deserted old towns; and as the Sadiqabad Tahsil boasts of many such towns, Pattan Munara, Sarwahi, Man Mabarak, Tajgarh, &c., *Shora* deposits abound in it. At Sarwahi they are said to be many feet in thickness. Thus there is, I think, a good field for the expansion of the saltpetre industry. I would in this connection suggest, that instead of fixed amount per *karát* a low royalty per maund of refined saltpetre be imposed. The royalty would of course be irrespective of what is now paid on account of the fuel consumed. The Tahsildar of Minchinabad should be consulted about the matter before any royalty is fixed. In any case, an accurate account should be kept of the outturn of each factory, the rate at which it sells in Calcutta, and its cost of production so far as it may be ascertained.

The clays at places in the Sindh portion of the State yield rather good pottery as at Ahmadpur. There is scope for expansion and improvement in this direction.

Section E.—Arts and Manufactures.

CHAP. II.E.

Arts and
Manufactures.

Cotton-
weaving.

Cotton is woven by *pāolis* or weavers, who are found almost everywhere in the State. Other classes, such as the *Bākhris* (Muhammadans), *Thoris*, *Meghwāls*, and *Nāiks* also weave. The coarse cotton cloth they make is of the following kinds:—*Khaddar tirsī* (with 300 threads in the warp), *chausi* (with 400), *painsī* (with 500) and *chhisi* (600 threads)⁽¹⁾; white and chequered coarse *lungis* of pure cotton, or cotton and silk mixed are also made. *Tirsī* usually sells at 22 *haths*, *chausi* and *painsī* can be bought at 20 or 18 *haths* per rupee. *Khaddar* is used by the villagers generally. Besides this coarse cloth bedclothes, such as *dotahī*, *chantahī* and *khes* prettily chequered, are woven in Bahawalpur, Ahmadpur and Shahr Farīd, where *sūfis* of coloured cotton, called *tausila*, and *salārī* and *jā-nimāz* of various colours are also manufactured. Bahawalpur Jail is famous for its *darrīs* which can be made of any length.

In Bahawalpur, Ahmadpur and Shahr Farīd silk weaving is carried on extensively, the cloth being largely used in those towns by both sexes. The best known silk garment made in the State is the *lungī*, of which the *bāzūband*, *dolahri*, *nokdār*, *lahrdār*, *patrān-wāli*, *khanjri lahr*, *chandanhar*, *badrumi*, *poptānwāli* and *doshāla* are the superior qualities. *Lungis* are also made of cotton and silk thread of various colours, and include *topiwāli*, *salārī*, *bachedār* and *mothradār*. The price ranges from Rs. 5 to Rs. 50 a piece, but they can be made to order up to Rs. 1,000 per piece. *Sūfi* is also woven of silk or cotton, or with a cotton warp and a silk woof in lengths of about 9 yards, varying in value from Rs. 3-8 to Rs. 40. It is used for men's *shalwār* or *suththan* and women's *ghagrās* or *suththan*. Nawāb Muhammad Bahawal Khān II engaged an artisan of Benares to teach this art to the local weavers. He brought with him 70 artisans, half of whom were women, and is said to have been himself so skilful that he could work the whole Qurān into a sheet.

Silk-weavin

Both the well-to-do and the poorer classes are fond of coloured clothes, which are largely made in the State both from English and Native fabric and are even exported to Bengal and the United Provinces. *Rumāls* (handkerchiefs) are printed by the *thappa* or mould with tin or silver leaves. Turbans, printed with tin, gold, or silver leaves are made for the use of Muhammadans. *Dopattas*, *bochhans*, *cholas* and *topis* (caps) are also printed with gold, silver, tin or brass leaves with *dhūp* (a gummy preparation). Kirār women have a great liking for *cholas* and *bochhans* painted with *warq* (leaves). The wages paid for this work are four times the price of the *warq* and *dhūp*. The painted *jā-nimāz* of Khairpur are largely exported, as are its *palang poshes*, usually 10 × 4½ feet in size. Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur are famous for their

Cotton-
printing.

(1) The breadth of the weft being uniform in each case, i. e., 12 *girahs*,

CHAP. II.E. *sip*, i.e., silk flowers worked on cloth handkerchiefs, caps and scarves, and sheets of *sip* work are largely used by people of the higher classes. Sometimes fine coloured woollen European thread is employed.

Arts and Manufactures.
Carpets and rugs.

Woollen and cloth carpets and rugs are manufactured in the Bahawalpur Jail of a strong fabric with a variety of colours. The patterns resemble those of Turkistan and Persia in appearance, but the taste of the rulers of Bahawalpur and European visitors has prompted the Jail to turn out new and ingenious patterns. Recently the manufacture of carpets from the floss of seed-vessels of the *ak* (*Calotropis procera*) has been started in the Jail. The plant abounds in the State and the floss is brought in large quantities and spun by the female prisoners. Carpets and rugs of good patterns are turned out, and it is difficult to distinguish the fabric from silk.

Jewelry.

Throughout the State people are fond of converting their savings into ornaments to be worn now and then and at wedding festivals and kept as a resource in times of scarcity. The chief ornaments made by the *sonidars* (goldsmiths) in all the towns and important villages are the *papa* (lit : nosegay), *katmala*, (necklace), *nath*, *bula*, *kangan*, *patriyan*, *panzeb*, *chandanhār*, *chelki* and *anwatyān*. Gold and silver bangles are also made in two forms, one solid, the other hollow.

Enamel.

The enamel work on silver and gold of Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur is second to none in the south-west Punjab. Buttons of all sorts, ear-rings, bangles, *kanphals* (earrings), *bulas*, or *naths* (nose-ring), etc., are enamelled, as are rings (*mundris* and *chhallās*). The latter are universally worn, hardly a man or woman being seen without one. Enamelled toe and foot-rings for women are also extensively made. The work is also done on silver boxes for keeping collyrium, on silver stick handles, cups, glasses, plates and dishes. The local name for enamel work is *nima* or *minā-kārī*. Pen and ink boxes of enamel work are also made and monograms in English or Vernacular are engraved.

Iron-work.

The State has hardly any iron industries worth mentioning, except the manufacture of guns in Garhi Ikhtiyār Khān, where the ironsmiths cast very good match-locks, and till recently made excellent guns and swords. But the Arms Act has imposed restrictions on their trade and, though they are still good gunsmiths, the manufacture is practically moribund. The iron works at *baghi khāna* and *daulat-khāna*. The *mistri* in charge is a qualified mechanic.

Brass and copper work.

Surmedānis (collyrium boxes), *surmehūs*, *gadwis*, *katoras*, *dhākicān*, *thālīs* (dishes), *rakābīs*, *tukkus*, sets of *degs* (cauldrons) made of brass and copper, have some artistic merit and are largely exported. *Ardhātī* (a mixture of all metals) *katorās*, *surāhis*

and *piyālas* are very heavy and durable, and are made at Bahāwalpur, both Ahmadpurs, Khānpur, and Muhammadpur Lamma. Ahmadpur Lamma exports *surāhis* and boxes of pewter with fine enamel work to Sindh on a large scale.

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Arts and
Manufactures.

Bronze or *kut* utensils are manufactured at Bahāwalpur and Khānpur. They comprise *dhākwāns*, *katorias*, *mungars* and *thāls* (plates) engraved with flowers, and a light *katora*, a *tola* in weight, can also be made and is considered a fine specimen of this workmanship. Light *katorias* are sometimes called *kāghazī* (i.e., as light as paper).

Bronze or
kut utensils.

The best pottery is made at Ahmadpur East, Khānpur, and Garhi Ikhtiyār Khān. Pretty, light *surāhis*, *piyālas* and glasses are the chief articles. This pottery is widely known for its lightness, and also because the most suitable earth is used for it. A *piyāla* is sometimes barely a *tola* in weight. The Ahmadpur potters make first rate pottery, but now those of Khairpur are beating them. The work is generally plain, no glaze being employed. The *surāhis* are of three descriptions, *sādi* (simple), double walled (in which the inner shell is enclosed in an outer one ornamented with symmetrical holes), and *phūlādār*, on which raised flowers and geometrical designs are made with a wooden die or *thappa*. The earthenware of Ahmadpur and Khairpur is largely exported to Sindh and the south-east Punjab. Good examples of Bahāwalpur pottery are to be seen in the Lahore Museum.

Pottery.

At the villages of Lāleka, Rahmūnka and Hāsilsāhrū prettily painted *chārpāi* legs are made of *shisham*. The *chārpāis* of the Ubha are exported to many districts as are its *pihras*, or *pihris* (wooden stools) and spinning wheels of excellent make for household use or dowries. Painted wooden dishes, *piyalas*, beds, *dandās*, *tipāis*, etc., are also made. *Chhekwin khat* (or double beds) of the same workmanship in Ahmadpur Lamma are also made. Besides lac turnery the beams and rafters for roofs, painted at Bahāwalpur, Khairpur and Ahmadpur, with geometrical designs and flowers in seven different colours, are used for the houses of the higher classes.

Lac turnery or wood painting.

Well-to-do women are fond of the ivory *chūrīs* (bangles) made by *chūrigars* at Bahāwalpur. Among the rich a bride wears them at her wedding, as, according to the local adage, *chūrā kowār dā singār*, 'ivory bangles are the beauty of the bride.' The *chūrā* usually costs Rs. 20 and when worn at the elbow is called *chharī bāhīn*, but when *chūrīs* are piled some six inches above it they are said to be *deahī bāhīn*, i. e., up to the shoulder.⁽¹⁾ Pieces of ivory half a foot long are sold in the market and are called *khandhīs*.

Ivory.

(1) It is considered a bad omen if a *chūrī* breaks. On the death of her husband a wife breaks her *chūrīs* in pieces, but on the death of any other relative she only takes them off for a few days.

CHAP. II E.

Arts and
Manufac-
tures.Leather
work.

The following kinds of shoes called *ghettí* are made in Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur:—*sádi* including (*kannedār*, *lenbiwín*, *magzi-dār* and *bemaqzi*): *gulwáli* (*gul-báhdrewáli*, *gul-sarúwáli*, *árigul-wáli*, *yakgullí*): *Reshmí* (*bútwáli*, *chauháshí*, and *dedhbelí*): *Chauháshí*; (*sádi*, *chauháshí* and *kalábattuwáli*): and *Satgullí* (*fálsewáli*). The price varies from Rs. 1 to 10 but, if required, shoes can be made up to a value of Rs. 25. Shoes are exported to Dera Ismail Khán, Dera Gházi Khán, Multán and Sukkur. The following varieties of the *kannewáli* shoe are made in the Ubha:—*sádi* or *bemaqzi*, *magziwáli*, *reshamwáli* and *gulwáli*, which have the 6 varieties called:—*yakgullí*, *chárgullí*, *panjgullí*, *satgullí*, *akehrí* and *dohrí*. Saddles of the following kinds are made:—*zardozi*, costing up to Rs. 200, *sádi*, or plain, from Rs. 8 to 20: *kalábattuwáli*, up to Rs. 50: and *háshiyawáli*, up to Rs. 12: also *khurgír*, or saddle cloths: *sádi* Rs. 4: of hide up to Rs. 3, *wattiwála* Rs. 4 and *háshiyawála* Rs. 5. Bridles of the following kinds are made:—*zardozi* Rs. 5, *kalábattuwáli* Rs. 4, *sáde kalábattuwáli* Rs. 2, *sádi annas* 8. *Faráqís* of the following kinds are made:—*kursiánwáli*, *butewáli*, and *kontal kash*. Besides these, saddle cloths and housings of the richest patterns are manufactured.

Sajji.

Sajji (carbonate of soda) is derived from two wild plants, *kangan khár* and *gora lána* which grows in brackish soil. The former yields the best *sajji* called *kangan khár*. For the revenue derived by the State under this head, see Chapter III.

The following articles manufactured in the State were exhibited on November 12, 1903, at the investiture of the present Nawáb, and elicited favourable remarks from His Excellency Lord Curzon:—

A.—Cotton Articles.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <i>Lungís</i> of various designs and colours, with silk border. | 5. Carpets and rugs. |
| 2. Scarves of various designs and colours, with silk border. | 6. <i>Dastarkháns</i> of painted cloth. |
| 3. Bed cloths (<i>dohars</i>), white and coloured, with silk border. | 7. Sofa cloth of various colours. |
| 4. <i>Darris</i> of various sizes and colours. | 8. Quilts, sheets of ditto. |
| | 9. Prayer cloth (<i>jánimáz</i>) of carpets and painted cloth. |
| | 10. <i>Niwár</i> . |

B.—Silk Articles.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Silk <i>Lungís</i> . | 4. Sofa cloth silk. |
| 2. Ditto with gold borders. | 5. ditto (<i>tár tilái</i>). |
| 3. Ditto gold thread (<i>tár tilái</i>). | 6. Silk <i>susi</i> (<i>gulbadan</i>) of various colours. |

C.—Kánsí Articles.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Kánsi</i> cups, very light and of fine work. | 2. <i>Tukkus</i> (set of cups). |
| | 3. Covered dishes (<i>Dhákwan</i>). |

D.—Pewter Articles.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Pewter <i>suráhi</i> . | 2. Pewter and brass <i>dabbás</i> . |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|

E.—Leather Articles.

CHAP. II.E.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>Huggas</i> with silver work. | 2. Native shoes plain and with gold work. |
|------------------------------------|---|

Arts and
Manufac-
tures.

F.—Wooden Articles.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Spinning wheel. | 8. Flower vase. |
| 2. Wooden seat large (<i>pihrá</i>). | 9. Ornament case. |
| 3. Ditto small (<i>pihrí</i>). | 10. Snuff boxes. |
| 4. Stick. | 11. Chess (English and native pattern). |
| 5. <i>Suráhis</i> . | 12. Wooden plate. |
| 6. <i>Guldastahs</i> . | 13. Ditto toys. |
| 7. <i>Sarv</i> . | |

G.—Articles prepared from *ak* fibre.

1. Carpets and *Ásan* of fine *ak* fibres.

H.—*Minákári* jewels and articles (gold and silver enamelled).

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. Silver tumbler enamelled. | 5. Ornaments. |
| 2. Cigarette cases ditto, | 6. Covered dishes (gold enamelled) |
| 3. Sauce cups ditto. | 7. <i>Suráhis</i> ditto. |
| 4. Buttons of various sizes, shapes and colours. | |

I.—Clay Articles.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Suráhis</i> . | 4. Cups. |
| 2. Pitchers. | 5. <i>Abkhoras</i> . |
| 3. Tumblers. | 6. <i>Aftábas</i> (<i>lotás</i>). |

J.—Miscellaneous.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Fans, coloured (<i>Uch manu-</i>
facture). | 3. Jail papers. |
| 2. <i>Múráhs</i> . | 4. <i>Wán</i> (<i>munjh</i> thread). |
| | 5. Nitre. |

Flour mills were opened by Seth Chiman Singh and Guláb Singh of Shikárpur at Baháwalpur in 1895, on a plot of land given them by the State. The charge for grinding corn used to be high, about 9 annas per maund, now it is only 4 annas. Only three mills are attached to the factory but flour is not only ground for the capital, but is exported in large quantities to other towns in the State, and to adjacent districts. The factory also contains two ginning machines. There are 8 rice husking factories, three at Khánpur, two at Alláhábád, and one each at Sádiqábád, Kot Samába and Naushahra. The quantity of rice annually turned out by the two factories at Khánpur and Alláhábád belonging to Seth Parsotam Dás exceeds 36,000 maunds, and the annual expenditure is about Rs. 8,500. One rice husking factory at Khánpur, started in 1897, turns out more than 45,000 maunds annually. Another factory started at Khánpur in 1902 belongs to Misr Rám Naráin of Jaisalmer and other Hindu shareholders of the State. It turns out more than 70,000 maunds annually. It also has a cotton gin attached to it. The Sádiqábád factory started in 1903 is merely a rice husking one and turns out nearly 24,000 maunds annually. The Kot Samába factory started in 1902, turns out both husked rice and ginned cotton. Its outturn of rice is above 32,000 maunds.

Factories.

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Arts and
Manufac-
tures.

The Naushahra factory started in 1901, turns out nearly 25,000 maunds annually. Most of the unhusked rice (*shāh*) required by these factories is obtained from villages in Khānpur, Ahmadpur and Naushahra Tahsils, but a fair amount is also bought from Rājanpur Tahsil and the Mazāri *ildāqa* of Rujhān. The factories generally export rice to Delhi, Rohtak, and Hissār Districts and the Phūlkīān States.

Minchinābād
Saltpetre and
Nitre Fac-
tory.

A saltpetre factory at Minchinābād, with its feeder factories (the number of which varies), first started in 1880, was closed at the end of 1893, but re-opened in 1895. The average annual expenditure of the factories is Rs. 36,000 (main factory Rs. 6,000; feeder factories Rs. 30,000). The annual sale of saltpetre averages 6,000 maunds and during the five years 1893—1903 the quantity of nitre exported is estimated to exceed 30,000 maunds. It is exported to Calcutta. The proprietors from whose lands the raw material is collected are paid for it at different rates, the aggregate being nearly Rs. 1,000 a year for each feeder factory. The proprietors pay the State a fee of Rs. 800 per annum besides Rs. 360, which is paid as royalty for fuel, *viz.* :—

				Rs.
For every large pan	50
Ditto small „	20

The Bahá-
wal Nitre
Factory.

The Baháwal saltpetre factory was founded in November 1902 close to Baháwalnagar Railway Station. In the first year the founders took out licenses for 60 small *karāhs* and two large *karāhs* (pans). In each of the smaller pans 500 maunds of raw nitre and in the large ones 2,000 maunds were prepared. The winter is the best time for the formation of nitre and the work is practically stopped in the rains or when the heat is excessive. The proprietors spent Rs. 25,000 up to 1905 on the buildings and laying down plans, etc., and have earned Rs. 30,000 in less than three years. They have now 70 small pans and 2 large ones. The nitre is sold to Karāchi and Calcutta merchants for export to Europe. The Baháwal factory has now 30 feeder factories. The net cost of a maund of raw nitre averages Rs. 2. The wholesale price realised by the proprietors for crystallised nitre varies from Rs. 7 to 8 per maund. The fuel used at the factory used to be procured from *zamindārs'* lands at Rs. 38-6 per 1,000 cubic feet, of which Rs. 5-6 were paid to the landowner, the balance going to the State as royalty. But the fuel contract has lately been sold to the proprietors for a lump sum of Rs. 360 per annum, exclusive of the landholders' share. The establishment comprises a Manager, 31 peons, a *jamadār*, a weighman and other servants. The peons are employed at the feeder factories to look after the destruction of the earth salt that is produced in the nitre-refining process. Besides the royalty paid for fuel, the proprietors pay the State Rs. 600 per annum as fees for the pans, large and small.

In 1899, Colonel Grey started a scheme for the manufacture of sugar from the sap of the date palm. Success at once attended the effort and *gur* and sugar of fine quality were made at factories in Allahábád and Khán Bela, the former selling at Rs. 5 and the latter at Rs. 9 a maund. The owners of the date palm groves were, however, opposed to the scheme as it destroyed their date crops and it was abandoned in 1900, but the manufacture still lingers in some villages round Allahábád and Khán Bela.

[For details of immigrant labourers from foreign districts and the wages received by them see pages 261, 262].

CHAP. II. F.

Commerce
and Trade.Sugar manu-
facturing from date
tree sap.

Section F.—Commerce and Trade.

The commercial classes are mainly Kirárs (Aroras), Bhátias and Bánias. The former are scattered all over the State and have petty shops for the sale of salt, oil, pulses, spices, *gur*, and drugs in almost each village. They generally sell on credit. The Kirár is also *Dhanwái* (weighman) of the village produce, for which duty he gets two *topas* a *maní* as his fee. He is also money-lender to the villagers in general. The Bhátias of Ahmadpur Lamma and Khánpur and the Bánias of Baháwalpur and Minchinábád are also large money-lenders as are the Kirárs in the principal towns of the State. Most of the Bhátias, Kirárs and Bánias have transactions with other parts of India, *e. g.*, Karáchi, Lahore, Bombay and Calcutta and are in some cases agents of the bankers outside the State. The Muhammadans are generally weavers, shoe-makers, carpenters, iron-smiths, potters and some times goldsmiths; and almost all the village menials such as the barber, drummer, baker, tailor, washerman and dyer are also Muhammadans. As two-thirds of the people's dwellings are made of thatch (*kána* reed), thatch-makers are found in almost every village and the demand for thatch is enormous. It is made by Khojas in the Ubha and Kutánas in the Lamma, both originally Cháhrás converted to Islám.

Commercial
classes.

The principal exports and imports are given below :—

EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.
Wheat, gram, cotton, rice, oil-seeds, <i>ghí</i> , <i>tíl</i> , indigo, <i>sajjí</i> or <i>khár</i> , skins and hides, bones, saltpetre, dates, wool (raw), sheep and goats, mango and other fruits, earthenware, brass utensils, silk <i>lungís</i> , <i>súfi</i> , <i>surma</i> (collyrium), <i>durris</i> , carpets, and shoes.	Cutlery, furniture of European make, kerosine oil, sugar, refined and unrefined, <i>gur</i> , <i>ghí</i> , salt, dried fruits, fresh fruits, iron, piece-goods, <i>met</i> or <i>gájni</i> , European medicines, country drugs, paper, deodar timber, <i>thang</i> and opium.

Exports and
imports.

The bulk of the exports from the State is sent to Europe, and consists of wheat, cotton, wool, bones, hides and skins, and *sajjí*. Indigo is largely exported to Europe, Japan, Afghanistan and Turkistan. The export agencies which now purchase produce to the value of millions of rupees in the State are Ralli Brothere,

CHAP. II.G. Sanday Patrick and Co., Clements and Co., and David Sassoon and Co. These firms have branches at each Tahsíl in the State. Means of Communication. The principal centres of commerce are Baháwalpur, all Tahsíl towns, Uch, Ahmadpur Lamma, Hásilpur, and Allahábád. The commodities chiefly sold in the market are given below :—

Exports and imports.

Baháwalpur	Corn, cloth, <i>lungis</i> , and brass-ware.
Ahmadpur East	Vegetables, fresh fruits, shoes, earthenware.
Allahábád	Rice and wheat.
Khánpur	Wheat, rice, dates, fish (from the Gágri lake), and brass utensils.
Ahmadpur Lamma	Cereals, zinc and brass utensils.
Hásilpur	Indigo and wheat.

Minchinábád is the chief trading station and granary in the State and exports wheat, gram, and saltpetre. It attracts corn from trans-Sutlej country, such as Lakpattan and Dipalpur; the Agencies of Kalli Brothers, Clements and Co. and Sanday Patrick and Co. are giving a great impetus to the trade of the town.

Messrs. Sanday Patrick and Co. exported 299,600 and 278,740 maunds of wheat in 1902 and 1903 respectively from the different Railway stations in the State. During the five years (1899—1904) Messrs. Kalli Brothers exported 401,517 maunds of wheat and 1,854 maunds of gram. In 1903-04 the total export of food grains amounted to 849,000 maunds, while the imports of the same grains totalled 108,500 maunds.

Barter.

Transactions are generally conducted for cash in the towns, but barter still undoubtedly exists in the villages on a very small scale. The villagers have nothing to sell to the shop-keeper except butter, *ghee*, wool, camels' hair and cotton (all articles produced at home). These they exchange for household necessities such as sugar, *gur*, almonds and *gari* (cocoanut), spices, etc.

Section G.—Means of Communication.

Railways.

The State is now well served by railways, as three lines run through different parts of it. Of these the North-Western is the oldest. It was opened in 1880 and traverses the State for a distance of 148 miles from Adamwahan Bridge on the Sutlej on the north-east to Walhár on the Sindh border in the south-west. The Southern Punjab Railway was opened in 1898 and enters the State on the Ferozepore-Bikaner border at Orkí, runs through the Minchinábád and Baháwalpur Nizámats for a distance of 156 miles and joins the North-Western line at Samasata. The third line was only opened in February, 1906, and runs from McLeod Ganj Road Station (on the Southern Punjab Line) to Ludhiána, traversing the State for a distance of 16 miles. All the land for these railways was given free of charge by the State; it, however, receives no

share of the profits of any of them. The British Government exercises full criminal and civil jurisdiction over the lines.

The introduction of railways has been of immense benefit to the State, enabling the landowners to export the produce of their holdings at highly profitable rates, and the State to collect its revenues with facility and certainty. They have raised the standard of living, too, by the easy import of cheap commodities and raw produce. But the higher prices of food grains that have resulted from the opening by the railways of the markets of India and Europe, have told heavily on the poorer classes who depended for their living on the small earnings of their labour and have increased for these the dangers of scarcity and want. Formerly there was no very great poverty in the State as the crops produced within its borders were ample for its slender population. But the great export trade has now changed all this, and the poorer classes have suffered greatly. Their wages have risen of course in recent years, but, as usually happens, the advance has not kept pace with the rapidly rising prices. An increase in knowledge and enlightenment has naturally followed the extension of intercourse with the outside world, that the railways have introduced. The language too of the State has not remained unaffected, especially in the vicinity of the larger railway stations, and the local dialects are receiving an admixture of many alien words. Finally the railways are largely used for religious purposes both by Hindus and Muhammadans, who now commonly travel long distances on pilgrimages to the places sacred to them, while Christianity is now more frequently preached in the State by missionaries from Sindh and the Punjab.

In addition to railways, transport is carried on by bullock carts, camels, donkeys, pack ponies, and along the rivers by boats. There are no metalled roads in the State except in Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur towns, but unmetalled roads are numerous. The principal of these run from Khánpur to Cháchrán and Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán, from Naushahra to Tájgarh, from Sádiqábád to Bhung, from Ahmadpur to Uch, from Uch to Sítpur (Muzaffargarh District) and from Pákpattan and Hásilsárhú to Minchinábád. In addition to these there is a *Sarkári kachcha* road running right through the whole State from Hásilsárhú in the north-east to Kot Sabzal in the south-west, originally made for the passage of the British forces to Afghánistán in 1836, and kept up to this day by the State. It is always maintained in good order, *kána* reeds being laid along it the whole way now and then. Another road called the "*Lát Sáhibwáli*" runs from McLeod Ganj to Bahawalpur and was made originally for the visit of Sir Donald McLeod to the State in 1869. The total length of the metalled roads is 24 miles and of the unmetalled 839. All the unmetalled roads are repaired annually, generally in the month of October, by the *zamíndárs* of the different villages

CHAP. II. G.

Means of
Communica-
tion.Changes
wrought by
Railways.

Roads.

CHAP. II.G.

Means of
Communication.

Roads.

Rest-houses
and *seráts*.Navigable
canals.Means of
navigation.

Ferries.

through which they pass, under the supervision of the Tahsildárs, who are held responsible that the repairs are properly carried out. The roads in the canal irrigated tracts are unsatisfactory, principally owing to the clumsy nature of the expedients resorted to for the crossing of the watercourses. Table 29 in Part B, gives the halting places and rest-houses on the principal roads.

In addition to the rest-houses on the principal roads which are given in the table just mentioned, there are also *seráts* or *dák* bungalows at the important villages of the State for the use of officers on tour. Almost every village has in addition a *dera* or guest-house for chance visitors, maintained by the chief *zamindár* or *zamindárs* of the place.

The navigable canals in the State are the Fordwáh, Darlatwán, Sádiqiyah Gharbiyah, Sádiqiyah Sharqiyah, Minchinwáh and Sádiqwáh (with its branches, the Ikhtiárwáh and Hájiwáh), but boats are only allowed on these canals by special permission from the local authorities.

Besides the ordinary boat indigenous methods of navigation are the *tula*, the *tarkí* and wooden beams bound together. A *tula* consists merely of a bundle of reeds tied together on which ordinary household gear can be placed and carried across a stream. A *tarkí* is made of a number of *dillás*, or earthen jars, generally 6 or 20 with their necks turned downwards in water. Over these *kána* reeds are spread and firmly tied together, several people can sit on it with all their baggage, and travel up and down the canals. If a *tarkí* has to be taken up stream it is either towed or punted. Sometimes beams are tied together and reeds spread over them to form a raft.

The rivers in the State are crossed by ferries at convenient distances along the banks. The following is a list of these :—

Ferry.	Distance in miles.	Ferry.	Distance in miles.	Ferry.	Distance in miles.
TAHSIL MINCHINABAD ⁽¹⁾ (ON THE SUTLEJ).					
Hásilárchú ⁽²⁾	5	Bachánwáli	9	Akúka	4
Bhúndi	7	Láleka	6	Mamúnka	6
Ahmad Khan Gadhoka ...	5	Cháweká	8	Malka	10
Bahmúnka	11	Momeka	9		
Dádú Ahloka	8	Mári Mán Sábib ...	2		
TAHSIL KHAIRPUR (ON THE SUTLEJ).					
Dollá Akúka	8	Gáhi Bráhm	3	Murádpur	4
Rájú Sháh	4	Núrpur	2	Kukára Nangána ...	5
Mirú Biloch	2	Káliya Sháh	5	Chhina	2
Palla	5	Azimpur	2	Durpur	3

(1) The Sádiqiyah Canal and Fordwáh cut off the Amrúka Ferry in Fázilka Tahsil where their heads are. Hence the Minchinábád Tahsil keeps two boats for the convenience of Tahsil Fázilka villages on each of the canals to enable them to reach the Amrúka Ferry.

(2) Five miles from the Eastern Amrúka Ferry. The other distances given are from the next ferry up stream and entered above.

Ferry.	Distance in miles.	Ferry.	Distance in miles.	Ferry.	Distance in miles.
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TAHSIL BAHAWALPUR (ON THE SUTLEJ).

Derah	4	Goth Nūr Muhammad ...	2	Adamwāhan	4
Gulpur	6	Mingharānī	2	Bindra	1
Goth Shāh Muhammad ...	2	Māri Qāsim Shāh	6	Jānūwāla	4
Bānga <i>alias</i> Golanwāla ...	2	Mahramwāla	10	Samasata	8
Lāl Sohanra	1	Gudpura	6	Nahrwāli	10

TAHSIL AHMADPUR EAST (ON THE SUTLEJ AND CHENAB).

Makhan Bela	5	Khandawāla	5	Aliwāhn	6
Bedūpur	8	Bakhri	4	Nūrwāla	2
Mukhwāra	6	Sammewāla	5	Bhindiwāla	6

TAHSIL KHANPUR (ON THE INDUS).

Chāchrān	8
-----------------	---

TAHSIL KHANPUR (ON THE CHENAB AND GHARA).

Wāghūsn	2	Mad Daulat Shāh ...	$\frac{1}{2}$	Bet Bhatrān	2
Gudpur	3	Jhok Gulāb Shāh ...	2		

TAHSIL NAUSHAHRA AND AHMADPUR LAMMA (ON THE INDUS).

Dogarwāla	4	Makhan	5	Mad Muhammad Shāh	6
Chak Naushahra	7	Mekanwāla	8	Abādpur	7
Thul Hasan	3				

Besides the ferries managed by professional boatmen, boats are allowed to lie at suitable places opposite *chakkars* transferred to the right bank of the river for the private use of the owners of the *chakkars* and their tenants. These boats are the private property of the *zamīndārs* and their use by the ordinary traveller is prohibited. The State levies no fees from the *zamīndārs* for such boats.

Each ferry is let out on a contract by public auction every year in the month of March. Where a river is the boundary between the State and a British District, the custom is for the State contractor to take all the fees levied on passengers embarking on the Bahawalpur side of the river, while the British contractor similarly takes the fees of the passengers embarking on the British bank. The average annual income of the State from ferry contracts for the last five years has been about Rs. 14,000.

Before 1866 the State possessed no general postal service: however, camel-riders, *bargandāzes* and *golandāzes* of the State troops carried the official *dāk*. From 1866 to September 15, 1870, the State maintained *dāk* runners from Bahawalpur to MacLeod Ganj, and a horse *dāk* to the Sindh border, in addition to the British Government horse *dāk* from Multān to Karāchī. In 1870 all *dāk* arrangements were made over to the Postmaster-General, Punjab, the State agreeing to pay a subsidy of Rs. 20,000 per annum on the following conditions:—

- 1st, that the northern line should be prolonged to Fāzilka in the (then) Sirsa District;

CHAP. II.G.

Means of
Communication.Postal
arrangements.

2nd, that a branch line from Khánpur to Mithankot should be established;

3rd, that a mail cart should be substituted for the horse dák between Baháwalpur and Multán; and

4th, that the State official dák should be exempt from postage dues.

These conditions were carried out and an annual grant of Rs. 5,000 was made by the State to the Deputy Commissioner, Multán, to keep the mail cart road in good repair. A Deputy Postmaster and 11 head peons (in addition to the regular dák establishment) were stationed by the Punjab Postal Department at various places, the State supplying 31 dák-runners. In 1872 the State agreed to pay the Punjab Postal Department a further annual sum of Rs. 240 for runners between Minchinábád and Pakpattan. This arrangement continued till 21st February 1878. When the Indus Valley State Railway was opened between Multán and Sukkar, the State agreed to pay Rs. 6,000 per annum to the Punjab Postal Department on the following conditions:—

- (a) service stamps to the value of Rs. 1,300 for official correspondence outside the State to be annually supplied to the Darbar free of cost;
- (b) when the supply runs short the State to purchase service stamps at face value; a list of State officers authorised to frank service correspondence for out-State Post-Offices to be approved of by the Director-General of Post-Offices in India;
- (c) State correspondence inside the State to be transmitted free, by the Postal Department, under the frank of State officials, approved for the purpose by the Director-General of Post-Offices;
- (d) The State Vakíls attached to the adjoining Native States and to the Courts of Deputy Commissioners of adjacent districts to be authorized to frank State service correspondence in the towns where they are stationed or where they happen to be in the course of their duties, for delivery in any post-office in India; and
- (e) any official authorised to frank State service correspondence for Post-Offices outside the State to be also authorised to frank the same at Post-Offices outside the State for transmission to the State or to other Post-Offices outside the State.

The State has no share in the income accruing from the sale of postage stamps in the State.

Post-offices.

Money taken daily in the head office and sub-offices is deposited at the head and Tahsíl treasuries respectively: in the case of branch offices it is deposited in the thána, if there is one near. The post-offices in the State are guarded at night by the

State Police or the village *chaukidars*. The list of post-offices is given in Table 31 in Part B. The only head office is at Bahawalpur; those at Tahsil stations and at Bahawalnagar, Samasata and Bahawalpur city are sub-offices, and all the rest branch offices. As a rule at all the offices except branch offices and the Bahawalpur city sub-office (which is only a despatch office) there are two deliveries daily except on Sundays when there is only one. At the branch offices there is one delivery daily. In certain villages the postal bags are sent to police stations, where the Deputy Inspector of Police distributes the *dak* through the village *chaukidars*.

CHAP. II, H.

Famine.

The only two postal telegraph offices are at Bahawalpur and Ahmadpur, the remainder being Railway offices.

Telegraph.

Section H.—Famine.

There is no record in the State chronicles of the pre-Agency period of the occurrence of a famine in Bahawalpur, nor is there any tradition extant about it. The Daudpotras, when they first settled in what is called the Bahawalpur State, betook themselves to the agricultural improvement of the country and dug canals and cleared jungles on both banks of the Sutlej, the Ranjnad and the Indus. These rivers were not then tapped above as they are now, and afforded a copious water supply with the result that the *nahri*, *sarlabu* and *abi* cultivation was extensive, and yielded more than could be consumed by a newly settled and thinly populated country. Traditions of the *changā samān* (good seasons) when wheat sold at Rs. 20 a *manī* or 8 annas a maund, and *ghī* at 4 *seers* in the rupee are very common. Continuous good harvests left ample storage for less favourable seasons, and there being no export system on a vast scale as at present, the people were never reduced to starvation in seasons of a general drought, except when refugees from the Rājputāna States flooded the country and affected the whole of the State. Refugees from Rājputāna always swarmed in the State in famine seasons in the pre-Agency period, but nothing is known as to the nature of the relief which they received from the State. The first record of the fact is made by Major (afterwards Colonel) Minchin, Political Agent, in the Administration Report of Bahawalpur State for 1867-68 in the following words:—

“Like every portion of the upper provinces we have been inundated with refugees from Bikaner and Marwar generally,..... When the Bikaner refugees first entered the State, a committee of the principal merchants of the town with Head Master of the English (Church Mission) School as Secretary, was organised and a grant of six maunds of grain per diem from the State granaries was made over to the committee for distribution in addition to private subscription. Employment was given to every person who applied for it on our public works, roads, station improvements, canals, bridges, etc.; and throughout the State upwards of 25,000 persons, men, women and children have been employed, so that not a single case of death by starvation has occurred, although we are residing in close proximity to the countries which suffered more than any from the drought, Bikaner and Jaisalmer. The benefit was mutual, as our *samindars* do not

CHAPTER II.

Famine.

like working, though they can work famously when forced to do so, so that the Bikaneris have taken their places completely and been employed on all our public works."

1890-91.

In 1890 again a famine occurred in Rájputána when thousands of Bikaneris and Márwáris took refuge in the State. They found ample work in clearance and excavation of canals, while the infirm were fed charitably by the Nawáb and by public subscriptions. The demand for grain in Rájputána and in other parts of India being very great, merchants began to export grain from the State on a very large scale. This drainage told heavily on the masses, and to prevent the impending danger Shaikh Muhammad Nasír-ud-dín, Wazír, with the permission of His Highness the Nawáb imposed a duty of 2 and afterwards of 4 annas per maund on exported grain. This had a wholesome effect in protecting the State against a famine and the duty was subsequently abolished after the danger of a famine was over. In 1895-96 famine again occurred in Rájputána and the State was inundated by Bikaner, Jaisalmer and Márwár refugees who found ample labour on the canals. Weak and infirm men and women and children to the number of over 1,500 were daily fed for three months by His Highness Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammád Khán IV at different places, viz., Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur, and Dera Nawáb Sáhib. The Hindu and Muhammadan natives of the State also opened poor-houses (*langars*) by subscription, and no deaths by starvation occurred.

1895-96.

1899.

In the famine of 1899 more than 40,000 refugees from the Rájputána States flooded the State and prices in Baháwalpur rose also to famine rate. The Punjab Government moved the State to open relief works and to arrange not to send back the refugees to their countries until the Rájputána States were prepared to receive them. Thereupon Colonel Grey, Superintendent, proposed to open works of extension of canals and repairs of roads, and relief was given in the following ways:—

- (a) Rs. 27,000 was spent on the extension of the Sádiqiyah Canal in Minchinábád Nizámat;
- (b) Rs. 60,000 was spent on the improvement of other canals;
- (c) Poor-houses were opened at State expense and by public subscriptions all over the State to feed 11,800 paupers;
- (d) Rs. 94,968 was spent on a new canal in Ahmadpur East called the Baháwalwáh;
- (e) Rs. 4,00,000 was subscribed by the Nawáb towards the Indian Famine Relief Trust;
- (f) Rs. 27,000 was spent on the new Fordwáh head; and
- (g) a syphon over Birchwáh was built at an expenditure of Rs. 25,300.

Moreover, the *zamíndárs* employed other refugees on wages to clear canals for them and Rs. 34,000 were thus expended.

CHAPTER III.—ADMINISTRATIVE.

Section A.—Administrative System and Divisions.

The Baháwalpur State is an independent feudatory Native State which first entered into an alliance with the British Government of India early in the 19th century, its relation with the paramount British Power being governed by the Treaties of 21st of February 1833 and of October 5th, 1838, reproduced in *extenso* in Volume 9 of Aitchison's Treaties. The State pays no tribute or *nazrána* to the British Government. It is under the political control of the Punjab Government through the Political Agent for the Phúlkián States and Baháwalpur. Under Articles 3 of the Treaty of 1833 and 7 of that of 1838 the Nawáb of Baháwalpur exercises the full powers of a ruling chief over his subjects.

CHAP.
III. A.
—
Adminis-
trative
System and
Divisions.

Relations
with the
British Go-
vernment.

The upper division of the State Service consists of two grades of the Council, viz., the Cabinet Council and the General Council, by both of which the Nawáb is assisted in the administration of the State. The members of these councils are appointed by the Nawáb. The Cabinet Council consists of (a) the Mushír-i-Ala, (b) the Foreign Minister, (c) the Mushír-i-Mál, and (d) the Adálati. Matters of exceptional importance are laid before this Council for deliberation. All the ordinary administrative affairs are decided by the General Council, which consists of (a) the four Councillors forming the Cabinet Council, and (b) the Mushír-i-Fauj (Commander-in-Chief of State forces), (c) Mushír-i-Mustaufi (Accountant-General), (d) Mushír-i-Íámírat, or Public Works Minister, (e) Mushír-i-Tasrífat, (f) Private Secretary to the Nawáb, (g) General Secretary to the Council, and (h) Mushír-i-Anhár (Irrigation Minister). The precedence of the Mushírs not included in the Cabinet Council is according to the date of appointment. The decisions of the General Council are in all cases determined by a majority of votes, except measures entailing increase of taxation or of permanent expenditure which cannot be adopted unless supported by a majority of $\frac{2}{3}$ in a full Council. Ordinary meetings of the General Council are held at least once a week, four members forming a quorum. Financial measures, such as those above referred to, or those affecting the budget, can only be dealt with in a full Council. All orders passed in His Highness' name by a minister whether on appeal to the Nawáb, or in the ordinary course of business, are subject to revision by His Highness in Council. Measures involving alterations in law, procedure, taxation; or departmental organization, outlay beyond the sanctioning power

The Publi
Service.

CHAP.
III. A.
Adminis-
trative
System and
Divisions.

Councillors
and their
departments.

of an individual minister, increase in permanent expenditure or other matters of importance, economic or political, after being considered and decided in the General Council, are submitted to His Highness for sanction.

The following is a list of the head and sub-departments of the State with the names of the Councillors in charge :—

Department and Councillor in charge.	Sub-departments under the control of the Head Officer.
Darbár (Mushir-i-Ala) ...	(1) Police. (2) Jails. (3) Medical. (4) Municipalities. (5) Forests.
Foreign Office (Foreign Minister).	(1) Foreign correspondence with Government, British Districts, and Native States. (2) Education Department. (3) Vakils' establishment. (4) State Press.
Mushirat Mál (Mushir-i-Mál).	(1) Revenue Department. (2) Settlement. (3) Domain Lands. (4) Horse Farm.
Sadar Adálat (Aáláti or Chief Judge).	(1) Judicial Department. (2) Registration.
Fauj (Mushir-i-Fauj) ...	(1) Imperial Service Camel Corps. (2) Mounted Rifle Company. (3) Nizám Regiment. (4) Orderly Troops. (5) Band.
Sadar-i-Hisáb or Accounts (Mushir-i-Mustaafi).	(1) Accounts Department. (2) Head Treasury, Baháwalpur. (3) Tahsil sub-treasuries.
Támírat—Public Works—(Mushir-i-Támírat).	(1) Public Works. (2) Workshops. (3) Steamers. (4) Education (as Director).
Tasrifát—Nawáb's household—(Mushir-i-Tasrifát).	(1) Expenditure on palaces, guest-houses, tosha-khána, &c. (2) Medical (The Mushir-i-Tasrifát is also the State Medical Officer and as such is under the Mushir-i-Ala).
Private Secretary to the Nawáb.	(1) Private correspondence of the Nawáb. (2) Tasrifát papers are laid before the Nawáb by him.
General Secretary ...	(1) Supervision of Darbár Office Establishment. (2) Secretary to the State Council.
* Irrigation (Mushir-i-Anhár)	(1) Canal construction and repairs. (2) Irrigation.

All members of the State Council below the Mushfir-i-Ala, except the General Secretary, have powers of appointing and dismissing public servants in the various departments under them whose salaries do not exceed Rs. 50 per mensem.

CHAP.
III, A
—
Adminis-
trative
System and
Divisions.

In addition to his own special departments as given above the Mushfir-i-Ala (1) presides at the Council meetings; (2) is the presiding Judge of the Supreme Court; (3) hears appeals from orders of subordinate Criminal Courts sentencing to terms of imprisonment extending to 3 years or less, and also from the orders of Revenue and Civil Courts in suits not exceeding Rs. 1,000 in value; (4) is the chief supervising officer over all departments in the State except the Foreign Department, but in all important executive matters his orders are subject to the approval of the Nawáb; (5) can appoint and dismiss all public servants drawing over Rs. 50 and up to Rs. 100 per month in the State.

Mushfir.
Ala or Chief
Minister).

The State is now divided into three Nizámats or districts, and these Nizámats are each sub-divided into three Tahsils. Each Nizámat is under a Názim (or Collector) subordinate to whom are the Tahsildárs, assisted by Náib-Tahsildárs, in charge of each Tahsil and the Zilladárs, Darogas and Náib-Darogas of the Irrigation Department. The Nizámats and Tahsils are:—

Administra-
tive Divisions.

1.—*Minchinábád.*

- (1). Minchinábád.
- (2). Nahr Sádiqiyah (or Cholistán). The head-quarters of the Tahsil are at present Baháwalnagar, but are to be shortly transferred to Sádikganj.
- (3). Khairpur Sharqiyah or Khairpur Tánwewáa.

2.—*Baháwalpur.*

- (1). Baháwalpur.
- (2). Ahmadpur Sharqiyah (or Ahmadpur).
- (3). Allahábád.

3.—*Khánpur.*

- (1). Khánpur.
- (2). Naushahra (formerly called Sádíqábád⁽¹⁾ or Rahímýar Khán).
- (3). Ahmadpur Lamma.

(1) Sádíqábád is a railway station, 11 miles south-west of Naushahra or Rahímýar Khán. The Tahsil was named after the late Nawáb Sir Sádíq Muhammad Khan IV; but the head-quarters of the Tahsil are at Naushahra, also called Rahímýar Khán. The head-quarters of Nizámats and Tahsils are all situated on the S. P. and N. W. Railway lines, except Allahábád and Ahmadpur Lamma, which are about 4 miles away from railway stations Chaudharí and Sádíqábád respectively.

CHAP.
III. B.Civil and
Criminal
Justice.Former
system.

Section B.—Civil and Criminal Justice.

Prior to the Agency period, *i.e.*, before 1866, the laws in force in the State were partly religious and partly secular. Muhammadan civil suits were referred to the *qāzīs* as were disputes regarding marriages, divorce, dower (*mahr*), inheritance, &c., but criminal offenders, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, were punished by the Kārdārs and Nāibs, or, if their offence was treason against the State, by the Nawāb himself. Hindu suits relating to Dharm Shāstra (or Hindu Law) and questions of inheritance, partition, adoption, legacy, *stridhana* (widow's share), &c., were referred to the Brahmins or to the *mukhīs* (leading men) of the towns who were always nominated by the Nawāb. The criminal law was not codified and no hard and fast rules existed regulating the punishment for any particular crime except theft or burglary for which the convict (whether Hindu or Muslim) had his hand amputated under the Muhammadan Law, or was required to pay a heavy fine (*chatti*). In the towns most of the magisterial powers were invested in the *kotwāls*. In the mufassil the Kārdārs were given extensive magisterial powers which enabled them to impose unlimited fines with imprisonment in default and even capital punishment. The administration of justice in the State before the establishment of the Agency is thus described by Colonel Minchin :—

“Under the late Nawāb's rule, all *kārdārs* and their *nāibs*, the *kotwāls*, and even *piādās* on Rs. 2 a month, had power to investigate any offences, and inflict fines to any amount, and in default of payment to imprison for an unlimited period. No allowance was made to prisoners, who had to maintain themselves by begging; murder cases were tried by *qāzīs* and *maulvis*, who only passed a sentence of *qisās* or death on the application of the heirs of the deceased, but generally the murderers managed to escape through the connivance of the guard. When any person of position was tried, the *qāzīs* dared not inflict punishment; and any *fatwa* could be obtained by payment of a sufficient *nazrāna*. On first taking charge of the State I endeavoured to introduce the system formerly in force in Bengal, as laid down in Beaufort's Digest, for deciding cases with the aid of a *qāzī*, or law officer, who would give a *fatwa*, or finding, and state the Muhammadan Law on the subject. Almost the first trial that I held under this procedure, a Hindu was charged with blasphemy, for having made use of certain improper expressions regarding the Muhammadan faith, in a dispute with a Muhammadan; and on calling on the *qāzī* for his *fatwa*, he said the only punishment for such an offence was *death*. Great discretionary powers were obliged to be granted in petty offences, which resulted in each Magistrate's doing what was right in his own eyes, with the most astounding differences of opinion on every subject. One officer made it a point of convicting the complainant; and the appeals were so numerous, and complaints everywhere so rife, that I felt that the only thing left was to introduce a separate department, whose whole time should be devoted to judicial matters. Here, as in the Panjab, the Revenue officers had been entrusted with judicial powers, but the Revenue duties were so important that they were obliged to neglect judicial work, with the above result.”

"In introducing a new department I considered that it would be impossible for me to prepare a code of regulations for their guidance, that could possibly be so satisfactory as the codes laid down by Government for the whole of India, which were all ready to our hand, and which were in force in the adjoining districts, where the people of the State had relations and friends, and large business connections; and as the newly appointed officers had ample leisure at their disposal, it could not be better occupied than in studying the codes, in which everything had been laid down in the clearest manner. The result has been most satisfactory, and I feel assured that the Nawáb when he comes of age will be only too glad to carry on this same system, which is precisely similar to the system pursued in the Native States of Patiala and Kapurthala....."(1)

CHAP.
III. B.
Civil and
Criminal
Justice.
Reforms.

The old system led to such glaring abuses and confusion that on the establishment of the agency the civil and criminal laws in force in British territory were introduced by Colonel Minchin. This and other changes in the administration elicited the following remarks from the Secretary of State for India in February 1872:—

"The affairs of the Baháwalpur State should be so conducted as to involve no needless break in the continuity of the administration when handed over to its future native rulers, and (he) fears that there is a strong tendency to assimilate not the substance only, but forms of administration too closely to those which prevail in districts which have all along been under our direct Government and in which there is of course no probability of any change occurring."(2)

To this Major Minchin, Political Agent, replied in the following words:—

"We have divided the administration into two distinct branches, the judicial and executive, which is nowhere enforced in British India. The Indian Penal, Procedure and Civil Codes have been introduced because of the immense advantage gained to the Administration by having written Laws and Regulations which can be applied to all classes and where the duties of each officer are clearly defined. The judicial system has been entirely carried out through Native Agency and is partly modelled on the Travancore State in the Madras Presidency."(3)

A list given below shows the Acts and Regulations enforced in the State. Any new legislative measure or bill proposed to be introduced into the State is recommended by the Adálatí, Revenue Minister or a Member of the Council representing the particular department concerned and laid before the Council, and, if approved by it, is submitted to the Nawáb for his final assent.

Legislation.

(1) Baháwalpur Administration Report for 1873-74 (para. 4) and 1872-73 (para. 106).

(2) Vide Baháwalpur Administration Report for 1872-73, para. 105.

(3) Ibid para. 106.

CHAP.
III. B.

The following Acts of the Government of India have been adopted by the State:—

Civil and
Criminal
Justice.Criminal
Legislation
of the Gov.
ernment of
India adopted
by the State.

Act.	Subject.	Date of enforcement.
No. XLV of 1860	Indian Penal Code (1)	22nd May 1870.
No. I of 1871	Cattle Trespass Act	25th July 1871.
No. XXXVI of 1858	Lunatic Asylum Act	16th November 1871.
No. XI of 1878	Arms Act	1st January 1879.
No. I of 1872	Evidence Act	11th January 1881.
No. X of 1873	Oaths Act	11th January 1881.
No. V of 1861	Police Act	8th October 1881.
No. VI of 1864	Whipping Act	5th June 1889.
No. XII of 1882	Salt Act (3)	9th July 1890.
No. XII of 1880	Vaccination	10th April 1891.
No. XXI of 1879	Foreign Jurisdiction and Extradition Act (4)	18th March 1896.
No. XIII of 1859	Artificers Act	18th October 1896.
No. V of 1898	Criminal Procedure Code (5)	29th June 1898.
No. IX of 1890	Railway Act (6)	16th November 1898.
No. VI of 1898	Post Office Act	17th April 1899.
No. XXVII of 1871	Criminal Tribes Act	29th October 1904, Sections 1 to 23.

Special
Criminal
Acts passed
by the State.

The following are the Acts passed specially by the State:—

<i>Legislation.</i>	<i>Date of enforcement.</i>
(1). Qánún-i-Muskirát (Opium and Intoxicants).	26th March 1882.
(2). Qánún-i-M'aábir (Ferries) ...	1st April 1882.
(3). Qánún-i-Abkári (Excise) ...	3rd April 1882.
(4). Qánún-i-Qimár-bázi (Gaubling).	1st September 1882.
(5). Qánún-i-Súid (Interest) ..	28th February 1896 [see Chapter II A.].
(6). Qánún-i-Sankhiya (Arsenic)...	18th August 1898.
(7). Qánún-i-Shikár (Game Laws)	13th June 1899.

(1) With these modifications:—(1). In the case of punishments of imprisonment of either description rigorous and not simple imprisonment is to be given. (2). In crimes under Sections 497 and 498 women are also punished, but with imprisonment only and not with fine. (3). In crimes under Section 223 instead of simple imprisonment, imprisonment of either description may be inflicted. (4). Marriage with a woman within the *iddat* (i. e., before the lapse of 4 lunar months and 10 days after the demise of the husband in the case of a widow or before a woman has menstruated 3 times after being divorced in the case of a divorced woman) makes the marrying couple liable to prosecution under Section 496, Indian Penal Code, and the mulla who performed the marriage ceremony liable to prosecution as an abettor in the offence.

(2) In Section 2 of Act VI of 1864, the following amendments were adopted by order of His Highness in Council dated 8th January 1881: for a first offence whipping, or whipping and imprisonment; imprisonment and fine without whipping; or whipping, imprisonment and fine may be imposed.

(3) Only Section 9 of the Act providing punishment for offenders is in force.

(4) As far as it relates to extradition to, and from, British territory.

(5) But (1) Magistrates of the 2nd class are debarred from trying cases of theft of animals of more than Rs. 20 in value and of theft of property of more than Rs. 50. (2) First class Magistrate can accept or reject a compromise in cases under Sections 497 and 498. (3) In default of payment of fine the convict shall undergo imprisonment for the term imposed by the Magistrate in default, part payment of fine not entitling convicts to remissions of any part of the term of imprisonment.

(6) In early days of the construction of the Southern Punjab Railway, when the Punjab Government had no jurisdiction in the land ceded to the Railway Department, the State exercised criminal jurisdiction over the Railway line within its borders, but in 1899 the jurisdiction was ceded to the Multán District.

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Adopted and Special Legislation.* [PART A.

The following Civil and Revenue Acts of the Government of India have been adopted by the State :—

CHAP
III, B.

Civil and
Criminal
Justice.

Civil and
Revenue Acts
of British
India adopted
in the State.

No. of Act.	Subject.	Date of enforcement.	Remarks.
Act VII of 1870 ...	Court fees	30th April, 1870...	With the modification that in suits the Court-fee charges are fixed at 10 per cent. and in execution of decrees at 5 per cent., no process fee being separately charged.
Act XIV of 1882 ...	Civil Procedure Code	30th April 1874.	With slight modifications embodied in the Law of Interest.
Act IV of 1872 ...	Punjab Laws Act ...	11th January 1881.	
Act IX of 1872 ...	Law of Contract ...	Do.	
Act I of 1877 ...	Specific Relief Act ...	Do.	
Act XV of 1877 ...	Limitation Act ...	Do.	
Act II of 1879 ...	Stamp Act ...	Do.	
Act L of 1858 ...	Concerning Minors ...	15th March 1883.	Superseded by Act VIII of 1890.
Act XXV of 1858 ...	Guardians and Wards	Do.	Do.
Act IX of 1861 ...	Property of Minors ...	Do.	Do.
Act XXVII of 1860.	Certificate of Inheritance.	Do.	Superseded by Act VII of 1889.
Act X of 1865 ...	Inheritance	Do.	
Act XV of 1875 ...	Amendments of the Punjab Laws.	28th November 1885.	
Act VI of 1888 ...	Modifications in the Law of Interest (Act 19 of 1883).	29th September 1890.	With slight modifications embodied in the Law of Interest.
Act XXV of 1899 ...	Modifications in the Punjab Courts Act.	19th August 1900.	Section 6 only is enforced.
Act III of 1877 ...	Registration	Do.	
Act XXXIII of 1871	Revenue Act	Do.	Acts XVI and XVII of 1887 not being in force excepting Section 14 of the latter (regulating limitation for appeals in Revenue Courts).

Besides the above other special rules and regulations having the force of law in the State are given below :—

Specia
Civil and
Revenue Acts
and Rules in
force in the
State.

- (1). Bahawalpur Civil and Military Service Code; came into force on the 1st of July 1903.
- (2). Revised Municipal Code (with new bye-laws and amendments).
- (3). Jail Manual, in which the Punjab Jail Manual is mainly followed.
- (4). Employment Rules; came into force in January 1900 for competitive Examinations (Judicial and Executive).
- (5). Chaukidari rules (like those in the Punjab); were adopted on 1st April 1876.
- (6). Taqavi Rules, framed on 19th May 1899.
- (7). Code for the regulation of leases of land.

(1) Rules for the lease of *nahri* and *bardni* lands were first issued in 1871 by Major Grey, Political Agent. New rules were compiled in 1889 which were revised in 1892 and again in 1895. In 1899 rules for the lease of *chahi* lands were framed. All these rules were revised and finally collected in the form of a "Code" in 1900.

CHAP.
III. B.Civil and
Criminal
Justice.

Extradition.

Extradition of criminal deserters from Imperial Service Troops from British territory is regulated by Act XV of 1903 for Sections of the Indian Penal Code specified in the schedule of the said Act; but with the District of Dera Gházi Khán extradition is also allowed in cases under Section 498, Indian Penal Code; and with Bíkáner under the following sections of the Indian Penal Code: Sections 230 to 263, Sections 299 to 304, Sections 307—310 and 311, Sections 312 to 317, Sections 323 to 333, Sections 347 and 348, Sections 360 to 373, Sections 375 to 377, Sections 378 to 414, Sections 435 to 440, Sections 443 to 446, Sections 464 to 468, Sections 471 to 477. Reciprocal arrangements exist for extradition of criminals from the State to British territory and Bíkáner, and *vice versa*.

Extradition
proposed with
Jaisalmir.

Numerous raids have been committed by the Jaisalmer people in Baháwalpur territory during the past six years and to prevent these a detachment of the Imperial Service Camel Corps had to be sent every now and then to the Frontier posts. The Baháwalpur Darbár has, however, proposed the adoption of extradition rules between the two States.

Judicial and
Revenue
powers of
Public Ser-
vants in the
State.

Civil, Revenue and Criminal powers of the Public Servants in the State are as given below:—

Public Servant.	Powers.
Mushír-i-Ala	Described above.
Mushír-i-Mál	Revenue powers similar to those of a Commissioner in the Panjab.
Adálati or Chief Judge	Sessions and Divisional Judge.
Názim	Collector, 1st grade (Revenue Department), Superintendent of Irrigation with powers of inflicting unlimited fines, also special Magistrate with powers to try criminal cases under Sections 176 and 188, Indian Penal Code, and Sections 109 and 110, Criminal Procedure Code. Criminal powers under these sections are not conferred on any other Magistrate in the Judicial Department.
District Judge	Powers of a District Judge and District Magistrate as defined in Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes with the exception of the above-mentioned Civil Powers given only to Názims.
Munsif	Munsif, 1st class, in Civil, and Magistrate, 1st class, in Criminal cases as defined in Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes with the exception mentioned above.
Tabisildár	Assistant Collectors, 2nd grade, with power to try revenue cases of a value not exceeding 500 rupees.

No other public servants have any powers in Civil, Revenue or Criminal matters except the Private Secretary to the Nawáb, who exercises the powers of a Magistrate, 2nd class, in His Highness' Camp.

(1) Circular No. 11 of Political Agent's office, dated 5th January 1872 which came into force on 14th April, 1873.

Judicial appeals from the orders of the Chief Judge and revenue and miscellaneous appeals from the orders of the Mushír-i-Mál and other heads of Departments lie to the Supreme Court of appeal or Adálat-i-Ala constituted in January 1905, which consists of three members: viz., the Mushír-i-Ala, the Foreign Minister, and the General Secretary. Appeals lie from the orders of the Mushír-i-Mál and the Chief Judge only in cases originally decided by them, or in those in which their orders reverse those of their subordinates; when their orders confirm the orders of the Subordinate Courts no appeal lies. His Highness the Nawáb may, however, be moved to call for files from any Court for revision, or he may do so of his own motion. Such appeals and applications for revision are laid before the Nawáb by the Mushír-i-Ala. All orders of the Supreme Court in civil, revenue and criminal cases are subject to the sanction of the Nawáb. Appeals from the orders of the Tahsildárs lie to the Názims; and from the orders of the Názims in revenue matters to the Mushír-i-Mál; in criminal cases decided under the Criminal Procedure and Indian Penal Codes to the Chief Judge; and under the Irrigation Department to the Mushír-i-Anhár. Appeals from the orders of the Munsifs both in civil and criminal cases lie to the District Judges, except an order in a criminal case which inflicts a punishment of more than six months and an order in a civil suit the value of which exceeds Rs. 500, both of which are referred on appeal to the Chief Judge. Appeals from the orders of the District Judge lie to the Chief Judge, except orders in civil suits the value of which exceeds Rs. 5,000 and criminal judgments which inflict punishments of more than 4 years which are appealable to the Adálat-i-Ala.

CHAP.
III, B.Civil and
Criminal
Justice.Procedure
of appeal, re-
vision, &c.

The District Judges are three in number and one is stationed at the headquarters of each Nizámat. The eight Munsifs are stationed at Minchinábád, Khairpur, Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur East, Allahábád, Kbánpur, Rahímyar Khán (Naushahra) and Ahmadpur Lamma.

District
Judges and
Munsifs.

In lieu of imprisonment under the Indian Penal Code or any other local or special law, except under Sections 395 to 398, Indian Penal Code, offences against the ruler of the State and capital sentences under Section 302, convicts can be released from jail by the payment of a sum ranging from Rs. 20 to Rs. 300 per month, according to their means. Redemption money, however, cannot be accepted from habitual offenders or those whose release endangers the public safety. The Chief Judge alone has the power to accept redemption money in lieu of imprisonment, subject to the sanction of the Nawáb, obtained through the Mushír-i-Ala.

Redemption
money (iw-
zána or Mí
áwize).

The most frequent offences in the State are those relating to the abduction of women and cattle theft.

Common
offences.

CHAP.
III. B.Civil and
Criminal
Justice.Pleaders
not allowed.Petition
writing.

Barristers and pleaders have never been admitted into the State Courts, the idea being that their admission would tend to increase litigation and impoverish the people. Principals are not allowed to appear in Courts by agents unless such agents are near relations, or are agents of not less than a year's standing, and even then they can only appear on the ground of their principal's infirmity or incapacity.

The method of writing petitions differs from that of the Punjab. Each Court has attached to it a petition-writer, who is paid a fixed salary. The scale of fees charged for writing petitions, &c., is given below :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
1. Appeal and rejoinder	1	0	0
2. Revision, review and rejoinders	1	0	0
3. Application against the proposals of arbitrators	0	8	0
4. Application recording the arbitrators' findings	0	4	0
5. Civil suits to the value of Rs. 50	0	2	0
6. Civil suits above Rs. 50	0	4	0
7. Miscellaneous applications in civil and judicial suits	0	2	0
8. Commissioner's report	0	2	0
9. Translations and copies } Annas 3 up to 200 words : and one anna for			
10. Deeds (of all kinds) } every additional 100 or fraction of 100 words.			
11. Acknowledgments and receipts	0	1	0
12. Recognizance	0	3	0

These fees are credited to the Department concerned.

Registration.

There is no separate Registration Department, nor are there any Honorary Sub-Registrars as in the Punjab. Registration is carried on by the Judicial Department without extra pay. The Chief Judge acts as Chief Registrar, the District Judges as Registrars, and the Munsifs as Sub-Registrars. For statistics, see Table No. 37, Part B.

Trial o
bad charac-
ters (Dera
Ghází Khán
and Baháwal-
pur).

To prevent crime on the border of Dera Ghází Khán, the State has agreed with the Deputy Commissioner of that district that the Assistant Commissioner of Rájanpur and the Názim of Khánpur shall meet twice a year for the *gardáwari* of bad characters. Trials of bad characters of either jurisdiction under Section 110 of Act V of 1898 are held by both these officers sitting together, the offenders of the State being tried by the Magistrate of the State when the evidence for the prosecution is produced by people of the British district, and the offenders of Dera Ghází Khán District tried by the Rájanpur Magistrate when the evidence is produced by the State *zamindárs*, &c. A similar arrangement exists between the Minchinábád Nizámat and the Montgomery District and is being proposed with Bikaner.

Foreign De-
partment.

The Foreign Minister's functions are described in the table given above. He has the following officers under him :—

- (1) The *Vakíl* in attendance upon the Political Agent, Phúlkián States and Baháwalpur; and

- (2) The *vakils* appointed to the districts of Ferozepore, Montgomery, Multán, Dera Ghází Khán and Sukkur (in Sind), the Rájanpur sub-division, and the capital city of Bíkáner.

CHAP.
III. B.
Civil and
Criminal
Justice.

The Mushírat-i-Mál was first established by Colonel Grey, Political Agent, in November 1879, after the abolition of the Nizámats referred to in Section B., Chapter I. The Mushírat-i-Mál (Revenue Minister) exercises revenue and executive functions similar to those of a Commissioner in the Punjab, but he has no authority over the Police. He has under him a large office, the total annual expenditure on which amounts to Rs. 22,478, and the following departments:—

Mushírat-i-
Mál (Revenue
Department).

(a). *Land Revenue.*—This consists of 3 Názims, 9 Tahsildárs, 9 Naib Tahsildárs, 1 District *kánungo*, 9 Office *kánungos*, 34 Field *kánungos*, and 359 *patwáris* (see Table 33, Part B) as well as *zaildárs* and *lambardárs*.

(b). *Settlement.*—In the Ubha Tahsils (*viz.*, Minchinábád, Cholistán and Khairpur) Settlement operations began in 1904, and are now in progress. The Mushírat-i-Mál is Settlement Officer, and under him is an Assistant Settlement Officer, a Superintendent, two Deputy Superintendents, 22 *gardáwars* and 100 *muharrirs*, besides the permanent establishment of *patwáris*.

(c). *Domain Lands.*—The domain lands (or the estates which are the personal property of His Highness the Nawáb) are managed by the Mushírat-i-Mál with the aid of the Názims and Tahsildárs.

(d). *Horse Farm or Stud.*—The working of the Horse Farm is described in Section A of Chapter II. The establishment consists of a *Sarparast* (Superintendent), 9 *Ahlkárs*, and 27 menial employès. The total annual expense of the Stud establishment for the year 1903-04 was 3,204. The large area of land attached to it affords grazing for the animals, but most of it is annually leased on *aml khám*, or contract, to cultivators, and is a source of income to the State. The area of the farm (*lohra*) is as follows:—

<i>Area in bigahs.</i>	<i>Cultivated.</i>	<i>Uncultivated waste.</i>
24,785	5,316	19,469

The following table shows the income and expenditure of the Stud under the four different heads for 1903-04:—

Sources.	Income.	Expenditure.	Gain.	Loss.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Stud income ...	7,317	3,397	4,220	...
Aml khám ...	20,033	4,965	15,968	...
Seris (pasture grounds) ...	584	447	137	...
Gardens ...	210	243
Total ...	28,144	8,150	20,325	33

CHAP.
III, C.Land
Revenue.

Section C.—Land Revenue.

The following table shows the numbers of villages held in the various forms of tenure:—

Classification of villages by forms of community and tenure.

Tahsil.	ZAMINDARI.		PATTIDARI.		Bhaya-chára.	Others.
	Málkiyat wáhid (single ownership).	Bilijmál (more than one proprietor).	Perfect.	Imperfect.		
Minchinábád and Cholistán Tahsils.	19	67	18	9	244	...
Khairpur ...	9	9	31	21	126	...
Baháwalpur	101	4
Ahmadpur	121	...
Khánpur and Allahábád	1	101	2
Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamma.	132	8
Total ...	28	77	49	30	825	9

Classification of communities and tenures of villages according to the amounts of revenue paid by each.

The table given below gives a further sub-classification according to the amount of revenue paid by each village:—

Description of villages.	Tenure.	TAHSILS.						Total.
		Minchinábád and Cholistán.	Khairpur.	Baháwalpur.	Ahmadpur.	Khánpur and Allahábád.	Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamma.	
Villages paying Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 50,000.	{ Zamindári ... { Pattidári Bhayachára	2	...	3	10	7	22
Villages paying Rs. 100 to Rs. 5,000.	{ Zamindári ... { Pattidári Bhayachára ...	52	13	65
Villages paying less than Rs. 100.	{ Zamindári ... { Pattidári Bhayachára ...	235	170	98	116	91	125	835
Villages on leases without right of ownership.	...	34	5	1	...	40
	...	36	6	3	2	47
	1	1	3	5
Total of villages paying revenue.	...	357	196	102	121	103	135	1,014
Villages paying rent in kind but no revenue.	3	4
Grand Total	357	196	105	121	103	135	1,018

The accuracy of the figures for *pattidári* and *bhayachára* villages are rather doubtful. It is in most cases difficult to class a village under any one of these recognised tenures. *Pattidári* imperfect and *bhayachára* are only one form of tenure, but the settlement nomenclature has classed under the former head tenures in which share-holders descended from a common ancestor preponderate, and under the latter head tenures in which possession, and not ancestral descent, is the measure of right and liability, or in which there are more share-holders of various tribes than share-holders descended from a common ancestor. *Zamindári* villages exist only in the Minchinábád and Khairpur Tahsils, mostly on the Fordwáh Canal, founded by settlers who received grants from the State. In the Lamma Tahsils where cultivation is comparatively old and the communities very numerous *bhayachára* tenure is the rule, though *pattidári* villages owned by single families are also numerous. As a whole the shares are comparatively large and the number of

share-holders is not so excessive as in the adjoining districts of the Punjab. In Khánpur Tahsíl, however, there are holdings which owing to the operation of the Muhammadan Law and other causes are owned in most confusingly minute shares. In the Cholistán Tahsíl almost all the villages are held on *bhayachára* tenure, and sole ownership of villages does not exist except in the case of Muniánwálí and Miyánwálí villages, which have the largest area of all the villages of the Tahsíl. The majority of the villages of the Cholistán Tahsíl were founded by the Sikh and Márwarí Bishnoi settlers who received lands on lease in large groups of share-holders. They are called *biswadárs*, a term introduced into the State by them: each estate is divided into hundreds of *biswas*, but generally it is not partitioned and remains the joint property of the various *biswadárs*. The *biswadárs* who are present in the village cultivate the undivided lands and enjoy the whole produce of the cultivated area to the exclusion of the absent *biswadárs*, who, however, are still liable for their shares of the State demand.

Before 1866 the area irrigated by a well or by canals was in most cases the unit of proprietary right: all other lands belonged to the State. But pasture grounds close to the cultivated areas were also regarded as forming part of the estates. These and other wastes for which the villagers agreed to pay the usual revenue rate on such lands were entered as *shámílát deh* in the State revenue papers when the boundaries of villages were demarcated in accordance with the British system of settlement initiated by Colonel Minchin, and have ever since been recognised by the State as the village common lands.

A greater part of the Rohí of Khairpur and almost the entire Rohí tract of all other Tahsíls, is State property. These tracts are sparsely inhabited by communities thinly scattered here and there, mostly consisting of the Búhar, Rathor, Pirhár, Varyáh, Jat (t soft), Náik, and Menghwál tribes. They have no large habitations but live in hamlets (*jhoks*) on the natural tanks (or *tohbas*) in which rain water is collected. These people are either cattlebreeders, goat-herds, carriers of traffic between the Rájputána States and Baháwalpur, or makers of barilla (*sajji*) as tenants to the State contractors. As a rule they only pay grazing dues (*tirni*) to the State. When, however, there is sufficient rainfall in the Rohí, they cultivate vast areas of lands and pay revenue for them.

In the Cholistán Tahsíl Barár, Bhullar, Gil and Mán Sikhs and Bishnois preponderate; next to them come Wattús and Joyas. In the Minchinábád Tahsíl Wattús form the bulk of the agricultural population, owning entire villages or parts of villages on the Sutlej from Qáimká to Chakkoka. The Joyas and Chishtís are most numerous beyond Chakkoka, especially along the Sutlej from Láleká to Luddan in Khairpur Tahsíl. About Shahr Faríd thána the Mahávrí Kharls or Sáhíbzádas are owners of lakhs of bighas. Near Hásilpur and Khairpur the Dáúdpotras and

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.

Classification of communities and tenure of villages according to the amount of revenue paid by each.

Common lands.

The Rohí tracts.

Localisation of predominant communities.

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III. C.
Land
Revenue.

Aráíns, and in Baháwalpur Tahsíl, Channars, Dánwanjs, Aráíns, Dáúdpotras, and Kulyárs are most numerous. In Ahmadpur Tahsíl Ghallús, Sayyids, Arbís, Wárans, Langáhs, Baloches, Búhars and Náichs; in Khánpur and Allahábád Baloches, Dáúdpotras, Lárs, Cháchars, Máchhis, and Siyáls, and in Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamma, Bhuts, Baloches, various septs of the Sammas, Indhrars, and Máchhis form the largest agricultural communities.

Customary
law of inheri-
tance.

Customs and usages regarding matters of inheritance and enjoyment of landed property, &c., were recorded in the Settlement *Wájib-ul-arz* according to the statements of the representatives of the various village communities in the Ubha and Lamma. The law in force in the State directs the Courts to follow local custom as given in the *Wájib-ul-arz* and, failing that, the Muhammadan or Hindu Law, except in cases where these have been superseded by other laws adopted in the State. As a general rule all sons succeed equally, and succession is regulated *per capita* (*pagwand*) and not *per stirpes* (*chúndwand*). Widows among both the Hindus and Muhammadans succeed on a life-tenure if they have no sons and receive maintenance only if they have sons. In practice the widow of a brother or agnate is never permitted to inherit her husband's share but is only allowed maintenance, and that only in case of her not marrying another husband (*haqq-wich baithan*). The *chúndwand* rule of succession exists only in certain Sayyid families and in the *Gadhoká* sept of the *Wattús*. A widow of any tribe enjoying a life-tenure of the property of her husband is entitled to alienate a part thereof for reasonable needs and is not fettered closely by the claims of the agnates. Among a majority of the Muhammadan landholders the daughters, in the absence of sons, either inherit the whole property of the father or divide a fair proportion of the property with the male relations of the deceased. This proportion varies in different localities.

Riparian
customs.

In 1850 the Board of Administration agreed to observe the deep stream (*Darúd bannán, dhár kolán, hadd Sikandari*) as the boundary between the State and the British districts of the Punjab. This deep-stream rule remained in force till 1860, when the modified deep-stream rule began to be observed on the Indus, under which identifiable land (*chakkar, dona, toka, or lálára*), carried away by avulsion, was to remain the property of the original proprietors, although separated from the main estate by the deep stream.

"The consent of the Baháwalpur State," says Colonel Grey, "was not obtained: indeed the letter of Nawáb Baháwal Khán I. to the Punjab Government, with the Native Agent's report of 29th January, 1863, expressly refuses the avulsion rules."⁽¹⁾

(1) Extract of the last para. of a letter from Nawáb Baháwal Khán IV. forwarded to the Punjab Government with the Native Agent's endorsement of 29th January, 1863: "In the orders of the Financial Commissioner and the Lieutenant-Governor, the boundary of the jurisdiction of both Governments was stated to be the main river—defined as this has always been the practice and the Baháwalpur Government prefers to maintain this ancient 'deep-stream' rule.

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Riparian
customs.

In 1871 Captain (now Colonel) Grey moved the Punjab Government that the 'deep-stream' rule of jurisdiction should apply also to Dera Ghází Khán (on the Indus). This view was also held by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Robert Egerton, Financial Commissioner. But Colonel Grey was ordered to carry out the 'avulsion' rule in concert with the Settlement Officer of Dera Ghází Khán and the result was reported in Mr. Fryer's letter No. 74 of the 4th March, 1872, forwarded to Government with the Financial Commissioner's letter No. 488 of 22nd May 1872. The arrangements reported were approved by Punjab Government on 24th October 1872. It can be seen from Mr. Fryer's letter that Captain Grey's object was to prevent the Baháwalpur State from being cut off from the river: "Lines should be drawn north and south of each *chakkar* from fixed points and no accretions on either side of these lines should be allowed to be gained by any *chakkar*. The object of this rule was to prevent the elongation of a *chakkar*, the final result of which elongation might, as Captain Grey pointed out, eventually be to shut off the Baháwalpur State entirely from its river frontage." Captain Grey accepted the 'avulsion' rules for the maintenance of rights of property only as accepted by Nawáb Baháwal Khán IV., but like him he could not admit that jurisdiction followed property. He therefore asked Government for an exchange of territory to maintain the Baháwalpur jurisdiction up to the main stream. In his letter of 24th August 1872 he wrote:—"I earnestly request the Lieutenant-Governor's attention to the infinite trouble and annoyance to British Officers and the heartburning and other evils resulting on the avulsion rules on the Indus. These are now appearing on the Sutlej where till the recent introduction of the rules all went smoothly. A Settlement under the 1860 rules has just been arrived at by myself and the Settlement Officer of Dera Ghází Khán of the disputes of 6 years standing on the Indus. The result has been so disastrous to the State in the entire loss of river frontage, that no Political Officer in charge here could in justice to the State accept such a result, and I am just about to lay before Government the

"The reason is that, as both Governments are one it is indifferent whether twenty villages go to one side or five to the other—the interests are common. But, in the new practice adopted by Mithankot, there is daily annoyance, and more and more may be expected. The remedy lies with the Lieutenant-Governor. Of course proprietary rights should be maintained; the present objection is not to that but to the claim of jurisdiction by the Mithankot officials.

"All these cases have arisen out of that of Kachí Chohán. The real point at issue in all of them is one only, viz.—Shall the Baháwalpur jurisdiction be exercised, according to the ancient 'deep-stream' rule, over lands transferred bodily by change of the river's course from the British jurisdiction: shall the deep stream limit jurisdiction on both sides; or shall the jurisdiction of British officials follow lands transferred to the Baháwalpur side?"

"Therefore I send all the Kachí Chohán papers to you" (the Native Agent) "for reference to Government. You should inform me what is settled thereon for the maintenance of ancient custom, the protection of rights, the welfare of the people, the prevention of daily quarrels, and for my satisfaction."

Endorsement by the Native Agent.—"I submit, for orders of the Secretary to Government, the papers and *parwana* received from the Nawáb of Baháwalpur; and I beg to state that the Baháwalpur Government desires to maintain the 'deep-stream' rule as the boundary of the Governments."

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resolutions of a committee of the chief officers of the State passed upon this subject."

The resolutions referred to above were submitted to the Punjab Government but the proposal for exchange of territory was not accepted. In January 1873 Mr. Robert Cust supported the deep-stream rule and suggested its adoption in the case of Bahawalpur State in a Memorandum.⁽¹⁾ However, the 'avulsion'

(1) The Memorandum runs as follows:—In the letter of the Government of India, dated 24th August 1860, and affirmed by the Secretary of State for India, January 16, 1861, a principle of Riverain Law is laid down that appears open to question, as being—

- I. Contrary to the Common Law of the Provinces, or rather of the great Indus Basin,
- II. Contrary to the order of the Government of India issued in analogous cases in the great Ganges Basin, and
- III. Contrary to obvious expediency.

The point is this—a distinction is drawn betwixt cases of accretion of new land, and Avulsion and Transfer of existing tracts of land. It is admitted that in both cases the rights of the proprietor remain intact, if susceptible of identification—but it is ruled, that while in the former cases the jurisdiction is transferred, in the latter the jurisdiction follows the lands, as an instance of which we have a portion of the Dera Ghazi Khan District separated from its parent district by the broad stream of the Indus, which at some seasons of the year can only be crossed in eight or ten hours.

- I. What is the Common Law?

In the History of the Punjab (attributed to the father of the accomplished Secretary to the Government of the Punjab) volume I, page 154, we have a quotation from Captain Murray's well-known work.

"In the case of lands cast by the change of the stream from one side to the other, though the Chief gains, and the other loses, yet it is customary to preserve the rights of the zamindar."

The "Deep stream" was the received boundary in all such cases.

My attention having been greatly drawn to such cases during my twenty years of service in the Punjab, in districts bounded by the Jumna, Sutlej, Beas, Ravi and Chenab, I laid down the principle broadly in my decision in the Bahawalpur case of 1860, and was much surprised, that the order of the Government of India should have arrived in a contrary sense. Those orders were signed by Sir U. Beadon.

I felt satisfied that there was some mistake, and accordingly laid down the principle again distinctly in my Manual of Revenue for the Punjab, page 127, in order that the point might be well considered again.

- II. But it so happened, that when I became Member of the Board of Revenue of the North-West Provinces, I found this same point brought prominently forward in case betwixt the District of Ghazipur and the Province of Bengal, and the District of Azimgarh and the Province of Oudh.

Sir Cecil Beadon was Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and Mr. Robert Davis, now Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, was Financial Commissioner of Oudh.

I opened out the whole subject again on its merits, and being supported by my Lieutenant-Governor, the case came before the Government of India, and it was decided in 1867 that, whenever a Navigable River shall be the Boundary of any District or Province the Deep stream of such river shall be the limit of the jurisdiction of all riparian public servants, and Notifications were issued by the Government of India under 28, Victoria, Chapter XVII, Section 4, to that effect.

The correspondence will be found in the published Proceedings of the Government of North-West Provinces of July, October 1867, January 1868, May 1868, and the procedure is carefully laid down in the Circular of the Board No. 16 of August 12, 1868.

The Deep stream was declared to be the boundary of Provinces, Districts, and Divisions and *ad fortiori* in the absence of treaty stipulations, the rule must apply to cases where a river divides British India from a Native Independent State.

- III. And upon ground of expediency it must needs be, that this rule should be enforced. The case of Bahawalpur and Dera Ghazi Khan is an extreme case, but what can be more contrary to the first principles of good administration of Civil and Criminal Justice, Police and Revenue than the circumstance of a portion of a District being divided from the District Offices, and no doubt from the nearest Sub-Collector, the nearest court of justice, the nearest police station, by one of the largest rivers in the world?

The Deputy Commissioner of Dera Ghazi Khan cannot be able to exert any authority whatever in his trans-Indus villages, can rarely be able to visit them, to summon a witness from these villages would be an act of oppression. The tract will become a kind of Alsatia for refugees from the Bahawalpur villages.

Another important consideration is the police of the great river Indus—there should be no risk of a divided or doubtful jurisdiction of the Riparian States. Anything more unsatisfactory, or possibly dangerous, in the event of river piracy becoming fashionable cannot be imagined. The Dera Ghazi Khan authorities could have no certain knowledge of

rules were put in force in 1872-73 in the case of all other rivers on the Bahawalpur border and remained in practice till the demarcation of permanent boundaries. The question of a permanent boundary proposed by Government came into consideration in the beginning of the year 1899. After some preliminary correspondence, the Hon'ble Mr. J. Wilson, Settlement Commissioner, Punjab, met the Wazir of Bahawalpur to discuss the problem. The result of the discussion was a number of Preliminary Recommendations drawn up on 2nd January 1900, and agreed to by both officers. Paragraph 10 of these Recommendations contains the conditions on which the Darbār consented to the laying of the fixed boundary. The main point contained in these conditions was that the Bahawalpur Darbār could agree to the scheme only in case full and unrestricted powers were given to the State in respect of access to river water and of *mīr bahri* (ferry tolls). The former was intended to obviate any possibility of danger to the State irrigation. The Hon'ble Mr. Wilson came to Bahawalpur a second time on 31st March 1900 for a further discussion of the subject and again admitted the soundness of the State's claim to powers of access to river water and reported on the subject to Government. The question of the fixed boundary was finally decided on 2nd September 1900, in a meeting at Simla, in which, on behalf of the Bahawalpur Darbār, Colonel Grey, Superintendent, accepted the fixed boundary scheme provided the proposed Minor Canals Bill, Sections 27, 30, and 34 of which were supposed to satisfy the requirements of the State in this direction, was passed into law. But, later on, it was considered that these sections of the Minor Canals Bill did not satisfy the State demands and that the bill should include further provisions to meet the situation. The matter is still pending before Government, but the fixed boundary has since been demarcated on the entire Bahawalpur-Punjab border, except in the case of a few areas where disputes are still undecided.

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The *zaildārī* and *lambardārī* system was introduced into the State by Colonel Minchin in 1875. The *zails* were established, as far as possible, in accordance with the tribal distribution of the people. Colonel Minchin thus described the system in the Bahawalpur Administration Report for 1875-76: "I have adopted Mr. Prinsep's plan of having a *lambardār* to each village, and a *zaildār* in charge of a group of from 8 to 4 villages. I have found the system to answer admirably, especially as regards canal clearances. These village officers are in fact assistants to the revenue officials in all revenue matters and to the police in criminal proceedings; and, as the *Tahsildārs* are the heads of the police in their own districts, there is no clashing of the authorities, and both departments benefit from the local

Zaildārī
and *lambardārī*
system.

what was going on in their trans-Indus villages—the Bahawalpur authorities would have no power of interfering—supposing by the caprice of the river a few Bahawalpur villages were to be left on the Dera Ghazi Khan side, and become a nest of thieves and river pirates what should we say then?

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and lambardār
system.

knowledge and influence of these village officers. Five per cent. is levied as an addition to the State demand, of which one per cent. is paid to the *zaildārs*, and two per cent. each to the *lambardārs* and *patwāris*." Each village has at present one or more *lambardārs* according to its status. Their fees are the same as those which were fixed by Colonel Minchin. The *zails* now consist, in many cases, of more than 20 villages. The duties of *lambardārs* and *zaildārs* are the same as in the Punjab. They are bound not only to collect revenue and assist in the prevention and detection of crime but also to assist the *zaildārs* and *dārogas* of Irrigation Department in the general clearance of canals. In this State, however, owing to the predominance of big landowners owning land in several villages, a large number of the *lambardārs* hold *lambardārī* in various places and are necessarily absentees. There are others who have substitutes to work in their places. The agents (*mukhtārs*) chosen are generally *kutānas* (sweepers), *mīrāsīs*, or *pāolīs* (weavers) who always fail to perform their duties. Most of the *zaildārs* also have their agents, much to the detriment of State work. In certain villages such as the villages on the Sādiqiyah Sharqiyah Canal and in thickly populated villages in other Tahsils, the position of a *lambardār* is valued; in others it is regarded a burden. In villages where *lambardārī* is profitable, widows of the deceased *lambardārs* succeed their husbands and have *sarbarāhs* to perform the required duties. Fuller details of the number of *lambardārs* and *zaildārs* will be found in Table 33 of Part B.

Patwāris
and girdā-
wars.

Trained *patwāris* and *girdāwars* were first appointed by Colonel Minchin in 1867. The duties of the *patwāris* and *girdāwars* are the same as in the Punjab. In the State, however, the number of *patwāris* is smaller than is necessary. All the *patwāris* before 1898 knew only the old system of measurement, viz., the *shist patri* or triangulation measurement system. In 1898, however, a school for training *patwāris* was started in Bahawalpur and placed under two competent and qualified *girdāwars* whose services were secured from the Punjab. In less than 2 years a majority of the old *patwāris* and apprentices were put through a course of training in the square measurement system and the new scheme of studies prescribed for *patwāris* in the Punjab. *Patwāris* and apprentices to the number of 60 were sent in a batch to the school for a period of three months, after which a regular examination was held and certificates were granted. The successful *patwāris* did the measurements of the second regular settlement of the Lamma Tahsils on the square system and did it very well. A large number of the existing *patwāris* are still untrained. The scale of pay of the *girdāwars* and *patwāris* is—

				Grade		
				1st.	2nd.	3rd.
Girdāwar	Rs.	30	25	20
Patwāri	"	14	11	9

For a list of the number of *girdāwars* and *patwāris* see Table 33 of Part B.

The *chaukidārī* system is also one of those institutions which the British Agency introduced into the State. Villages of some size and importance have more than one *chaukidār*; small ones, which are contiguous to each other, often have one common *chaukidār*, but in a majority of cases each village has a separate *chaukidār*. The number of these village servants in each Tahsil is given in Table 33 of Part B. The ordinary pay of a *chaukidār* is Rs. 3 per mensem. In each Tahsil there are also a number of *dafadārs*, who are allowed Rs. 5 per mensem from the *chaukidāra* fund. They have to supervise the work of the *chaukidārs* and are held responsible for this in their respective *ilāqas*. Payment to *chaukidārs* and *dafadārs* is either made direct by the *zamīndārs* or by the Tahsildār; a cess is levied for this object on the inhabited houses of the village. Widows, *fakīrs*, *Brahmans* and *Sayyids* (who do not own lands in a village) are exempted from the payment of this cess.

The culturable area of the Bahawalpur State has always been practically confined since ancient times to the comparatively narrow strip of low-lying land between the rivers and the Cholistān or desert. Cultivation was found only in a few ancient settlements such as Uch, Jajja, Bhutta Wāhan, Pattan, Shaikh Wāhan, Khāfī Bodla, Sarwāhī, Mau, Mahnd, etc., and the rest of the tract given up to pasture. As there were no canals, cultivation was entirely dependent on the inundations from the rivers or upon rain. Under these conditions little care was bestowed upon agriculture and cattle-breeding was the chief industry. Wherever land capable of cultivation was thrown up by the river, people settled on it, building temporary huts to live in but forming no permanent settlements. Such permanent villages as existed were mostly within the borders of the Cholistān beyond reach of floods. The fiscal history of the northern part of the State is connected with that of Multān, that of the southern with Sindh. In the period of the Langāh Kings of Multān, a great impetus was given to the colonization of the country on the banks of the Haryārī⁽¹⁾, as it is called in Minchinābād and Khairpur, or the Tarukrī, as it is called in Ahmadpur and Khānpur, which was possibly a canal taken out of the Sutlej or, more probably, the old bed of that river. On it many people from the country round Multān and Bhatiana (now Hissār) settled as cultivators. The Langāh Kings also constructed a canal called the Qutbwāh near Uch. Very little is known of the revenue system of the period. The only meagre information of an authentic nature is to be found in the Aīn-i-Akbarī from which we learn that Sher Khān Sūrī (A. D. 1540-1545) had abolished the old system of taking revenue by division of produce and introduced that of realizing it by measuring the culturable area. The whole culturable land in the reign of

(1) The Haryārī (or Harkārī of the Aīn-i-Akbarī) was a running stream in the time of Akbar. Aīn-i-Akbarī Vol. II, 100 (Persian Edition).

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Land
Revenue.
Fiscal
history.

Akbar was divided into four classes namely⁽¹⁾:—(1) *Pulaj*, land in which a crop is invariably sown and which is never left fallow. (2) *Parotí*, land which is occasionally left uncultivated. (3) *Chachar*, land which is left fallow for 3 or 4 years in order to make it fit for cultivation. (4) *Banjar*, waste, the land left untilled for five or more years. Different rates of assessment were levied on various classes of crops. The average rates, as given in the *Ain-i-Akbarí*, were:—

Crop.	Rate per bigha.		
	Ra.	a.	p.
Wheat	0	15	0
Barley	0	12	0
Cotton	1	0	0
Indigo	1	10	0

The total revenue accruing from the *Sába* of Multán (including Bhakkar) was Rs. 14,85,263 (land-revenue Rs. 13,47,907; miscellaneous Rs. 1,37,356) and the culturable area under assessment was 558,649 *bighas*, which gives an average rate of Rs. 2.10 per *bigha* or Rs. 5.4 per acre. Probably the Government share of the produce was first collected and then sold at fixed rates to merchants, and, unless the Government dues were obtained, the *zamindár* was not paid anything at all. The *Ain-i-Akbarí* has given a detailed account of several *ilāqas* comprised in the province of Multán, which included 18 districts or separate *parganas*, identifiable with the present Bahawalpur State and the outlying districts of Sítpur and Ubáura. The following list of these is taken from Gladwyn's translation and his spelling is retained for facility of reference. 1. *Obaderah*—This is Ubáura in the Rorí sub-division of Upper Sindh, adjoining the southern boundary of the State. 2. *Ouj*—Uch. 3. *Bhoorty damern*—Bhutta wáhan, in the Nausbahra Tahsil of Bahawalpur. 4. *Jamsher*⁽²⁾—There is no such place in the State, but by a slight alteration in the Persian letters, it can be read as *Jajja*, one of the oldest villages in the State, near Khánpur, (see Chapter IV). 5. *Eudai Kosh*—A village in the State on the Sindh border. 6. *Dewá Ráwal*—Now commonly known as Diláwar (or Deráwar). 7. *Dood Khán*—Now known as *Dáúd Máchhí* near Shidání in Khánpur Nizámat. 8. *Rajpoor*—Rájúpur in the Multán District: but the lands attached to it are situated on the left bank of the Sutlej a few miles west of the town of Bahawalpur. 9. *Reperi*—This must be

(1) *Ain-i-Akbar*, Vol. I, 207 (Persian Edition). *Pulaj* is modern *Poláj*, or *Pulách* so called in the Ubha. It is the clayey silt deposited by the river from two to any number of feet in thickness and is capable of cultivation, opposed to *regmár* or sandy land near the river, the silt (or *nopti*) of which is washed away by the river. *Parotí* is possibly *phirdotí*, an attributive name (lit. rotatory); modern *pherwin* in which different crops are sown by rotation. *Chachar* is unknown in these parts.

(2) In a Persian Edition *Jama*, a misspelling of *Jajja*.

Rahri, in the Ahmadpur Tahsil. 10. *Seetpur*—Sitpur in the Muzaffargarh District: in Akbar's time it was on the right bank of the Indus, and probably included the present Mithankot *pargana*. 11. *Sewrohy*—Sarwahi (Sewrahi,) 8 miles N. E. of Kot Sabzal (see Chapter IV). 12. *Ruttehpur*—situated in the Multan District, but the lands attached to it were once in the Bahawalpur State. 13. *Kherone*—Kehror is in Multan, but included the villages now known as Lal Sohara in the State. 14. *Meloot Ghazipur*—the town of Ghazipur in the Khanpur Tahsil. 15. *Mowh*—Mau in the Naushahra Tahsil. 16. *Merote*—an old fort in the desert now known as Marot. 17. *Mahend*—Manhd, near Channigoth. 18. *Khai Bodla*—Khafi Bodla in Minchinabad Tahsil.⁽¹⁾

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history.

In the reign of the Emperor Akbar, a summary Settlement of all his possessions took place in order to determine the revenue. About this Colonel Minchin wrote as follows:—

Summary
Settlement of
Akbar.

"At the end of Emperor Akbar's reign a sort of summary Settlement was made of the revenue demand of the different divisions of the Empire. Having formed an aggregate of the rates of collection from the commencement of the 15th year of the reign to the 24th inclusive, they took the tenth part of that total as the annual rate for 10 years to come. From the 20th to the 24th year the collections were made upon grounds of certainty but the former five ones were taken from the representations of persons of integrity and moreover during that period the harvests were usually plentiful as may be seen in the tables of the 19th year's rates."

At the time the eastern portion of the State was under the *Sarkar* of Dipalpur. Of the 29 *parganas* which belonged to that *Sarkar* six were situate on the left bank of the Sutlej and included "Bhattis" and "Joyas" who must be the Wattis and Joyas of Fazilka Tahsil and Minchinabad Nizamat. Colonel Minchin thus describes the approximate revenues accruing from the present area of Bahawalpur State to the Emperor Akbar:—

"Abul-Fazl gives the average collections of these separate *parganas* as 18,820,255 *dams* and the *sair* or miscellaneous income at 38,688 *dams*. A *dam* was the fortieth part of a rupee. The cultivated area was estimated at 2,05,893 *bighas*, which is equivalent to 102,946½ acres. As from time immemorial the usual measure of a *bigha* was 10 *kanas* by 8, a *kana* being a reed cut to the length of 16½ feet, this gives 21,780 feet to the *bigha* or exactly half an acre. This gives an average assessment of Rs 4-8 to the acre, but the collections were always taken in kind. Excluding the Sitpur and Ubaura *parganas* the income of the State in Akbar's reign was Rs. 5,11,399."

The following statement prepared from the Ain-i-Akbari, shows the cultivated area, the revenue in *dams*, and other

(1) A village of considerable antiquity; its ruined fortifications and huge buildings of packed masonry bear testimony to its ancient prosperity. In the time of Akbar it had an area of more than 10,000 acres with over 200 wells. The community of the *Bodlas* who founded this town broke up at the end of the 18th century. The areas now included in the adjoining villages of Pir Sikandar, Akuka, Kasimka, Bhangar, Mominabad, etc., which are of comparatively recent growth, formed part of Khafi Bodla in the time of Akbar. The village is now a little over 2,700 *bighas* in area and is owned by the descendants of the early Bodlas.

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details of the various places now identified with Bahawalpur State :—

	Bighas.	Revenue D.	Snyúrgbál D. or feodal tenure.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Castes.
Uch	29,056	19,10,140	...	100	400	Shaikhzadah Say- yid Bukhári.
Bhutta Wáhan	16,696	13,36,029	13,664	200	2,000	Rájpút.
Jajja	4,334	3,48,037	...	150	200	Lodhí.
Dúdáf	4,05,202	24,00,000	...	400	3,000	
Dera Ráwal	2,718	1,40,000	...	50	500	
Dádú Khán	17,819	14,40,000	Baloch, Bholdí and Nardí.
Bahri	12,675	10,80,000	Dúdáf.
Seoráshí	5,124	28,800	...	20	100	Dahr.
Kahror	1,334	87,289	Dahr.
Mauih	9,083	7,07,069	20,440	50	1,000	Incladed Lál So- hára in Bahá- walpur.
Marot	5,456	2,04,000	200	200	1,000	Kuraishí.
Máhd	9,336	80,14,000	...	200	1,000	Bhattí.
Kháf Bodla	80,411	5,94,233	...	200	...	Bodla and Joya.

Rule of
Aurangzeb.

When Multán came under the rule of Aurangzeb, a new canal called the Aurangawáh was excavated in what is now the Bahawalpur Tahsil. This canal has silted up and been re-excavated several times : it is now called the Naurangawáh.

The ruler's
share of the
agricultural
produce.

According to tradition the ruler's share of the produce was all that remained after deducting the necessary expenses of the cultivator. This share was nearly always taken in kind, very rarely in cash. No cash tax was levied on cattle, etc., but sometimes a proportion of a herd was taken by the ruler as his share. It is hardly possible to form any estimate of the amount which the ruler actually levied but probably it did not exceed $\frac{1}{4}$ th of the whole produce, including stock and profits of all kinds. Towards the close of the Mughal domination, the Makhdúms of Uch held the territory in the neighbourhood of that town, and they introduced the system of taking tithes of the produce as revenue. In 1142 H. (1729 A. D.) Amír Sádiq Muhammad I obtained the Chauhdarí iláqa from Nawáb Hayátulla Khán, the Súbah of Multán, where he founded the town of Allahábád, and sank several wells. But throughout this century the Makhdúms continued to realize their tithe, and Faríd Khán Lakhwera, the ruler of Shahr Faríd, still took his one-fifth as *batáí*.

Sádiq Mu-
hammad
Khán I and
his succe-
sors.

Sádiq Muhammad Khán I and his successors were rather mild in their treatment of the people and took the State share at rates varying from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{5}$; but the other Dáúdpotra chiefs who founded separate principalities (1733-1772 A. D.) ⁽¹⁾ and were in an ill-

(1) See chapter I, Section C, Dáúdpotras.

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Arrangements under the Dáúdpotras.* [PART A.

defined subjection to the so-called over-lord of the Pirjáni family, exacted as much as they could. These exactions became the subjects of proverbs, remembered to this day; e. g., *Kháhdá píá ján dá, Jo bachyá so khán dá*, i.e., eat what you can, for that belongs to you, all that is left belongs to the *khán*. Those, however, who assisted Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II and his successors in time of war held most of their lands free of revenue, on a tenure called *iwz-i-lashkari* and many persons also held *muáfis* for personal services. In the reign of Muhammad Baháwal Khán III, revenue demand (*hhiráj*) was taken partly in cash and partly in grain. Cash payments were generally realized when seasons were favourable and the produce was abundant. Gradually various additions were made to the amount to be realized in cash or kind, and the State demand was raised to $\frac{1}{3}$ rd or even $\frac{2}{5}$ ths of the gross produce in the case of the most productive lands in the State. The lowest demand was one-fourth, anything below that rate being regarded as a concession. Such concessions, where given, might reduce the revenue to anything from a fifth to a tenth of the produce. Crops which it would have been difficult to realize in kind were assessed in cash, and *partis* imposed at the following rates:—

Sugar-cane,	Rs. 5 p. r bigha.
Cotton, <i>wamár</i> ,	As. 12 to Rs. 2 per bigha.
Chillies,	Rs. 2 to 4 per bigha.
Tobacco,	Rs. 2 to 4 do.
Melons,	Rs. 2 to 3 do.
Musang,	Re. 1 to 2 do.
(Peas for fodder) from	As. 8 to Re. 1 per bigha.

For the due collection of the State's share of the *batái, chánjús* or supervisors, were appointed with *piyádas* to assist them, and when the crop was harvested a mark (*thappa*) was put upon it, the grain when threshed being divided by a weighman. Every functionary such as the headman, *chánjús*, weighman and *piyáda* had his share in the outturn, as had also the *kotwál* and the village menials, so that but a slender margin was left to the cultivator. Moreover the opportunities of exaction were considerable, and the officials generally collected more than their legitimate shares.

This state of things prevailed till the establishment of the Agency when these abuses led to the adoption, between 1866 and 1879, of a new system, under which perpetual leases were given to cultivators. 30 *bighas* were allotted to each well which was then assessed at 12 Baháwalpurí rupees,⁽¹⁾ payable in two instalments, Rs. 5 in the Kharíf and Rs. 7 in the Rabi. On canal, *sailáb*, and *baráni*

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hammad
Khán I and
his successorsThe First
Agency.

(1) 12 Baháwalpurí rupees equal 8 rupees in British currency. This gives a rate of As. 4.9 per bigha, which is less than a fourth of the present assessment.

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III. C.Land
Revenue.The First
Agency.

lands, a cash assessment on crops was introduced at the following rates per *bigha*:—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Wheat	1	12	0
Lentils	1	0	0
Mustard seed and gram	1	8	0
Musang	0	12	0
Kalanga (rice) from Re. 1-2-0 to	2	0	0
Samukka	0	8	0
Sánwak, Kangni, Nángni, Jowár, Bájrá, and Rawánh...	1	0	0

These rates gave in 1866 a revenue of Rs. 4,29,291 and in 1867 of Rs. 7,00,685. Two years after this assessment the prices of grain fell, with the result that the rates were felt to be oppressive and in 1871-2 Colonel Gray accordingly reduced each rate by four annas, so that wheat paid Re. 1-8-0, lentils annas 12 and so on. These reduced rates were about equal to the rates then in force in the Sindh and Deraját Districts, and furnished the basis of the later assessments. A large canal was excavated in 1868-70 in the Minchinábád *ráqá*, till then a desert, and on its being opened large areas of land (*chaks*) were granted to settlers at the above reduced cash rates. Some villages, however, in the Minchinábád and Khairpur Tahsils elected to pay half their revenue in cash and half in kind, and some even chose to pay it wholly in kind on being given the option of saying which system they preferred. Under these arrangements the revenue of

Tahsil.	Rs.
Minchinábád	88,123
Sádiqpur	56,461
Khairpur	38,129

the Minchinábád Nizámat amounted in 1874-5 to Rs. 1,82,713, as shown in the margin. The revenue gradually increased as cultivation increased and

a new settlement of the Nizámat was commenced in 1873-74 by Shaikh Muhammad Fíroz-ud-Dín, Názim, and each village surveyed, measured and assessed. The area assessed in the

Area in acres:—	Tahsil Minchinábád.	Tahsil Khairpur.	Total Minchinábád Nizámat.
Cultivated ...	110,317	93,124	203,441
Culturable ...	380,703	128,429	509,132
Total assessed ...	491,020	219,553	710,573
Unculturable and State chaks.	133,201	52,992	186,193
Total Area ...	624,221	272,545	896,766
Jama in Rs. ...	1,20,502	1,24,850	2,34,852

Minchinábád Nizámat was 896,766 acres, as shown in detail in the margin. The total area was found to be 14,078 acres less than the area according to the Revenue survey data of 1871 but the Cholistán area assessed in kind had

been excluded from the Settlement measurements.

The following table gives the details of the assessment for the Settlement of 1868-76:—

Details of
settlement of
1868-76 of
Minchinábád
Nizámat.

1	2	AREA OF CULTIVATED LANDS IN ACRES.					8	9	10	11	12	13
		Well-irrigated.	Canal irrigated.	Jhalor irrigated.	Satāba or alluvial lands.	Bārāni land.						
1	Hāsil Sārū	80	661	...	4,354	10,913	15,907	72,017	88,524	13,089	0 0	0 2 4
2	Melood Gari	582	6,154	244	9,538	5,463	21,971	90,023	111,894	23,529	0 0	1 1 1
3	Minchinabad	1,913	10,609	192	11,029	6,767	30,410	123,394	153,704	35,686	0 0	1 2 9
4	Sādipur	3,898	19,802	1,326	15,424	1,639	42,029	84,769	136,798	48,248	6 5	1 2 4
	Total	6,413	37,126	1,762	40,235	24,781	110,317	280,703	491,020	1,30,509	6 5	1 1 6

STATEMENT OF CULTIVATED AND CULTURABLE AREAS INCLUDING JAMA AND PARTA PER ACRE IN KHAIRPUR TAHSIL.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Shahr Farid	3,500	12,149	2,825	8,826	90	27,350	47,642	74,892	31,299	0 8	0 6 8
2	Hāsilpur	4,530	6,380	1,345	6,905	15	19,175	30,091	49,286	23,460	0 0	1 3 6
3	Qāmpur	4,120	5,164	5,457	8,824	...	23,565	32,413	55,978	31,499	15 0	1 5 5
4	Khairpur	3,280	4,384	4,255	8,918	2,297	23,134	16,283	39,417	28,121	0 0	1 3 5
	Total Khairpur Tahsil	15,490	28,077	13,882	33,273	2,402	93,124	126,429	219,553	1,14,350	5 8	1 3 8
	Grand Total for Minchinabad Nizamat	21,903	65,203	15,644	73,508	27,183	203,441	571,032	710,573	2,34,862	12 1	1 2 6

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Details of
Settlements
of 1868-76 of
Minchinabad
Nizamat.

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Colonel
Minchin's description of
this Settlement.

The settlement of the Minchinábád Nizámat (between 1868 and 1876) is thus described by Colonel C. C. Minchin, Political Agent :—
 “ According to the revenue survey, this Nizámat contains 710,573 acres, of which 203,441 acres are cultivated and 507,132 waste. It lies to the south of the Sutlej extending from the border of the Sirsa District to within 30 miles of the town of Baháwalpur, a distance from east to west of 120 miles. The cultivated area lies between the Sutlej and the Fordwáh Canal (which traverses the whole extent of the Nizámat) with an average breadth of 8 miles. South of this is an enormous Baugar tract extending to the Bíkáner border. The following statement gives the detail of the cultivation :—

				<i>Acres.</i>
Well cultivation (cháhi)	21,903
Lands by surface flow	65,203
Do. lift	15,644
River inundation (sailába)	73,508
By rainfall (bárání)	27,183
Total				2,03,441

“ The settlement has virtually been carried on for the last eight years, having been commenced by leasing the new lands brought under cultivation by the Fordwáh Canal, which was excavated in 1868, 1869 and 1870, and extending the system to all who chose to apply for a lease of their estates, the old system of taking the State share in kind being retained for those who did not care to take a lease. The settlement, however, has now been completed for the whole Nizámat.

“ The leases are of three kinds, Istimrá, Nazrána, and new leasee; the latter again being divided into leases originally granted prior to 1875 known as *chukook*, from the estates being marked off into parcels of land known as *chuks*, and leases now granted. Advantage has been taken of the opportunity to revise the old leases which appeared to be too high.

“ The Istimrá leases are the continuation of leases on light rates granted by the former Nawábs, the only difference made being, that whereas formerly the proprietors were allowed to cultivate any lands in the neighbourhood of their estates, the demarcation of each Istimrá holding has now been effected, a liberal allowance being made for lands lying fallow. Nazrána is a quit rent on lands granted as Inám or Kasúr on account of feudal service formerly exacted. A man who agreed to find two footmen or one mounted man for the Nawáb's service received a grant of a well comprising 12½ acres, or a *jhalár*, that is cultivation by lift on a canal, of 10 acres, or, if he provided four footmen or two mounted men he obtained the grant as Inám. The difference between an Inám and Kasúr grant is that in the case of an Inám grant he had to provide for the cultivation, while a Kasúr grant was a specific share in kind of the State share in certain lands; if the land was waste he got nothing, but if cultivated he obtained his share. The troops sent to the siege of Multán by Nawáb Baháwal Khán III received rations

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *First Settlement of Minchinábád.* [PART A.]

but no pay, their Kasúr and Inám grants being considered equivalent to pay: these services being no longer required are commuted to payment of a quit rent.

"The settlement is founded on the principle that cultivation is entirely dependent on irrigation, and we consequently look more to the water supply than to the quality of the soil. It may, however, be broadly stated that the whole of this portion of the State is an alluvial tract formed by the action of the Sutlej, excepting the high Bangar tracts, though even there the traces of old river beds are found; and we have taken advantage of one of these old beds known as the Sotri to get rid of the surplus water brought into the Fordwáh Canal during the height of the floods by forcing the water down this channel, which irrigates the land on the left bank of this canal for a distance of 30 miles.

"The result of the settlement is as follows:—

Name of Tahsil.	Name of Peshkárí.	Jama assessed.	Cultivated area in acres.	Total area in acres.	Rate per acre on cultivation.	Rate per acre on total area.
		Rs.			Rs. s. p.	Rs. s. p.
Minchinábád	Hásil Sarhú ...	13,039	15,907	88,524	0 13 1	0 2 4
"	Meleodganj ...	23,529	21,971	111,994	1 1 1	0 3 4
"	Minchinábád ...	35,686	30,410	153,704	1 2 9	0 3 9
"	Sádiqpur ...	48,248	42,029	136,798	1 2 4	0 4 11
	Total Tahsil ...	1,20,502	1,10,317	491,020	1 1 6	0 3 11
Khairpur	Shahr Faríd ...	31,269	27,250	74,892	1 2 4	0 6 8
"	Hásilpur ...	23,460	19,175	49,266	1 3 6	0 7 7
"	Qáimpur ...	31,500	23,565	55,978	1 5 5	0 9 0
"	Khairpur ...	28,121	23,134	39,417	1 3 5	0 11 5
	Total Tahsil ...	1,14,350	93,124	219,553	1 3 8	0 3 4
	GRAND TOTAL ...	2,34,852	203,441	710,573	1 2 6	0 5 3

"The cultivated area shown is that for the last year 1874-75 when the settlement was completed. If the proprietors can bring more land under cultivation the rate per acre will decrease and if the cultivation falls off it will necessarily increase. The canals improve year by year, new irrigation channels being opened, and I have no fear of any decrease in the area irrigated by canals unless the opening of the Sirhind Canal affects us more injuriously than we anticipate, and, even in this case, as the

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III. C.

Land
Revenue.

Colonel
Minchin's description of
this Settlement.

CHAP
III. CLand
Revenue.

Colonel
Minchin's
description of
this Settlement.

lands are, as far as regards the first six Peshkárís, what are called *puchotra*, that is are sown late in June and July, and the crops Bájra and Jowár chiefly reaped in November, so that the late rise of the river which will certainly ensue on the opening of this canal will not be detrimental to this part of the State, but indigo and cotton crops will have to be abandoned and a larger breadth of land prepared for Rabi.

"The Qáimpur, Khairpur and lower Tahsils on the Sutlej will chiefly suffer, as most probably the canals will fill too late for the Kharif sowings and the zamindars be obliged to content themselves with Rabi crops, but as the settlement is for three years, until His Highness the Nawáb comes of age, this will hardly affect this settlement.

"The sailába cultivation is dependent on the overflow of the river which takes place generally every two out of three years and will not be affected by the opening of this canal. The proprietors get their lands irrigated free of cost with the advantage of alluvial deposit from the river, and therefore though they may lose their cultivation for one year, the profits during the other two years will fully make up for it. If sand is deposited on their estates, reduction of the State demand will be given when the alluvion and diluvion statements are prepared yearly.

"There are 3,235 tenants, of whom only 152 are hereditary, that is cultivators who originally redeemed the estate from waste and known as *bootamars*, not liable to ejection from their holding as long as they pay rents, and 3,083 tenants-at-will. As in the case of the proprietors, this only includes the heads of families and the sons and brothers associated with them as tenants are not shown. The usual rates are from half to one-fourth of the produce in kind, varying according to the value of the estate, the tenant giving the labour for canal clearance, except on the Fordwáh Canal, where by special arrangement the proprietors pay the water rate."

Cholistán
lands leased
out.

In 1869 the Cholistán land between the Fordwáh and the Bíkáner border and from the Fázilka border to Shahr Faríd was leased out partly to Sikh settlers and partly to old residents of the State at the rate of two annas an acre. "The lease-holders," says Colonel Minchin, "did not exert themselves, failed to take advantage of even the good seasons and were unable to pay their revenue and gave a good deal of trouble." The rate was, therefore, reduced in certain cases to an anna an acre on condition of payment of the arrears in 1875. The total area leased out comprised 222,776 acres, which was assessed at Rs. 16,819, namely, Rs. 5,666 at 2 annas an acre, and Rs. 11,153 at 1 anna an acre. This did not include the right of grazing which belongs to the State and is leased separately. Up to now the rate above described remains the same in the Cholistán tract, and the lease-holders have acquired no proprietary rights in the lands.

Revised
Summary
Settlement of
Minchinábád
Nizámat in
1879-80.

The first Summary Settlement was maintained, as has been above described by Colonel Minchin, for a period of three years, as a test Settlement, after which another revised Summary Settlement of Minchinábád Nizámat was affected in 1879-80 by Mirza Aghá Muhammad. The Nizámat was now split up to two Kárdáris

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Third Settlement of Minchinábád* [PART A.

viz., Minchinábád and Khairpur, to which latter 4 villages from Bahawalpur iláqa were transferred under the new plan of the abolition of Nizámats and the establishment of six Kárdáris. The area in *bighas* in both Kárdáris and the jama fixed was as follows:—

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III. C.
—
Land
Revenue.

Revised
Summary
Settlement of
Minchinábád
Nizámat in
1879-80.

				<i>Cultivated area.</i>		<i>Jama assessed.</i>	
						Rs.	a. p.
Minchinábád	68,932			1,57,527	10 7
Khairpur	144,248			1,24,785	10 1
TOTAL						2,82,518	4 8

The period of this, the second, Settlement was fixed as 10 years.

A third (Regular) Settlement of these two Kárdáris was made in 1890 by Mirza Jindwadde Khán, Mushír-i-Mál. He re-surveyed all the villages and fixed the following rates per bigha:—

Third
(Regular)
Settlement of
Minchinábád
and Khairpur
Tables,
1890-91.

Garden lands—Re. 1, Re. 1-8, Rs. 2, Rs. 2-8.

Canal and well irrigated areas—Re. 1-4.

Well and *jhalár* irrigated areas—Re. 1.

Well and *sailábá* (alluvial) areas—annas 12, Re. 1.

All kinds of *jhalár* irrigated areas—annas 8.

New lands (*jadíd*)—annas 4.

Bárání lands—annas 4.

Sailáb lands—annas 8.

Canal irrigated lands—1st class, Re. 1; 2nd class, annas 10.

Culturable lands—annas 2.

The results of this Settlement were as follows:—

Kárdári.				AREA ASSESSED IN BIGHAS.			Jama, Fixed.	
				Irrigated.	Bárání.	Total.		
							Rs.	a. p.
Minchinábád	1,64,337	5,28,696	6,93,033	2,10,541	2 10
Khairpur	1,45,544	5,832	1,51,376	1,60,997	8 9
Total	3,09,881	5,34,528	8,44,409	3,71,538	11 1

The revenue fixed in the three Settlements is shown below:—

				Revenue.
				Rs.
First Settlement, 1872-76	2,34,852
Second Settlement, 1879-80	2,82,518
Third Settlement, 1890-91	3,71,538

Comparison
of Revenue
fixed in the
three Settle-
ments.

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III. C.
—
Land
Revenue.Comparison
of Regular
Third Settle-
ment with
Revised
Summary
Settlement.

The results of the Regular Settlement as compared with those of the revised Summary Settlement are as follows:—

Kárdári.	ASSESSED AREA IN BIGHAS IN SUMMARY SETTLEMENT (REVISED).								
	Cháhi.	Cháhi-nahri.	Cháhi-jhalári.	Cháhi-sailáb.	Jhalári-nahri.	Jhalári-daryái.	Nahri.	River sailáb.	Báráni.
Minchinábád ...	3,829	399	547	...	632	...	23,276	28,779	1,470
Percentage of culti- vated area.	5.5	5.7	7.9	...	9.1	...	33.76	56.2	2.13
Khairpur ...	19,092	36,781	12,802	2	7,832	2,546	34,638	30,141	414
Percentage of culti- vated area.	13.2	25.4	8.8	...	5.4	1.7	24.01	20.8	.28

Kárdári.	ASSESSED AREA IN BIGHAS IN REGULAR SETTLEMENT.								
	Cháhi.	Cháhi-nahri.	Cháhi-Jhalári.	Cháhi-sailáb.	Jhalári-nahri.	Jhalári-daryái.	Nahri.	River sailáb.	Accidental floods.
Minchinábád ...	14,213	3,810	1,670	...	1,899	3	1,02,668	38,026	1,848
Percentage of cultivated area.	2.05	5.4	2.6	...	2.7	...	14.81	5.48	2.6
Khairpur ...	28,180	25,995	24,562	79	9,786	815	29,395	26,675	57
Percentage of cultivated area.	18.6	17.17	16.2	...	6.4	5.3	19.4	17.6	...

Lamma Kár-
dárís between
1866 and
1867.

Between 1866—76 the annual State revenue demand on the four Lamma Kárdárís was taken by measurement of the cultivated area, in some parts by cash rates and in others by actual division of the produce, which, however, varied from year to year. In 1876-77 the actual collections were ⁽¹⁾—

Sub-heads—Land Revenue.				1876-77.	Balance of pre- vious years.	Total Collections.
Land Leased	1,54,178	7,1,936	2,26,114
Acreage on crops	5,87,312	7,6,817	6,68,129
Nazárána	20,652	6,868	27,518
Sale of grain	80,568	2,752	83,320
Indigo fees	4,875	292	5,167
Miscellaneous	12,664	3,250	15,914
Total	8,60,249	1,61,913	10,22,162

(1) Baháwalpur Administration Report for 1876-77.

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *First Settlement of Lamma Kárdáris.* [PART A.

In 1877 Shaikh Muhammad Firoz-ud-Dín effected a Summary Settlement of all the four Lamma Kárdáris, fixing their assessments as noted below :—

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Summary
Settlement of
the Lamma
kárdáris.

<i>Kárdári.</i> ⁽¹⁾						Revenue. Rs.
Baháwalpur	1,16,902
Ahmadpur	1,83,196
Khánpur	2,76,910
Sádiqábád	1,36,750
Total					...	7,13,758

The following statement shows the average annual income from these Kárdáris calculated from the produce receipts of the last seven years between 1870 and 1877 :—

<i>Kárdári.</i>			Average yield per year.	Revenue fixed in the new Settlement (vide Administration Report for 1878).
			Rs.	Rs.
Baháwalpur	1,09,774	1,16,902
Ahmadpur	1,69,961	1,83,196
Khánpur	3,76,285	2,76,910
Sádiqábád	2,72,553	1,36,750
Total		...	9,28,573	7,13,758

This revenue was very low as compared with the revenue in kind, and fell short of it by Rs. 2,14,815.

The following statement shows the areas in *bighas* and revenues of the four western Kárdáris as fixed by the summary Settlement :—

(1) There is a great difference in the boundaries of the Kárdáris as they then stood and as they were determined later on as several villages were transferred from one Kárdári to another.

CHAP.
III. C.
Land
Revenue.
Summary
Settlement of
the Lamma
Kárdáris.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
		AREA NOT ASSESSED.						CULTIVATED AREA.									
Serial No.	Kárdári.	Total area.	Inam area.	Land acquired by the State.	Under Forests.	Domain lands.	Total area not assessed.	(Cháhi) well-irrigated area.	(Cháhi) jhalari well and jhalari irrigated area.	(Cháhi) nahri well and canal irrigated area.	(Jhalari) jhalari irrigated area.	Canal irrigated (nahri) area.	Sullab or alluvial land.	Indigo.	Total on till-irrigated area.		
1	Babáwalpur	349,638	11,441	9,065	66,650	4,827	91,984	5,605	6,433	28,390	3,545	30,912	9,163	15,169	99,276		
2	Amnampur	662,276	49,776	9,217	224,075	3,457	287,127	3,994	4,698	33,556	5,303	52,487	21,588	12,117	133,655		
3	Khánpur	1,225,962	39,658	17,697	191,486	11,851	260,826	2,247	343	23,691	5,045	180,869	68,013	12,733	282,954		
4	Sádiqábád	1,903,724	16,163	14,318	284,604	685,055	1,090,141	8,142	24,604	18,544	12,646	37,424	148,759	2,253	252,275		
	GRAND TOTAL	4,141,001	117,040	50,298	767,416	705,224	1,639,979	19,988	36,039	104,189	26,441	301,694	237,534	42,273	768,162		

1	2	17	18	19	20	21	22	23			
		UNCULTIVATED AREA.									
Serial No	Kárdári.	Newly cultivated area.	Grand total of cultivated area.	Culturable.	Waste.	Total uncultivated area.	Revenue.	Remarks.			
1	Babáwalpur	33,257	132,534	76,825	48,294	125,119	1,16,902	In each column <i>kardás</i> and <i>markas</i> are omitted for the sake of brevity, but they are included in the total of each column.			
2	Amnampur	62,353	186,008	117,983	61,157	179,139	1,83,190				
3	Khánpur	54,891	337,845	423,291	204,139	627,430	2,76,910				
4	Sádiqábád	79,798	332,074	386,436	185,071	571,608	1,36,750				
	GRAND TOTAL	220,261	998,423	1,604,535	498,662	1,503,198	7,13,758				

In each column *lands* and *marshes* are omitted for the sake of brevity, but they are included in the total of each column.

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Second Settlement of Lamma Kárdáris.* [PART A.

Adding to this the summary assessments of Minchinábád and				CHAP. III, C.
Minchinábád Nizámat 1st Summary Settlement	Land Revenue.
Summary Settlement of the four Lamma Kárdáris	Total land revenue of the Summary Settlements, Regular Settlement of four Lamma Kárdáris 1889-90.
Total			Rs. 9,48,573	Khairpur Kárdáris the total land revenue of the State by the Summary Settlements was Rs. 9,48,573.

The Summary Settlement of the four Kárdáris of the Lamma was fixed for 12 years, namely from 1878 to 1889. In 1889, therefore, a Regular Settlement of these Kárdáris was begun by Munshí Ghulám Nabí Khán, Mushír-i-Mál, and completed by Mirza Jindwadde Khán in 1890. The following statement shows the areas of the different classes of land measured in this Settlement:—

CLASSES OF AREA MEASURED.	AREAS IN DIFFERENT KARDARIS.			
	Sádiqábád.	Khánpur.	Ahmadpur.	Baháwalpur.
	Bighas.	Bighas.	Bighas.	Bighas.
Well irrigated	11,950	1,677	2,248	1,879
Well and canal irrigated and gardens	22,546	43,513	64,507	52,280
Well and jhalár irrigated	5,455	3,342	4,675	5,366
Well and sailába	646	1,778	1,148	439
Canal and jhalár irrigated	20,230	5,993	4,072	3,690
Irrigated by jhaláris from rivers	1,708	981	1,705	1,186
Canal irrigated	1,00,504	2,02,100	1,06,930	51,835
Sailába	83,552	33,135	84,707	16,789
Irrigated by accidental floods	26,305	2,072	...	14
Báránt	549	23	5	21
Total (cultivated area)	2,73,445	2,94,614	2,19,997	1,83,499
Uncultivated area <i>jaddá</i> (fallen out of cultivation within three harvests).	97,605	82,838	42,273	21,145
Culturable	8,15,635	4,01,313	2,25,330	15,213
Unculturable	6,62,561	4,23,965	2,45,805	1,69,570
Total uncultivated area	15,75,801	8,58,116	5,13,408	2,05,928

This gives 9,21,555 *bighas* of cultivated and 31,53,253 *bighas* of uncultivated area for the four Kárdáris taken together. The assessment was fixed for a period of 12 years, and the revenue demand for each Kárdáris was as under—

	Rs.	s.	p.
Baháwalpur	1,24,099	1	0
Ahmadpur	1,55,790	14	2
Khánpur	2,77,656	2	10
Sádiqábád	1,96,730	15	8
Total	7,54,277	1	8

Compared with the last Settlement there was a decrease of 76,868 *bighas* in the cultivated area and an increase of Rs. 40,519-1-8 in the *jama*. Decrease in the cultivated area

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Measure-
ment and
village
records.

was partly due to the more accurate survey and partly to erosion by river action of certain areas in riverain villages.

During the Summary Settlements of Minchinábád Nizámát and also of the four western Kárdáris the following scale of measurement was adopted:—

5½ feet	= 1 karam.
12 karams	= 1 jarib.
9 square karams	= 1 marla.
20 marlas	= 1 kanál.
4 kanáls	= 1 bigha.

During the Summary Settlements of Minchinábád and Khairpur maps were prepared on the scale of 60 *karams* to an inch, but in the four western Kárdáris no maps were prepared except for villages subject to riverain action for use in the annual diluvion and alluvion measurements. The papers prepared at the Summary Settlement for Minchinábád and Khairpur were the *khassra* (area of crops and ownership of each holding), the *kishtwár* (map showing each field), genealogical tree (*shajra nasb*), (*darkhwást málguzári*), statement of fields of each proprietor (index *málikwár-khatauni*), abstract statement of fields in numerical order with owners, tenants, area, etc., (*muntkhab khawat*), statement of wells (*naqsha cháhát*), statement of *ináms* and *kasúrs* (*naqsha lákhirdá*), statement of fixed leases (*naqsha istimrar*), statement of gardens and groves (*fard nakhlastán*), statement of rights and customs (*wájib-ul-ars*), and final robkar (*robkár akhír*). At the Summary Settlement of the four Lamma Kárdáris in addition to all the above papers, there was also prepared a register of leases given to new settlers (*naqal patta málguzári*). Two copies of each paper were made, one given to the *patwári* and the other filed in the Revenue office. Orders were given for the annual preparation of *girdáwari* and *jamabandi* records but these orders were only nominally observed. Orders were also given for the annual preparation of *burd burámad* papers showing the results of diluvion and alluvion along the rivers and assessments and remissions were annually given accordingly. During the regular settlement all the old papers were corrected and brought up to date. New maps were prepared in Minchinábád and Khairpur, and the villages of the four Lamma Kárdáris, which had not been mapped before were mapped for the first time.

Bases of
assessments.

In the Summary Settlements the assessment was fixed on the basis of the average annual value of the State's share of the produce for the seven years previous to the settlement. In the Regular Settlements the assessment was based on the average annual market value of the total produce of the cultivated area of the whole State for the previous five years. The average areas of the different kinds of crops were taken from the *girdáwari* papers, such as they were, and rates of average outturn per crop per acre were calculated. A list of average prices for the five years was drawn up and so the average annual

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Revenue.Second Re-
gular Settle-
ment of the
Lamma
Kárdáris.

Uncultivated area in the above Kárdáris was as follows:—

					UNCULTIVATED AREA.			
					Jadíd.	Culturable.	Uncultur- able.	Total.
Baháwalpur	8,275	68,749	1,61,178	2,38,202
Ahmadpur	12,108	2,19,597	2,11,874	4,43,579
Khánpur	23,158	3,08,841	3,72,162	7,04,161
Sádiqábád	1,01,834	6,76,363	6,13,801	13,91,998

Compared with the last Settlement the cultivated area increased by 58,431 *bighas* in Baháwalpur Kárdáris; by 98,997 in Ahmadpur; by 1,08,937 in Khánpur; and by 1,49,873 in Sádiqábád; or by 4,16,238 *bighas* in all the four Kárdáris. The following table compares the *jama* of the present with the last settlement:—

					JAMA IN					
Kárdáris.					1st Regular Settlement.		2nd Regular Settlement.		Increase.	
					Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	
Baháwalpur	1,24,099	1 0	1,56,696	8 10	32,597	7 10
Ahmadpur	1,55,790	14 2	2,36,806	15 8	81,016	1 6
Khánpur	2,77,656	2 10	3,42,426	6 8	64,770	3 10
Sádiqábád	1,96,730	15 3	3,59,766	10 7	1,63,036	10 10
Total	7,54,277	1 8	10,95,686	9 9	3,41,409	8 1

The following statement compares the revenue rates (*parta*) of the First and Second Regular Settlements:—

Class of area.					Revenue rate in 1st Settlement.			Revenue rate in 2nd Settlement.		
					Rs. a. p.			Rs. a. p.		
Cultivable	{ 0 2 0			0 2 0		
					{ 0 1 0			0 1 0		
Jadíd	0 4 0			0 4 0		
Gardens (1st class)	2 0 0			2 8 0		
Ditto (2nd class)	1 8 0			1 8 0		
Ditto (3rd ")	1 0 0			1 0 0		
Well irrigated	0 12 0			0 8 0		
Well and canal irrigated	1 4 0			1 0 0		
Well and Jhalár	1 0 0			1 0 0		
Jhalár irrigated (from canals)	0 8 0			0 8 0		
Jhalár irrigated (from rivers)	0 8 0			0 8 0		
Canal irrigated (1st class)	1 0 0			1 0 0		
Ditto (2nd ")	0 8 0			0 12 0		
Ditto (3rd ")			0 10 0		
Ditto (4th ")			0 8 0		
Sailáb	0 8 0			0 8 0		
Bárání	0 4 0			0 4 0		

In 1904-05 was begun the Second Regular Settlement of the Minchinábád and Khairpur Tahsils which is still in progress. After the Settlement operations had started another Tahsil consisting of the *bárání* villages of the Cholistán and the villages irrigated by the Sádiqiyah canal, was formed in the Minchinábád nizamat and included in the area to be settled. This Nahr Sádiqiya (or Cholistán) Tahsil will be assessed as a distinct circle. The villages included in it pay at present an anna or half anna a *bigha* and also, for the canal irrigated areas, 1 and $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas respectively as *khush haisiyati*, and a water-rate of 6 annas per *bigha*. See Section A, Chapter II. The canal irrigated areas will now be re-assessed. In all these three Tahsils the measurements are being carried out on the square system and the maps are being made on the scale of 40 *karams* to an inch. No improvements are being introduced in the record system.

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III, C.Land
Revenue.Second Re-
gular Settle-
ment of Min-
chinábád and
Kháirpur
Tahsils.

In the Summary Settlement an attempt was made to fix a definite sum to be paid as revenue by each separate holding according to its area. This system, however, did not work well, and in the Regular Settlements each village was assessed at a lump sum by area at revenue rates, but the distribution of this sum over each separate holding was left to the body of proprietors themselves according to the custom prevailing in the Punjab. The opportunity thus given to the proprietors of distributing the assessment according to the different nature of the various holdings, of which they generally have a very fair knowledge, has had good results.

Báchh or
distribution
of assessment

In all settlements in Baháwalpur the riverain villages have been assessed at the same rates as other villages. Where land was newly alluviated, it was assessed at the ordinary *sailáb* rates as soon as ever it was brought under cultivation: where land was eroded or so affected by sand as to be unculturable the *jama* was at once remitted. On the ordinary *sailáb* lands not subject to alluvion and diluvion the assessment was fixed (*mustakíl*) and, when the river floods failed, no remissions were allowed. In recent years this has caused great hardship to the riverain landowners, as the *sailáb* has been yearly decreasing in area owing to the extent to which the rivers have been tapped for canal irrigation. In spite of this, however, fluctuating assessments have not yet been introduced in these villages except for *burd barámad* (newly diluviated and alluviated) lands.

Riverain
villages.

The Rohí or Cholistán lands which are the property of the State are known as *ittifáqi*, because their cultivation depends on chance. If good rain falls, the inhabitants of the scattered Cholistán hamlets and of the Hithár villages cultivate these lands on the condition that for every acre of cropped area they either pay the State one rupee or else $\frac{1}{4}$ of the produce as appraised by arbitrators. In places close to the

Fluctuating
assessments
in the Cholis-
tán.

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Revenue
Domain lands,

well-known old forts, such as Phúlra, Marot, etc., a lower rate is levied, viz., $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{6}$ and even $\frac{1}{10}$ of the actual produce. If no rain falls, the lands remain uncultivated.

A certain number of villages and scattered areas in the State are the private property of the Nawáb. These lands pay no regular revenue, but a fixed share of the produce in kind, generally $\frac{1}{3}$, is realised from the cultivators after each harvest and debited in the treasury under the head of *amlák-sarkár*, by which name as well as by that of *chukúk sarkári* the domain lands are known.

Tirní.

Closely connected with the land revenue is the *tirní* or grazing tax. In the times of the old Nawábs, the majority of the population were cattle breeders rather than cultivators. Cattle were then mostly taxed in kind. But cash rates were invariably levied from foreigners while State subjects had to pay by making presents in the forms of cows, buffaloes, or horses. In this way live-stock of all kinds was taxed except donkeys and this exception may account for the great number of donkeys in possession of the *Kirárs* up to the present day. A regular *tirní* tax in cash was imposed in 1867-8 by Colonel Minchin on foreigners and natives. The object of this tax was to make cattle breeders, who did not otherwise contribute to the expenses of the State, share in the burdens of the rest of the population. In order to encourage cultivation agricultural cattle were exempted from taxation, as they are at the present time. The practice hitherto has been to enumerate cattle every third year unexpectedly at night time, scrupulous care being taken to avoid any information reaching the owners beforehand. The enumeration used to be made by the Revenue and Police officials, but this system was not a good one, partly because of the want of honesty of the petty officials, who often made false reports, and partly because timely warnings enabled many cattle owners to drive their cattle across the rivers or to hide them in jungles on the night of the enumeration. In 1890 a modified form of cattle enumeration was introduced by taking the oaths of *lambardárs* and *zaildárs* as to the correctness of the returns prepared by the officials. This had at first a wholesome effect. In many cases additions were able to be made to the numbers given by the officials and the *lambardárs* and *zaildárs* explained this as being due to their greater personal knowledge of the *iláqa*. But oaths were of little avail after a few enumerations and the number of cattle began to decrease on subsequent *málshumarís*, so that the original form of enumeration (*mutta*) had to be resorted to in 1898 and 1901. In 1905, however, a change was again made. The *lambardárs* and *zaildárs* were bound to submit correct lists of assessable cattle in their villages on penalty of dismissal and forfeiture of recognizances taken from them, if any mistake should be detected by the revenue officials at any trial enumeration held by them, without notice, within a year after the submission of these lists. The results were very satisfactory, as the number of

cattle enumerated rose about 15 per cent. all over the State. The rates of *tirni* per animal are as follows :—

Per head of cattle of British
and State subjects—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Camels (male or female) ...	1	4	0
Buffaloes " ...	0	7	6
Cows " ...	0	2	6
Sheep or goats " ...	0	0	6

Per head of cattle of Bikaner
State subjects—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Camels (male or female) ...	1	4	0
Buffaloes " ...	0	7	6
Cows " ...	0	5	0
Sheep or goats " ...	0	2	0

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III. C.

Land
Revenue.

Tirni.

The reason for this difference is that Bahawalpur subjects have to pay not only a very high rate of *tirni* for grazing in the Bikaner State, but also *bhunga* to the subjects of that State for water from storage tanks. *Tirni* is levied throughout the State, whether the cattle are grazed in State jungles or on private lands. The *tirni* revenue collections for the last five years are given in the table below :—

YEARS.	TAHSILS.						Total in rupees.
	Minchinábád and Cholistán.	Khairpur.	Bahawalpur.	Ahmadpur.	Khánpur and Allahábád.	Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamma.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1900-01	22,166	20,717	21,497	26,147	24,116	27,554	1,42,200
1901-02	19,608	21,193	21,510	26,142	24,063	27,757	1,40,186
1902-03	16,912	18,834	20,335	23,976	22,802	26,192	1,29,053
1903-04	17,466	17,888	19,844	23,481	22,564	25,646	1,26,893
1904-05	19,838	17,338	19,543	21,188	23,139	29,433	1,30,479

There are numerous groves of date trees in Bahawalpur which are either the property of the State or of private owners. Under the former category come all date trees standing on banks of canals, *rājbahás*, State lands, public roads and in compounds of State buildings. Private date trees are those growing in the lands of *zamindárs* or within house compounds. The State date trees are usually given on *ijára* (lease) at annas 4 per fruit-bearing tree per annum, the *ijára*-holders being entitled only to the fruit. The fruit of groves or of isolated trees belonging to the State that are not held in *ijára* are annually sold by auction by the Revenue Department. Private date trees are generally assessed at 2 annas per fruit-bearing tree, except in the case of old trees, which bear comparatively little fruit and which are assessed at 1 anna per tree. There are no groves of date trees in Minchinábád and Cholistán Tahsils. Naushahra and Ahmadpur Lamma Tahsils contain a few groves and Allahábád and Khánpur Tahsils a great many. The number of date trees of all kinds, according to the last settlement data, and the revenue accruing from them is given in Chapter I, page 13.

Date tree
revenue.

CHAP.
III, C.
Land
Revenue.
Cesses.

The land revenue proper (including also the date revenue) is subject to an extra charge in the form of cesses, called the *habúb* or *siwá*. In the Summary Settlement cesses amounted to Rs. 9-2 per cent. of the revenue, detailed as under—

	Rs. a. p.		
Roads	1 0 0
Education	1 0 0
Mírábí (canal cess)	1 0 0
Patwár	3 2 0
Lambardárf	2 0 0
Zaildárf	1 0 0

But at the Second Settlement, in order to meet expenses due to the appointment of new *girdáwars*, annas 14 extra were charged and thus cesses amounted to Rs. 10 per cent. of the revenue. In 1900-01 an addition in the number of *mírábs* raised the amount to Rs. 10-12-0 per cent. No other cess is imposed except the *gáon kharcha* or *malba*, which is fixed at 2 per cent. of the revenue realized by the *lambardár*. The proceeds of *malba* are used for common village expenses, such as feeding destitute travellers and entertaining village guests. Instead of 2 per cent. of the revenue the *lambardár*, however, more commonly takes a proportion of the produce in kind, *e. g.*, a *topa* in the *mání*. No accounts are kept of *malba* expenses in the State as they are in some Districts of the Punjab. The *malba* fund is also utilized for the *chaukidár* uniforms and for measurement implements needed during settlements.⁽¹⁾

Assignments
of land reve-
nue—Muáfis.

A considerable proportion of the State revenue is assigned in *muáfis*, *ináms*, etc., formerly called *Dan* and largely held by Dáúd-potras, Biloches and Makhdúms. The two former held *muáfis* in return for military service. The Makhdúms (*Sajjáda-nashíns* of shrines) received *muáfis* for the kitchen and other expenses of their *khánkahs*. The *muáfí*-holders realized their dues in kind, and used to pay to the State a *nazarána* of one or two *páís* for each *mání* of grain realised. When the Summary Settlement came into operation, cash payments were fixed in the case of areas held in *inám* and *kasúr*. At the Regular Settlement it was also decided that the *muáfis* should be paid in cash except in the villages of Gulpur, Gudpur, Márf Qásim Sháh and Kasra Munjál which were continued in *muáfí* to Jamadár Gul Muhammad Khán. But the owners and *muáfí*-holders in some cases arranged among themselves to realize their dues in kind. The largest *muáfis* in the State are those enjoyed by the sons of Jamadár Gul Muhammad Khán, by the Makhdúm Nau Bahár Sháh, Makhdúm Shams-ud-Dín Gílání, and by Mián Muhammad Bakhsh, *Sajjáda nashín* of Cháchrán. These all realize their *batáí* in kind. The *muáfis* are of six kinds, *viz.* :—
1. *Inám*. The *Inám*-holder is exempted from payment of the whole revenue. 2.—*Kasúr*. The holder of this kind of *muáfí* is exempted

(1) Besides the *malba* another tax called the *dharth* is levied on sales in the village and on the division of the produce between the tenants and the *samindár* in the field. See "Wages and Rents."

from payment of a part of the revenue. The exemptions are made at the rate of annas 2-7 to annas 7-0 per rupee. 3.—*Takhfif* or reduction of revenue. The holder of this kind of *muāfi* is given back a certain portion of the total revenue subject to the will of His Highness the Nawāb. 4.—*Riāyat*. The holder of this kind of *muāfi* is granted a reduction of half the revenue for life. 5.—*Istimrār*. A *zamīndār* who sinks a well in an uncultivated area receives a grant of about 35 *bighas*, for which he is required to pay an annual revenue of Rs. 22 only. *Istimrār* is for life possession, or as long as wells last. 6.—*Muāfis in connection with gardens*.—A *zamīndār* who makes a new garden is exempted from the payment of revenue and *chher* for that garden for a period of 20 years. The entire area held in *muāfi* is 173,537 acres, of which 18,105 acres pay revenue in kind, and 1,55,432 acres are assessed with a revenue of Rs. 86,384. No perpetual *muāfi* is held unconditionally. The extent and value of the *muāfis* according to the latest data are as follows:—

Kind.	Area in acres.	Revenue. Rs.
1. Conditional perpetuity ...	26,456	2,747
2. Subject to the will of His Highness the Nawāb.	7,026	4,293
3. For the period of settlement ...	6,925	2,748
4. For some generations ...	133,130	66,560

Under the last head 18,105 acres are not assessed to revenue and the *muāfidārs* in this case divide the produce. Each *muāfidār* pays to the State a *nazarāna* amounting to from 2 to 10 per cent. of his *muāfi*. The *Dāūdpoṭras* hold *ināms* and *kasūrs* in the State, amounting to Rs. 51,868-12-0 and Rs. 22,326-13-10 respectively, for which they pay a total *nazarāna* of Rs. 10,714-0-7. The total area of the lands they hold in *inām* and *kasūr* amounts to 54,937 *bighas*.

The revenue of each village is realized in two instalments. In some places $\frac{2}{5}$ ths at the Kharif harvest and $\frac{3}{5}$ ths at the Rabi and in others half at the Rabi and half at the Kharif. In others again $\frac{1}{3}$ rd is realized at the Kharif and $\frac{2}{3}$ rds at the Rabi and in others $\frac{2}{3}$ rds at the Kharif and $\frac{1}{3}$ rd at the Rabi. These instalments were fixed at the time of the distribution of revenue in consultation with the *zamīndārs* and are everywhere in proportion to the amount of the produce of each season. The revenue instalments of riverain villages are generally $\frac{1}{3}$ rd for the Kharif and $\frac{2}{3}$ rds for the Rabi, as the Rabi produce is always greater than that of the Kharif. The instalments are now payable on the 15th of November and the 15th of May, respectively.

There are several *rakhs* of large area in the State. Attempts have been made to colonize these on easy conditions and on payment of a nominal revenue. The greater portion of these *rakhs* has been made over to immigrants from other territories. Three

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Assignments
of land revenue—*Muāfis*.Revenue
instalments.Colonisation
and canal
irrigation.

CHAP.
III. C.Land
Revenue.Colonisation
and canal
irrigation.

kinds of land are given on lease, each on different conditions. Canal irrigated areas are leased on the following conditions:—(1). A cultivator cannot get more than 100 *bighas*. (2). A capitalist who brings in cultivators from foreign territory receives a grant of land up to 1,000 *bighas*. (3). If a person agrees to open a workshop, whether fitted with machinery or not, for the manufacture of agricultural implements, he receives a grant of land sufficient for the site of his workshop. (4). A lessee must cultivate $\frac{1}{2}$ of the total area granted him in two years, $\frac{1}{2}$ in five years and the whole, except $\frac{1}{2}$ th of the area which may be reserved for pasture in 10 years. (5). A lessee must bring from foreign territory one plough for every 100 *bighas*. (6). A lessee must pay revenue for one year in advance, but he is exempted from the payment of one year's revenue after the 10th year. In some cases, however, the payment of revenue in advance is not exacted. (7). The lessee must sink one well in a newly cultivated area comprising 100 *bighas* or more. (8). A lessee from foreign territory is exempted from payment of *tirni* for the first three years. (9). All the timber in the leased area belongs to the State, but wood is granted free of cost for making agricultural implements.

Colonisa-
tion and well
lands.

Land to be irrigated from wells is leased on the following conditions:—(1). Each lessee is granted from 100 to 200 *bighas* of land according to his status. (2). Each lessee must sink two wells for every 100 *bighas* of land within four years and must provide four pairs of bullocks for each well. (3). The land is not assessed to revenue for four years provided the lessee sinks the wells required within the time fixed. (4). In future *Hithar* and *Utār* lands will be assessed for 6 years at Rs. 10 per 100 *bighas*. (5). After this, revenue will be payable at Rs. 20 per annum for the former and Rs. 10 for the latter per 100 *bighas* for 10 years. (6). After the expiry of 10 years the revenue for 20 years will be Rs. 35 per annum for *Hithar* and Rs. 20 for *Utār* lands. (7). After the expiry of 30 years the land will be assessed at full revenue rates. (8). The State is in no case bound as a matter of obligation to supply canal water to the well lands. But in the case of a high water supply, water may be given if applied for. (9). So long as wells are not sunk and the land on lease can receive a supply of water from any canal or *rājbahā*, arrangements will be made for the irrigation of 10 per cent. of the land for the benefit of the lessee until the wells are finished. (10). If there is sufficient wood on the land given on lease, timber will be given free of cost for the making of agricultural implements and houses for residential purposes. In some cases wood is supplied to the lessee for the above purposes from other *rakhs* free of cost. (11). The lessee will also be allowed for one year to use free of cost as much wood as he wants for the purpose of making bricks to be used in the sinking of wells. After the expiry of one year, half price will be charged. (12). The

lessee will be exempted from the payment of *tirni* on his cattle for 10 years. (13). If the lessees found a village, they will receive a grant of land for the *basti* and for other purposes without payment of any price whatever. This land will not be assessed to revenue.

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III, C.
Land
Revenue.

Bārāni land is leased on the following conditions:—(1). Applicants will receive a grant of from 100 to 500 *bighas*. They are required to pay a revenue of 6 pies per *bigha* for 10 years, after the expiry of which period they must pay revenue at the rate of 1 anna per *bigha* on receiving proprietary rights. (2). If a canal is brought to this kind of land by the State, owners are required to pay in addition to the assessed revenue 1 anna 6 pies as water-advantage rate.

Colonisation
and *bārāni*
lands.

Where applicants for waste lands have not sufficient capital to bring the land under cultivation the State gives them land as tenants. In land suitable for well irrigation, several cultivators together select a piece of land and the State makes arrangements for sinking not less than five new wells or for repairing five old ones on the land. To each well is given from 30 to 50 *bighas* and the cultivators must provide 4 pairs of bullocks for each. These settlers are then charged *batāi* at the following rates:—

Tenant
colonists.

For the first two years	nil.
" " next four "	one fifth
" " " six "	one fourth
" subsequent "	one third

The State bears all the expenses of repairing the wells and furnishing them with gear. The cultivators are also given the entire produce of one *bigha* per well free of *batāi* for the keep of the well bullocks. If canal water is afterwards brought on to such lands, a water rate of 6 pies per *bigha* is charged in addition to *batāi*. Canal lands are similarly given to tenants on *batāi* at the following rates:—

For the first two years	nil
" " next four "	one fourth
" " " six "	one third
" subsequent "	one half

In such settlements, the State gives inducements for the building of *bastis* of 100 settlers each. After 10 years on well lands and after 15 on canal lands the tenants are given full proprietary rights in their holdings provided they pay back to the State all the expenses incurred on the wells and *rājbahās*. Otherwise, they are given occupancy rights on a payment of a *mālikāna* of 2 annas per *bigha*.

The area of land leased out in various ways since 1874-1880 amounts to over 500,000 acres yielding a revenue of about Rs. 3,00,000.

Total area
leased out

CHAP.
III. D.Miscella-
neous
Revenue.Leases of
forest lands.

Certain areas in the forest *rakhs* are also leased out on cultivation. They are assessed with *khām jama*, that is to say, when they are cultivated revenue is levied on them according to the rates prevailing in the adjoining *ilāqas*. Other areas in forests are leased out at a fixed rate of *batāi* generally $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$, while others pay fixed rates per acre according to the class of crops grown on them (called *amal khām* rates). Thus cotton pays Rs. 2 per acre, *jowār*, *moth* and maize Re. 1-8 and wheat and barley Re. 1-12-0. Scattered areas of State land brought under cultivation, such as deserted channels of canals, are charged at *amal khām* rates. The total revenue realized during the last 10 years from all these areas in forests and from other tracts paying *amal khām* has amounted to about Rs. 5,50,000.

Sources of
immigration
for colonisa-
tion.

The following statement gives the names of the various foreign districts and states from which immigrants have settled in the State as lease-holders, together with areas occupied by them and the revenue they pay:—

District.	Area occu- pied in <i>bighas</i> .	Revenue in rupees.	District.	Area occu- pied in <i>bighas</i> .	Revenue in rupees.
Faridkot State ...	28,885	3,763	Siālkot ...	2,516	524
Jullundur ...	8,541	802	Rāwalpindī ...	14,082	3,109
Hoshiārpur ...	10,283	2,053	Siālkot and Jullundur	1,702	331
Multān ...	22,719	4,443	Jhang and Jullundur	2,916	690
Amritsar ...	4,593	518	Gurdāspur ...	3,301	919
Dera Ghāzi Khān ...	19,130	1,866	Jhang ...	1,932	238
Shikārpur ...	11,328	2,158	Shāhpur ...	3,848	801
Dera Ismāil Khān ...	8,675	1,491	Biluchistān ...	8,242	828

All these immigrants are settled in the Khānpur Nizāmat, where there are still very large areas to be disposed of.

Section D.—Miscellaneous Revenue.

Excise.

The Excise Department (*Mahkama Abkārī wa Muskirāt*) is under the Mushfir-i-Māl, who is assisted in its administration by an Inspector of Excise as well as by the Nāzims and Tahsildārs. The State has a special law of *Abkārī wa Muskirāt*. The Excise Department concerns itself with (a) imported European spirits and fermented liquor, (b) fermented liquor prepared at licensed breweries in India, (c) country spirits manufactured after the native method, (d) opium, and (e) hemp drugs. Liquors included in (a) and (b) are sold at Bahāwalpur and Khānpur by licensees. Contracts are given wholesale and are quite separate from contracts for country spirits. These were given for Rs. 206 in 1900-01; for Rs. 90 in 1901-02; Rs. 80 in 1902-03; and Rs. 175 in 1903-04.

Country spirit is made from a mixture of *kikkar* (*Acacia Arabica*) bark and *gúr* in distilleries in much the same way as in the Punjab. Liquor is manufactured by the contractor for the time being at various places throughout the State. Wholesale contracts are annually sold by auction by the *Mushír-i-Mál*. The contractor pays a sum for the license which gives him a monopoly for the sale of country liquor distilled in the State or imported. The contract was sold for Rs. 24,666 in 1900-01, Rs. 21,835 in 1901-02, for an equal amount for 1902-03, and for Rs. 25,000 for each of the years 1903-04 and 1904-05. No retail contracts are sold; the wholesale contractor sells retail through his own shop-keepers. He has to submit a list of the places where, and the persons by whom, liquor is to be sold and for this list sanction must be obtained from the State. No extra shops can be opened without special permission. The places where country liquor is sold are given in Table 41 A of Part B.

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III. D.Miscella-
neous
Revenue.Country
Spirits.

Opium consumed in the State is either (a) Gházipur opium, (b) Málwa opium, (c) Hill opium imported into British Districts from Kashmír and the Hill States round Simla, or (d) Punjab grown opium. The British Government has prohibited the export of opium from Baháwalpur into any British District. The State has imposed no restriction on the contractors as to the import of opium from any place outside the State. The contractors therefore buy opium (and also *charas* and *bhang*) from wholesale contractors in the adjoining British Districts on State licenses, no duty being imposed on such imports. In order to obtain a special pass for the transport of opium and intoxicating drugs through British territory a certificate is required that the applicant is authorised (a) to sell such drugs within the State, and (b) to apply for a pass. This certificate must be signed in Baháwalpur by the *Mushír-i-Ala*. The Deputy Commissioner of Multán is authorised to grant permits for the import of Málwa opium on behalf of the State. The wholesale contract for the monopoly of the sale of opium and intoxicating drugs in Baháwalpur State is sold annually by auction to the highest bidder, who may pay the contract money in quarterly instalments. No retail contracts are sold; the contractors always sell through their own retail agents. If the contractors purchase intoxicating drugs from the State *zamíndárs*, they are bound to sell them at not more than 4 times the original price, but in the case of drugs imported from British Districts and Málwa no such restriction is imposed. Retail shops cannot be opened without the previous sanction of the Revenue Department. A list of the places, 58 in number, where such shops are maintained will be found in Table 41 B of Part B. The contract money for the sale of opium and intoxicating drugs was Rs. 32,834 for each of the years 1900-01 and 1901-02; and Rs. 34,334 for each of the years 1902-03 and 1903-04. The opium and drug contracts have always been granted together; a shop licensed to sell the one is also licensed to

Opium and
intoxicating
drugs.

CHAP.
III. D.
—
Miscella-
neous
Revenue.

sell the other. Contracts for the sale of country liquor and hemp drugs may be sold jointly, but contracts for European liquor are generally given separately from these. The total amount of liquors of all kinds and intoxicating drugs consumed in the year 1904-05 is given in Table 41 of Part B.

Stamps.

For postage stamps see chapter II, sec. G., (Postal Arrangements). Prior to 1866 neither court-fee nor non-judicial stamps were in use in the State. All suits were instituted, all complaints were made and all deeds were executed on plain paper. The enforcement in the State of the Court Fees Act (No. VII of 1870), of the Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes and of the Indian Stamp Act (No. I of 1879) introduced court-fee and non-judicial stamps for the first time. Prior to 1901 court-fee adhesive stamps, manufactured to order in England, were used and non-judicial stamps were made on paper manufactured in the Jail. The stamps, however, were often stolen and sold, and so impressed sheets were introduced in January 1901. These are used both as court-fee and non-judicial stamps, and the manufacture of embossed stamps has been done away with. The impressed stamps are of 13 values : As. 1, 4, and 8, and Rs. 1, 2, 4, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 100. The only adhesive stamp now in use is the receipt stamp of one anna. All these are made in England according to requirements. These stamps are sold by the Head Treasury Office to licensed vendors, attached to the following courts :—

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| (1) Head Treasury Office, Baháwalpur. | (7) Tahsil Khánpur. |
| (2) Chief Judge's Court " | (8) Tahsil Sádiqábád. |
| (3) District Judge's Court " | (9) Tahsil Ahmadpur Lamma. |
| (4) Tahsil Minchinábád. | (10) Tahsil Nahr. |
| (5) Tahsil Khairpur East. | (11) Munsiff's Court, Allahábád. |
| (6) Tahsil Ahmadpur East. | |

The vendors of these stamps are the *fotedárs* or agents of the head treasurer of Baháwalpur; there are no private licensed stamp-vendors in the State. The income from the sale of stamps to the State for the last 5 years is given below :—

Years.	Rs.
1900-01	89,217
1901-02	88,056
1902-03	1,00,132
1903-04	98,398
1904-05	92,713

Before the establishment of the Agency the system of keeping accounts was highly defective, and entailed a great loss to the State, as is evident from the following paragraph in a note by Colonel Minchin:—

"The revenue administration had been kept in the hands of Hindús who resided at Duniyapur in the Multan District, where they secretly remitted their ill-gotten gains. All these officials were connected by family ties and bound together by their individual interest. All payments into or from the State treasuries were made on separate orders on small scraps of paper, on the back of which payment was endorsed, kept distinct; no general accounts were kept and as almost all payments were made partly in cash and partly in grain, and one order was made payable, purposely, from several treasuries on the plea that it might not impoverish any one treasury too much, the intricacy of the accounts may be imagined; and the result was the enriching of the person who paid any portion of the order

In 1867, therefore, Colonel Minchin reformed the system of accounts and brought it into line with that obtaining in the Punjab Treasuries. A Head Treasury was established at Bahawalpur with a sub-treasury in each Tahsil and regular registers were kept in them. The Head Treasury was placed under the charge of a competent European officer in 1868, under whom it remained till 1878, when a native official, named Diwán Jattú Mal, succeeded him as Mushír-i-Mustaúfí, or Accountant-General; this official continued to be in charge till 1897 when his son, the present Mushír-i-Mustaúfí, succeeded him. The Head Treasury at Bahawalpur is managed by a Treasurer (*kazánchí sadar*). The Tahsil sub-treasuries are branches of the Head Treasury, the *siyáha navís*, and *fotedár* of each being appointed by the Head Treasurer, and are supervised by the Tahsildárs, who are Sub-Treasury Officers. All are under the management and supervision of the Mushír-i-Mustaúfí, assisted by a Chief Accountant, called Muhásib Ala. Annual budgets are prepared by the Mushír-i-Mustaúfí and submitted through the Council to His Highness for sanction. The total State receipts and disbursements for 1904-05 were—

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III. D.Miscella-
neous
Revenue.Sadar Hissb
(Accounts
Department).

RECEIPTS.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Land revenue	19,33,187	5	7
Forests	1,60,140	3	10
Excise on spirits and drugs	58,976	0	0
Stamps	92,712	11	6
Law and Justice	58,167	14	7
Police	19,202	8	8
Registration	3,614	11	0
Education	18,008	8	7
Medical
Interest on G. P. Notes	34,700	10	9
Press	13,901	10	10
Miscellaneous	1,99,733	11	10
Army	31,768	13	0
Public Works	87,001	8	7
Municipal fund	94,491	13	5

Total ... 28,05,606 4 2

DISBURSEMENTS.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Darbar 1	51,812	13	8
Land revenue	1,04,337	10	8
Forests	12,773	6	0
Treasury Office	16,968	6	0
Stamps	7,215	12	9
Post offices	6,000	0	0
Darbar 2	9,37,285	4	6
Law and Justice	74,853	9	3
Police	1,48,742	11	10
Registration	156	0	0
Education	31,474	6	3
Medical	6,248	6	3
Refunds	7,643	11	2
Pension	87,832	2	9
Press	10,960	2	6
Miscellaneous	81,224	13	1
Army	2,03,170	15	7
Public Works	3,96,881	8	11
Municipal	86,439	11	11

Total ... 28,72,021 9 1

CHAP.
III. D.Miscellaneous
Revenue.Currency
and coinage

Prior to the establishment of the British Agency the State had its own coinage, copper, silver, and gold. Two rupees, called Bahawalpurí and Ahmadpurí, worth annas 12 and 10, respectively, in British currency, were coined. Gold coins were struck by Nawáb Muhammad Bahawal Khán III only, and were of two sizes of which one sold at about Rs. 16 and the other at about Rs. 52. Since 1866 the State silver coins have not been minted, and the British coinage is now current in the State. The copper coin, still in use, is called a *nikka paisa*, and on one side is engraved *Dár-us-surúr Bahawalpur*, and on the obverse date palms with a star and crescent. Two and a half *nikka paisas* are worth a quarter of an anna of British coin. The *nikka paisa* is minted by the Head Treasury, the number of coins issued varying from year to year according to the demand in the market.

Forest De-
partment

The Forest Department is in charge of an officer called the *Muhtamim-Janglât* (Conservator) who acts under the orders of the *Mushír-i-Ala*. The establishment of the Forest Department consists of 6 darogas, 12 jamadars and 67 watchmen, besides the clerical *amla* under the Conservator. *Dároga*s and *jamadár*s in the *Mufassíl* act under the orders of the *Tahsildár*s who are also in charge of the forests in their *ilāqas*. For total annual expenditure of the forest establishment, see Chapter II, Section C.

Sajji.

For details of *sajji* (impure carbonate of soda) manufacture, see chapter I, A (page 15). The income accruing to the State during the last 5 years was: 1900-01, Rs. 33,722; 1901-02, Rs. 38,280; 1902-03, Rs. 42,372; 1903-04 and 1904-05 each realized Rs. 45,223.

Lung
Muglân.

The sale of leaves of *kikkar* or other trees on the banks of canals realised the following income for the last 5 years under the name of *lung muglân*:—1900-01, Rs. 2,708; 1901-02, Rs. 2,070; 1902-03, Rs. 4,506; 1903-04, Rs. 2,548 and 1904-05, Rs. 5,290.

Farokht Jái-
dád sarkári.

Under *farokht jáidád sarkári* comes income realized from the sale of State property; such as *nazúl* buildings, &c. On this head the State realized Rs. 12,189 in 1900-01; Rs. 22,352 in 1901-02; Rs. 9,170 in 1902-03; Rs. 12,566 in 1903-04 and Rs. 11,057 in 1904-05.

Ferry
contracts.

The total amount of income from the ferry contracts was Rs. 12,747 in 1900-01; Rs. 12,855 in 1901-02; Rs. 13,153 in 1902-03; Rs. 13,940 in 1903-04; and Rs. 13,456 in 1904-05.

Fisheries.

The income derived from fisheries was Rs. 659 in 1900-01; Rs. 1,058 in 1901-02; Rs. 372 in 1902-03; Rs. 1,596 in 1903-04 and Rs. 1,867 in 1904-05.

Sale of kána
reeds.

Kána reeds on the banks of canals are sold annually. The income under this head was Rs. 2,477 in 1900-01; Rs. 2,378 in 1901-02; Rs. 2,502 in 1902-03; Rs. 1,838 in 1903-04 and Rs. 2,902 in 1904-05.

Other heads of miscellaneous revenue are *Nakhlastān* (proceeds from date trees not given on lease at settlement), *Kulālī* (*nilophar*, or *nymphæa lotus*, and *sanghāra* in lakes), and miscellaneous minor heads. For total receipts and disbursements of land and miscellaneous revenue see *Sadar Hisāb* above.

CHAP.
III, E.Municipali-
ties.

Other revenue

Section E.—Municipalities.

A Municipal Committee was constituted at Bahāwalpur for the first time in 1873-74 by Colonel Minchin, Political Agent, and several European and native officers were selected as members. The expenses on account of sanitation and conservancy were borne by the State Treasury during the first few months. By the 6th of October, 1874, regular municipalities on the models of those in the Punjab were established at Bahāwalpur (head municipality), Ahmadpur, Khānpur, and Ahmadpur Lamma—(the last three being sub-municipalities). Members were selected from among the officials and the *raïses* of these towns. A scale of octroi fees was introduced and the whole Municipal Department was placed under Major Beckett, Assistant Political Agent. In the sub-municipalities the Tahsildārs were made the Presidents of the Municipal Committees. No actual Local Self-Government was introduced. The sub-municipalities were granted no powers to sanction any kinds of expenditure. Proposals for expenditure on conservancy and sanitation were submitted to the head municipality, and the proposals of the latter were laid before the President for sanction. In 1879 when the British Agency was withdrawn a paid Vice-President was appointed at Bahāwalpur to control the head and sub-municipalities. Later on sub-municipalities were established in 1883 at Khairpur, in 1897 at Minchinābād, Allahābād, Garhi Ikhtiyār Khān and Naushahra, in 1902 at Hāsilpur and Qāimpur, and in 1903 at Khān Bela, Uch, Ghauspur and Jaunpur. The Municipal Committees are managed by the Mushīr-i-Ala through a paid Vice-President of the Bahāwalpur Municipality. The Vice-President has control over all sub-municipalities, which submit their proposals to him. In the head Municipality and the sub-municipalities members are always selected by the Vice-President for the former and the Tahsildārs (who are Presidents or *Mīr Majlises* of the sub-municipalities) for the latter. The Nāib Tahsildārs in the Mufassil are Nāib *Mīr Majlises* (or Vice-Presidents) of the sub-municipalities. The proportion of Hindu and Musalmān members is about equal in almost all Municipal Committees. Municipal administration is conducted in accordance with a 'Municipal Code' already referred to (Sec. B). Members of the Municipal Committees have no powers to sanction expenditure or to impose fines on the municipal establishment but lay their proposals before their Presidents for sanction. The executive

Municipali-
ties of the
State.

CHAP.
III, E.Municipali-
ties.Their con-
stitution.
Municipal
Code.

powers of the Vice-President of the Sadar Municipality over all the municipalities are—

- (1). Appointment and dismissal of municipal servants below the grade of Rs. 10 ;
- (2). Infliction of fines up to Rs. 5 on defaulters selling articles of food at a higher rate than that fixed weekly by a sub-committee ;
- (3). Issue of orders inflicting a penalty of 10 times the octroi due on detected smugglers ;
- (4). Imposing of fines of one rupee on anyone disobeying bye-laws.

His other functions are described in the Municipal Code. The following statement shows the number of members, the municipal servants in each municipality and the total salaries of the latter :—

Municipality.	Number of members.	Municipal servants.	Salaries per month of municipal servants.
Bahawalpur	24	259	1,902
Abmadpur East	16	54	295
Khánpur	12	15	85
Abmadpur Lamma	10	9	61
Khairpur	12	13	70
Minchiábád	15	14	71
Allahábád	10	9	66
Garhi Ikhtýár Khán	10	6	33
Nausabáhra	10	10	49
Hásilpur	10	7	40
Qáimpur	10	7	40
Uch	11	12	57
Khán Bela	10	7	37
Ghauspur	10	8	41
Jaunpur	10	7	35

For income and expenditure of each municipality see Table 46 Part B.

Municipal
taxation and
expenditure.

Octroi is charged at fixed rates on imports only. The import of European liquors, intoxicating drugs (opium, *bháng*, *charas*, poppy-head), arms and ammunition is allowed only by special permit. The articles exempted from octroi are fodder for cattle, fuel, baked and unbaked bricks, indigo, *sarkána*, gold, silver, but not gold and silver leaf, precious stones, books, aerated waters, fowls, eggs, intoxicating drugs, salt, horses, donkeys, camels, cows, buffaloes and milch sheep. The octroi rates are generally regulated after the system practised in the Punjab. Corn is charged at varying rates by sack, pack, load, cart-load and weight. On rice, *ghí* and butter, oil and oil-seeds, foreign fruits, tea, coal, soap, stone, *shisham* timber, sulphur, country medicines and perfumes, leather and metal articles ; country fruits and tobacco, piece-goods, *pashmina* and silks, ivory, combs and walking sticks ; sheep and

goats and refined and unrefined sugar, molasses and vegetables, octroi is paid at varying rates per cent. *ad valorem*. In all municipalities octroi collections are sold annually on contract by public auction by the Durbár; the sale prices being subject to the sanction of the Nawáb. Municipal funds are generally utilized in conservancy and sanitation works and schemes, pavements of roads and *bázárs*, streets, and other smaller thoroughfares, hospital buildings and for the maintenance of Municipal Police; they are also utilized on occasions of emergency for famine works and for distribution of medicines during the prevalence of epidemics, &c.

CHAP.
III, F.
Public
Works.

Municipal
taxation and
expenditure.

Section F.—Public Works.

The Public Works and Canal Departments were established in 1867 by Major Minchin and were controlled by two British officers, Messrs. Heenan and Barns, till 1879. Since then they have been under different native officers. The head of the combined departments was first called the *Mushír-i-Támírát-o-Anhár*, and he exercised the powers of a Member of Council. The Public Works were placed in January, 1905, under a separate officer called the *Mushír-i-Támírát*, whose functions at present are the preparation of estimates and plans for public buildings, bridges and other works of a similar nature, and the general supervision of such works in the course of their execution and completion. The Canal Department was placed in charge of a separate officer called the *Mushír-i-Anhár*, newly created. The *Mushír-i-Támírát* has power to sanction estimates for expenditure not exceeding Rs. 200 for any one work. Estimates above Rs. 200 are submitted to the Nawáb through the *Mushír-i-Ala* for sanction. In each Tahsíl there is a *mistrí* under the Tahsildár for making plans and estimates for the State buildings in the Tahsíl and for superintending their construction, subject to the supervision of the Department. There are a Workshop and an Ice Factory at Baháwalpur under the Department. In the Workshop, which is under a qualified mechanic, State as well as private orders for iron and other work are executed. The Ice factory, which was first started in 1883, has two ice machines. Ice is sold at one anna per ser. Under the Department are also two steamers, each with a barge attached, on the Sutlej. One of these, called the "Princess," was purchased in 1893 for Rs. 1,15,000 and the other, called the "Lawrence," in 1891 for Rs. 59,000. The former measures 102×26 and the latter 165×28 feet. These steamers are well equipped and furnished and are used by the Nawáb and visitors of distinction for pleasure voyages when the river is in flood. They can steam up the river at 5 miles and down the river at 20 miles an hour.

Public Works
and Canal
Departments.

CHAP.
III, F.Public
Works.

The following are the most important buildings constructed by the Public Works Department:—

Chief buildings constructed by the P. W. D.	Buildings.	Year.			Cost.
					Rs.
	Sādiqgarh (Palace) (Ahmadpur)	1878-94	12,00,000
	Nūr Mahal (Palace) (Bahawalpur)	1866-73	12,00,000
	Daulatkhāna (do.) (do.)	1878-81	1,84,000

In August 1903 the Nawāb laid the foundation of a new palace at Bahawalpur, and named it Bahawalgarh. At present the buildings of the inner family houses are in progress, the main outer palace has still to be designed. Up to 31st March 1904 Rs. 90,548 was expended on this building.

Curzon
Water-works.

The Nawāb on the occasion of his installation in November, 1903, by His Excellency Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, declared his intention of opening Water-works at Bahawalpur to be called the Curzon Water-works in honor of the visit of His Excellency. Mr. Goument, Sanitary Engineer, Punjab, was invited to give his advice on the subject and the scheme submitted by him was sent to Messrs. Martin and Co., Calcutta, for estimate. It is hoped that the work will shortly be able to be taken in hand.

Municipal
buildings.

Plans and estimates for the municipal buildings and roads are prepared by the Public Works Department, and are executed by the overseer of the municipality, subject to the supervision and check of the Department.

Kachchā
roads.

Kachchā roads in the State are not repaired by the Public Works, but, as has been already stated in Section G, Chapter II, by the zamīndārs. The bridges on them, however, are maintained by the Department.

Budget
provision
and expendi-
ture.

The annual budget provision and actual expenditure on the Public Works for the last five years is noted below.

				Budget provision.	Actual expenditure.
				Rs.	Rs.
1900-01	84,604	68,690
1901-02	89,380	89,173
1902-03	73,480	1,20,471
1903-04	1,99,270	2,04,532
1904-05	2,41,555	3,38,132

Income.

The total income from the Public Works (Work-shops, Ice Factory, &c.) for the year 1904-05 was as under—

	Rs.
Sale-proceeds of ice	1,506
Miscellaneous	5,306
Total	6,812

Canal Depart-
ment Distri-
bution of
water and silt
clearances.

The Canal Department was reconstituted in January 1905. The head of the Department is called the Mashīr-i-Anhār, and is a member of the General Council of the State. He can appoint and dismiss those of his subordinates who draw salaries up to Rs. 50

a month. In the distribution of water the *Mushir-i-Anhár* is assisted by the *Názims*, who are Superintendents of irrigation and chief officers in charge of construction and excavation works in their respective districts. There are also 17 *ziladárs*, 24 *dárogas*, 18 *naib dárogas*, 72 *chaprásís*, 264 *mírás*s and 180 *munsifs* under the Department. To each big canal is appointed a *ziladár* who is assisted by a number of *dárogas* and *naib dárogas* (usually from 2 to 3 in number) and a suitable number of *mírás*s and *munsifs*. The duties of the *ziladárs* and the subordinate staff are to carry out the annual clearance of silt from the beds of the canals and *rājbahás* and to distribute water according to the *wārabandī* (turn by turn) system. In both these capacities the *ziladárs* and the subordinate staff work under the supervision and guidance of the *Názim* of the district. The *munsifs* are influential *zamíndárs* appointed to assist the Canal Department. The system of appointing *munsifs* was introduced in 1900 by Col. H. Grey, Superintendent of the State, with a view to facilitate the State irrigation work and to encourage the *zamíndárs* to learn executive work and be able to obtain service in the Irrigation Department. The *munsifs* are of four grades, and for their emoluments they receive remissions in *chher* of $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 2 sérs, respectively (see Irrigation Chapter II).

CHAP.
III G.

Army.

Canal Department
Distribution of
water and silt
clearances.

The Engineering Branch, which is concerned with the estimates for and construction of canals, regulators, &c., is manned by a Sub-Engineer, 3 Supervisors (one to each *Nizámat*), 25 overseers and sub-overseers and a number of draughtsmen and estimators. The annual expenditure of the Canal Department in 1905 was: Department proper, Rs. 9,012; Engineering branch (Overseers, &c.) Rs. 6,048; *ziladárs* and *dárogas* Rs. 22,140; *mírás*s Rs. 18,312.

Engineering
Branch.

A Contour Branch was established in 1905 to survey the Cholistán tracts in the Minchinábád *Nizámat* with a view to furnish contour data for the construction of new canals and *rājbahás*. It consists of 2 surveyors, 30 overseers and many menial servants. Its annual expenditure in 1905 amounted to Rs. 23,364.

Contour
Survey.

Section G.—Army.

In former times the military strength of the State consisted of (a) a certain number of paid cavalry and infantry, which in times of peace were made to act as escort of the Nawáb and as guards of towns, forts, treasury and the palaces, but were led to the field when occasion arose; and (b) the militia officered by *Ráises* and *Tumandárs* of the State, for military service. The *Ráises* and *Tumandárs* held *jágírs*, known as *Iwaz-i-Lashkarí* granted to them in consideration of such military help. In times of need, therefore, the Nawábs could not only utilise the services of their paid forces, but could also muster a large number of fighting men from among the people. In the use of the sword and the gun the most skilful tribes were the Dáúdpotras, Chándia, Khosa, Dashtí, Sharr, and Jatolí. The

Old Military
organisation.

CHAP.
III. G.

Army.

Old Mili.
tary organiz-
ation.Military
organization
in the time of
the British
Agency.Re-organiz-
ation under
the British
Agency.Military
organization
during the
rule of Nawáb
Sir Sádíq
Muhammad
Khán IV.Re-organiz-
ation in 1888.

carrying of arms by the people was not then prohibited. The forces numbering over 10,000, which Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán, III offered to the British Government and despatched to take part in the Multán campaign with the British troops, were raised in the manner indicated above. The valuable services rendered by this force were rewarded by the Government in the form of a life pension of one lakh of rupees to the Nawáb. In 1864 the paid forces consisted of 9 regiments with a strength of about 3,000.

In 1866, on the death of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV, the British Agency, then established, began at once to place the military organization on a definite footing. The total military strength in 1870 was as under :—

1. Contingent	{ Cavalry	701
	{ Infantry	306
2. State	...	{ Cavalry	349
		{ Infantry	1,144
		{ Artillery	167

The total annual cost of the above was Rs. 2,09,759. In 1879 the State Infantry was greatly reduced in number and converted into Military Police. The State Cavalry was disbanded, a number being incorporated with the Contingent Cavalry, and the rest discharged on pension or gratuity, according to the length of their services. As regards the Artillery, the old native-made brass guns, which were considered unsafe from age and use, were replaced by 6 pounder muzzle-loading brass guns obtained with the sanction of Government from the Arsenal at Ferozepur.

In November 1879 His Highness Nawáb Sádíq Muhammad Khán IV was granted by the Government the full powers of a Ruling Chief. The military strength existing at the time was as stated below :—

1. Contingent	{ Cavalry	106
	{ Infantry	356
2. Artillery	76
3. Military Police	262

The annual cost was Rs. 1,46,777. In 1883-84 an addition to the force was made by the institution of a Military Band with a numerical strength of 44 officers and men.

In 1888 His Highness Sir Sádíq Muhammad Khán IV offered the resources of his State to the Government, for employment in the Imperial Service in the operations on the Frontier, and, with the approval of the Government, re-organized the troops as follows :—

1. Imperial Service	{ Cavalry (2 Troops)	211
	{ Infantry	300
	{ Infantry for Dépôt	157
2. Artillery	76
3. Band	44
4. Military Police	260

The annual cost of this force was Rs. 1,76,992. The Imperial Service force was to be supervised by Inspecting Officers

deputed by the Government, and the management conducted in accordance with the Standing Orders of the Military Department. In 1890, on the recommendation of Major Drummond the Cavalry was divided into three Troops as under:—

Imperial Service	{ Troop No. 1	75
	" " 2	75
Orderly	" " 3	75

No alterations took place in the Infantry, the Artillery, and the Band. The Military Police was also divided into two *paltans*; No. 1 (156 strong), and No. 2, (112 strong); the former being stationed at Bahawalpur and the latter at Ahmadpur East. This organization lasted till December 1900, the annual expenditure being Rs. 2,47,201.

On the commencement of the China War in 1900 the Bahawalpur State offered Government the services of its Imperial Service Infantry for active service or for garrison duty. The constitution of the State forces, however, being such that no units were sufficiently large for service, the offer could not be accepted. The Darbar thereupon proposed that, as the smallness of the strength of the Bahawalpur Imperial Service Troops came in the way of their being accepted for active service, the Cavalry should be reduced, and the Infantry raised to a full battalion and, to make it still more useful, organized and trained as a battalion of Pioneers. In the meanwhile the Inspector-General of Imperial Service Forces suggested that the organisation of a Camel Transport Corps would be more suited to the circumstances of the country and more sure of employment in time of war. The suggestion was agreed to by the Darbar, who framed their proposals regarding it. The proposals were accepted by the Government in detail, and the Camel Transport Corps organized on January 1st, 1901. The Imperial Service Cavalry and Infantry were disbanded, a number of the men taken into the Camel Corps and the rest discharged on gratuity or pension according to the length of their service. The Camel Corps consists of—

(A) Camel Transport or Baggage Corps—

Commissioned Officers	4
Non-Commissioned Officers	25
Silladars and buglers	326
Followers...	14
Total	369
Camels	970

(B) Mounted Rifle Company or Mounted Escort—

Commissioned Officers	5
Non-Commissioned Officers	20
Sepoys	136
Followers	18
Total	174
Camels	158

CHAP.
III. G.
Army.

Re-organization in 1888.

Imperial
Service Camel
Transport
Corps substituted for
the Imperial
Service Cavalry and Infantry.

CHAP.
III. G.
Army.

The annual budget provision for the maintenance of the Imperial Service Camel Corps is Rs. 2,00,000. The actual expenditure for the year 1904-5 was as noted below :—

Imperial Cost of Service Camel Trans- port Corps.		Rs.
	Mounted Corps	45,380
	Baggage	1,15,037
	Pensions	2,393
	Rewards	772
	Allowances, &c.,	2,031
	Contingencies on account of buildings and ammunition	11,766
	Hospital	11,529
	Total	1,88,858

Reserve com-
pany medical
arrangements
and offers of
service of the
corps.

A reserved company consisting of 85 men and officers was formed in June 1904 to meet the contingency of loss among the sepoys of the Baggage corps in a war. In 1904-05 it cost the State Rs. 9,753 out of the annual provision of Rs. 10,677 sanctioned for its maintenance. For the use of the Imperial Service troops a Hospital is maintained in the Cantonment Lines. The total number of patients treated during the year 1904-05 was 5,760, of which only 558 were in-patients, the average daily attendance of patients being 15.78. Camels and horses of the Imperial Service Corps are under the charge of four Veterinary Assistants appointed for the purpose. There has been no contagious or epidemic disease among camels since the establishment of the Corps. In 1904 the Nawab offered his Camel Corps for service with the Tibet Mission. The Government of India could not see their way to grant the request but thanked His Highness for the offer. Early in 1905 the Bahawalpur Mounted Escort, with two selected troops of the Transport Corps, attended the Muzaffargarh Training camp and won the approbation of General Walter Kitchener, who in a letter to the Nawab acknowledged their good work.

Military
Public or Ir-
regular Force.

Besides the Imperial Service Camel Corps the following Military Police or Irregular Forces are maintained by the State :—

	Officers and men.
(a) The Nizám Regiment (organised in 1901) ...	492
(b) His Highness' Body-guard (Horsemen) ...	103
(c) The Band	42
(d) Regiment No. 3	167
(e) The Palace Guard	68
Total (103 mounted and 769 foot)	872

The Nizám Regiment, the Palace Guard and Regiment No. 3 guard the Treasuries, the Palaces and Offices. There are 25 serviceable guns in the State. Of these 17 are with the Nizám regiment, 3 with Regiment No. 3 (at Ahmadpur) and 5 at Deráwar. The total expenditure on all

BAHAWALPUR STATE.] *Services of Baháwalpur Troops.* [PART A.

these forces for the year 1904-05 was:—Nizám Regiment, Rs. 52,015; Body Guard, Rs. 31,230; Band, Rs. 7,522; Regiment No. 3, Rs. 14,537; Palace Guard, Rs. 5,309. Total Rs. 1,10,615. There is a separate dispensary for the Irregular Forces. During 1904-05 the total number of patients treated in the dispensary was 11,121, of which 585 were inpatients.

Both regular and irregular forces are under the Mushír-i-Fauj (Commander-in-chief). The total expenditure on the establishment of the Mushír-i-Fauj (including the Commander-in-Chief's emoluments) amounted in the year 1904-05 to Rs. 6,559. The total expenditure for the year 1904-05 on all the military forces (including the establishment of the Mushír-i-Fauj) was Rs. 3,13,786-6-0.

The British forces that accompanied Shah Shúja to reinstate him on the throne of Kábul, passed on their way through Baháwalpur territory. In connection with this march, Nawáb Baháwal Khán III rendered such valuable services in supplying provisions, boats and camels, and in preparing a military road, that he was rewarded by the grant of Bhung and Kot Sabal (which now form part of the Baháwalpur State) in 1842. In 1848, Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III despatched a force of 10,000 men to fight in co-operation with the British forces under Sir Herbert Edwardes and General Cortland. The Baháwalpur troops successfully fought against the forces of *Diwán Múl Ráj* at Sadosam and Kanerí and took a brilliant part in the siege of Multán. After the conquest of Multán the Nawáb was granted a life pension of one lakh of rupees. The first news of the Mutiny reached Baháwalpur on the 31st of May 1857. Nawáb Fatteh Khán received a letter from Mr. Oliver, Superintendent of Sirsa, requiring him to despatch all the troops forming the garrison of Baháwalgarh to Bangla Fázilká so as to be available for service in case of need. This summons was complied with. Subsequent to this a letter was received from Sir John Lawrence intimating the requisition of 500 Cavalry and 500 Infantry. Besides these two detachments, an additional force of 3,000 men was also sent to Sirsa and remained posted there till the 16th of April 1858. One hundred Cavalry and 356 Infantry were sent on service in connection with the Kábul Campaign under the command of Major S. Beckett, Assistant Political Agent and Superintendent. In recognition of the aid rendered by the State, Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV was created a G. C. S. I. on the 25th of January 1882. The soldiers also received the campaign medal. In January 1900 an offer made to Government by the Baháwalpur Darbár of a gift of 20 horses with equipment for use in the South African War was accepted.

CHAP.
III. G.

Army.

Military
Police or Ir-
regular Force.Mushír-i-
Fauj.The First
Kábul War—
A. D. 1837.The Multán
Campaign—
A. D. 1848.The Indian
Mutiny—
A. D. 1857.Second
Kábul War—
A. D. 1879.Horses for
the South
African War.

CHAP.
III. H.Police and
Jails.

Section H.—Police and Jails.

Before 1866 there was no Police Department in the State. The functions of a Police officer (in addition to those of a Magistrate) were exercised by the *Kotwál*. There were only three *Kotwáls*, located respectively at Khairpur, Baháwalpur and Khánpur. In other towns and the mufassil the same functions were exercised by the *Kardárs* and their *Náibs*. A regular Police Department was first called into existence by Colonel Minchin in 1867, when Police stations were opened at Baháwalpur, Sádiqpur, Khairpur, Baháwalgarh, Ahmadpur East, Uch, Allahábád, Khánpur, Shidání, Naushahra (Rahimyar Khán), Ahmadpur Lamma, and Kot Sabzal. Two Inspectors of Police were also appointed to supervise and direct the working of the Police stations. At present there are 30 Police stations or *Thánas* and 15 Police posts, as detailed below :—

Nizámat.	Police station (Thána).	Police post.
Minchinábád	1. McLeodganj	Hásil-árú.
	2. Minchinábád	Baháwalnagar.
	3. Cháwaka	Rorú.
	4. Sádiqpur	Miánwálá, Mahta Jhedú.
	5. Shahr Farid	Qáimpur.
	6. Hásilpur	Mirgarh.
	7. Marot	Phútra.
	8. Sardárgarh	Wainsán.
	9. Khairpur	Goth Núr Muhammad.
Baháwalpur	10. Chakla	Samasata.
	11. Maujgarh	
	12. Baháwalpur City	
	13. Baháwalpur Berání	
	14. Baháwalpur Camp	
	15. Musáfir-khána	Mubárákpur, Dera Mu- bárák, and Deráwar Fort.
	16. Ahmadpur East	
	17. Chárkoti	Bathej.
	18. Uch	Taranda Muhammad Pa- náh.
	19. Goth Channí	Janspur, Giddarwála and Chhanéí.
	20. Allahábád	Shidání.
	21. Khánbela	Jhorán.
Khánpur	22. Pakká Lárán	Garbí Ikhtiyar Khán Wáhf Giddé.
	23. Khánpur	Cháchrán and Gházipur.
	24. Ghanspur	Rukpur, Sardárgarh and Sháhgarh.
	25. Kot Samába	
	26. Islámgarh	Tájgarh, Pallé Sháh, and Adamwáli.
	27. Naushahra	Sharín.
	28. Abádpur	Muhammadpur, Garbí Be- gar.
	29. Ahmadpur Lamma	Dhánwáli, Rahimábád and Kálewáli.
	30. Bhung	Sanjarpur and Dhandí.
	31. Kot Sabzal	Chak Jáfar Sháh, Chak Gander.
	32. Máchka	

The jurisdiction of each *Thána* is clearly defined. There are cattle pounds at each *Thána* and outpost.

In each Police Station there is a Deputy Inspector, a Sergeant, 1st grade, or 2nd grade, or one of each grade and a Muharrir-Sergeant. The number of constables varies from 6 to 12 according to the requirements of the *ilāqa*. In each Police post there are generally a Sergeant, 2nd grade, to from 2 to 4 constables. In each Nizāmat there is an Inspector of Police who supervises the work of the subordinate Police Stations and also investigates important Criminal cases in his *ilāqa*. Up to the end of 1904 the Police Department was under the Darbār through the Tahsildárs, who were also District Superintendents of Police in their Tahsils. But in January 1905 the entire Police force was placed under a Superintendent of Police whereby a new appointment was created. The Superintendent of Police has the power to appoint and dismiss Police employes drawing Rs. 15 per mensem or less. All other Police employes are to be appointed and dismissed by the *Mushir-i-Ala* in his capacity as Inspector-General of Police in the State.

The total strength of the Civil Police at the close of the year 1904-05 was 540 (men and officers), detailed as under:—

CHAP
III. H.Police and
Jails.

Supervis

Total
strength.

District Superintendent of Police	1
Inspectors	3
Deputy Inspectors	31
Sergeants, 1st grade	19
Muharrir-Sergeants	31
Assistant Muharrirs	2
Sergeants, 2nd grade	23
Trackers (Surágis)	34
Lance-Dafadárs	2
Camel riders (Shutr sowárs)	47
Constables	342
Total			540

The total expenditure on Police for 1904-05 was 64,440 rupees, of which Rs. 8,730 was met from Municipal funds to maintain 118 Municipal Police in the Municipal Towns.

Total
Expenditure.

A Police Training School was opened at Baháwalpur in 1904 to train the whole body of Police in a course of physical exercise, parade drill, rifle and sword exercises and general police duties. Deputy Inspectors and other subordinate officers and constables to the number of about 40 at a time are put through this school for a term of training of four months. A special Drill Instructor (a selected military pensioner of Government) teaches drill and other exercises, and the Deputy Inspector in charge of the lines instructs

Police Train-
ing School.

CHAP.
III, H.Police and
Jails.

in law and general police work. Every fourth month regular examinations are held. The successful constables on return to their *Thāna* receive an increase of pay of from 1 to 2 rupees a month. The school has up to now passed over 250 men, including constables and officers, and will be maintained for two years more by which time it is estimated that the whole of the present force will have been trained.

Game laws
and arms
rules.

Offences under the game laws of the State are cognizable by the police. No person, except by the special permission of the Nawāb, is allowed a license to kill game. Persons keeping arms whether with or without license, are only allowed to keep off wild animals from their fields by firing blank charges. The police are ordered to keep a strict surveillance over all persons having arms. The big *kaisas* and State officials drawing Rs. 100 a month and upwards are allowed to keep certain kinds of arms without license, but all other pay the usual license fee of 8 annas. The number of arms held on license in 1904 was:—

Rifles.	Pistols.	Swords.
151	8	62

Criminal
identification.

A permanent office of criminal identification by the anthropometric system is maintained under the Superintendent. The work is being done satisfactorily and an Inspector from Phillour from time to time visits Bahāwalpur to assist the Superintendent in the matter.

Police Con-
ferences.

Police officers of the State and of the adjoining districts of Multān, Muzaffargarh and Dera Ghāzī Khān used to meet at irregular intervals to consider measures of mutual co-operation in the suppression of crime committed on the border. In December 1904 the Superintendents of Police of the districts above mentioned held a conference at Bahāwalpur with the Foreign Minister, in which the co-operative rules obtaining in British districts of the Punjab were adopted by the State, and it was arranged that the Superintendents of Police of the British districts should meet and confer with the State Superintendent at fixed intervals. These rules have been sent to the Punjab Government for sanction.

Criminal
Tribes.

Prior to October 1904 no criminal tribe was proclaimed in the State, but Sections 1 to 23 of the Criminal Tribes Act has now been adopted and the Dashtis and Bhalkas (a Baloch sept in the Lamma) have been proclaimed under it. Sahnās and Bawarias from the Punjab Districts who are found in the Minchinābād Tahsil to the number of over 2,000, are also proclaimed. Certain Nomad tribes such as Ghadīlas, Bhedghutts, Labānas and Gilails every now and then enter the State, but they are driven away to the adjacent parts of the Punjab or Bikaner. Harnās of Ludhiāna District also contrive to enter the State, but they never do so openly, as, if detected, they are required to give security for good behaviour.

Between 1866 and 1870 the State had several jails including a central jail at Bahawalpur, and local jails at Minchinábád, Khánpur, Goth Bajan and Naushahra, with also a permanent extra-mural gang in huts. In 1870, however, the local jails were abolished and the central jail at Bahawalpur was made the sole jail of the State. Gangs in huts are still maintained, when necessary, outside this jail. The jail contains accommodation for 2,000 prisoners, with separate wards for males and females. The jail buildings also include office rooms, factories, workshops, stores and a hospital. Life prisoners have separate cells and are strictly guarded. The jail population at the close of 1903-04 was :—

Imprisoned for less than one year	300
„ from 1 to 3 years	301
„ „ 3 to 5 years	60
„ „ 5 to 10 years	52
„ for more than 10 and less than 20 years	5
„ „ 20 years	38
„ „ 25 years	14

The prisoners sentenced to 20 and 25 years are life prisoners whose terms have been reduced to these periods under the Marks System. Of the 1,488 convicts admitted in 1903 to 1904 two were aged from 10 to 20 years, and 147 from 20 to 30, the rest being over 30.

The diet for all prisoners is as follows :—A healthy male prisoner gets in summer, flour, 12 *chhatáks*, salt, 8 *máshas*, chillies, 3 *máshas*, and either pulses, 3 *chhatáks* or curds, 2 *chhatáks* or vegetables, 8 *chhatáks* in rotation on different days. In winter two *chhatáks* of meat are given once weekly instead of curds, and fuel is allowed at $\frac{1}{2}$ *ser* per prisoner per day. Two *chhatáks* of parched gram are given to every prisoner on hard labour. A female prisoner in summer and winter gets 10 *chhatáks* of flour. A sick male or female prisoner is dieted according to the recommendation of the Medical Officer. The average daily cost of a prisoner's diet is 1 anna 6 pies. The Superintendent and the jailor examine the food before it is given to the prisoners.

Clothing suited to the seasons is given to each prisoner, comprising in all a *kurta* or shirt, cap, two *tah-bands* and two woollen blankets, with mats for bedding.

The Marks System was introduced into the Central Jail in 1901. In 1903 to 1904, 250 prisoners received remissions under the Marks System, the largest remission being 30 days. The Marks System has considerably improved the general conduct of the prisoners. Rules for the surveillance of conditionally released prisoners were also introduced in 1902. On special occasions such as the two *Ids*, the *sálgirah* (birthday of the ruling chief), &c., such prisoners as have short terms remaining are released.

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III, H.Police and
Jails.The Central
jail.

Diet.

Clothing.

Marks
system and
remission.

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III. H.Police and
Jails.

Labour.

Prisoners sentenced to less than 2 years' imprisonment are employed on extra-mural labour, under proper escort, while those with longer terms work inside the jail. The former are employed in the workshops, on public buildings and canal excavations near Bahawalpur or as *pinkha* coolies in the State offices in summer, and payment is made to the Jail Department at the rate of Rs. 5 a month for each prisoner. Such prisoners are not allowed to remain outside the jail at night except when a large gang is sent to a distant place under suitable escort. Prisoners working inside the Jail are employed on manufactures, such as paper, carpets or *qalins* (of wool, cotton or *ak*), country cloth, towels, *dotahis*, chairs, *newdr*, fans, mattresses, shoes, *chiks*, *daris*, *khes*, ropes and strings, baskets, *munj*-thread, &c. Unskilled convicts are employed on rough labour, such as cooking, plastering the jail wards and streets with mud, drawing water, grinding corn, &c. In 1904 experiments in making rugs and carpets of *ak* floss were successfully carried out and the manufacture is yielding good results. A cheap kind of country paper has also been successfully made from paddy-stalks. The manufacture of woollen blankets for the prisoners' use has been started and is expected to prove useful. The Jail manufactures are disposed of in the jail, or are sent to the *Chahsildars* to be sold locally. Seventy-six per cent. of the prisoners were employed in 1903-04, 24 per cent. being unemployed owing to sickness, &c. The health of the prisoners is generally satisfactory; of 1,976 cases treated in the hospital in 1903-04, only 41 patients died. The jail hospital is visited daily by the State Medical Officer or by the Assistant Surgeon of the Civil Hospital.

Jail gardens.

A garden surrounds the jail and is kept up by convict labour; the income, which in 1903-04 was Rs. 1,112, is credited to jail receipts.

Income and
Expenditure.

The following table gives the income and expenditure of the jail for the 10 years ending with 1903:—

Year.	Number of prisoners.	Income.	Expenditure.
1894	955	10,037	22,563
1895	1,221	9,396	25,253
1896	898	11,876	31,019
1897	865	9,049	31,972
1898	1,414	6,694	28,930
1899	1,134	8,967	28,710
1900	1,618	11,831	38,637
1901	1,101	19,598	30,803
1902	1,169	20,732	29,542
1903	1,489	20,903	34,975

Visits.

All the Members of Council, the Medical Officer and District Judge, Bahawalpur, are *ex-officio* Jail inspectors.

The establishment of the jail consists of a Superintendent, a Jailor and 103 subordinates, receiving salaries amounting to Rs. 10,824 per annum.

The jail dispensary, established in 1866 has an establishment of a Hospital Assistant and a Compounder. *Bázár* medicines are provided at a cost of Rs. 7 a month; if more is required, the Hospital Assistant obtains sanction from the Medical Officer, but the entire expenditure under this head is charged to the jail, not the Medical Department. The Medical Department only provides the jail dispensary with European medicines and instruments as required. The diseases most fatal to prisoners during the last 5 years were pneumonia and dysentery.

CHAP.
III. I
—
Education
and
Literacy.
Jail es-
tablishment.
Jail dispen-
sary.

Section I.—Education and Literacy.

The marginal statement shows the number of persons, educated

Persons educated and under instruction.		Proportion per 10,000.
Males	{ Educated.	279.5
	{ Receiving education.	94
Females	{ Educated.	21
	{ Receiving education.	64

and under instruction, of both sexes, in each 10,000 of the population. The inhabitants of the State generally and the Muhammadans particularly care little for the education imparted, and students

Number of
educated per-
sons.

from other places reap most benefit from the State schools. Hindu boys living in the State form the majority of those who receive education in the Middle and High schools and the College. The number of Muhammadan boys receiving education in the schools is comparatively very small. In order to encourage education, rules regulating employment in the Bahawalpur State were in 1899 brought into force by the Council with effect from January 1st, 1900. The object of these rules is to ensure that qualified natives of the State should in the future be available as candidates for office.

The State has from time to time produced men learned in Arabic and Persian literature, who have been prominent as teachers, but it has produced few original writers. The most noteworthy author of Bahawalpur was Maulvī Muhammad Azam, Qura'ishī Hashamī, whose *nom de plume* was Azam, and who was the historian of Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān II. He was erudite in logic and the fundamentals of religion and literature, and his works, which are highly esteemed, were the *Jawāhar-i-ʿUlūḡiyya*, a history of the rulers of Bahawalpur in Persian, the *Durān-Azam*, a voluminous book not yet printed, the *Hulā-Ṣharīf*, a panegyric of the Prophet in Persian and in the Bahawalpurī dialect, which has reached several editions and is widely read, and the *Sihharfī* in Bahawalpurī, which is also very well known. Besides the above, he wrote several *khutbas* (sermons in Arabic) which are still recited in the mosques. Another author worthy of note was the late Maulvī Abdul Majīd Ghaurī, who wrote some seventy

Literature.

CHAP.
III. I.
Education
and
Literacy.
Literature.

treatises in Arabic on various subjects towards the close of the 13th century Hijra. But, though born in Baháwalpur, he received his education at Tonk and in Arabia and passed the greater part of his life at Tonk where he wrote his works. Hence he is called the *Baháwalpurí-Tonkí Musannif* (author). Baháwalpur has also produced poets who have written verses and *káfis* in the local dialects. Some of these are:—(1) Saifal Sháh, who flourished in the reign of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III, and wrote a book of interesting ballads and *káfis*, which is called the *Saifal*. (2) Sayyid Míran Shah of Baháwalpur also wrote *káfis*. His poems are printed and are widely recited. (3) Khwája Ghulám Faríd, the late *sajjáda-nashín* of Cháchrán, wrote eloquent *káfis*, which are very popular both in the Ubha and the Lamma as well as in the Multán, Muzaffargarh and Dera Ghází Khán Districts and in Sindh. They are recited at meetings of the Sufís.

✓
Scripts.

Urdu is used generally by educated people and works composed in the local dialects, such as the *Sih-harfis*, &c., are also written in the Urdu character. In short, Muhammadans, whether they use the Urdu language or a local dialect, such as Sindhí, Baháwalpurí or Jatki, generally write in Urdu characters. Kirárs mainly use the following scripts:—(1) the *Sirí-de Akhkhār*, and its varied form called *Sidhú*, (also known as the *Kahrórí Akhkhār*). This script is used by *sáhkárs* or money-lenders. (2) the *Shikárpurí* or *Sindhí Akhkhār*, usually used by Sindhí Arorás, who are now becoming influential in the State. (4) the *Satánín* or *Multání*, which is more especially used by the Khatrír and Kirárs of the Ubha. (5) the *Márwári* or *Bhábrí Akhkhār*, generally used by the Bhábrás in the State. (6) the *Shástarí Akhkhār*, which is used by Brahmans and Hindu goldsmiths. (7) the *Gujráttí Akhkhār*, which is used by natives of Shikárpur settled in the State and by Kirárs who trade with Bombay, Karáchi or Guzarat. (8) *Gurmukhí*, used by Sikhs and by the *pujáris* of the *dharamsálás* and Hindu temples, is tending to spread in the State. Some of the women of Kirár families also know *Gurmukhí*. (9) *Landé*, used by Punjab traders living in the State. (10) *Nágrí* or *butti* (naked) *shastarí*, used by the Kirárs of the Ubha. (11) *Tákrí*, a character used in villages of the Ubha. It is so rude and unmethodical that a Kirár on seeing counterfeit accounts will say, *tákrí bandá ghin áyá he*, 'he has kept accounts in *tákrí*'. Besides these there are very many kinds of *Korakkí* used in various parts of the State, and it is commonly said that the *Korakkí* changes every twelve miles. It would be no exaggeration to say that in Baháwalpur a different script is used in every village. The *Korakkí* used in one village can only be understood by its inhabitants and even they are often puzzled by their own writing. The courts consequently experience much difficulty in scrutinizing the Kirárs' *bahís* or account books. Some forms of the *Korakkí* used in villages are so very vague and illegible that the word *mahmán* (month), for instance, will

appear as *mahman*, *mehmān*, *māmān*, *mammān*, *mām*, *mīm*, *mūm*, *mem*, *mīm*, *mum*, etc.

CHAP.
III, I.Education
and
Literacy.Development
of education.

Before the establishment of the Agency, the only schools in the State were a few *madrassas* in which Theology, Arabic Grammar and Persian alone were taught. These were maintained from the public revenues. In 1868 Major Minchin established 18 Primary Schools, and in 1871 a Normal School for the training of teachers. The number of Primary Schools gradually increased till it rose to 35 at the close of the Agency in 1879. The only Anglo-Vernacular School teaching up to the Middle Standard was the Mission School, established in 1867-8 by the Church Missionary Society of Multān, to which a grant-in-aid of Rs. 250 per month was given by the State. Early in 1882 the Normal School was converted into an Anglo-Vernacular High school, consisting only of two classes without a sub-department and called the Egerton High School. An Oriental department was also added to prepare scholars for the Oriental Faculty examinations of the Punjab University. In 1883 the Oriental department was converted into a Vernacular High School with a sub-department of the Vernacular Middle Standard. Another Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, called the Sādiq School, was started in the same year for the children of the gentry of Bahāwalpur by local subscription. This was soon made into a State school. In 1886 Vernacular Middle schools were started at Rahīm-yār Khān and Minchinābād; the latter, though at first supported by subscription raised locally, was subsequently, on its conversion into an Anglo-Vernacular School in 1887, maintained by the Education Department. In 1886 the Egerton High School was raised to the status of a College teaching up to the First Arts Standard, and in May 1892 it was converted into a full College teaching up to the Bachelor of Arts Standard. This provision of higher education gained at the expense of Primary and Secondary Schools which were started to act as feeders to the College. The College consumed more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of the education provision, had more scholarships to award than the number of scholars on the rolls, and only passed 3 natives of Bahāwalpur in the First Arts Examination in 13 years, the average cost per pupil being as high as Rs. 507, or Rs. 364 more than the average cost of educating a student in an Arts College in the Punjab. In 1900, therefore, this anomalous state of things was referred to Dr Sime, Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, with the result that the Bachelor of Arts classes were abolished and the retrenchments made in the College expenditure were utilized for the improvement of secondary education. Provision was also made to award scholarships to natives of the State reading in Middle Schools.

The educational institutions at the close of the year 1904-05 were the Sādiq-Egerton College teaching up to the First Arts Standard, the Sādiq-Egerton High School (both at Bahāwalpur), 9 Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools (including the Church Missionary

Educational
institutions.

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III. I.Education
and
Literacy.Educational
institutions.

Society School at Baháwalpur) and 35 Primary Schools. Seven Middle Schools are located at Baháwalpur, two Khánpur, Minchinábád, Ahmadpur East, Khánpur and Rahímyar Khán. Early in 1906 two new Middle schools were opened at Allahabád and Ahmadpur Lamma. There are also seven Theological Arabic Schools, at Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur, Cháchrán, Khairpur, Qáimpur, Chishtán, and Phogán. They were formerly maintained by the *Tasrifát* department, but in 1900 their expenditure was included in the State educational budget. The head teacher of the Baháwalpur Theological School is also Inspector of Theological schools, all of which he visits once a year. The curriculum of these schools consists of the study of the *Hadís* (traditions of the Prophet), the commentaries (*Tafsír*), Theology (*Íniyát*) and grammar (*sarf-o-nahv*). Religious education is also imparted by the *mullas* in many of the mosques throughout the State, but it is generally of an inferior description.

Income,
expenditure,
and scholar-
ships.

The following statement gives the total educational expenditure, the number of scholars under instruction in the various departments, the amount of scholarships awarded and the income realized from fees for the year 1904-05 :—

Department.	Scholars.		Total.	Scholar- ships.	Expendi- ture.	Income from Fees.
	Hindus.	Muhamma- dans.				
College	8	1	9	927	6,280	309
High School	22	10	32			
Middle	496	520	1,016			
Primary	269	836	1,105	1,187	5,13	...
Theological	164	164			

The total annual budget provision for 1904-05 for education was Rs. 33,248, which included the annual grants-in-aid of Rs. 1,200 to the Church Missionary Society School and an equal grant to the Punjab University. No fees are levied from scholars in Primary and Theological Schools, and the rates of fees charged for attending Middle schools, the High School and the College are very low.

Establish-
ment.

The Education department is under the *Mushír-i-Tamirát* as Honorary Director of Public Instruction. There is also under him an Inspector of Schools, who visits Primary and Middle schools three times a year. The aided Mission School of Baháwalpur is also open to his inspection. With a view to improving the efficiency of the College and High School departments Colonel Grey, Superintendent, arranged with the Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, for the inspection by the Inspector of Schools, Multán Circle, who accordingly visits both of these departments yearly.

Educational
grants.

Since 1882 the State has given an annual grant of Rs. 1,200 to the Punjab University. In 1870 and 1873 it also subscribed Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 25,000, respectively, for the erection of the Senate Hall. In 1886 it contributed Rs. 25,000 to the

funds of the Aitchison Chiefs' College, Lahore. In 1882 the Nawáb agreed to give Rs. 200 per mensem to the Anjuman-i-Islámia at Amritsar, Rs. 240 to the Mazáhir-ul-Ulum, Saháranpur, and a grant of Rs. 2,000 to the Anjuman-i-Islámia at Lahore. In 1893-94 he established 10 scholarships of Rs. 5 per mensem each (called Lansdowne-Baháwalpur scholarships) in the Anjuman-i-Himáyat-i-Islám at Lahore. The Arabic school of the Anjuman-i-Islámia, Lahore, also receives an annual grant of Rs. 600. The grant to the Mission school at Baháwalpur has already been mentioned.

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III I.Education
and
Literacy.Educational
grants.

For statistics of Education and Literacy see Tables 50, 51 and 52, Part B.

Statistics.

The Nawáb in 1902 established an orphanage at Baháwalpur for the maintenance of State orphans. The number of orphans maintained is never allowed to exceed 30 and their entire expenses are met from His Highness' private purse. They are educated in the Sádiq school and, as boarders of the orphanage, they are kept under the supervision of a Manager whose services were secured from the Education Department, Punjab.

Orphanage at
Baháwalpur.

His Highness contemplates opening a large Boarding House, to be provided with a supervising staff, at Baháwalpur, for the convenience of the sons of the *Raíses* and high officials, residing outside Baháwalpur. The construction of this Boarding House is shortly to be taken in hand. At present one of the guest-houses is set apart for the boarders.

Boarding
House for
sons of *Raíses*

The Sádiq-ul-Anwár Press, established in 1866 by Major Minchin, originally possessed both Vernacular and English presses, but in 1879 the latter were abolished. A weekly newspaper called the Sádiq-ul-Akhbár has been published by the press since its creation. It is divided into three portions (a) the State Gazette; (b) departmental circulars and reports of tours of officers; and (c) miscellaneous news and articles. Its circulation is about 400 copies. The printing work done in the press is mostly official. In 1900 an English type-printing machine, which only prints dockets, forms, envelopes, etc., was added. The press has six lithograph machines; but only two are in constant use. The establishment comprises a superintendent and editor, two accountants, 3 calligraphists, a compositor, 9 pressmen, a *chaukidár*, a *chaprásí* and 3 menials. The annual income in 1903-04 was Rs. 10,586 and the expenditure Rs. 8,659 giving a profit of Rs. 1,927. The State press is under the Foreign Minister who has power to appoint or dismiss all its employés, except the superintendent.

The State
Press.

CHAP.
III. J.

Medical.

Formation of
Medical De-
partment.

Section J.—Medical.

Before 1867 there were no hospitals, and the sick were attended by private *yundānī* physicians. A regular Medical Department was organised in 1867 and placed under Dr. Deane, the first Medical Adviser to the State, who was also put in charge of sanitation, vaccination and jails. This department is now under the charge of a native medical officer, subject to the control of the *Mushār-i-Ala*. There are two hospitals in Bahawalpur town and six outlying dispensaries.

Bahawalpur
Civil Hospital

The Civil Hospital at Bahawalpur was established in 1867. It has an out-door dispensary, consulting and operation rooms, and accommodation for thirty-six in-door patients, all in *ka-kehā* buildings. There are also a store-room, in which medicines are kept for supplying the outlying dispensaries, and quarters for the staff. It is in charge of an Assistant Surgeon, assisted by 2 compounders, a dresser and three medical pupils. The establishment also includes two ward coolies, two cooks, a water-carrier and a sweeper. The total number of patients treated at this hospital during 1903-04 was: males 13,301, females 3,807, and children 5,652, or 22,260 in all (21,982 out-patients and 278 in-patients).

Female Jubi-
lee Hospital.

The Female Jubilee Hospital at Bahawalpur was opened in 1898, in commemoration of the Jubilee of Queen Victoria. Attached to it are a consulting room, an out-door dispensary, a depôt, an operation room, accommodation for ten in-door patients and quarters for a Lady Doctor and for two midwives. The establishment consists of a Lady Doctor trained in England, a compounder, two *dāīs*, a *chaprāsi*, a cook, a water-carrier and a sweeper. The average daily attendance in 1903-04 was—

In-door.		Out-door.	
Females	Children	Females	Children
355	24	2833	1653

Outlying
Dispensaries.

The Ahmadpur dispensary, founded in 1868, consists of an out-door dispensary, consulting room, operating room, lunatic ward, kitchen and quarters for the Hospital Assistant and menials. It also contains thirteen rooms, nine for male and four for female in-door patients. The establishment consists of a Hospital Assistant, a compounder, a vaccinator, a dresser, a cook, a water-carrier and a sweeper. The total number of patients treated during 1903-04 was 23,409 (out-door patients 23,160, in-door 249). The Khānpur dispensary, established in 1869, contains a vaccinating room, a consulting room, a depôt, an operating room, a *post-mortem* room, a lunatic ward, quarters for the Assistant Surgeon and menials. It has also nine rooms, seven for male and two for female in-door patients. The establishment only differs from that of the Ahmadpur dispensary in that there is an Assistant Surgeon instead of a Hospital Assistant. The total number of patients treated in this dispensary during 1903-04 was 24,655 (in-patients 463, out-patients 24,192).

The Minchinábád dispensary dates from 1869 and has a consulting room, a dispensary room, an operating room, a depôt, a *post-mortem* room, a lunatic ward, a kitchen and quarters for the Hospital Assistant and menials. There are also eight other rooms, six for male and two for female in-door patients. The establishment is the same in composition as that of the Ahmadpur dispensary. The total number of patients treated in this dispensary during 1903-04 was 13,203 (in-patients 456, out-patients 12,747). The Khairpur dispensary was established in 1884. It has a dispensary room, a consulting room, an operating room, a depôt, a *post-mortem* room, a lunatic ward and a kitchen. It can accommodate eight in-door patients and has quarters for the Hospital Assistant and menials. The establishment of this dispensary also is the same in composition as that at Ahmadpur. The total number of patients in this dispensary during the year 1903-04 was 15,207 (including 321 in-patients). The Naushahra dispensary was founded in 1892. The buildings consist of a consulting room, an operating room, a dispensing room and a kitchen. There are three rooms to accommodate the in-door patients and quarters for the Hospital Assistant and menials. The establishment consists of a Hospital Assistant, a compounder, a vaccinator, a cook, a water-carrier and sweeper. The total number of patients during the year 1903-04 was 4,368 (including 173 in-patients). The Shahr-Farid dispensary was first established in 1893; but was closed on the 1st February 1899. It was, however, re-opened on 15th June 1900. It has a dispensing room, a consulting room and quarters for the Hospital Assistant and menials. The establishment consists of a Hospital Assistant, a compounder, a vaccinator, a water-carrier and a sweeper. The total number of patients treated in 1903-04 was 8,713.

A Daulatkhána dispensary was opened in 1883 for the treatment of His Highness' Seraglio and the Daulatkhána camp. It is in charge of a Hospital Assistant. His Highness has also a private dispensary for his own use under the charge of his private Medical Adviser.

There are also two dispensaries in the cantonments, which are described under Army, and one in the Jail, which is described under Jails. The latter has also accommodation for lunatics, who are placed there for treatment, as there are no regular lunatic asylums in the State, though some of the outlying dispensaries, as has been stated, have lunatic wards. Two new dispensaries were opened early in 1906 at Allahábád and Ahmadpur Lamma, and each placed under the charge of a Hospital Assistant.

Vaccination is under the supervision of the Medical Officer of the State. There are in all seven permanent vaccinators. During hot weather these work in the dispensaries as compounders, but in winter they tour round the State, vaccinating in the different

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III. J.

Medical.

Outlying
dispensaries.Daulatkhána
dispensary.Cantonment
and Jail dis-
pensaries.

Vaccination.

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Vaccination.

villages, for which they receive an extra allowance of Rs. 5 per month. In addition five temporary vaccinators and two Superintendents are employed on vaccination in the cold weather. The cost of vaccination for 1903-4 amounted to—

					Rs.	a.	p.
Establishment	1,353	1	7
Travelling allowance	421	11	4
Contingencies	18	9	0
Total	1,793	5	11

For further statistics see Table 54, Part B.

Total expenditure of the Medical Department.

The total expenditure of the Medical Department for 1903-04, was Rs. 28,769-6-6 (including the cost of vaccination and of the Daulatkhanā and cantonment dispensaries).

Number of operations performed in 1903-04.

The following list gives particulars of the number of major operations performed during the year 1903-04 in the hospitals and dispensaries of the State:—

Nature of operations.	Number.	Cured.	Relieved.	Discharged.	Died.	Remaining.
Eye operations.	33	29	3	1
Resical calculi by Lithotriety ...	23	21	2	...
Ditto Lithotomy ...	16	15	1	...
Tumours	34	27	5	1	1	...
Phymosis	4	4
Ascites	42	20	20	1	1	...
Amputations	8	7	1
Glands removed	4	4
Malignant ulcers	2	...	2
Fistulas	6	6
Sinuses	18	14	4
Imperforated anus	2	2
Polypus nasi	1	1
Piles	6	5	1
Neurosis	18	15	3
Caries of bones	5	3	1	1
Gonorrhoeal stricture	2	2
Hernia	1	1
Deep abscesses	47	45	2
Foreign bodies removed	5	5
Natural labour	2	2
Fractures	86	82	1	1	1	1
Dislocations	45	43	2
Stiff joint	1	1
Miscellaneous	5	5
Total	416	359	43	4	7	3

Sanitation.

The Sanitary Department has charge of the conservancy of Bahawalpur and of the towns where municipalities exist. There is an Inspector in charge of conservancy who also supervises the

átkári arrangements in the State. The conservancy is carried on under the supervision of the *dárogas* and *jamadárs* in Baháwalpur and Ahmadpur, and of the committee *muharrirs* in other municipal towns.

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Medical.

Sanitation.

Registration
of births and
deaths.

Registration of births and deaths is now carried out by the village *chaunkidárs* who bring their reports to the nearest police station every week. Before 1904 registration of births and deaths was maintained only in municipal towns for statistics. See Table 13 of Part B.

In 1878 the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Mubammad Khán IV contributed Rs. 10,000 to found the Grey Baháwalpur scholarships at the Lahore Medical College. These scholarships are intended for Baháwalpur State students but can be given to outsiders if no one from Baháwalpur is eligible.

Early in 1906 His Highness sanctioned Rs. 60,000 for the new buildings of the Bahawalpur Civil Hospital, to be called the Victoria Hospital in memory of the late Queen Victoria. The Hospital has been begun.

CHAPTER IV.—PLACES OF INTEREST.

AHMADPUR LAMMA.

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Places of interest.

Ahmadpur Lamma (28° 18' N., and 70° 7' E.), lies 4 miles north-west of Sādiqābād Station on the North-Western Railway, and about 15 miles south of the Indus. It lies in the Khānpur Nizāmat and is the head-quarters of Ahmadpur Lamma Tahsil. The town is important because of its trade. It was built by Ahmad Khān, 5th in descent from Kehr, and named after him. In 1806 A.D. his son, Qādir Bakhsh Khān, waged war against Nawāb Bahāwal Khān II, who sent a large force under Fateh Muhammad Ghorī against him. After some bloodshed, Qādir Bakhsh was taken prisoner and Ahmadpur Lamma with about 60 villages annexed to Bahāwalpur. The town is built of *pakkā* brick houses. The main *bāzār* is metalled and has a flat roof of *sarkanā* throughout. The town was once protected by walls which are now in ruins. The water-supply is obtained in winter from wells sunk within and without the town, and in summer from the Ahmadwāh Canal which was excavated by Ahmad Khān and runs just under the old wall. The chief buildings of interest are the Jama mosque, the Fort, Ramzān Khān's mosque and the Tarkhānānwālī mosque. The first named was built by Ahmad Khān and repaired by Babār Khan Khās-Khelī in the time of Muhammad Bahāwal Khān III, and again recently by the present Nawāb at his own expense. To it is attached a private Arabic theological school under a native Arabic scholar. Close to the town is a mud fort, which formerly had a *pakkā* outer wall. The largest fort in the State, after Derāwar, it is now half-ruined. The Police Station is inside it. The outer walls were pulled down in 1868. The old bungalow over the main gateway serves as a rest-house. Ramzān Khān's and the Tarkhānānwālī mosques are built of *pakkā* brick. The *dharamsāla* of Bāba Nānak, and the Marhī Kalān are well-known Hindu places of worship. The town also contains two shrines, that of Bishārat Alī Shāh, a *pakkā* building, and that of Khākī Shāh, which is a mere *takia*, where people gather to indulge in *bhāng* drinking. The climate of Ahmadpur is on the whole healthy, in spite of the uncleanly appearance of some of its quarters. Two gardens exist near the town. That of Fateh Alī Khān, originally a State garden when Ahmadpur was a principality, was sold to the Bhatias. The other, that of Maulavī Ghiyās-ud-Dīn, is in a flourishing condition. The principal institutions in the town are the primary school, *thāna*, Munsiff's Court, Post Office, Sarāfī, Municipal Office, and a Dāk Bungalow. The Municipality consists of 8 nominated members, 4 Hindus and 4 Muhammadans, with the Tahsildār as President. The native physician, employed by the Municipal Committee, and the school master are *ex-officio* members. The income for the last 10 years is

shown in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure for 1903-04 were :—

Places of
interest.

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Octroi	3,500	Police	784
Other Sources	827	Conservancy	432
		Lighting	27
		Miscellaneous	545
Total	4,327	Total	1,788

Masson writes of Ahmadpur Lamma thus :—

“Chuta Ahmadpur (another name of the town) is a fair sized town, with good *bázár*, and surrounded with mud walls. Within them are some more recently fortified erections, but they are detached, and have no connection with each other, so that they seem to have been raised in pursuance of a plan never completed, as is probably the case. Otherwise they are well built, of kiln burnt bricks. Being the frontier town towards Sind, a regiment of 350 men with 6 guns is stationed at Ahmadpur.”

Traveller
Masson.

AHMADPUR OR AHMADPUR SHARQIYAH (EAST).

Ahmadpur, or Ahmadpur Sharqiyah (also called *Wadda*, or *Kálríánwálí* Ahmadpur) lies in 29° 10' N., and 71° 9' E., at 348 feet above sea level, and is 30 miles south-west of Bahawalpur with a station on the North-Western Railway. It is the headquarters town of the Ahmadpur Sharqiyah Tahsíl and lies in the Bahawalpur Nizámat. It was built by Ahmad Khán, son of Qádir Dinne Khán, and grandson of Piruj Khán (the ancestor of the Pirjánís) in 1748 and peopled from the adjacent villages. In 1758 a heavy flood from the Ghára having damaged the town, it was abandoned and a new site, on a mound half a mile to the south, was selected for the present town. Ahmad Khán also excavated a canal called the Ahmadwáh, now fallen into disuse. The present *katra* of Ahmad Khán Mallezá and the Mahalla Khatík lie in its old bed. Ahmad Khán had 8 sons, named Bráhm Khán, Dáúd Khán, Islám Khán, Alam Khán, Mahabbat Khán, Qábil Khán, Qádir Dinne Khán and Qutb Khán; the last excavated the Qutbwáh, which still irrigates a large area round Ahmadpur, Qádir Dinne Khán excavated a *rájwáh* called the Wáhí Qádir Dinna, and Mahabbat Khán built a *pákku bázár* which is still called after him. In 1782 Mahabbat Khán gave his daughter in marriage to Nawáb Bahawal Khán II and conferred Ahmadpur, together with the Qutbwáh, on him as her dower; thereafter it formed part of Bahawalpur. The road from the Railway Station leads through an avenue of trees for a quarter of a mile and then bifurcates, one road leading to Dera Nawáb Sáhib, the other to the Tahsíl, which lies in the old fort. The latter also contains the Munsif's Court, Police Station and Municipal Office. The eastern gate of the fort opens into the town. The eastern *bázár* is called Mahabbat Khán-wáí and the

1748 A. D.

1758 A. D.

1782 A. D.

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interest.Public in-
stitutions.

northern the Hathián-wálí. The Juma mosque was built on a platform close to the *Chauk* by Nawáb Baháwal Khan II. The date of its construction is found in the verse engraved on the gateway. No less than 82 private gardens lie in and about the town. Ahmadpur has an Anglo-Vernacular Middle and a Theological School, a Civil Dispensary and a Post and Telegraph office. The houses are mostly built of burnt brick and are often double-storied. The Baháwalwáh, which passes near the Station is called the *khúní* (or bloody) canal, because every year some one is drowned in it.

Noteworthy shrines at Ahmadpur are :—

Shrines.

(1) The Khangáh Akhír Bahá-ud-Dín which lies in an extensive grave-yard. Bahá-ud-Dín is said to have practised *chilla* for 8 years without eating and drinking. Votive offerings are made at the shrine by both the Hindus and Muhammadans of the town. (2) At the end of the Hathián-wálí *bázár* is the shrine of Yará *saqir*, which is also much frequented. (3) The shrine of Núr Sháh Bukhárí, a fine piece of enamel work. Every Muharram four *tázias* of the Hasnain are made for the benefit of the saint's soul.

Municipality.

The Ahmadpur Municipality, constituted at the same time as that of Baháwalpur, has 16 nominated members with the Tahsildár as its president. It employs 54 officials and menials and spends Rs. 2,540 on salaries annually. For income and expenditure see Table 46 of Part B. Weekly registers of births and deaths are kept in the municipal office. The trade of Ahmadpur is considerable. It has a large *sajjí* trade, and Dera Nawáb Sáhib, where His Highness occasionally resides, adds to its prosperity. The earthenware of Ahmadpur is excellent and is largely exported. The Ahmadpurí shoes, plain and embroidered, are the best in the State. Mangoes are abundant; they sometimes sell at 4 annas per maund, and are largely exported.

ALLAHABAD.

Alláhábád is a small town lying 4 miles west of Chaudharí Station, on the North-Western Railway, in 28° 57' N. and 70° 57' E. It is the head-quarters town of the Alláhábád Tahsíl and is in the Baháwalpur Nizámat. It was dedicated to Alláh by Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán I about 1142 H. after he had received in *jágir* the *pargana* of Chaudharí from Nawáb Hayátulláh Khán, Governor of Multán. The houses are both *pakka* and *kachcha*, and the only *bázár* runs from north to south, with 5 or 6 narrow lanes branching off from it. It owes its importance to its large export of rice. The water-supply is generally obtained from wells inside and outside the town, but in the summer people mostly use *soú* (canal) water, as the well-water becomes undrinkable owing to the rise of the water level in the wells. The principal institutions are the Munsif's Court, Post Office, Municipal Office, Primary School Police Station, and Dák-bungalow. Its only garden is the *Sarkári*

Principal
Institutions.

bágh. Alláhábád is famous for its dates and rice. A large trade is done in these commodities and there is a rice mill near Chaudhari Railway Station. Rice is so abundant that people generally eat loaves made of rice flour in winter, though this is elsewhere regarded as a luxury.

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Places of interest.

BAHAWALGARH.

Baháwalgarh, now a village of about 150 houses, is built within the walls of the old fort of that name, erected by Nawáb Baháwal Khán, II, in 1791, on the site of a villa called the Musáfiránwála. A strong garrison was placed in it to overawe the Bíkánérís and the turbulent Joya and Wattí subjects, who were always in revolt against the Kárdárs sent to govern them. It was the Kárdár's head-quarters prior to the Agency during the first four years of which, *i. e.*, till 1870, it was a Tahsíl headquarters. Hardly any trace of the fortifications remains. In the ruins old copper coins are sometimes found and in 1896, 2,000 cannon balls, each weighing over 4 seers, were unearthed. A relic of the halting place of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II exists in the shape of a garden, which covers an area of 10 *bighas*, and is still kept up.

1791 A. D.

BAHAWALPUR.

Baháwalpur, the capital of the State and head-quarters of the Nizámat and Tahsíl to which it gives its name, lies 3 miles south of the Sutlej in 29° 22' N. and 71° 41' E. In 1162 H. (1748 A. D.) Nawáb Baháwal Khán I raised a wall round the villa of Muhammad Panáh Khán Ghumrání and within it built a town which he called Baháwalpur after his own name. For its irrigation he dug a canal which still runs as far as Pabarhála village. This he called the Khánwáh, but it is also known as the Nágní owing to its serpentine course. Elphinstone visited Baháwalpur in A.D. 1808 and wrote of this town thus :—

Elphinstone's visit, 1808 A. D.

"We passed for a mile and a half under the walls of Baháwalpur, which, as well as the roads, were crowded with spectators, who in their turn, afforded no uninteresting spectacle to us. A striking difference was observable between them and the people on the east of the desert. Those we now saw were strong, dark, harsh-featured; had their hair and beards long; wore caps oftener than turbans; and spoke a language entirely unintelligible to our Hindoostanny attendants.

"The better sort wore the dress and affected the manners of Persia. After crossing a small canal, and passing through some fields we left the woods and at length reached the banks of the Hyphasis. I was much disappointed in the breadth of the river as well as with the appearance of its shores; but it was impossible to look without interest on a stream which had borne the fleet of Alexander. On the next day but one Baháwal Khán arrived, having come forty miles on purpose to show attention to the Mission.

"We rode out often during our halt at Baháwalpur and saw the town and its environs. The town is about 4 miles in circumference, but there are gardens of mango trees within the walls. The houses are of unburnt bricks with traces of mud. The city is of mud and very thin. Baháwalpur remarkable for its loongees, or silken girdles and turbans. The inhabitants

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Places of
interest.

of this and all the neighbouring countries on the west and north are principally Jats and Biloches, who profess the Muhammadan religion. There are more Hindús at Bahawalpur than any of the other provinces the Mission passed through."⁽¹⁾

Masson,
1827 A. D.

The traveller Masson who was here in 1827 A. D. writes thus:—

"Bahawalpur is seated about two miles from the Gárrah. It formerly had walls, the indications of which only exist, and are used as a walk for the inhabitants. The houses are chiefly constructed of kiln-burnt bricks, and are very much mixed with gardens, the whole is arranged in a loose straggling manner, and is on all sides encircled by grove of date and pípal trees. The public buildings are not very remarkable, neither are any of the Khan's palaces attractive residences. There is, indeed, a handsome stone masjít in progress of erection. This town is the seat of many manufactures, some of them costly, and has a large trade."⁽²⁾

Gates and
Mahallas.

The town is now about 3 miles in circumference, and is surrounded by gardens. It is also encircled by a metalled road with an avenue of fine trees, mostly *sharíhn* and *shisham*. The town has six gates, the Shikárpurí, Bohar Darwáza, Multání, Bikánerí, Ahmadpurí and Deráwarí. The Bohar and Deráwarí gates are mere entrances, as is also the Morí Darwáza, but the others are of *pakka* masonry. The *bázárs* used to be narrow and tortuous but in the Agency period two main *bázárs* of considerable width were constructed, each crossing the other; one joining the Shikárpurí and Bikánerí and the other the Multání and Ahmadpurí gates. The *bázárs* and almost all the important streets are metalled, and every year improvements are made by the municipality. The following are the chief Mahallas: Khalil Khán, Háshim Alí Khán, Bhákhrián, Mubárákpura, Kajalpur, Miání, Khatíkán, Taunkí, Am Khás, Ganj, Gusáínwála, Mallánwála, &c. Of these the Kajalpura and Am Khás are mostly *kachcha*, the rest *pakka*, often double-storied. The Muhammadan Mahallas are mostly built of mud, while those of the Hindus are as a rule of kiln-burnt bricks, a sign of the wealth of the latter community. The best known *bázárs* are the Greyganj, Chauk, Ahmadpurí, Sádiqganj, Dáman Sháh and Machhí-hatta *bázárs*.

Malúk Sháh
Shrine and
Mosques.

The Malúk Sháh Shrine is resorted to by people every Thursday, and on the I'ds and Ashra days fairs on a small scale are held there. Other places noted for fairs in Bahawalpur are given on pages 199–202. The Juma mosque, close to the Chauk, was built by Nawáb Bahawal Khán II in 1191 H. and is the largest place of worship in the State. His Highness occasionally attends it for the Juma prayers. Another Juma mosque called the Machhí-hatta-wálí is also largely attended. It was founded by Nawáb Muhammad Mubárák Khán in 1884 H., but its founder died before its minarets were finished.

(1) Cabul, Vol. I, pages 23–26.

(2) Masson's Journeys, Vol. I, pages 21–22.

The old palace was the house in the city now occupied by the Chief Minister, part of which is used as an octroi office and grain mart, and the *mahal* in the Nizám Regimental Lines, now used as a military hospital. As these places were inadequate and old, Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV built a new palace, called the Daulat Khána, in 1881—86, at a cost of about two lakhs of rupees. It has a castellated wall round it and a fine garden within the wall. Round it lie the *baggi-khána*, *rath-khána*, and the *toshe-khána* buildings, with the offices and houses of the private staff and servants. Close to it is a *kachchá* tank about 400 feet long by 150 wide, and the handsome Daulat Khána *masit*. The Núr Mahal is a fine building in the Italian style, completed in 1875 by Mr. Heenan, the then State Engineer, at a cost exceeding 12 lakhs. It is the finest building in the State, after Sádiqgarh, and was intended as a residence for the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV, but he gave up the idea of residing there, owing to the proximity of the Malúk Sháh graveyard and it is now only used for *darbárs* or for lodging guests of high rank. The Mahal is situated in a spacious garden where open-air *darbárs* are occasionally held. It is decorated with handsome fittings and furniture and was lately repaired at a cost of a lakh of rupees on the occasion of the present Nawáb's installation. A conspicuous feature of the Núr Mahal is the new mosque, about 200 yards from the building, built in 1903 by the present Nawáb, at a cost of Rs. 20,000. It is a *facsimile* of the mosque built by the Nawáb at the Chiefs' College in Lahore while a student there. The date of its construction as inscribed on a marble slab at the entrance is given in the line—" *Bání-i-masjid Baháwal Khán Shah-i-wáld nasab*," (1320 H.)

CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

The Daulat Khána.

The Núr Mahal.

Between the road leading from the Bíkání Gate to the Daulat Khána and the cantonment are the Darbár office, Political Agent's lodge (in the Grey gardens), Public Works and Canal office with the Iron Works and Ice Machine buildings, the Treasury, Military Inspection-bungalow, Darbár Record office, Chief Judge's Court, Mushír Mál's office, District Judge's Court, Munsiff's Court, State Press and Post office. Between the Multání and Bíkání gates are the Central Jail, Municipal Hall, Saráe Godhú, Cavalry Lines, and Dák-bungalow (called the *purání kothí*). The Tahsíl, the Kotwálí of Baháwalpur town, and the Police Station of the Baháwalpur *idáqa*, all lie in the town inside the Multání Gate. Close to the Bohar Gate is a flour mill, opened in 1896. It has a large trade and not only supplies flour to the town but also exports it. The roads in Baháwalpur connecting the town with the Railway Station, Courts and other important places are all metalled. The road to Himáití, now Baháwalpur East Station, was constructed and metalled in 1898 after the Southern Punjab Railway was opened.

Public institutions and buildings.

The cantonment contains buildings for the Nizám Regiment and Imperial Service Camel Corps, close to the Treasury office; and

CHAP. IV. the Orderly Risála is quartered in the old Imperial Service Lines, close to the Minchin gardens.

Places of
interest.
Municipality.

The Baháwalpur Municipality was constituted in October 1874. Its octroi boundaries include the town proper, the Daulat Khána and cantonment lines, and octroi posts are maintained at the Railway Stations of Baháwalpur East and Baháwalpur West. The municipal income and expenditure will be found in Table 46 of Part B. The committee consists of 24 nominated members, half Hindus and half Muhammadans. The rules enjoin new elections every third year; but they have never been acted on and most of the members are of over 20 years' standing. In certain cases membership has become hereditary. The sewage outfalls of the houses outside the town are at 6 sites outside it, but the interior *mahallas* have no drainage system and rain water collects in ponds, natural or artificial. Water is obtained from wells in the streets and private houses, but in summer people mostly use *seú* or canal water, and consider it a luxury. An analysis of the water in the State wells has been given on page 21. The water is unwholesome and is supposed to cause spleen and scurvy. About 50 *tum-tums* are licensed, each paying Rs. 6 per annum as tax, but the drivers are not licensed. The trade of Baháwalpur town is virtually that of the State as a whole, and this has been described in Sec. F., Ch II. The octroi rates are elsewhere described. Until 4 years ago the octroi dues were levied by municipal servants, supervised by a *sarparast chungí*, but the contract has now been sold and they are realised by the contractor.

Educational
Institutions.

The town possesses the Sádiq Egerton College, the Sádiq Anglo-Vernacular Middle School and the Church Mission School. The latter was started in 1866 by the Revd. Mr. Yeates of Multán, half its expenses being defrayed by the State. It teaches up to the Middle Standard, and now receives a consolidated grant-in-aid of Rs. 100 per mensem from the State. The town has also a theological school and an orphanage, elsewhere described. There are two *saráis* in the town; one the Láljíválí outside the Shikárpurí Gate, built by the State in memory of Láljí Parshád, minister in 1879; the other, the *Sarái* Godhú Mal, built in 1875, outside the Morí Gate. Both afford good accommodation to travellers. Baháwalpur possesses 29 gardens, of which the following, among others, belong to the State; the Daulat Khána, Núr Mahal, Grey, Minchin, Lál Bágh, and Magazine gardens.

European
cemetery.

About a mile from Baháwalpur, on the road to Ahmadpur, is a European cemetery which among others contains the grave of Colonel Adam Duffin, of the 2nd Bengal Cavalry, who died on the Sutlej in December 1838.

"Empress"
bridge.

The river Sutlej or Ghára is crossed by the iron girder "Empress" bridge, of 16 spans, 4,258 feet long, opened on the

8th of June, 1878, by Colonel Sir Andrew Clarke, R.E., K.C.M.G.,
C.B., C.I.E., Director-General of Public Works, on behalf of Lord
Lytton.

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

"Empress"
bridge.

BHÁGLA.

In 1181 H. (1767 A.D.) Alí Murád Khán Pirjání, founder of
Taranda Alí Murád Khán, built this *kachcha* fort. It is 100 miles
south-west of Baháwalpur, and is now in ruins but the four wells
outside the fort called Mahrán-wálí Khúyán are still used by the
people who sometimes gather there. Dheds generally live there,
and in the rainy season cattle-breeders come from a distance.

1767 A. D.

BHIMWAR (see ISLAMGARH).

BHUTTA WAHAN.

Bhutta Wáhan, a very ancient place, founded, according to the
Malfúzá-i-Shaikh Hákim, at the same period as Mau, is situated on
a high mound, 10 miles north of Ráhmíyár Khán. It is said to
have been founded by the Dahrs but its original name is unknown.
It is stated that its name was changed into Bhutta Wáhan (*wáhan*
= habitation in Sindhi) when it was wrested by the Bhuttas (a branch
of the Bhattís) from the Dahrs about 1,000 years ago. At that period
the Indus flowed at a distance of hardly a mile from Bhutta Wáhan,
and its deserted bed called the Lurhwání is still sufficiently deep
to form a lake into which fall the surplus waters of the Khánwáh
Canal. The Lurhwání (lit. a stream on which a boat can be
launched) is also called the Tirmúhín, (lit. three mouthed), because
about 700 years ago two branches of the Indus joined at a point
close to Bhutta Wáhan and thus formed three streams. Here the
box containing Sassí was launched on the river. Sassí was the
daughter, says the Bhutta Wáhan tradition, of a Thání Brahman,
who cast her horoscope at her birth and divined that she would fall
in love with a Muhammadan Biloch. In order to save his family
from this humiliation he shut her up in a box and launched it on
the river on the night of Tuesday, the 1st of Chet. The box was
found by Atta, a washerman. The story is well-known in the
Punjab, however the local tradition claims Bhutta Wáhan as the
birth place of Sassí. The point in the Tirmúhín where Sassí was
thrown in is still shown. There are three families of the Thání
Pushkarnas at Bhutta Wáhan, of which one, represented by Mírs
Káhn Chand and Wású Rám, is believed to be directly descended
from Sassí's parents. Bhutta Wáhan also claims to be the birth-
place of Abul Fazl and Faizí, the sons of Mulla Mubárak.
A place in the village is said to be so sacred that, if a woman be
delivered of a child there, it is sure to attain to world-wide fame,
and will either be a statesman (like Abul Fazl) or a scholar (like
Faizí) or a lover (like Sassí) or be renowned in some other way.
Unfortunately no one can point out the precise spot.

Story of
Sassí.

CHAP. IV.

DERA NAWAB SAHIB.

Places of
interest.

1782 A. D.

Dera Nawáb Sáhib, or Dera Mubárák, or Dera Mualla (the high), by which names the place is generally known, is 3 miles south-south-east of Ahmadpur, and practically forms part of that town. The rulers of Baháwalpur, from Nawáb Baháwal Khán II to Baháwal Khán IV, had three capitals, Baháwalpur, Ahmadpur and Deráwar, but Ahmadpur was their favourite residence. None of them, however, lived in the town itself, except Nawáb Baháwal Khán II, who during his halts at Ahmadpur lived in the fort built by him in 1782 A. D. The site of their residence was the present Dera. Almost every Nawáb built a new Mahal for himself at Dera Mualla such as the *Ranjil Mahal*, the *Núr Mahal*, the *Daulat Khána*, &c. The place has gradually developed into a town, with a small *bázár* and much trade. The finest building in the State is the Sádiqgarh Palace, built by Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV at a cost of Rs. 11,35,000. It was begun in 1882 and completed in 1895. Later improvements cost more than four lakhs.

✓
DERAWAR AND JAJJA.

878 A. D.

843 A. D.

834 A. D.

The following account of Deráwar is taken from the *Tárikh-i-Murád*, which is based on the Shástrí chronicle of one Maují Rám Biás, whose ancestors were the family *parohits* of the Bháti rulers of Deráwar. Jajja and Deva Sidh were two Bháti Rájás, Dera Sidh being the sister's son of Jajja. In 300 Hijra, Jajja ruled over the modern Tahsils of Khánpur and Ahmadpur East. In Sambat 900 Jajja founded the town of Jajja, still a village of considerable importance. The Indus is said to have then flowed close to the town, but it now runs 10 miles west of the village. Dera Sidh, also called Deva Ráwal or simply Ráwal, built a fort in the bed of the Hakra in the Cholistán, with the consent of Jajja Bhátia, in Sambat 909, and gave it his own name, but Jajja from jealousy ordered his nephew to discontinue building. Deva Ráwal's mother, Jajja's sister however interceded and wrote to Jajja:

Ráe Jajja sí wainti bhen puchháwe. Kia Bhutta Kia Bhátia kot usárán de. The sister of Jajja informs him that Bhutta and Bhátia are one and the same; let the fort be built. No sooner was Jajja's permission thus secured than Deva Ráwal hastened to complete the fort and forty battlements or towers were built, twenty *kachchá* and twenty *pakká*. One tower to the left of the main gate was called the *Kakúhá* after an architect of that name. A *pakká* well was dug in the fort, and a tank outside it to collect rain-water. The fort had a gateway, just opposite to which a room was built and these were fortified with an iron gate.

1783 A. D.

From Sambat 909 to 1790 the fort remained in the possession of Deva Ráwal and his descendants. On

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

1733 A. D.

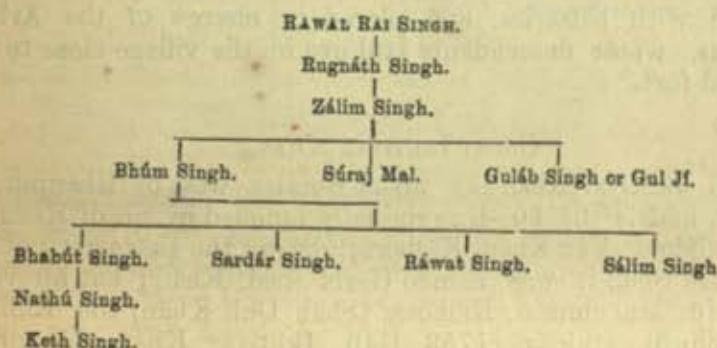
the 20th of Ziqad, 1146 H. Nawáb Sádiq Muhammad Khán I, dispossessed Ráwal Rái Singh and occupied Deráwar. The descendants of Deva Ráwal, who held the fort till the time of Ráwal Rái Singh, were:—(1) Deva Ráwal, (2) Ludda, (3) Bachhú, (4) Dosáwa, (5) Jaisal Jí, (the founder of Jaisalmer), (6) Kalyán Jí, (7) Chachú Jí, (8) Thej Ráe, (9) Jit Senh, (10) Mál Ráj, (11) Deo Ráj, (12) Kehar Jí, (13) Lakhman Kailun, (14) Bairsí, (15) Cháchú Jí, (16) Deví Dás, (17) Jit Senh, (18) Laun Karan, (19) Mal Dev, (20) Bhaun Singh, (21) Rám Chandar, (22) Dal Sabáe, (28) Mádhó Singh, (24) Kishan Singh, (25) Ráwal Rái Singh.

Though in Sambat 1804 Ráwal Rái Singh re-took the fort of Deráwar from Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán I, in Sambat 1816 he voluntarily made it over to Nawáb Mubárak Khán on condition that the latter paid him half the income from the tolls (*zakát*). Until Sambat 1842 Ráwal Rái Singh and his son Ragnáth Singh received the stipulated sum; but after the latter's death, his son Zálím Singh was content to receive Rs. 50 per mensem as a gratuity, which he and his son Bhúm Singh continued to enjoy till 1833 A. D. when it lapsed on the latter's death. The descendants of Bhúm Singh, who lived in the foreign territories, never laid claim to the concession, but when a representative of the family appeared in the court of the Nawáb he generally received a *khillat*. The descendants of Ráwal Rái Singh were:—

1747 A. D.

1759 A. D.

1785 A. D.



The descendants of Nathú Singh live at Gharyála, a village in Bíkáner State. He was related to the rulers of Bíkáner and Jaipur, his father's sister being the wife of Sardár Singh, ruler of Bíkáner, and his sister the wife of the Maharája of Jaipur.

For another interesting version of the history of Deráwar and its rulers see Col. Tod's *Rájasthán—Annals of Jaisalmer*. Tod's version.

DHUIN.

1772 A. D.

Dhúín was a ruined mound, on which in 1186 H. Aqil Khán, son of Kabír Khán Achrání, built a *kachcha* fort, now in ruins. It is 56 miles south-west of Baháwalpur, and 32 miles of Deráwar. In the rainy season cattle-breeders camp there. The water is bitter.

CHAP. IV.

DINGARH OR TIRHARA.

Pages of
interest.

1757 A. D.

1156 A. D.

This fort, now called Dīngarh, lies in the Cholistān of Sādiqābād Tahsīl and is said to have been built by Bahādur Khān Halānī in 1171 H. at the instance of Lālū, a Hindu of Jaisalmer, on the site of the Tirhāra, a place of considerable antiquity and a strategic point on the Jaisalmer border. Another story is that the fort was begun by one Brahm Khān, son of Muhammad Marūf Kehrānī in 1170 H. and completed by his nephew Khudā Bakhsh Khān (son of Nūr Muhammad Khān, son of Muhammad Nārūf Khān). On the lintel of the inner gateway is inscribed the Muhammadan *kalima*, underneath which were some Persian lines which cannot be deciphered owing to the wood having been eaten away, but the words "Khudā Bakhsh Khān" are still visible. The fort is now in ruins.

FATEHGARH OR GAURDIANA.

1799 A. D.

In 1214 H. Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān II, built this fort, with a *pakka* exterior, on the site of Gaurjiāna or Gaurdiāna, 15 miles north-west of Amrūka Railway Station and 150 miles north-east of Bahāwalpur, and named it Fatehgarh after his father Fateh Khān. The well inside the fort is now filled up. Outside the fort are two *pakka* wells and a *kachcha* tank, of which the latter is used as a reservoir for rain-water. Before the Agency times it was garrisoned with batteries, and placed in charge of the Arbānī Dāūdpoṭras, whose descendants still live in the village close to the now ruined fort.

GARHĪ IKHTIYAR KHAN.

1753 A. D.

Garhī Ikhtiyār Khān lies about 6 miles west of Khānpur, in 28° 40' N., and 70° 34' 30" E., originally founded by Shādī Khān, an official of Khudā Yār Khān, Kalhora, during the supremacy of the Kalhoras in Sīnd, it was named Garhī Shādī Khān; but after the death of Nūr Muhammad, Kalhora, (Shāh Qulī Khān) the Kalhora power declined, and in 1753 Hājī Ikhtiyār Khān Mundhānī of Gundī, by a sudden attack on the town, took it from the Kalhora officials, fortified it and changed its name to Garhī Ikhtiyār Khān. He also excavated the Ikhtiyār Wāh. An account of the conquest of the town by Nawāb Bahāwal Khān II has been given in Sec. B of Chap. I. The town is built both of *kachcha* and *pakka* masonry and some houses have thatched roofs. The only *bāzār* traverses the town from east to west. The chief buildings of interest are—

The Juma mosque built by Hājī Ikhtiyār Khān in 1174 H., Ghāzī Khān's mosque, the Māī Sāhib *masjid*, Maulavī Muhammad Amīn's mosque, the *masjid* of Maulavī Adam, and the Mahal and bungalow of the ex-Khāns of Garhī. All these are badly in need of repairs. Garhī Ikhtiyār Khān is famous for its manufacture of guns, and it used to make good cutlery,

swords and knives. Its gunmakers could imitate any gun they saw, even, it is said, machine-made English breech-loaders. They copied the English marks so exactly that they could hardly be distinguished from the original. Col. Minchin, as Political Agent, once gave them a new breech-loader to copy and it is said he could not distinguish the copy from the original. The Arms Act has practically put a stop to the making of arms there. Only licensed gun and sword holders and Police officials get arms mended at Garhí. The pottery of Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán is second to none. Its *súráhís* and *piálás* bear comparison with those of Ahmadpur. The town is surrounded by large groves of date palms the fruit of which is largely exported, and there are a few orchards outside the town. Fish from the Gágrí Dhand is brought in daily to the town, which has the best fish-market in the State. The municipality consists of 8 members with the Tahsildár of Khánpur as President. The income for the last 9 years is shown in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure for 1903-04 were—

CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

Cutlery and pottery.

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Octroi	1,003	Municipal staff	98
Other sources	150	Police	286
		Conservancy	274
		Lighting and miscellaneous ...	64
Total ...	1,153	Total ...	522

GAURDIANA — (see FATEHGARH).

GHAUSPUR.

A Municipal town, in 30° 15' N. and 70° 52' E. It is believed to have been founded by Lál Khán, ancestor of the Ghaleja tribe of Ghauspur, and named after the saint Ghaus Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya of Multán (see page 145). But the Kelrání Dáúd-potrás aver that it was founded by Ikhtiyár Khán (founder of Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán) in about 1750 A. D. and called after his son Ghaus Bakhsh Khán. No trace, however, of the Dáúdpotrás is found at Ghauspur while the Ghalejas are numerous and own lands in and about the town. The whole town is built of kiln-burnt bricks and is surrounded by self-planted groves of date trees. The Municipality, established in 1903, has an annual income of Rs. 1,200. The population according to the local Census of 1906 was 2,310.

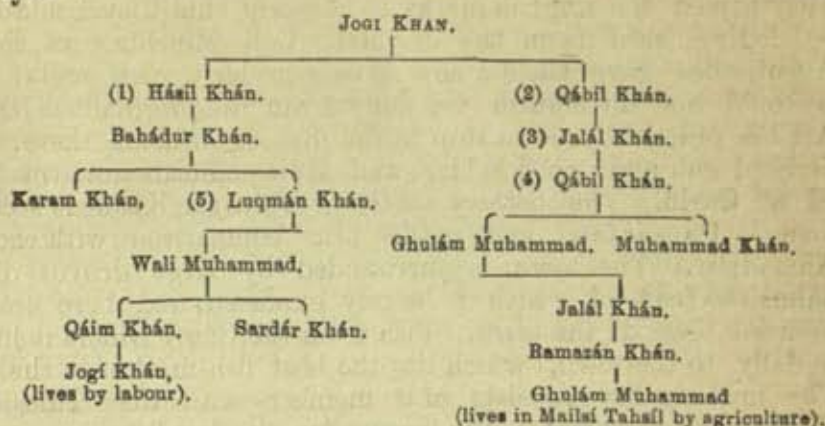
HÁSILPUR.

Hásilpur lies on the bank of the old bed of the Pakhála (*vide* Section A, Chapter I), about 7 miles south of the Sutlej and a mile to the north of Hásilpur Railway Station (29° 43' N., 72° 38' E.) and was founded by Hásil Khán, son of Jogí Khán,

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

Ghumrání. The following pedigree table elucidates this family's history :—

Ghumrání
Chiefs.

Of these numbers 1 to 5 succeeded, in the order enumerated, to the chieftainship of Hásilpur, Qábil Khán (No. 4) was treated to as almost an equal by the Nawábs of Baháwalpur, and at weddings and funerals in his family the heir-apparent of the Pirjání family represented the Nawáb at Hásilpur. The family prospered till Qábil Khán's death, but his successors lost ground, and in the reign of Sádiq Muhammad Khán II dissensions arose among the Hásilpur Dáúdpotras, most of whom accepted pensions from, and transferred their shares in the Hásilpur domain to the Nawáb, and Sádiq Muhammad Khán sent his slave, Sohráb Khán Cháchar, to administer them. The Hásilpur Dáúdpotras, however, took offence at his appointment and killed him as being a son of a maid-servant. Luqmán Khán, the Hásilpur chief, was also killed by Sohráb Khán's servants in the affray. The Nawáb then annexed the whole of the Hásilpur territory, but gave $\frac{1}{4}$ th of its income to Luqmán Khán's heirs. This grant was gradually reduced until in the Agency period the last remnant of the *jáqir* was resumed. Usmán Khán Ghumrání, representative of the Hásilpur house, receives a *kasúr* of Rs. 96 a year; and its other members live by labour and agriculture. The town is partly *kachcha* and partly of *pakka* masonry.

Buildings of
interest.

A small narrow *bázár* runs from north to south and is crossed at intervals by seven crooked lanes. The houses number nearly 350. The water supply is obtained from wells sunk within and without the town. Rain water runs off into the deep depression called the Pakhála, outside the town. The chief buildings of interest are the mosque of Karam Khán and Hásil Khán. The former was built about 140 years ago by Karam Khán, grandson of Hásil Khán, Ghumrání, founder of the town. Hásil Khán's mosque dates from 1768 A. D., and was more than 6 years in building. Its front is decorated with verses of the Qurán in relief. All round the principal door is the *áyat-ul-kursí* in raised letters, to which the mosque owes its fame. It was half ruined, and its

outer wall had crumbled to dust, when the late Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán IV granted a sum of money with which its lost beauties were to some extent restored, but much still remains to be done to it. When independent the principality of Hásilpur comprised a large area on either side of the Sutlej with Luddan, Salol and Dára, now in the Mailsi Tahsil of the Multán District. The boundary between the territories of the Lakhweras and Hásilpur Dáúdpotras was the Basti of Dulla Bhadera, which they owned in equal shares. Eastward the limit of its area was Tibba Raika, and southward Phúlra and Wallhar were both included in it.

CHAP. IV

Places of interest.

The places of religious interest at Hásilpur are:—the shrines of Muhammad Panáh Tiwána and of Muhammad Sháh, the *dharamsál pipalwáli*, the Bela Thákrán, *dharamsál Rám Singh-wáli*, and two *marhís*. Of these the first two deserve a passing notice. The shrine of Muhammad Panáh lies about a mile west of the town. He was a wandering *faqír* who performed a *chilla* on the site of the shrine, which was built after his death by one of his descendants. It gradually fell into ruin until it was rebuilt a few years ago, at a cost of Rs. 24,000 by Ghulam Muhammad Khán Daulatána, Raís of Luddan. A fine mosque, *sarái* and *majlis khána* are attached to the shrine. It does not, however, count many believers among the local population and most of its votaries come from the Multán District. The shrine of Muhammad Sháh lies about a mile south-east of the town. Muhammad Sháh, locally surnamed Rangíla, was a *faqír* who in his wanderings, spent a *dupahr* (noon-tide) there. At first only a mound, on which the saint is said to have stayed, existed, and it is stated that any building erected on the spot at once fell to the ground. But nearly ten years ago one Umed Ali Sháh built the present shrine with the aid of the State. It attracts many believers from the neighbourhood, who offer all kinds of sacrifices and *nazars*. A *samádh* near the shrine of Muhammad Sháh has an interesting history. In the month of Sáwan, Sambat 1920, during the reign of Baháwal Khán IV, Báwa Bhajan Gur Singh, a *faqír*, came to Hásilpur. He was a disciple of Báwa Naráin Gur of Marhi Rudh Náthi Padwin Aughar in Bhatner. Though eighty years of age he was tall and handsome, and was the spiritual guide of Rája Sardár Singh of Bikáner. He performed *chillas* (penances in solitude) for five months at Hásilpur, and then one day in Maghar, Sambat 1920, chanced to visit the shrine of Muhammad Sháh Rangíla. He declared that its occupant was possessed of miraculous powers, and on account of his saintly merits desired to make his *samádh* close to it. He accordingly chose a site near a banyan tree, a mile south of Hásilpur, and on Maghar 10, Sambat 1920, ordered his grave to be dug, and getting into it begged that earth should be thrown over him. The by-standers were about to do so when an order was received from the Kárdár, saying that burying a man alive was contrary to the

Shrines and temples.

CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

tenets of Islám. On this the assembly dispersed. Next morning some *faqirs* appeared on the spot and buried the Báwa alive in the presence of the Fazláni Dáúdpotrá. A fair is held annually about the end of Maghar, on the Sheorátrí, and is attended by all classes, both Hindu and Muhammadan, and *halwa* (flour cooked in sugar and *ghí*) is distributed for the benefit of the *faqir's* soul. The principal institutions of the town are a School, Post Office, *sarâe*, Municipal Office, Dák Bungalow, Police Station, and a *daulat khána* or rest-house for the Nawáb.

Municipality.

The Municipal Committee consists of eight nominated members with the Tahsildár of Khairpur as President. The income for the last four years is shown in Table 46 of Part B. In 1903-04 the income and expenditure were—

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Octroi	1,125	Police	209
Other sources	162	Conservancy	843
		Lighting, Public Works and Miscellaneous.	121
Total	1,287	Total	673

Trade.

The town has no particular industry. Its chief exports are indigo, wheat, *til*, wool and *ghí*, which are produced in abundance, while rice, *gur*, sugar, piece-goods, oils and pulses form the chief imports. The *methí* of Hásilpur is the best in the State. Its leaves are dried and the *ság* is sent away as presents.

ISLAMGARH.

Islámgarh, the old Bhímwar, was built by Ráwal Bhím Singh in Sambat 1665, as the following inscription on its gate in the Bhábrí character, proves :—"Sambat 1665, Asuj Wadí 2, Máháráj Ráwal Sirí Bhím Singh Jí Máháráj." In 1180 H. Ikhtiyár Khán Mundhání, chief of Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán, took the fort by a stratagem. Two officers named Jalál Khán and Shuját Khán were appointed by Ráwal Múlráj (son of Ráwal Akhí Singh) to command the garrison, and they were regarded as too loyal to be mistrusted. They often went, however, to Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán to provide themselves with necessaries and Ikhtiyár Khán conspired with them there and promising them a pair of gold bangles and money, obtained the keys of the fort from them. Having got possession of the fort he changed its name to Islámgarh. But he only gave the traitors gilt bangles so that they gained nothing by their disloyalty. The fort, which is in the Tahsíl of Baháwalpur, and is now a Police Station, has never been repaired since 1860. It is 28 miles south-east of Bhágla.

JAJJA—(see DHRAWAR).

JAMGARH.

CHAP. IV.

In 1203 H. Jām Khān Marūfānī built this fort, 30 miles east of Bahāwalpur. Its exterior is *pakka*. It had four towers and a rampart on which roofed houses were built, but now no longer exist. Outside was a *kachcha* rampart, which has disappeared, leaving only a few traces of its mud towers; but its main gateway, which is *pakka*, is still to be seen. No timber was used in the fort, except in the main gateway and one smaller gate. The water is bad. The fort lies between Marot and Mīrgarh.

Places of
interest.
1785 A.D.

JAND KHAND.

This is a very high mound close to the fort of Derāwar. The only tradition extant about it is that it was a flourishing town in the time of Alexander, who is said to have halted at the Jand Khand ferry and crossed the Hakra on his way to Lower Sindh. That Alexander reached a point so far below as Derāwar is hardly incredible, as according to the traditions recorded by Colonel Tod, Alexander marched as far as Dhandoośir (25 miles south of Bhatner). "An aged native of Dhandoośir," writes Colonel Tod, "replied to my inquiry as to the recollection attached to this place (*Rung Mahall*) that it belonged to a Powār prince who ruled once all these regions when Sekundar Roomi attacked them." (1)

JANNPUR.

A town in the Allāhābād Tahsil, Bahāwalpur Nizāmat, 29° 1' N. and 70° 50' E. It is supposed to be the Jundrūd of early Arab rule in Sindh, but the old town was destroyed by the Indas more than three centuries ago and the present town is nearly 4 miles to the S. E. of the real site of the old Jundrūd. It is well known for its shrines and large trade in date fruits and rice. A Municipality was established here in 1903 and has an average yearly income of about Rs. 600.

KANDERA.

This fort was built with a *pakka* exterior on a ruined mound called the Kandera in 1178 H. by Fazal Khān, son of Bhākhar Khān Pirjānī, and is 125 miles south-west of Bahāwalpur. The fort has a gateway and four towers. In 1220 H. it was demolished by Nawāb Muhammad Bahāwal Khān II, and now only a ruined tower remains. The Cholistānī people, especially the Mahrs, bring their cattle here in the rains.

1754 A. D.

1805 A. D.

KHAIRGARH.

In 1189 H. Hājī Khān, son of Ikhtiyār Khān, built a *kachcha* fort in the Cholistān and named it Khairgarh. It is 30 miles south-west of Bahāwalpur. Near the gate of the fort are two *pakka* vaulted chambers and a *pakka* tank. It is now in ruins.

1775 A. D.

CHAP. IV.

KHANGARH.

Places of
interest.

1788 A. D.

In 1198 H. Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán II built this fort 36 miles south-west of Deráwar and directed that the merchandise of Khurásán, etc., going to Hindustán through Maujgarh should in future go *viâ* Kbángarh, to ensure the safety of the caravans. The fort is now in ruins.

KHAIRPUR.

1760 A. D.

Khairpur is built on a mound about 6 miles south of the Sutlej and one mile north of Tāmewálí Station on the Southern Punjab Railway (29° 35' N. and 72° 16' E.). It is the head-quarters town of the Khairpur Tahsíl and lies in the Minchinábád Nizámat. The town, built of mud and *pakka* bricks, is surrounded on the south and east by ever-encroaching sand-hills. A narrow winding *bázár* runs from north to south and its three sections bear different names, *viz.*, the *Katra Nanpál* to the north, the *Machhí Hatta* in the middle, and the *Pípalwálí bázár* to the south. Unmetalled throughout, it is covered in at intervals by a *sarkána* roof. Almost all the shops are *pakka*, irregularly laid out. Owing to the proximity of the sand-hills, the streets and *bázár* are always covered with a layer of sand. The town is divided into four *mahallas*, *viz.*, Sidqání, Maráf Khání, Jamání, and Kirmání. It was built, near the Tánwenwála mound in 1760, by Maráf Khán, a Dáúd-potra chief, who also built a mosque which he called the *Khair-úl-Masájid*. This mosque, now on its southern edge, originally stood in the centre of the town, which extended southwards to where now is the Tāmewálí Railway Station. The town has been driven to its present site by the ever-advancing waves of sand which pour in from the Rohí or Cholistán. If this process continues the town is doomed to destruction. The water-supply is obtained from wells dug within and without the town. The water is sweet unlike that of the Tāmewálí Station which is brackish. The chief building of interest, the *Khair-úl-Masájid*, is now in ruins and almost buried beneath the sand. The minaret standing 40 feet above the sand dunes commands a view of the whole town. A few gardens lie to the west. Of these the Sarkáří, the Sháh Sáhibwála, and that of Malik Tirath Dás are the best. The climate like that of most dry places is healthy, but the town is visited almost daily by strong winds and sand-storms. The shrine most frequented by believers is that of Maulaví Khudá Bakhsh-Sáhib; but other shrines have sprung up of late. One of these, the shrine of the Yunání Hakíms, has elicited the following satire from a local poet:—*Nizám-ud-dín ajab káre riyá kard; Bazor-i-zar pidar rá auliya kard; i. e., "Nizám-ud-dín has done a wonderful act of hypocrisy; he has canonized his father by means of money."*

Municipality.

The Municipality, constituted in 1883, consists of 8 nominated members, with the Tahsildár and Náib Tahsildár as president and vice-president respectively. Its income for the last ten years

is shown in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure for 1903-04 were :—

CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Oetrol	5,231	Police	508
Other Sources	951	Conservancy	714
		Dispensary	1,882
		Public Works	400
		Miscellaneous	183
Total ..	6,182	Total ...	3,487

The principal institutions are : an Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, a Theological School, Post Office, Dispensary, Municipal Office, and *seráí*; the Munsif's Court, Tahsíl, *thána* and a Dák Bungalow. There is also a small *daulat-khána* for the use of the Nawáb when on tour. The town is especially noted for its *saláris*, *lungís*, calico-printing, *duhars*, *suráhs* and other earthen ware, printed *palang-poshes* (bed-clothes), *kandúras* (table cloths), and *janamázés*, which, with grain, form its chief exports; while cloth, piece-goods, *gur*, sugar, oils and *ghí* are the chief imports. The people of Kháirpur are given to intrigue, litigation and anonymous petition writing; hence Kháirpur (literally 'virtuous town') is nicknamed Sharrpur (literally 'wicked town').

Institutions.

Trade.

KHAN BELA.

Khán Bela lies in 28° 59' N., and 70° 46' E., about 18 miles north-east of Khánpur, in a wonderfully fertile plain. It was built about 1750 by an Achrání Dáúdputra. Some say it was built by Khán, an Aráin by caste, early in the 16th century when the country about Khán Bela was ruled by the Nahrs of Sítpur. The houses are both *pakka* and *kachcha*. The only *bázár* runs from north to south, and the streets are all unmetalled. The *khángáh* and *masjid* of Maulaví Sultán Mahmúd and the Juma mosque, also known as the Qází-dí-masjid, are the only buildings of interest. Khán Bela is surrounded by many small mango-groves, which stretch along the banks of the Sádiqwáh Canal for about three miles. Thousands of date palms also flourish, and people throng there in July and August for the date harvest. The Aráíns of Khán Bela, who form the bulk of the population of the *iláqa*, are well-to-do *zamíndárs* as well as good gardeners. Many of them are owners of small gardens. Khán Bela has a fifth class municipality constituted in December 1903. For its income and expenditure see Table 46 of Part B.

1750 A, D

KHANPUR.

Khánpur, the head-quarters town of the Khánpur Níázmat and Tahsíl, lies close to the Railway Station of that name in 28° 37' N. and 70° 37' E. and 20 miles, as the crow flies, south

Níázmat.

CHAP. IV. of the Indus. The town is intersected by the Hájiwáh Canal which runs from north to south. The eastern half forms the original town as it stood before the Sind Valley State Railway was constructed (1880) while the western half contains the houses of the Railway employés, European and Native. Nawáb Baháwal Khán II., after conquering Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán in 1806, built a new town and fort 6 miles to the east and named it Khánpur, to diminish the strength of Garhí and overawe the newly conquered *iláqá*. The water-supply is obtained from wells sunk in the town, but in summer the Hájiwáh Canal is the chief source of supply, and the *seú* or canal water is considered a luxury. The town has no drainage system, but most of the rain water flows off into the Hájiwáh and the depressions outside the town. The chief buildings are the *Háji Khán-dí-masít*, the Juma mosque. Háji Khán's mosque, of *pakká* masonry with a lofty dome, lies in the centre of the town and was built by Háji Khán, son of Ikhtiyár Khán, chief of Garhí, close to his favourite hunting preserve. It is almost in ruins. The Juma mosque, in the north-eastern corner of the town, was built by Nawáb Baháwal Khán II., when, after conquering Garhí, he induced the people of that place to settle at Khánpur. It is built on a high platform with rows of small rooms in its sides. The District Jail at Khánpur was washed away by floods from the Indus in 1871. The compound was re-built, but before it was completed the erection of the Central Jail at Baháwalpur obviated the necessity for a jail here.

Trade.

Khánpur is the chief trade centre for agricultural produce in the State. Its main export is rice. Two mills for husking rice and another for pressing oil from mustard, etc., with a branch for ginning cotton have now been built. The town also has a great reputation for its fine *katoras*,⁽¹⁾ but for the last few years the industry seems to have been on the wane, so that it must probably, in the near future, take second place to Baháwalpur, where the industry is rising in importance.

Public Institution.

The principal institutions are the District Judge's Court, Tahsíl, Thána, an Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, Civil Dispensary, Post Office, Municipal Office and a Dák Bungalow. Several gardens skirt the town. Khánpur as an Engine-changing Station is the head-quarters of many European and Eurasian Railway servants, who have a Railway Club, of which the local State officials are also members, with a small library of papers. There is also a European cemetery in the Railway compound.

Municipality.

The municipality, constituted in 1874, consists of 8 nominated members, 4 Hindus and 4 Muhammadans with the Tahsildár and Náib Tahsildár as president and vice-president, respectively. The assistant surgeon and the headmaster of the middle school are

(1) Hence it is generally called Khánpur Katoríáw *Ála*.

ex-officio members. The income for the last 10 years is shown in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure for 1903-04 were :—

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Oetroi	11,692	Staff	180
Other Sources	1,086	Conservancy	830
		Lighting	88
		Dispensary	2,350
		Police	748
		Miscellaneous	48
Total	12,778	Total	4,244

KOT SABZAL.

Kot Sabzal is a small town, built on a mound about 20 feet high. It lies 6 miles north-west of Walhár Station on the North-Western Railway, in $18^{\circ} 12'$ N. and $69^{\circ} 56'$ E. The town was built by Sabzal Khán, son of Mundhú Khán Kehrání, in 1756, with a rampart of mud bricks. In 1806 Nawáb Baháwal Khán II conquered Kot Sabzal and annexed it. Samáil Khán, son of Sabzal Khán, sought the assistance of Mír Násir Khán, chief of Haidarábád and Mír Sohráb of Khairpur in Sind and they re-conquered Kot Sabzal and its dependencies from the Nawáb and divided the *iláqá* amongst themselves. It remained in their possession till December, 1842, when Sir Charles Napier expelled them from it and the East India Company restored it to Nawáb Baháwal Khán III in 1844 (for further details see chapter I, Sec. B.). The land about Kot Sabzal is subject to frequent floods, when the Indus rises in summer, and communication with the town is then nearly cut off for weeks together. It formed a Tahsil in the Agency period. The town is built of *kachcha* and *pakka* masonry, and has two narrow *bázárs*, running from east to west and from north to south, with 15 narrow streets branching off from them. The *bázár* and streets are unmetalled. The majority of the Hindús are money-lenders who have also monopolised the petty trade; while the Muhammadans are either Dáúdpotras or artisans. Water is obtained from wells inside and outside the town. The chief buildings of interest are the Khán-Wálí-Masít and the tombs of Sabzal Khán and his son Samáil Khán. The Khán-Wálí-Masít consists of three vaults, prettily painted. It was built by Sabzal Khán the founder of the town, and repaired about 10 years ago from subscriptions raised locally and added to by the State. The town once had a lofty wall round it but it has gradually disappeared. The principal institutions are a Primary School, a *thána*, Post Office, a small *sarái* and a Dák Bungalow. A *jand* tree in the middle of the main *bázár* is still shown as the boundary mark between the Khairpur State and Baháwalpur territory about a century ago. The people of Kot Sabzal and its suburbs speak

1756 A. D.

History.

CHAP. IV. both the Baháwalpurí and Sindhí dialects. The latter dialect is
Places of also called *Seráiki*.
interest.

KOT SAMÁBA.

Kot Samába was built by Samába Khán Pirjáni, son of Alf Murád Khán, in 1754 A. D. The town had originally a fortified wall which is now in ruins. It is situated about a mile from the Railway Station of the same name; $28^{\circ} 35' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 21' E.$ The village of Kot Samába and some land adjoining it was held in *Jágir* by Punnú Khán Pirjáni, grandson of Samába Khán, but he revolted against Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán IV in 1864, upon which the *Jágir* was confiscated. Kot Samába has a considerable amount of trade, contains a public Vernacular School, a Police Station, and has a branch Post Office. Its population according to the local Census of 1906 (taken under the order of H. H. the Nawáb) was 1,269 souls, mostly Hindús.

LIYARA.

In 1195 H. Sabzal Khán, the founder of Kot Sabzal, built a fort with a *pakka* wall round it on the ruins of Liyára. In 1220 H. a flood from the Indus demolished Sáhíbgarh and extended to Liyára, which, though on high ground, suffered badly. At present only fragments of the wall remain, and the place is uninhabited. It lies 130 miles south-west of Baháwalpur.

MAROT.

The fort of Marot lies on the southern bank of the Hakra, in $29^{\circ} 10' N.$ and $72^{\circ} 28' E.$ It is built of mud and is of considerable antiquity. On a brick at its entrance is an inscription in Hindí, which runs:—*Sambat 1548 Birkhí Poh Sudí 2, Marot pathá Malik Jám Súmrá kot Páki khel phirát.* This shows that it was once in possession of Jám Súmrá, who repaired it in 1491 A. D. Inside the fort is the mosque of Sháh-i-Mardán and on a stone in the wall of the mosque is a Persian inscription which reads:—“*Biná shud in masjid-i-mubáarak dar daur-i-Jalál-ud-Dín Muhammad Akbar Bádsháh Gházi, Sultán Gházi, Sháh Mahmúd-ul-Mulk, Hákim Muhammad Táhir, Ahl-i-Farmáish Sayyid Nasrulláh 976 H. tamám shud dar máh-i-Zilhijj 976 Hijri tamám shud.*” “This mosque was erected in the reign of Jalál-ud-Dín Muhammad Akbar by Muhammad Táhir, the ruler, at the instance of Sayyid Nasrulláh, in the month of Zilhijj 976 H.” Possibly the founder of Marot was Mahrút, the ruler of Chittor, who fought with Chach, the usurper. It lay on the ancient road from Multán to Delhi via Sarsutí (Sirsa) and Hání and thus was visited by the historian Minháj-ud-Dín in 648 H. (1250 A. D.) It was conquered by Nawáb Mubáarak Khán from the Rájá of Jaisalmer in 1749. There is a story that the commandant of Marot, having been dismissed for malpractices, petitioned Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III to be reinstated in the charge, with the words “Yá

maut yá Marot," meaning "Either death or Marot." This attempt at a pun pleased the Nawáb so much that he at once granted his request.

CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

Masson in his journeys in Afghánistán and the Punjab writes of Marot thus:—

"Murút (Marot) is a town of importance, as regards its trade in grain, but of little as to its aspect. It is surrounded with mud walls of considerable extent, and strengthened by numerous towers. It is the station of a regiment with six guns."⁽¹⁾

MAUJGARH.

This fort was founded in 1157 H. by Wadera Marúf Khán Kehrání, and his sons Ján Muhammad Khán, Azmat Khán, and Hamza Khán, on the ruins of a ruined town called Lodhra. It was only half built when the Wadera died on the 15th of Rabí-ul-Awwal 1171 H. He had, during his life-time, built a tomb about 400 yards to the south of the fort, and in this he was buried. Ján Muhammad continued the building of the fort, distinguishing the new work from the old by inserting two lines of projecting bricks in the walls. It was not quite finished when he died, and his successor Umar Khán completed it, but died immediately afterwards. Marúf Khán II now succeeded to the chieftainship and, on his dying childless, Khudá Bakhsh Khán, son of Núr Muhammad Khán (third son of Marúf Khán Wadera) held it. A door which forms the interior gateway of the main portico, has several iron plates fixed on it on one of which is the following inscription:—*Málik Wadera Ján Muhammad Khán wa Muhammad Marúf Khán Dáúdpotra Kehrání. In Darwáza sákht kardá Musamma Srí Rám áhangar dar máh-i-Shawwál, 1212 H.* "Wadera Ján Muhammad Khán and Muhammad Marúf Khán are masters. This door was made by Srí Rám, iron-smith, in the month of Shawwál, 1212 H."

1743 A. D.

1757 A. D.

1769 A. D.

Elphinstone writes thus of Maujgarh:—

"We descried the high walls and towers of Maujgarh, with a conspicuous mosque, which stands over the gateway, and a tomb with a cupola ornamented with painted tiles, resembling, as I was told, the tombs of Imám zádahs in Persia. We arrived a little after dark, and encamped near the fort, which is small and weak. We remained here two days."⁽²⁾

Masson in his journeys in Afghánistán, etc., writes of Maujgarh as follows:—

"Mozgarh (Maujgarh) is not so large a town as Murút (Marot), but its contiguous fortress is a lofty structure, built of kiln-burnt bricks, on the western face the walls have been perforated with cannon balls, which we are told, happened in the siege it endured from the first Baháwal Khán. The apertures have never been repaired, being supposed evidences of the obstinacy of the defence and of the strength of the fortress. They, however, show its weakness, for they enable us to detect the slightness of the walls. East of the fort is a pool of water, shaded by a grove of trees, amongst which is a

(1) Vol. I, page 24

| (2) Cabul, Vol. I, page 21.

CHAP. IV. huge *pīpal* an object of veneration to the Hindús of the town. At a slight distance to the north is a Muhammadan tomb, handsomely decorated with lacquered blue and white tiles." (1)

Places of interest.

MAU MUBARAK.

✓ Six miles north of Rahímýár Khán Station lies the ancient fortress called Mau Mubarak, one of the 6 fortresses of Rái Sihásí II (28° 35' N. and 70° 24' E). The ruins of 20 bastions and towers can be traced, and one of the former still stands 50 feet high. The ramparts are about 600 yards in circumference and the walls very strongly and thickly built. According to the *Tárikh-i-Murád* the fort was built by Rái Hans Karor as a residence for his mother, whence the name, Mau. The fort was taken by Sháh Husain Arghún in 1525 (see Chap. I). The place is now a mere village with some 300 houses, built on a commanding height. There is a very old Hindú *Dwára* or *Thákar Dwára* at Mau, in which brazen images of Rámchanderjí, Lakshmanjí, Sitájí, Krishnjí or Káhn, and of the *gopís* or female companions of Káhn are kept. For the shrine of Shaikh Hákim see Chap. I., Religion.

1525 A. D.

MINCHINABAD.

✓ Minchinábád lies in 30° 10' N. and 73° 37' E., about a mile north of its Railway Station on the Southern Punjab Railway. It was built in 1867-70 and was named after Colonel Minchin, Political Agent. It is the head-quarters town of the Nizámat and Tahsíl to which it gives its name.

It is built in European style, with two main *bázárs* intersecting each other at right angles, and with straight lanes parallel to one another. The houses are both *pakka* and *kachcha*. Only one *bázár* is metalled. The principal gates are:—the Bíkánéri to the south; Baháwalpurí to the west; Lahorí to the north; and Delhi to the east. The chief building is the Daulat Khána or lodge for the Nawáb's accommodation. The town possesses two gardens, the Sarkarí and that of Seth Murlídhár. It contains a large saltpetre factory, and is the head-quarters of a Názim, and has also the following Courts and Institutions: viz., District Judge's Court, Tahsíl, Police Station, Munsif's Court, Civil Dispensary, Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, Post Office, and Settlement Office. The Daulat Khána, the rest-house for the Nawáb when on tour, is a spacious building constructed in 1882-83 at a cost of over Rs. 35,000. Minchinábád is a large grain market and exports grain in hundreds of thousands of maunds annually. The Municipality consists of 12 nominated members, 6 Hindús and 6 Muhammadans, with the Tahsildár and Naib Tahsildár as President and Vice-President, respectively. A Hospital Assistant supervises the conservancy arrangements. The income for the last 9 years is

given in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure for 1903-04 were:—

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

Income.				Rs.	Expenditure.				Rs.
Octroi	5,655	Staff	120
Other sources	481	Police	499
					Conservancy	721
					Dispensary	1,073
					Lighting and miscellaneous	97
					Municipal works	438
Total	...			6,136	Total	...			2,948

MIRGARH.

1799 A. D.

In 1214 H. Núr Muhammad Khán, son of Jám Khán, founded this fort and completed it in 1218 H. (1802 A. D.). The exterior is *pakka*. It has seven towers and a main gateway, with a *pakka* rampart. The gateway has two doors, the outer protected by sheet-iron, iron-plate and huge spikes, while the inner door is of wood. The gateway is in fair preservation, but the houses inside the fort have fallen down. On the door of a ruined house the following verses were deciphered in 1874:—

Nigāhe baro lutf-i-yazdānī ast, Digar Sáya-i-Sháh-i-Jilānī ast;
Qila' Mírgarh zo binde girift, Ki har kas badádan sanāe girift; Shawād
Gāus-i-azam nigāhbán-i-ú, Badúndesh khwār-o-pareshán-i-ú. "On this (building) God looks with mercy; it is also under the shelter of the Jilānī. The fort of Mírgarh has therefore been built, and is praised by all who see it. May the great Pír be its protector, and its enemies always in disgrace and sorrow." This shows that its founder was a disciple of the Gilānī Makhdúms of Uch. In the fort was a *pakka* well of sweet water, now filled up. Outside it nine wells have been sunk by the people, of which only six contain sweet water.

MUBARAKPUR.

1757 A. D.

In 1174 H. Nawáb Mubarak Khán built, in the vicinity of Shahr Faríd a fort, which he named Mubarakpur. Its walls are of mud. At the main entrance, towards the north, is a bungalow and other *kachcha* buildings. The fort was built to overawe the Lakhwerás, and other Joya clans in the Ubha. Nawáb Baháwal Khán II placed in it a large gun which continued to be seen on the southern tower till 1880, and was thence removed to the cantonment lines in Baháwalpur. On it the following words are engraved. *Sarkár-i-Rukn-ud-Daula Nusrat-i-Jang Saif-ud-Daula Muhammad Baháwal Khán Bahádur Abbási* 1217, *Hijri*. The fort is now quite deserted, but is in fair preservation.

CHAP. IV.

Places of
interest.

1777 A. D.

MUCHKÍ.

Muchkí was built on the ruins of an old mound in 1191 H. by Lál Khán, son of Ikhtiyár Khán Kehrání. The buildings inside the fort were of mud bricks and are now in ruins, and only the outer walls exist. It lies Seventy-eight miles south-west of Baháwalpur.

MUNDE SHAHÍD.

Munde Shahíd is a ruined fort of great antiquity near Ahmadpur East and contains a *naugaja* tomb⁽¹⁾. According to General Cunningham these *naugaja* tombs are remains of recumbent statues of Buddha after his attainment of Nirwána, and as Buddha was believed to have died with his face to the east all the *Nirwána* statues are placed from north to south; and since Muhammadans used them as ready made graves for their leaders who fell in battle. "Munde Shahíd is," says Colonel Minchin "the resting place of one of the Arab leaders". There are several *naugaja* tombs scattered along the edge of the sandhills which may be regarded as one of the proofs that Buddhism was the prevailing religion in Upper Sindh at the time of the Arab conquest.

MURÍDWALA.

1777 A. D.

The Murídwála fort was founded by Hájí Khán, son of Ikhtiyár Khán in 1191 H. It is eighty miles south-west of Baháwalpur, but was destroyed by an inundation, in 1805, and is now only a ruined mound.

NAUSHAHRA (see RAHIMYAR KHAN).

PATTAN MUNARA.

Pattan Munára, or Pattan, also known as Fattan, or Pattanpur, lies five miles east of Rahímýár Khán Railway Station, on the eastern bank of the old bed of the Indus, locally known as the Sej (in 28° 15' N. and 70° 22' E.) and is one of the most extensive ruins in the State. The only piece of ancient architecture in the midst of these ruins is a tower which stood in the centre of four similar but smaller towers all forming a Buddhist monastery. The four towers which were joined to the central tower at its upper storey existed in a dilapidated condition as late as the beginning of the 18th century, when they were pulled down by Fazl Alí Khán Halání and their bricks and stones utilized in making the new fortifications at Díngharh, Sáhibgarh and Bhágla. At present only one storey of the tower is standing; but tradition asserts that it

(1) The best known *naugaja* tombs in the State are those of Wer Shahíd, at Marot and Ahmad Sher, at Maikhi, both in Khairpur Tahsil, and that of Adam Sihába in Noushahra Tahsil.

had three storeys. No one can say when the upper storeys fell down but the second storey was pulled down by Bahādur Khān Halānī in 1740 A.D., and a brick was discovered which bore an inscription in Sanskrit⁽¹⁾ showing that the monastery was erected in the time of Alexander the Great. Colonel Minchin had the mounds close to the tower excavated in 1870, but nothing rewarded his exertions. In the course of the excavations the labourers came upon some putrid semi-liquid matter over which swarmed flies of a large size and peculiar colour. The deadly smell of the decayed matter and the venomous sting of the flies caused the instantaneous death of several coolies. The ruins extend over several miles, and no attempt has since been made to excavate them. Round Pattan Munāra there are other ruined mounds, viz., those of—Khokhār, which is five miles, Bhandār, four miles, and Darwāza, five miles to the east of the Pattan ruins; and of Bindor, three miles to the west of them. Tradition asserts that the city in the days of its prosperity extended over a hundred square miles, that the above named mounds are part of one and the same city, that Bhandār was a vast building for storing the grain collected from the subjects of the Rāja of Pattan, that Darwāza was the main entrance to the city, and that Bindor was the central jail of the Pattan kingdom. The etymology of Khokhār is unknown, and there is no tradition about it. Nothing is known about the original name of this important place, and no Muhammadan historian appears to mention Pattan in his works. Hence it appears that it must have been depopulated and ruined long before their arrival. Pattan indeed appears to be a modern name, but nothing can be adduced to show the time when it began to be so called. Colonel Tod mentions Pattan in his annals of Jaisalmer where the names of the "Prince of Pattan", "Princess of Pattan", etc., occur⁽²⁾ but he does not give the correct site of the place. Evidently the Pattan of Colonel Tod could only be the Pattan (Munāra) which appears to have been the capital of a principality in Sambat 1100 (10th century A. D.). In the 10th century Pattan was rebuilt by the Sūmras, whose capital it remained for a long time. The last chief of the dynasty was Hamīr Sūmra who was deposed by the Sammas. The branch of the Sūmras settled here is said to have joined the Biloches, now called the Gurchānī section, and is settled at Harrand in the Dera Ghāzī Khān District. The legend runs that Goresh Sūmra lost his way out hunting and was found in the last stage of exhaustion by a party of Biloches who carried him to their encampment, where they employed a young woman to nurse him. On his recovery he married her, was admitted into her tribe, and being joined by all his brethren founded the Gurchānī section of the Biloch tribe. Another legend accounting for the voluntary exile of the Sūmras is given by the

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1740 A. D.

(1) See further details in Part B., Chapter I.

(2) See description of Derawar

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Tárikh-i-Murád. When Hamír Súmra flourished at Pattan, the country was split up into petty principalities quite independent of and often at war with one another; and the chief of Phul Wadda, (now Naushahra or Rahím-yár Khán) was one Lákha, son of Phul who was famous for his generosity to the bards. Lákha gave some horses as a gift to a Cháran called Swámí. These were stolen at Pattan, where the bard halted on his way home, by some Súmra youths. The Cháran knowing that the theft was committed with the connivance of Hamír and his Wazír, composed a quatrain which spread far and wide in the country. The lines were:—*Dharí Dhúrá Ráe jainh Cháran sankhyá, Pattan patij thio Sej Watáyo sáh, Hamíra púrá ráj na kondá Súmra.* "Cursed be Dhúrá Ráe who robbed a Cháran, may Pattan fall down and the Sej change its course. May Hamíra Súmra not be spared to reign to a full old age." The dishonour to which this verse subjected the Súmras was so unbearable that they left Pattan for the Bilochistán hills and are now called the Gurchánís. Pattan was also called Pattanpur as is shown by a few *sunads* of the time of Akbar in the possession of people in its neighbourhood; but in the Aín-i-Akbarí Pattan is nowhere mentioned as a place except in the Sarkár of Siwistán, which may or may not be this same Pattan. There is a tradition that Mahmúd of Ghazní passed by Pattan on his way to Somnáth, that he proceeded thence to the south-west by a branch of the Hakra, which was flowing in those days, and that his cavalry was so numerous that while the horses in the van could get grass to eat those in the rear had to subsist on the dung of those in front.

The Hindú Rájas and chiefs of Sindh, Bíkāner and Jaisalmer used to visit the tower as late as the beginning of the 18th century and annually celebrated a *mela*, called the *Shivrātrí*, in the month of Mánggh. In those days the Sej received the overflow of the Indus and Pattan was an attractive place. There was a subterranean building with seven rooms (all, including the floor and roof, of stone) in the centre of which were two reservoirs, one of which was filled with milk and the other with water during this festival, and one Bábá Rattá or Hájí Rattá used to administer the sacred milk and water to the pilgrims. In the time of Nawáb Muhammad Baháwal Khán III (about 1840) a Jogí of the Ogur caste was in charge of this sacred building; he is said to have got himself buried in a heap of salt close to the subterranean chamber and thus ended his life. The disciple of the Jogí abjured old practices and placed a *ling* in the *marhí* (for so it was called). To this repaired barren Hindú women desirous of bearing children. The *ling* worship became so popular that Muslim women began also to visit the *marhí*. This excited the wrath of the orthodox Muslims who demolished the building and on its ruins built a mosque which is still standing. There is a proverb about Pattan

which runs thus:—*Jainh sänge Pattan gora thiā, Uho wich bi nān hái*: i.e., the woman who was the cause of the destruction of Pattan was not in it (when it was destroyed). No adequate explanation is adduced as to the origin of the proverb. "On removing the plaster from the walls inside the building", says Colonel Minchin, "I found some inscriptions in Sindhi character which proved to be an account of votive offerings to the temple made between the years A.D. 1559 and 1569. One of them was as follows:—*Anāj warkī lanī athī āmlanī hamāri āwe san rupye picche adh anna bhejūngā*, i. e., I have promised to send half an anna in the rupee on whatever profit I may make."

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1559 A. D.

PHULRA.

Phúlra is an ancient fort and is said to have existed long before the domination of the Víkas, the founders of Bikanér. In 1166 H. it was almost in ruins, but was repaired and strengthened by Karam Khán Arbání (son of Qáim Khán, the founder of Qáimpur). The exterior of the walls both within and without is made of *pakka* bricks, and the inner part is filled with mud. Near the western wall, inside the fort, is a *pakka* well, 118' deep and 4' in circumference, the water of which is sweet, a rare thing in the Cholistán. At each corner of the fort is a tower, with an inner chamber. The north-western tower is of burnt brick. In the south-eastern part of the fort is a three-storeyed house, whose upper storey forms a small bungalow. On the front of the bungalow are inscribed the words:—*Málik-i mahall Muhammad Akram Khán Dáúdputra dar shahr-i-Ramazán 1166 Hijri*, "Muhammad Akram Khan Dáúdputra master of the palace, in the month of Ramazán 1166 H." There are three wells outside the fort, well built of stucco and containing sweet water. Regarding Marot, Phúlra and Maujgarh "Masson says":—

1752 A. D.

Dáúdputra.

"The portion of desert stretching eastward of Bahawalpur to Bikanir is of course but little productive, yet, as in many parts of it the surface has more soil than sand, there are amongst other inhabited localities, the bazar towns of Phulra, Marot, and Mozgarh which drive a considerable trade in grain with the neighbouring states." . . . "Pularah (Phulra), on the frontier of Bikanir, has a good bazar, but is not perhaps very commercial. The fortress adjacent has been a superior building, for these parts, but is now sadly in decay. There was once a good trench; the walls are very high, and the battlements are tastefully decorated. The Killedar's house soars above the ramparts, and the whole has an antique and picturesque appearance, particularly from the northern side, where the walls are washed by a large expanse of water, in which is a small island studded with trees. There are three guns at Pularah."¹

Colonel Tod says, "Phulra and Marot have still some importance, the first is very ancient, and enumerated amongst the '*Nokoti Marooka*'" in the earliest periods of Prámara (vulg. *Powár*) dominion. I have no doubt that inscriptions in the ornamental nail-headed character belonging to the

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Jains will be found here, having obtained one from *Lodora*⁽¹⁾ in the desert, which has been a ruin for nine centuries. Phulra was the residence of Lákha Phoolni, a name well-known to those versed in the old traditions of the desert. He was contemporary with Sid Ráe of Anhulwara, and Udyadit of Dhar."⁽²⁾

PIR KHALIS.

1398 A. D.

The village of Pír Khális is very ancient, and is interesting as being the place where Tímúr Sháh (Tamerlane) halted after crossing the Sutlej in A.D. 1398, on his way to Bhatner, and marks the spot where the Sutlej was flowing at that date. For the Pír Khális shrine see Chapter I, Section C.

QAIMPUR.

1747 A. D.

Qáimpur lies 10 miles from Khairpur, on the high road to Hásilpur and Shahr Faríd, in 29°41' N. and 72°28' E. Founded in 1747 by Qáim Khán Arbání, and first called Qáim-Ráis-dí-Goth, it has lost its former importance and the number of houses has greatly diminished in the last 40 years. Qáim Khán built a fine Juma mosque, which still stands, and a fort, once of great strength but now deserted and in ruins. No lineal descendant from Qáim Khán is now living at Qáimpur, and his collateral descendants who are few in number and in straitened circumstances, live by agriculture. During the time of Nawáb Baháwal Khán III, many capitalists lived at Qáimpur, but none are now to be found there. The municipality was constituted in 1902 and its income and expenditure is shown in Table 46 of Part B. The number of the members is eight with the Tahsildár of Khairpur as president.

RAHIMYAR KHAN (OR NAUSHAHRA).

1751 A. D.

Naushahra lies on a mound, about 400 yards south of the Rahímýár Khán station on the North-Western Railway (70°22' E. and 28°15' N.). Naushahra (lit. new town) was built in 1751 by Fazal Ali Khán Halání on the ruins of the ancient Phul Wadda, the capital of Phul and his son Lákha during the Súmra supremacy in Sind. In 1881 the Railway authorities desired to alter the name of the Station as Naushahra was also the name of a Station in the Pesháwar District, and so Nawáb Sir Sádiq Muhammad Khán named it Rahímýár Khán after his first son (who died in 1883). Thenceforward the Railway Station and Post-office were designated Rahímýár Khán, but this is merely the official name of the town, and it is always called Naushahra by the people. Of late the head-quarters of the Khánpur Nizámat have also been removed to Naushahra. The houses are both *kachcha* and *pakka*. The main *bázár* traverses the town from east to west, and is intersected at right angles by another from north to south. A third, called the *nawán* (new) *bázár*, runs parallel to the first and presents a fine vista but is not much frequented. The streets are all unmetalled.

(1) Now Manjgarh.

(2) Rajasthan, Volume II, page 72.

The water of the town wells is brackish and hence the water-supply is obtained from wells outside the town. There is no drainage system, but the position of the town renders one unnecessary. The municipal committee consists of eight nominated members, four Hindús and four Muhammadans, with the Tahsildár and Náib Tahsildár as president and vice-president, respectively. The head-master and the hospital assistant are *ex-officio* members. The income for the last nine years is shown in Table 46 of Part B. The income and expenditure in 1903-04 were :—

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interest.

Income.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
Octroi	2,885	Municipal staff	910
Other Sources	1,015	Police	415
		Conservancy	464
		Lighting	47
		Dispensary	813
		Public Works	82
		Miscellaneous	44
Total ...	3,910	Total ...	2,781

The principal institutions are an Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, Dispensary, Munsiff's Court, Tahsíl, *thána*, Post Office, a *sarái*, and a Dák Bungalow.

RAI-KA-TIBBA.

The late Colonel Minchin left on record the following account of Rái-ká-Tibba :—

"Near the town of Qáimpur I discovered the remains of an old ruined town, known as the Rái-ká-Tibba; on the top of the mound there is a large irregular shaped enclosure, surrounded with double walls, with huge masses of burnt clay to fill up the space between the walls, evidently at one time a place of immense strength. The interior is filled with calcined bones, both of animals and human beings, adults and children, which were identified by the bones left *in situ*, which, however, crumbled to pieces when separated from the mass. An excavation made through the centre of the enclosure, 30' x 20' feet, shewed that the mass of calcined bones was nine feet thick with a layer of charcoal below extending the whole breadth of the excavation for at least two feet in depth. The size of this pit, for so it must be regarded, shews an area of 5,400 cubic feet of calcined bones and charcoal in the portion excavated alone (a large area on both sides being equally filled with calcined bones) and precludes the idea of the enclosure being an ordinary place of cremation, and leaves little doubt that it was used for sacrificial purposes. The immense strength of the walls was evidently necessary to guard it from attack from without and at the same time prevent the possibility of the victims escaping from within. The place is so ancient that there is no tradition regarding its former occupants. It lies on the border of the desert on one side, and a deep depression in front shows that the Sutlej must have at one time flowed below it. To these circumstances its preservation is due. For many years I have sought a clue to its former possessors but without success but a perusal of General Cunningham and Professor Dawson's note on the Meds (page 530, Appendix, Sir H. Elliott's History of India, Volume I), has enabled me to identify it with this ancient race."

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Colonel Minchin then gives reasons for assuming that the remains were those of sacrificial victims, at too great length however to be quoted here.

RUNKPUR.

- 1776 A. D. This fort is in the Bahawalpur Nizamat and was built by Muhammad Maruf Khan Kehrani in 1190 H. It is made of clay,
1783 A. D. which when burnt produces an inferior sort of lime. In 1198 H. the Afghan caravans complained to Nawab Muhammad Bahawal Khan of being plundered by the officers of Umr Khan Marufani, the officer at the fort. The Nawab despatched Khuda Bakhsh Khan, son of Nur Muhammad Khan, who had deserted Umr Khan and sought refuge at Bahawalpur, with a body of soldiers to seize Runkpur, which he succeeded in doing; and the fort thereafter remained part of the Pirjani territory. It has four towers. The walls are in ruins, as are the mosque, stables, and houses, etc. Inside it was a *pakka* well, now filled up.

SAHIBGARH.

- 1777 A. D. This fort was built by Fazl Ali Khan Halani, the founder of Nausahra (Rahimyar Khan) in 1191 H. The exterior of the four walls and other buildings, inside the fort is *pakka*, and the interior
1805 A. D. *kachcha*. It was destroyed by Nawab Muhammad Bahawal Khan, II, (son-in-law of Fazal Ali Khan) in 1220 H. and the walls are in a dilapidated condition. Inside the fort is a dwelling-house of Kaure Khan, son of Khuda Yar Khan, now falling into ruins. Outside the fort, there is a depression which serves as a tank for the storage of rain-water, and in the rainy season many cattle breeders resort to it. It is 78 miles south-west of Bahawalpur.

SARDARGARH.

- 1763 A. D. Nawab Mubarak Khan took the *ilāqa* of Wallhar on lease from the Raja of Bikaner, in 1177, H. He soon began to construct a fort on the ruins of Wallhar fort, but Raja Gaj Singh of Bikaner, alarmed at the proposed fortifications, sent a force under Diwan Mool Chand Brahmia to recover the *ilāqa* from the Nawab. The latter sent Khair Muhammad Khan and Mehrul Khan Pirjani and Karam Khan Arbani with a large force to resist the Bikaneris. After a sanguinary fight the Bikaneris were repulsed and the fortress was subsequently completed. It was named Sardargarh, and the *ilāqa* was annexed to the Bahawalpur State. One well was sunk within the fortress and another outside it; but the waters of both are brackish. The boundary pillars of the Bikaner State are only $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from this place. In 1866, when the Agent was appointed, the fortress contained 3 guns, in one of which was engraved the words:—‘Maharaja Dhiraj
1740 A. D. Maharaja Siri Zorawar Singh Jio, Sambat 1797,’ which shows that that gun once belonged to the Bikaner State. The fortress is now deserted and the guns were brought to the capital many years ago.

SARWAHI.

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Places of
interest.

1525 A. D.

Sarwahi or Seorai lies six miles north-east of Kot Sabzal. It was one of the six forts repaired by Rāe Sihāsī in the sixth century A. D. It was destroyed by Shāh Husain Arghūn in 1525 A. D., and is now only a ruined mound. It was identified by General Cunningham with Sodrae or Sogdi of the Greek historians (see pp. 253-56, Ancient Geography of India, Vol. I). Mendra, the lover of Mūmil, who is said to have been a contemporary of Hamīr Sūmra of Pattan, was the chief of Seorai, which shows that the place was inhabited and formed the capital of a petty principality in those days. The mound has never been excavated for archaeological purposes, but "curious burnt clay balls, about the size of a man's head, have been found among the ruins, which are supposed to have been used as missiles."⁽¹⁾

For the Sarwahi shrines, see Chapter I Section C.

SHAHR-FARID.

Shahr-Farid lies on a mound about five miles south of the Sutlej and four miles north of the Chishtian Railway Station. The town is traversed by a single unpaved *bāzār* running from south to north. The streets are narrow, crooked and also unpaved. The water-supply is obtained from wells dug within and without the town. The principal buildings of interest are the Rangīl Mahal, Masjid Māī Sāhib, and Masjid Khānān. The Rangīl Mahal was built by Farid Khān II. In the time of Lal Khān, one of his successors, the Mahal caught fire and was badly damaged by the explosion of the gun-powder stored in one of the rooms. The Masjid-i-Khānān was begun by Salem Khān, father of Farid Khān I; but while under construction he was summoned to Delhi and in his absence the building was completed by Farid Khān II. The Māī Sāhibwālī Masjid was built by a childless lady of the Lakhwera family. It is said to have been a seat of learning and stood originally in the centre of the town, but it now lies in its unfrequented eastern corner. In 1893 the late Nawāb had it repaired at a cost of Rs. 3,200 and it is now in fair order. Shahr Farid also contains the shrine of Sha'kh Badr-ud-dīn Chishtī, a descendant of Bāwā Farid. This attracts many votaries, and is in charge of two ladies of the Chishtī family, which has no male heirs. Shahr Farid derives its name from Farid Khān, son of Salem Khān Lakhwera, and its history has been given under "Tribes and Leading Families" in Chapter I. Founded about the time of Aurangzeb it was first called Salemgarh, after Salem, a descendant of Lakhlo, but when the Lakhweras revolted against the governor of Multān, it was demolished, though its site was again chosen, as that of the new Shahr Farid of Farid II. The town contains a Police Station, Post Office and School and has a good Dāk Bungalow. It is specially noted for its *lungīs*, *salārīs*, *khes* and *dohars*, made by the Bhākhrīs. These are exported to Bīkāner State and Multān, Montgomery and Ferozepur Districts.

(1) Ross' Land of the Five Rivers and Sindh, p. 77.

✓ CHAP. IV.

Places of interest.

SUI VIHAR.

Suí Vihár lies sixteen miles south-west of Baháwalpur. There is a tower there the present height of which is about forty-five feet, twenty feet above the surface of the earth and the rest buried in a mound, but it is said that several years ago its upper portion, about eight feet in height fell down from the effects of an earthquake. The ruin represents the remains of a compartment about eight feet square. The tower is a strong one and is built of large bricks 5×2 feet each. The compartment had a floor made of the same bricks as are used in the building. In the centre of the tower there was a narrow masonry shaft leading to a small recess in which were found a copper plate, a few coins and fragments of oxidized iron. The copper plate bore the following inscription in Bactrian Pálí characters:—*Mahárájá Rájáo Bájí Dalo Tapodá Kanishká samut, ser akádasi sim 11 di sassá, masossá diwási otáwisti 28, antor osi bichhá Naga Dattasá sekhá, bhátsá achi yádmá tájá sashá achar-yá, bhád pá zashsattá yánan aro phátá abád hhini, dhára tajhanno opáská bálá nandi wahja, hano bálá jáyá matá já amám yati, par bhánptá, deto piri varam dá dá darám súdsátanan, hirá sekhi délat*; meaning:—"On the 28th day of the month of Sasios in the 11th year of the Great King, the supreme King of Kings, the son of gods, Kánishká; on the said day to the mendicant Naga Datta, learned in the *Sankhya* philosophy, the disciple of Acharya Damatrata the disciple of the disciple of the Acharya Bhawa putting up his staff (or pillar); here the owner of the Damana Vihára, a female lay devotee Bála Nandí who is much given to penances, and Bálájaya her mother, give a shrine for the staff and the customary accessories. May it be for the health and wealth of all beings." (See Proceedings, Asiatic Society of Bengal, No. VIII., August 1881).

A. D. 89.

TAJGARH.

✓ Tajgarh is situated about four miles to the north-west of Rahím-yár Khán Railway Station on a high mound. Its name was Hurár in the 10th century A. D. when it was built by Rání Húrán, daughter of a Jaisalmer chief. Húrán was converted to Islám by a saint called Sayyid Ahmád Billaurí. It remained a fortified place for a long time under the Summa and Súmra kings of Sindh and the Bhátia chiefs of Jaisalmer, but towards the close of the 18th century it was a desolate mound and on this site Fazal Alí Khán Halání (see page 122) founded a new town and called it Tajgarh after his brother Táj Muhamád Khán (about 1780 A.D.). Although founded by the Dáúdpotras the place does not now contain a single house of members of that tribe. The residents are mostly Kirárs and number 526 (Local Census for 1906). The place is only noted for its antiquity.

TIBBA JAJJAL.

✓ Close to Jajjal Sérhá village, which is about eight miles south of Hásil Sérhá is a large mound called "Tibba Jajjal." It is believed

that it was once a flourishing town and that below it ran the Sutlej, which now flows more than ten miles to the north. Tradition avers that the town was built by Rái Jajja Bhutta entirely of *pakka* masonry, a fact borne out by the large bricks found on digging below the surface of the mound. Here Rái Jajja had his hunting preserves, which he visited every year during the rainy season. Whenever rain falls the people of the neighbourhood unearth old copper and silver coins.

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interest.

TIRHARA. (see DINGARH).

UCH.

The following etymologies of the name are given:—(a) Once Rája Hodí ruled the country round Uch and built a town called Hod, which in course of time became Hoj, Hoch, and Uch.⁽¹⁾ This name takes us back to a very remote period. General Cunningham believes Rája Hodí to have been an Indo-Scythian, who commanded the Saka tribes at the battle of Kahrór, when the Indo-Scythians were defeated by the Bhattís under Saliváhana, and the conquerors to commemorate the event established the Saka era. According to the same authority Rája Hodí established himself at Siálkot after the Bháttís had left that locality. The old city at Uch must therefore have been deserted about A. D. 77. (b) Hodí had a governor named Chuch who dug earth from a tank called Rárfn Talá to the south of Uch to make a mound on which he founded a city which he named Chuch and which afterwards came to be known as Uch.⁽²⁾ (c) According to Músa Pák Shahíd, whose shrine is situated at Multán, and who was descended from Sayyid Muhammad Bandagí Ghaus, the founder of Uch Gilání, Uch was founded in 980 A. D. by Sayyid Safí-ud-Dín Haqqání, Gázrání, on the site of an old mound (Ucha or high) and which is still called Rája Hodí's mound.⁽³⁾ (d) The ancient name of Uch was Devgarh. In 1244 A. D. Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál-ud-Dín, Kechí Bukhárí, reached Uch, when its ruler Deo Singh fled to Márwár and Sundarpurí his daughter accepted Islám. The Sayyid appointed Sundarpurí ruler of the city in place of her father; and at the Sayyid's behest she founded a fort which on account of its height was called Ucha or Uch (high).⁽⁴⁾ (e) Possibly Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál-ud-Dín imported this name from Turkistan where Utch Kargan and Uch Utchak were, and still are, two important towns.⁽⁵⁾

Etymology.

In the Minháj-ul-Masálik, the Persian version of which is known as the Chach Náma, and which according to Sir Henry Elliot was compiled before 136 Hijra,⁽⁶⁾ Uch is mentioned as Askandra,

(1) Chronicles of the Bukhárí Makhdúms.

(2) Chronicles of the Gilání Makhdúms.

(3) Malfúzá, Músa Pák Shahíd.

(4) Jawáhir-Jalálí.

(5) Schuyler's Turkistan, Vol. I, I pages 310, 339, 340, 347, 351.

(6) Elliot's History of India, I, 136

CHAP. IV. Askalanda and Askanda, which tends to show that in the beginning of the 2nd century of the Hijra the name of the city was not Uch but Askandria (or Alexandria). The *Tuhfat-ul-Kirám*⁽¹⁾ gives it as Ashkand and Ashandah; Mirza Kálích Beg in his English translation of the *Chachnámá*⁽²⁾ reads it as Iskandah; and the *Tárikh-i-Masúmi*⁽³⁾ as Iskandar (which is exactly the Arabic and Persian form of Alexander); and McCrindle, Cunningham, and other authorities state that at the junction of the river Sindh with the Chenáb, Alexander the Great laid the foundation of Alexandria in the realm of the Sogdí (Sohdas) and that it is not improbable that Uch is the place to which we should look for the site of Alexandria.⁽⁴⁾ Askalanda and Askanda are corruptions of Askandria. In the *Jámi-ut-Tawárikh* the historian Rashíd-ud-Dín calls it Askalanda Ussah. This author flourished in the 7th century Hijra; and hence it is certain that the city was known as Ussah (or Uch) in those days, and that the author added Askalanda to Ussa as a distinctive name, which is an additional proof of the identity of Uch with Askandria. Rashíd-ud-Dín also mentions the city as one of the four principalities of Sindh under Ayand the son of Kafand, who reigned after Alexander.⁽⁵⁾

Uch as Bas-
mad.

In the *Masálik-wal-Mamálik* (also known as the *Ashkál-ul-bilád*), written by Ibn Haukal in 589 Hijra, Uch is called Basmad. This tends to show that the name of the city at that time was neither Askandria nor Uch, and that the etymology (c) is erroneous, for if in the 4th century of the Hijra the city had been named Uch by Sayyid Saif-ud-Dín Gázrání it is improbable that Ibn Haukal should have called it by quite a different name in the 6th century. Ibn Haukal thus describes it⁽⁶⁾:—

"Basmad is a small city situated like Multán and Chandráwar on the east of the river Mihrán. The river is at a distance of a *parasang* from each of these places. The inhabitants use well water for drinking. Basmad has a fort."

Uch as San-
dur.

In the 6th century of the Hijra (11th century A. D.) Abú-Abdulláh Muhammad-al-Idrísí wrote the *Nuzhat-ul-Masálik*, in which he gives the following account of Uch, which he calls Sandur:—"Sandur is situated three days' journey south of Multán. It is famous for its trade, wealth, sumptuous apparel, and the abundance which prevails on the tables of the inhabitants. It is considered to form part of India, and is situated on the banks of a river which falls into the Mihrán above Samand."⁽⁷⁾ Sandur appears to be an abbreviated form of Askandar and affords an additional proof that the city of Uch was Alexandria. Ibu Batuta of Tangiers,

(1) Vol. III, 20 (Persian Edition).

(2) Vol. I, 26-7.

(3) Manuscript History of Snidh by Mir Masúm Sháh, written in 1583 A. D.

(4) McCrindle's *Invasion of India*, page 156.

(5) Cunningham's *Ancient Geography*. Vol. I, page 243 also compare Postans, J. A. S. B., 1838, page 94.

(6) Elliot, Vol. I, page 37.

(7) Elliot's *Al-Idrísí*, Vol. I, page 83.

a contemporary of Sayyid Jalál-ud-Din describes Uj (Uch) in his Travels thus :—

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"Leaving Bhakkar we reached Uj, which is situated on the Indus. It is a large city with fine streets and buildings. Its ruler is the learned Sayyid Jalál-ud-Din Keji,⁽¹⁾ so well known for his magnanimity and hospitality. I made friends with the ruler and lived much in his company. We both met at Delhi also. The Emperor went to Daulatábád and Sayyid Jalál-ud-Din accompanied him. He permitted me to collect the village revenues in his absence in case of need. I collected and expended about 5,000 dinars. Sayyid Jalál-ud-Din Haidrí Ulaví, one of the most pious of saints, gave me his Khirka (saintly sheet), which was stolen by Hindú pirates on the sea."

Pírzáda Muhammad Husain identifies Sayyid Jalál-ud-Din with the Makhdúm-i-Jahániyán, grandson of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál.⁽²⁾

Sir Henry Elliot (pages 866-67, Volume I) thus describes Uch :—

"The ancient kingdom of Sindh was divided into four satrapies, of which the third comprised the fort Askalanda and Maibar, which are also called *Tahwara and Chachpur*. . . . Its proximity to the Bias and its name of Askalanda-Usa lead us to regard it as the Uch of more modern times. That place bears marks of the most undoubted antiquity, and the absence of all mention of it in the Chachnámá, where we are, both in the time of Chach and Muhammad Kasim, introduced to many transactions in its neighbourhood, can only be accounted for on the supposition that it is disguised under some other appellation.

"It has been supposed indeed that the name of the Oxydracæ is derived from this old town of Uch, but their position, according to Strabo and Arrain, appears rather to have been on the western side of the Acesines, and it is a curious coincidence that, in that direction also, there is another ancient Uch now in ruins, near the junction of the Hydaspes with that river, which offers a far more probable identification and allows us moreover to assign to the Osaddii instead of the Oxydracæ, the Uch or Askalanda-Usa near the junction of the Hyphasis with the Acesines. The name of the Oxydracæ assumes various forms in different authors :—Hydracæ in Strabo, Syracousæ in Diodorus, Scydroi, Scythroi and Scythroi in Dionysius, Sydraci in Pliny, Sygambri in Justin, and Oxydracæ in Strabo, Arrian, Curtius, Stephanns, and others. . . . Nevertheless, although Alexander may himself have raised no city there, we might still be disposed to admit that the celebrity of his power and conquests may have given rise to the name of Askalanda or Askandra. . . ."

The author of the Chachnámá was a native of Uch, yet he does not say it was ever called Askand or Asal-kanda. He says that Muhammad ibn Qasim⁽³⁾ marched from Aror towards Multán until he reached the fort of Bábizah (Bhátíáh or Uch) then on the south or left bank of the Biás (and at that time according to Mír Másúm of Bhakkar called Chachpur). The place surrendered and leaving in it a garrison Muhammad crossed the Biás and appeared

Uch as
Bhátíáh.

(1) Ibn Batúta, Vol. II, page 19.

(2) Urdu Translation, Vol. II.

(3) J. A. S. B. 1892, pp. 261-62.

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before Askand, Askandara or Asatkanda, anciently called according to Mír Māsúm, Talwára. This place then was quite distinct from Uch.

- It is said that Muhammad of Ghor delivered Multán from the Karámita and then invested the Bhátias in Uch. We know that the Bhátí stronghold was Uch; they apparently obtained possession of it before the time of Máhmúd of Ghazní. As regards that ruler's capture of Uch the Gardezi, a contemporary historian, says that the Sultán attacked the fortress of the Bhátias in 396 H., and that Bajhrá the Bhátia, who killed himself when his troops were surrounded, was its ruler. Bú-^híhán, however, speaks of Bhátí as midway between Multán and Aror—which Uch is not. Under Muhammad of Ghor Násir-ud-Dín-i-Aetamur, one of his bravest leaders, was feudatory of Uch, and on his death Násir-ud-Dín Qabájah became its holder. He held it at the time of Qatb-ud-Dín's death and was subsequently ousted from it by Táj-ud-Dín Yaldúz, but recovered it after the defeat of the latter by Iyaltimsh. Qabájah was however defeated by Jalál-ud-Dín, the Khwárazmí (1221 A. D.) and Uch was burnt by him (1223 A. D.). Iyaltimsh five years later wrested Multán and Uch from Qabájah and conferred the latter with its dependencies on Taj-ud-Dín Sanjar-i-Gazjak Khán. At this period Uch was a centre of Muhammadan learning for in 1227 or 1228 Minuj-ud-Dín, the Persian historian, was made by Qabájah chief of the Fírúzi College at Uch. Saif-ud-Dín Ibak-i-Uchchah succeeded Taj-ud-Dín and was governor of Uch when Iyaltimsh died. He defeated the inroad under Hasan the Qárlagh in 1236-37. Malik Muayyid-ud-Dín, Hindú Khán, then obtained the fief from Sultán Raziyyah and the Malik Izz-ud-Dín Kabír, Khán-i-Ayáz, was made to exchange the fief of Lahore for that of Multán in consequence of his revolt in 1258. He took the opportunity of the Mughal capture of Lahore to assume independence and seized Uch and its dependencies (1241 A. D.), and when he died, in the same year, his son Táj-ud-Dín Abú Bakr-i-Ayáz succeeded him. He kept the Qárlaghs at bay, but shortly afterwards died, and Uch fell into the hands of a slave of his father's who gallantly defended it against a Mughal siege until relieved by an army from Delhi under Ghiás-ud-Dín Balban. Malik Izz-ud-Dín Balban-i-Kashlú Khán then became feudatory of Uch. Though he defeated the Qárlaghs near Multán, he was compelled to surrender it to them and retire to Uch, whence he advanced again to recover Multán from Sher Khan's deputy (1250). He was however unable to hold it, and again retreated to Uch.

When Humayún, after his defeat by Sher Sháh Súrí, came to Uch, Bakhshoi Khán Langáh was its governor on behalf of Sháh Husain Arghún. About 400 yards from Uch Bukhári is a well which is still pointed out as the place where Humáyún stayed.

Bakhshof Khán treated Humáyún with great harshness and the ex-emperor was compelled to set out for Deráwar. In Akbar's reign Uch was permanently annexed to the Delhi Kingdom and till the invasion of Nádir Sháh it remained an appanage of Multán. In the Aín-i-Akbarí its cultivated⁽¹⁾ area and revenue are given as below :—

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Areas in bighas.	Revenue in dáms.	Cavalry.	Foot.
290,506	1,10,140	100	400

Uch is seven miles to the north of Channigoth Railway Station, and 12 miles from Ahmadpur, in $71^{\circ} 7' 30''$ E. and $29^{\circ} 16'$ N. Its elevation above sea level is 327 feet. These are really three towns, viz: Uch Bukhári, Uch Gílání, and Uch Moghla. Uch Bukhári is a large town and its buildings are almost all of burnt bricks. It is the residence of the Bukhári Makhdúms. 300 yards from it is Uch Gílání, which was founded by Muhammad Bandagí Ghaus. Uch Moghla was so named because the Moghal officials collected *batái* and dwelt there and for the former reason it is also called Uch Munassila. Barnes⁽²⁾ also states that Uch is formed of three distinct towns, a few hundred yards apart from each other, and each encompassed by a brick wall, now in ruins. Mirza Mughal Beg, Wilford's Surveyor, who surveyed the country about Uch in 1787-88, mentions Uch as "consisting of seven distinct villages."⁽³⁾ Colonel Minchin says that in the time of Jalál-ud-Dín Khilji it used to be a colony of infidel Moghals who embraced Islám.

The following accounts are given by European travellers :—

Charles Masson wrote in 1827 :—

"Uch is, perhaps, the most ancient of the towns in the country. The name is borne by two towns contiguous to each other. One of them *Pir-ka-Uch* is bestowed on Pir Násir-ud-Dín, the spiritual adviser of the Khán. They have both good *bázars* and some commerce. Starting from Ghara, grain boats frequently descend from the two Uchs to Sindh. They are principally, however, distinguished by the ruins of the former towns, their predecessors, which are very extensive and attest the pristine prosperity of the locality."⁽⁴⁾

David Ross writes of Uch thus :—

"Down to the times of Taimur and Akbar the junction of the Chanab and Indus took place opposite Uch, sixty miles above the present confluence at Mithankot. It was unchanged when Rennel wrote his "Geography of India" in 1788, and still later in 1796 when visited by Wilford's Surveyor Mirza Mughal Beg.⁽⁵⁾ But early in the present century the Indus gradually changed its course and leaving the old channel twenty miles above Uch, flowed to the south-west, rejoining the former at Mithankot."⁽⁶⁾

(1) Aín-i-Akbarí, Vol. II, pp 163.

(2) Bokhara I, 79.

(3) Cunningham's Ancient Geography, I, 242.

(4) Travels, Vol. I, p. 22.

(5) Also compare Cunningham's Ancient Geography, Vol. I, p. 242.

(6) P. 79.

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According to the census of 1901 the population of Uch is 7,583. Further details will be found in Table 43. Its population consists in the main of Bukhári and Gílání Sayyids, Khojas, Langáhs and Kirárs (usually Aroras) who form the bulk of the population.

Shrines.

An account of the famous shrines has been given in the note on Muhammadan Shrines in Chap. I, Section G., pages 160—166. Below is given a description of the places not mentioned therein.

(1) Shrine of Bībī Jawindī:—Bībī Jawindī was a daughter of Sayyid Jalál, son of Sayyid Hámid, son of Sayyid Jalál, son of Sayyid Abú Bakr, son of Sayyid Mahmúd, son of Sayyid Ghiyás-ud-Dín, son of Shaikh Alfm-ud-Dín, son of Shaikh Mahmúd Násir-ud-Dín, son of Makhdúm-Jahánián. Bībī Jawindī was a very pious lady, highly respected by the people for her devotion to religion. She died in 805 Hijra (1403 A. D.). Her shrine was built in 900 Hijra (1494 A.D.). In 1233 Hijra the Chenáb cut down half of the dome as it did the dome of Sayyid Baháwal Halím, which lies quite close to it. The remaining half of the dome still exists with her tomb under it.

(2) Tomb of Sayyid Safi-ud-Dín Haqqání Gázrúní:—The tomb is enclosed by a wall. Sayyid Safi-ud-Dín Gázrúní was born in Gázrún (Persia) in 353 Hijra. He came to Uch in 370 and died in 398 Hijra. There are now at Uch only one or two members of the Gázrúní family which was once so illustrious there.

(3) In addition to the above there are also at Uch the following shrines and tombs:—

(1) Shrine of Sháh Abdul Jalíl, known as Chanchal Sháh Bukhári. (2) Shrine of Pír Munnán Masháikh. (3) Shrine of Sayyid Alá-ud-Dín Gardezí. (4) Shrine of Sayyid Muizzud-ud-Dín Gardezí. (5) Shrine of Sayyid Pír Fateh Daryá Bukhári. (6) Shrine of Shaikh Kabír. These six are each enclosed by walls without roofs. (7) Shrine of Wiláyat Sháh Jattí, under a small dome. (8) Shrine of Abú Hanífa. (9) Tomb of Faqír Jahángír Sarmast. (10) Tomb of Faqír Sultán Khar Pál. (11) Tomb of Faqír Salem Sudhár.

Sacred re-
lics.

Makhdúm Nau Bahár, Bukhári, *Sajáda Nashín* of Uch Bukhári, has the following relics in his possession:—

(1) Turban of the Prophet. (2) Sheet⁽¹⁾ of the Panj Tan (five members of the Prophet's family, i. e., the Prophet himself, Alí, Hasan, Husain and Fátima). (3) Cloak of the Prophet. (4) Samsám and Qamqám, i. e., swords of Hasan and Husain. (5) The Qorán written by Makhdúm-i-Jahánián himself. (6) Cap, beads, and scissors of Shaikh Abdul-Qádir Jílání. (7) Bairágan (a prop kept beneath the armpit when a person is in a state of

(1) This was the sheet with which the Prophet covered himself and his family and declared that they were pure and chosen people of God.

attempted communion with God). (8) Cloak of Makhdúm-i-Jaháníán. (9) Sheet of Salmán Fársí, a lover of the Prophet.

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An account is given of some of these relics in the note on Muhammadan Shrines in Chap. I, pages 160—166.

Besides the above both families have the portraits of the 12 Imáms, of Hasan, Husain, and the Prophet, and of a host of other Muhammadan saints, such as Khwája Muín-ud-Dín Chishti, Shaikh Abdul-Qádir Jílání, Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál, Bahá-ud-Dín Zakariya of Multán, Báwa Faríd Shakar Ganj, Lál Sháhábáz Qalandar, &c.

The *Sajjáda Nashíns* of Uch Bukhári and Gílání command much respect in the State and have the privilege of return visits from the rulers of Baháwalpur.

The Bukhári *Sajjáda Nashíns* or successors of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál have been:—

Successors of Sayyid Jalál.

- (1) Sayyid Ahmad Kabír, son of Sher Sháh Sayyid Jalál
- (2) Sayyid Jalál Makhdúm Jaháníyán. (3) Makhdúm Máhmúd Násir-ud-Dín. (4) Shaikh Hámid Kabír. (5) Makhdúm Shaikh Rukn-ud-Dín Abul Fateh. (6) Shaikh Muhammad Kímíya Nazar. (7) Shaikh Hámid Kabír *alias* Budha. (8) Muhammad Rájan Súdá Bhág. (9) Zaín-ul-Abidín. (10) Shaikh Hasan. (11) Shaikh Muhammad. (12) Shaikh Nau Bahár I. (13) Shaikh Hasan *alias* Ahan Maror. (14) Hámid Kabír. (15) Shaikh Rájú, *alias* Rajan Kalán. (16) Shaikh Máhmúd *alias* Máhmúd Násir-ud-Dín. (17) Shaikh Rájan *alias* Kanghí-wála. (18) Hámid Nau Bahár I. (19) Shaikh Muhammad Násir-ud-Dín. (20) Makhdúm Hámid Nau Bahár. (21) Makhdúm Máhmúd Násir-ud-Dín. (22) Hámid Muhammad Nau Bahár Shabíd. (23) Hámid Muhammad Nau Násir-ud-Dín. (24) Makhdúm Nau Bahár the present *Sajjáda Nashín*.

The *Sajjáda Nashíns* of Uch Gílání have been:—

- (1) Shaikh Abdul Qádir II, son of Hazrat Bandagí. (2) Shaikh Abdur-Razzáq. (3) Shaikh Hámid Ganj Bakhsh I. (4) Shaikh Abdul Qádir III. (5) Shaikh Muhammad Shams-ud-Dín II. (6) Shaikh Abdul Qádir IV. (7) Sayyid Muhammad II. (8) Sayyid Murtazá Ali. (9) Shaikh Abdul Qádir V. (10) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Ganj Bakhsh III. (11) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Ganj Bakhsh IV. (12) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Shams-ud-Dín III. (13) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Ganj Bakhsh V. (14) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Shams-ud-Dín IV. (15) Shaikh Hámid Muhammad Ganj Bakhsh VI. (16) Shaikh Shams-ud-Dín V, present *Sajjáda Nashín*.

Gílání Sajjáda Nashíns.

Uch Bukhári has two Hindu Temples, namely, (1) Khetar Pálj, and (2) Gopí Náthj.

Uch Mogla, also known as Jamálí, after Shaikh Jamál Darwesh Khojandí is famous for the shrines of the said Darwesh, who was tutor to Makhdúm-i-Jaháníán. Shaikh Jamál Darwesh was descended

Hindú Temples.

Jamál Darwesh.

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from Abú Huraira, the companion of the Prophet, thus:—
 Shaikh Jamál, son of Shaikh Hasan, son of Shaikh Abul Qásim
 Muhammad, son of Muhammad, son of Yahya, son of Hám, son of
 Idris, son of Buhlul, son of Qází Hamdún, son of Hárís, son of
 Abad, son of Hilál, son of Usmán, son of J'afar, son of Sulaimán,
 son of Abad, son of Zuhra, son of Huraira, son of Háshim, son of
 Abad Manáf. Shaikh Jamál died on 25th of Muharram 700 Hijra.

There are also the shrines of the following:—(1) Ganj Alam,
 son of Shaikh Jamál Darwesh, who was born in 667 Hijra and died
 in 770 Hijra. (2) Pir Hásham Qattál (an enclosure). (3) Sálím
 Sudhár Faqír (an enclosure).

WINJHROT.

1167 A.D.

The fort of Winjhrot or Bijnot was erected by one Rája
 Wínjha or Bija Bhátia according to Sayyid Murád Sháh, and it
 was demolished by Shaháb-ud-Dín Ghorí in 574 H.⁽¹⁾ But accord-
 ing to Col. Tod it was founded by Tunno, the father of Bijí Rái
 (the Bija of Murád Sháh) and grandfather of Deoráj, the founder
 of Deráwar. "Tunno having by the interposition of the goddess
 Beejasanni," says Col. Tod, "discovered a hidden treasure, erected
 a fortress, which he named Beejnote; and in this he placed a
 statue of the goddess, on the 13th, the enlightened part of the
 month Megsir, the Rohoui Nakshatra, S. 813 (A.D. 757)."⁽²⁾

757 A.D.

(1) Tarikh-i-Murad, I, p. 128 and III, p. 118.
 (2) Rajasthan, II, p. 189—90.

APPENDIX

MEASURES AND WEIGHTS.

In grain transactions and in dividing the produce of land various measures of capacity are used. In Baháwalpur and part of Ahmadpur Tahsils the following are in use:—

Weight in *mans*, *seers* and
chitáks according to the
Standard in British Territory.

					M. S. Ch.
1	<i>thúla</i>	0 0 3½
2	<i>thúlas</i> = 1 <i>túá</i>	0 0 6½
2	<i>túás</i> = 1 <i>paropí</i>	0 0 13
4	<i>paropís</i> = 1 <i>topa</i>	0 3 4
2	<i>topas</i> = 1 <i>dari</i>	0 6 8
2	<i>daris</i> = 1 <i>pái</i>	0 13 0
8	<i>páis</i> = 1 <i>toka</i>	2 24 0
6½	<i>tokas</i> = 1 <i>mání</i>	16 0 0
2	<i>mánís</i> = 1 <i>path</i>	32 0 0

In Khánpur *iláqa* the measures of capacity are—

					M. S. Ch.
1	<i>túá</i> or <i>thúla</i>	0 0 6
4	<i>túás</i> = 1 <i>paropí</i>	0 1 8
4	<i>paropís</i> = 1 <i>topa</i> or <i>dari</i>	0 6 0
4	<i>topas</i> = 1 <i>pái</i>	0 24 0
4	<i>páis</i> = 1 <i>choeth</i>	2 16 0
6½	<i>choeths</i> = 1 <i>mání</i> or <i>wák</i>	15 0 0
8	<i>choeths</i> = 1 <i>pakki mání</i>	19 8 0

Again in Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán *iláqa* the measures, though they bear nearly the same names, are quadruple the weight of those at Khánpur, thus: (1)

					M. S. Ch.
1	<i>thúla</i> or <i>túá</i>	0 1 8
4	<i>thúlas</i> = 1 <i>paropí</i>	0 6 0
4	<i>paropís</i> = 1 <i>topa</i>	0 24 0
4	<i>topas</i> = 1 <i>pái</i>	2 16 0
4	<i>páis</i> = 1 <i>choeth</i>	9 24 0
6½	<i>páis</i> = 1 <i>wák</i>	15 0 0

(1) The story goes that a woman went to live at Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán (only 6 miles from Khánpur, her home) where she went to a shopkeeper to purchase wheat for a rupee. She learnt with surprise that the rate was 12 *thúlas* per rupee, as she thought that she would only get 4½ *seers* of wheat, the *thúla* of Khánpur being equal to 6 *chitáks*. Angry at the abnormally high rate she went to the bázár to make further enquiries and to her astonishment she found everywhere the same rate. Bemoaning the impoverished state of the town she at last reluctantly asked the shopkeeper to give her what he pleased. The *thúla* of Garhí was 1½ *seers*, so she received as much wheat as she used to get at Khánpur. In her joy she exclaimed: *Lgh sun ke sarí: mán dekh ke tharí*: 'I was burning (with rage) on hearing the rates; but am cold (as ice) on seeing the quantity (of corn).' This saying is now used as a proverb to denote the difference of the sizes of the *thúlas* of the two towns.

In Allahábád and Khán Bela *iláqas* the measures are:—

					M. S. Ch.
1	<i>thúla</i>	0 0 5
4	<i>thúlas</i> = 1 <i>paropí</i>	0 1 4
4	<i>paropís</i> = 1 <i>topa</i>	0 5 0
4	<i>topas</i> = 1 <i>pái</i>	0 20 0
4	<i>páis</i> = 1 <i>choeth</i>	2 0 0
2	<i>choeths</i> = 1 <i>toka</i>	4 0 0
12½	<i>choeths</i> = 1 <i>mání</i>	25 0 0

In Kot Sabzal, Kot Samába and Ahmadpur Lamma the names of the measures generally are the same as in Khánpur and Garhí Ikhtiyár Khán; but they differ from them in size; in fact these variations are so many that even adjacent villages have *paropís* and *topas* of different sizes. In the Ubha (Minchinábád Nizámat) the measures are:—

					M. S. Ch.
1	<i>thúla</i> = ½ <i>paropí</i>	0 0 4
4	<i>thúlas</i> = 1 <i>paropí</i>	0 1 0
4	<i>paropís</i> = 1 <i>topa</i>	0 4 0
16	<i>topas</i> = 1 <i>man</i>	1 24 0
12½	<i>mans</i> = 1 <i>mání</i>	20 0 0

N. B.—It must be remembered that the equivalent in British Territory *maas sars* and *chitaks* in the above tables is for wheat only, not for other crops. Variations in weight in the case of different cereals are as follows:—

					S. Ch.
1	<i>topa</i> ⁽¹⁾ of wheat	= 4 0
1	" gram	= 3 12
1	" rice or <i>gawára</i>	= 4 4
1	" unhusked rice	= 3 0
1	" <i>til</i> (sesamum)	= 2 8
1	" <i>jowár</i> or <i>bájrá</i>	= 3 15
1	" <i>topa</i> of <i>chiná</i> or <i>kangní</i>	= 2 6

So many varieties of measures were prejudicial to the interests of the *samindárs* who suffered in their transactions with the *sáhuakárs*, so the use of uniform measures was decided upon, and the measures given in the subjoined table were ordered to be adopted in 1902:—

Name of measure.	Normal weight of measure.	WEIGHTS OF GRAINS IN SEE AND CHITAKS.									
		Wheat, mottar and gram.	Rice and mung.	Mash.	Jowár.	Barley.	Bájrá.	Makh.	Paddy.		
	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.	S. Ch.
Thúla	0 4	0 4	0 4½	0 4½	0 3½	0 3½	0 3½	0 4½	0 4½	0 3	
Paropí	1 0	1 0	1 1	1 ½	0 15	0 13	0 15½	1 ½	1 ½	0 12	
Topa	4 0	4 0	4 4	4 2	3 12	3 4	3 14	4 2	4 2	3 6	

(1) A *topa* of the Ubha, not of the Lamma.

However, the old measures are still in use among the villagers and the money-lenders do their best to avoid the new measures.

MEASURES OF LENGTH.

The *pakká* yard and English yard are both used by cloth merchants in the Lamma. The scales of either are as follows:—

Pakká yard = 2 *pakká* haths (hand).

English yard = 16 *girahs*.

One *pakká* yard = $1\frac{1}{2}$ English yards.

In the Ubha, however, the *kach-há* gaz, *pakká* gaz and *hathra* are in use. These are respectively 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length. The detailed measures of length as employed in measuring cloth, *gatá*, *kinári*, &c., are:—

3 *ungals* = 1 *girah*.

8 *girahs* = $\frac{1}{2}$ *kirakka* gaz (The English yard being called *kirakka*, i. e., of *Kirás*).

10 *girahs* = 1 *hath* or cubit.

16 *girahs* = 1 *kirakka* gaz.

18 *girahs* or 2 *hathás* = 1 gaz or *pakká* gaz.

The *hath* is either the *sidhá* or the *morwán*. The *sidhá* is the length from the elbow to the tip of the middle finger; the *morwán* is the *sidhá* *hath* together with the length of the middle finger, or with the length from the wrist to the tip of the middle finger. Jat men and women in purchasing cloth always prefer the *morwán* *hath*, not the English yard, as with the latter the *Kirár* would, they suppose, cheat them. For measuring wood and buildings the measures are:—

2 *ungals* = 1 *tassú*.

2 *tassús* = 1 *chappa*.

4 *chappas* = 1 foot.

3 feet = 1 gaz or yard (for wood).

4 feet = 1 gaz (for buildings).

WEIGHTS.

For small weightments made by jewellers, goldsmiths, &c., the weights are:—

2 *chávats* (rice grains) = 1 *dána* (of wheat).

4 *dánas* (of wheat) = 1 *rattí*.

8 *rattis* = 1 *másha*.

12 *máshas* = 1 *tola*.

The standard *tola*, however, in the Lamma is the weight of a new rupee coin and 8 *rattis*; whereas in the Ubha it is a new rupee coin plus 4 *rattis*. For larger weightments the following are the weights:—

$1\frac{1}{2}$ *tolas* = 1 *shái*.

4 *sháis* = 1 *shárik*.

4 *sháriks* = 1 *pá* or *páya* (the latter is the word in the Ubha).

4 *pás* or *páyás* = 1 *ser*.

5 *ser*s = 1 *dhari*.

8 *dharis* = 1 *man*.

The money-lender's standard *man* is, however, generally 42 *ser*s, and sometimes 45 *ser*s. The *man* usually employed in towns is the standard maund of $82\frac{1}{2}$ pounds avoirdupois.

N.B.—The *jatakka ser* (lit. *ser* of the Jats) is of 100 *tolas* or $1\frac{1}{2}$ Government *ser*s).

MEASURE OF LENGTH IN CANAL CLEARANCES.

The following measure is used by the peasants and zamindárs in Canal clearances:—

- 8 háths = 1 gazi.
- 4 gazis = 1 kána.
- 21 káns = 1 lambar.
- 16 lambars = 1 mile.

The measure used by the Canal Officers in measuring Canal excavation work is as follows:—

- 10 feet = 1 pattí.
- 33 pattís = 1 number.
- 16 numbers = 1 mile.

MEASURE OF AREA.

Linear measure.

- 2 hadams or $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet = 1 karm.
- 10 karams = 1 jarīb (chain).

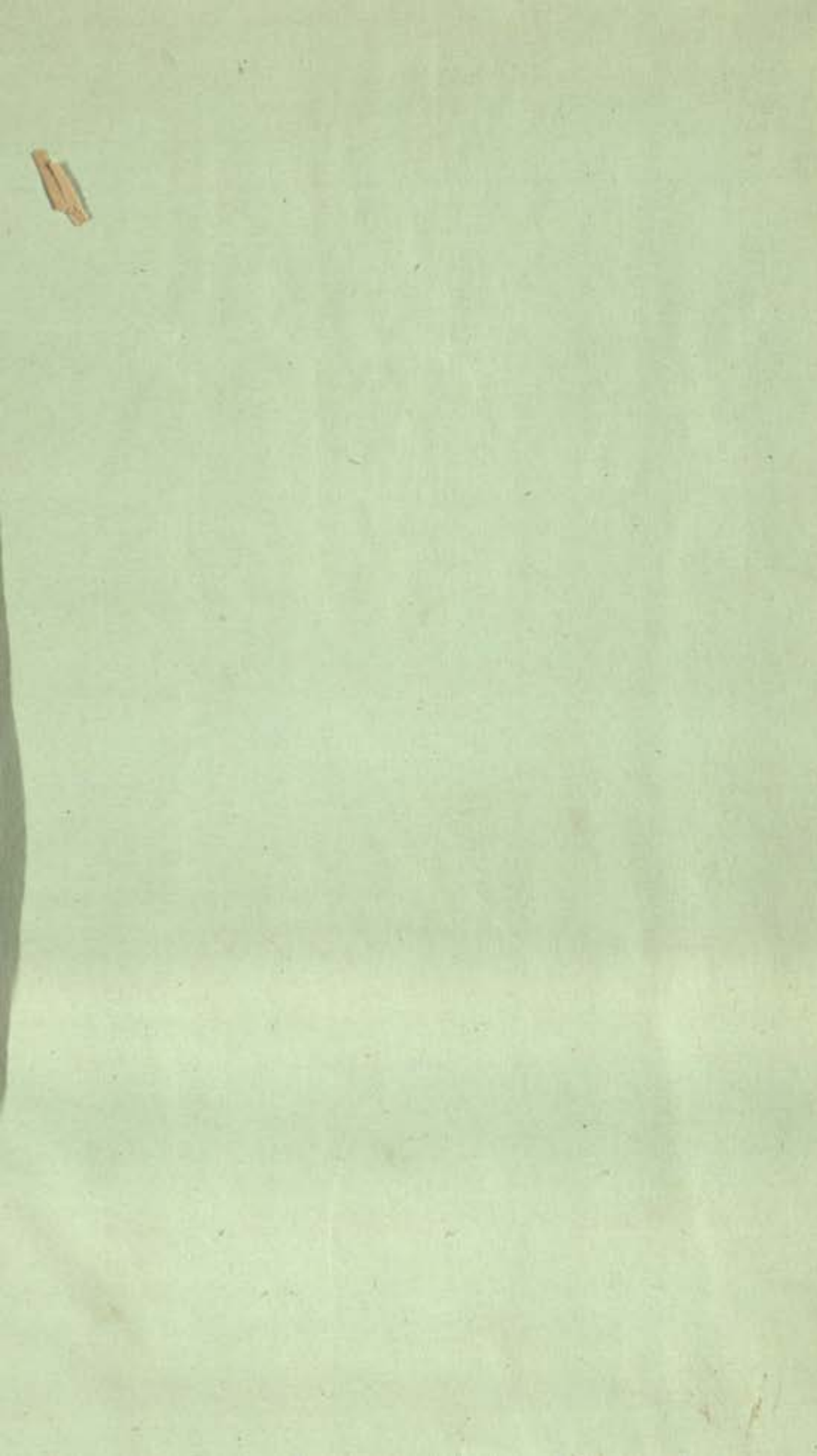
Square measure.

- 9 sarsáhis or square karams = 1 marla.
- 20 marlas = 1 kanál.
- 4 kanáls = 1 bigha.
- 2 bighas = ghumán = 1 acre.

But ghumán is never used in the State Revenue records, nor is it used by the zamindárs. The largest square measure recognised in the State is only the bigha, and most people do not understand what a ghumán is, except lease-holders from the Punjab who have settled in the State.







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