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gold not impossible, and the known presence of crystal at Arangpur has been recently alluded to as favouring the probability.

Stone.

The quartz-like kind of stone is hard, and not easily worked, except for uses not requiring delicate shape. It is seen at its best in many of the old buildings round Delhi, where it fitly harmonises with the sombre dignity of the Pathán style. For the Agra Canal a considerable quantity was used, but for the new Delhi Branch the softer and more malleable Agra stone has been preferred. There is also a sandstone found in the hills near Ballabgarh, which is soft and looks handsome when worked up. The Rájá's palace, now the *tahsíl* at Ballabgarh, shows some very pretty pieces of this work in pillars and arches.

Crystal.

The only place where crystal has been brought to the surface is in the limits of Arangpur, a hill village about two miles south of Delhi. A mine here was first started, it is said, a hundred years ago by the Rájá of Ballabgarh, who spent a good deal of money in getting out and sending for sale a supply of the mineral. Most of the pieces, however, were small octagonal blocks of no great commercial value, and after this one attempt the Rájá gave up the enterprise and closed the mine. After the Mutiny a Khatrí of Delhi took a contract for working it; but after spending some Rs. 1,500 in trying to find the crystal, gave up the attempt and his contract also. The locality of the mine is rather inaccessible; it lies to the south-west of the village, which itself is a collection of huts, at a considerable distance from the main road. Dr. Thompson, in his report on rock crystal mines says that "the crystal does not occur in its primitive position, "but in a secondary deposit of silicious breccia, very highly impregnated "with iron; each crystal is cased in a sheath of hæmatite. As we "go downwards the rock becomes less ferruginous, and lower still is "met with in pieces of pure quartz, embedded in a matrix of almost "pure white clay."

Kankar.

*Kankar** is found more or less extensively throughout the district. In Sunípat it is not regularly worked, but in nine villages it has been found, and doubtless might be obtained, if needed, in a good many more. In Delhi *tahsíl* 33 villages produce it, chiefly in the subcolline and marshy parts. In Ballabgarh 22 villages are shown as producing it. Very little digging is required to reach the beds, and in some of the channels of the hill streams it comes out on the surface. The chief element in its cost is that of carriage and transport to the place where it is required for use. It is not appropriated for roads in this district so exclusively as in others, where it is the only material available. Macadamite is also used, and the station roads are many of them laid with *bajrí*, a reddish gravelly *kankar*† found in the beds of hill torrents and such like places. *Bajrí* is cheaper than *kankar*, but is not so durable, and softens more under heavy rain.

"* A calcareous concrete consisting of carbonate of lime in irregular kind of foliated pieces." ("Punjab Products," p. 141.)

"† Disintegrated gneiss," as Mr. Baden-Powell says, p. 39, "Punjab Products."

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Chalk

Chalk is either worked, or known to exist in Kasúmpur Mahrauli, Malikpur Kohí, and Arangpur. It is dug out of a rude mine made by sinking a shaft 30 or 40 feet deep, and five or six feet in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions horizontally at the bottom. The blocks *(dallá* or *dhír)*, that are turned out whole, are sold on the spot; the smaller pieces *(tikyá)* are taken to the Málchah village, and there washed and dried, and then sold for whitening. The local idea makes stone fuse into chalk by a kind of subterranean ignition. The product is of some value: in the village of Kasúmpur, the lease of the chalk mines has for some years past brought in an income of over Rs. 300, on the average. The expenses of excavation, carriage, washing, and making up into cakes for market sale, are estimated at Rs. 15-6 per 100 maunds, the *bázár* price of which is about Rs. 30.*

Salt.

Saltpetre.

Salt is not now made anywhere in the Delhi district, though it used to be in certain Khádar villages, where the marks of the earth-beds (*sar*) are still evident. Saltpetre is occasionally made in different parts. During the last ten years 30 licenses have been given for this purpose in 15 villages.†

Trees.

Coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not well wooded throughout, but in many parts the trees are abundant enough to give a pleasant variety to the landscape, and in some a bird's-eye view of the country from an elevated spot gives an effect not unlike that of an English park. In other parts, particularly in the hills, in the marshy lands near Najafgarh, and in the inferior parts of the Khádar, trees are scarce, and there is nothing to relieve the monotony of the prospect. Along the Western Jamná Canal are fine avenues of *shisham* and other trees, and promising plantations of *kikar* and *shisham* have sprung up on the banks of the Agra Canal. The Mathrah road is not well shaded, nor, except in a few parts, is the Grand Road in the north. The commonest trees are the well-known *kíkar* (*Acacia Arabica*) and *jál* (Panjábí *pílu* or *van*—*Salvadora oleoides*). In uncultivated lands these are specially found. In Sunipat, for instance, there are woody stretches of the *jál* extending for miles, and in the hot weather, especially if the *rabí* crop has been poor, hundreds, almost thousands, of the more destitute classes are to be seen feeding and sleeping by turns in the stunted groves. The *pípal* (*Ficus religiosa*), *jarásh* (*Tamarix Indica*), *nim* (*Azadírarachta Indica*), *bor* (*Ficus Indica*), *bakain* (*Melia sempervirens*), *dhák* (*Butea frondosa*) and *bér* (*Zizyphus jujuba*) are indigenous and found in many places, as also the bushes—*karíl* (*Capparis aphylla*), *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *jánt* (*Sesbania Ægyptiaca*), and *hingot* (*Balanites Ægyptiaca*.) It is doubtful whether *shisham* and *siris* are indigenous in

* The *zamíndárs* do not dig the chalk themselves; they lease the righ tto strangers, generally men of low caste, living in the neighbourhood. Cooly labour at this work fetchs 2½ annas per diem for the digger working down below, and 2 or only 1½ annas for the lighter work on the surface.

† These are :—

Sunipat—Rámpur, Kundal, Pináná, Nizampur.

Delhi—Dindhása, Malakpárzer, Najafgarh. Kar.

Ballabgarh—Bhopání, Jalk *alias* Unchágáon, Shájahánpur, Majheri, Síhí, Phapúnda, Aghwánpur, Fatehpur Biloch.

Trees.

the sense of not having been introduced from other parts; they grow well only where they get more than natural moisture. In canal villages a common tree is the *jamoá* or *jamúá*, which appears to be a variety of the *jáman*—the natives call it as a synonym *chotá jáman*. This tree grows on the side of small watercourses on the edges of fields, reaches a height of 50 or 60 feet, and has a dark fresh foliage like the *jáman*. The fruit is very inferior. The fruit-trees found in the more favoured spots are numerous and good. Some gardens near Delhi produce mangoes of a delicious flavour: the *jámans* (*Sizygium jambolanum*) are not bad; while oranges, peaches, plums of sorts, lemons, pomegranates, guavas, figs, *alúchás* (*Prunus domestica*), *imli* (*Tamarindus Indica*), &c., are also found.

Special plants.

One or two plants seem to deserve mention here on account of their importance to the agriculturist as a source of income, or as affording valuable material for various agricultural purposes.

(1.) The *singhárá* or water-nut (*Trappa bispinosa*) grows in ponds and pools of standing water in many parts of the district. It is said, however, that the water must be clean (an expression to be interpreted according to Játt rather than English ideas,) and the soil of the bed of the pond should not be under the influence of *reh*. The long stalks of the plants reach up to the surface of the water (in which they grow), and upon which float their green leaves, and their pure white flowers expand beautifully among them in the latter part of the afternoon. The nut grows under water after the flowers decay, and is of a triangular shape, and covered with a tough brown integument adhering strongly to the kernel, which is white and esculent, and of a fine cartilaginous texture. They ripen in the latter end of the rainy season and are eatable till November. The best plants are then (Hindú month *Kátik*) left for seed: in *Mangsir* the cultivators break the nuts off and put them in *matkás*, keeping the vessels always filled with water, changing it every other day. In *Magh* they take the seed to a pond, and throw it in broad-cast; or if the water is scarce they sow it in beds (*kiáris*) with water standing in them. The plant shoots up in the spring; its green head is called *chháti*. There are two kinds, *hará* (green) and *lál* (red.) The green kind is generally eaten fresh, while the red is ground into a flour which is eaten by Hindús at times of abstinence (*bart*) from food. They are then allowed to eat fruits (*phul-ahár*) among which this is reckoned. The produce of the plant is very variable, but a *biswa* of land covered with water should grow 1 or 1½ maunds, giving 20 or 30 maunds to the *bigha*. The price is also uncertain; at the first incoming of the crop, especially if it is a light one, the fresh nuts will cost 1 or 1½ anna a *ser*; in the full season they may come down to 8 or 6 annas per maund, and when very cheap may be only *taka dhari*, *i.e.*, 6 pies for 5 *sers*= 4 annas a maund. Dry nuts are sold at 8 *sers* per rupee. The Najafgarh *jhil* used to be noted for its produce of this article, which is considered a light and healthy food; but at present, though it certainly grows there, it is not so largely cultivated as formerly. The sowing is done by Jhínwars (Kahárs), who are allowed to use the village ponds for the purpose by the *zamindárs* either as return for services to the community, or on payment of rent; say

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Rs. 2 a *bigha*, or on condition of letting the families of the proprietors take a portion of the crop from time to time as they need it for food. The *singhára* in some villages is a valuable source of water-income (*jalkar*) to the community.

(2.) *Jháú* (*panj-pilchi—Tamarix dioica*) is found chiefly in Khádar uncultivated land, especially in the *belás* of the river. It grows sometimes seven or eight feet high, but on the average reaches only to a man's waist and answers to many uses with the *zamíndár*—either as fuel, or made up into baskets or rustic brooms (wherewith to sweep his threshing floor), or lining the sides of a *kachá* well. The baskets are made by Kahárs, who pay 1 anna per day for the right of cutting as much of the bush as they can carry away in their *banghy*. The actual cash income therefore is not much, except on lands near the city, but the agriculturist looks on it as of considerable use.

(3.) *Sarkandá* (*Saccharum procerum*) is a reed that grows to a height of 10 or 12 feet; it is found in alluvial marshes, but also on the side of the canal, and sometimes of its distributaries. It must have moisture, and is fond of mud. Some villages, such as Jákhauli, Tehri, Daulatpur, and Burari, make very considerable sums of money by the sale of this reed. It is used for the roofing of thatched buildings, and for the reed-chair which is so much in fashion among natives. Its price is measured by sheaves, each tied up with a rope made of the leaves, two and a half cubits long. Such a sheaf is called *bind* and is worth about an anna.

(4.) *Pála* (*Zizyphus nummularia*) is a small thorny bush-weed which grows pretty well all over the district, but chiefly in poor lands, and especially on the ridge-like tract of land in Delhi *tahsíl*, near Nangloi Ját, and Bakarwála. In Sunipat it favours Lálherí and Rajlú, and that sandy neighbourhood, while in the hills it grows extensively. In the Ballabgarh Bángar, too, there is a great deal. This uninviting plant gives a very useful food for buffaloes, cows and goats. Camels and goats indeed like it better than any thing almost. It is considered heating, and so is good for the cold weather.

It is cut twice in the year (in *Kátik* and *Chet*) with a *gandasi*, and is sold at 3, 4, or 5 maunds the rupee.

Wild animals.

The following note on the wild animals of the district has been kindly furnished by Dr. Kavanagh :—

"Pig abound all along the banks of the Jamná, being found in the *jháú* jungle where there are no crops, and in the latter when they are high enough to afford cover. Foxes and hares are plentiful on the eastern bank of the Jamná, but do not seem to inhabit the western bank to the same extent. Black buck are found almost everywhere. *Chikára* abound in the range of hills which runs north-east of Delhi, being especially numerous at Bhunsi, Sinah, and the part of the Ridge in this neighbourhood. Wolves are not plentiful, but they are to be usually found in the neighbourhood of the old cantonment, especially during the time soldiers are there encamped, at which time, I have seen them in numbers quite close to my tent. Jackals abound. Hares are found generally throughout the district. Peafowl are plentiful. Duck and snipe are plentiful in ordinary years, but in dry years they are scarce. The *nilgai* is to be con-

Table No. 1 Showing LEADING STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5
DETAILS.	DISTRICT.	DETAIL OF TAHSILS.		
		Delhi.	Sunipat.	Ballabgarh.
Total square miles (1881)	1,276	434	454	388
Cultivated square miles (1878)	821	Not available.	Not availble.	Not available.
Culturable square miles (1878)	225	Do.	Do.	Do.
Irrigated square miles (1878)	275	Do.	Do.	Do.
Average square miles under crops (1877 to 1881)	844	Do.	Do.	Do.
Annual rainfall in inches (1866 to 1882)	29·0	29·0	24·0	24·5
No. of inhabited towns and villages (1881)	701	241	223	237
Total population (1881)	643,515	317,802	186,835	138,878
Rural population (1881)	439,798	140,410	173,758	125,630
Urban population (1881)	203,717	177,392	13,077	13,248
Total population per square mile (1881)	504	732	411	358
Rural population per square mile (1881)	345	323	383	324
Hindus (1881)	483,332	220,352	164,689	108,291
Sikhs (1881)	970	892	47	31
Jains (1881)	7,336	3,545	3,546	245
Musalmans (1881)	149,830	91,105	28,548	30,177
Average annual Land Revenue (1877 to 1881) *	876,544	295,536	377,170	208,838
Average annual gross revenue (1877 to 1881) †	1,180,414	..	...	...

* Fixed, fluctuating, and Miscellaneous. † Land, Tribute, Local Rates, Excise, and Stamps.

stantly found near the villages of Borari and Khadipur, and in my pigsticking excursions I constantly came across them in these parts. They are also constantly found at Bhunsi due east from the Ridge. Black and grey partridges are plentiful, the former being found principally in the high jungle along the banks of the Jamná, and in the crops when the season is advanced. The mongoose is very common, and so is the hedge hog. I have known the latter commit sad havoc in a garden in the Cantonments. Snakes of every kind are plentiful, the cobra especially so. The old Fort called the Kofla is infested with them, and it has been a common pastime for members of the garrison to go there hunting for them, especially in the rainy season or immediately preceding it.* Leopards are found in the outlying villages. I have myself seen them at Tuglakábád. *Pára* are abundant, especially in the neighbourhood of Borari on the bank of the Jamná, where in my pigsticking excursions I have seen as many as, 40 or 50 in an hour. *Mahsír*, *rohú*, and *batchwa* are found in the river Jamná and at Okhlah in the Agra Canal, and the entire river is infested with muggurs the *gurryál* predominating; but the snub-nosed man-eater is also plentiful. In that part of the river opposite the present rifle range they may be seen any afternoon in hundreds swimming about or basking on the edge of the water. Between the old Fort and Okhlah, they are equally numerous."

Monkeys in some villages bordering on the shady avenues of the Western Jamná Canal are quite a nuisance.† Within the past five years rewards to the amount of Rs. 908 have been given for the destruction of 10 leopards, 367 wolves, and 1,128 snakes. Ducks of various kinds are found in the ponds in the cold weather; snipe in several places in marshes; quail are not uncommon in the fields; partridges, both black and grey, are abundant, and *kítan* are fond of the fields of gram when the grain has not yet hardened.

* Natives distinguish three kinds of snake: (1) *kála*, black, poisonous, and almost always fatal; (2) *pílá* (yellow) not fatally poisonous; (3) *chithauria* (spotted worse than the *pílá*, but not so bad as the *kála*. *Kale ke age diwa na bala*—is a well known saying among the *zamindars*. Literally: "In presence of the black (snake) the lamp won't burn." There is an idea that if a *kále náág* gets into the house, the lamps burn dimly, under the fascination, as it were, of the animal. As a proverb it means there is no doing anything against a powerful person.

† Mr. Maconachie writes: "I once heard it seriously urged as an objection to the alignment of a *rájbaha* through the lands of the speaker's village, that the canal officers would be sure to plant trees, and trees would be sure to bring monkeys, and monkeys would do all sorts of damage to the crops. The fact is a serious one, especially as the Ját may not kill a monkey even when he catches him *in facto manifesto*. All that he can do is to station a loud voiced *kamin* at the point he must warm guarded, hoping that he won't go to sleep. But as a rule the monkeys look in portentously good condition."

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

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History.

Early History.

The history of the Delhi district, previous to British rule, is the history of the city of Delhi, which has from the time of its first foundation been the seat of the ruling dynasty, Rájpút, Pathán, Mughal or Mahratta. To write it in full would be to recite the history of Northern India. A brief outline of the principal events which have affected the fortunes of the city itself, with especial reference to the architectural remains which are there to be found, is given in Chapter VI; but no attempt will be made to furnish any more detailed narrative of the historical events which preceded the introduction of British rule.

Administrative arrangements in 1803.

On the 11th September, 1803, the Mahrattas were defeated in the battle on the Hindan by General Lake; and three days afterwards the English entered Delhi as the real masters of the Mughal Empire. The tract then added to the territories of the East India Company included a considerable strip of country to the west of the river Jamná, north and south of Delhi. It was determined to assign a large portion of the territory thus acquired to King Sháh Alam and his descendants, in order to provide for the maintenance and dignity of the Royal family. The arrangements to be made were thus described in a despatch by Lord Wellesley, dated Fort William, 2nd January 1805:—

"The Governor-General in Council has determined to adopt an arrangement upon the basis of the following provisions:—That a specified portion of the territories in the vicinity of Delhi, situated on the right bank of the Jamná, should be assigned in part of the provision for the maintenance of the Royal family. That those lands should remain under charge of the Resident of Delhi, and that the revenue should be collected and justice should be administered in the name of His Majesty Sháh Alam, under Regulations to be fixed by the British Government. That His Majesty should be permitted to appoint a Diwán and other inferior officers to attend at the office of the Collector, for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting to His Majesty the amount of the revenues which should be received, and the charges of collection, and of satisfying His Majesty's mind that no part of the produce of the assigned territory was misappropriated. That two Courts of justice should be established for the administration of civil and criminal justice, according to the Muhammadan law, to the inhabitants of the city of Delhi, and of the assigned territory. That no sentences of the Criminal Courts extending to death should be carried into execution without the express sanction of His Majesty, to whom the proceedings in all trials of this description should be reported, and that sentences of mutilation should be commuted. That to provide for the immediate wants of His Majesty and the Royal household, the following sums should be paid monthly in money from the Treasury of the

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Resident of Delhi—to His Majesty for his private expenses, Sicca Rupees 60,000 : to the Heir-apparent, exclusive of certain *jágíre*, Sa. Rs. 10,000 ; to a favourite son of His Majesty, named Jaggat Baksh, Sa. Rs. 5,000 ; to two other sons of His Majesty, Sa. Rs. 1,500 ; to His Majesty's fifty younger sons and daughters, Sa. Rs. 10,000 ; to Shah Nawáz Khán, His Majesty's Treasurer, Rs. 2,500 ; to Sayad Razá Khan, British Agent at His Majesty's Court, and related to His Majesty by marriage, Sa. Rs. 1,000 ; total per mensem, Sicca Rupees 90,000. That if the produce of the revenue of the assigned territory should hereafter admit of it, the monthly sum to be advanced to His Majesty for his private expenses might be increased to one lakh of rupees. That in addition to the sums specified, the sum of Sa. rupees 10,000 should annually be paid to His Majesty on certain festivals agreeably to ancient usage."

According to this arrangement, the assigned tract, afterwards known as the Delhi Territory, was excluded, by Regulation VIII of 1805, from the operation of the General Regulations, and, subject to the restrictions alluded to in the despatch already quoted, placed under the charge of an officer styled the Resident and Chief Commissioner of Delhi. The King retained exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction within the Palace, consulting the Resident in important cases, while throughout the assigned territory justice was administered according to Muhammadan law by British officers, but in the name of the King, and sentences of death were referred to the King for approval. The fiscal arrangements were under the entire control of the Resident and his subordinates. This assigned territory included, with certain exceptions, the whole of the present divisions of Delhi and Hissár. The chief exceptions were Sirsa and part of Hissár, held by the Bhattís,* and parts of Karnál, which were in the hands of independent Sikh Chiefs. There were also other exceptions in the estates of certain noblemen, who were found by the British in possession of considerable tracts, which they held, on tenures more or less permanent, from the Delhi Kings or the Mahrattas. Such were the estates of the Rájá of Ballabgarh in this district, of Jhajjar in Rohtak, and of the Begam Samru in Gurgáon. These alienations were for the time recognized by the British Government. It will be noted elsewhere in what manner the greater part of them successively, by lapse or otherwise, came under direct British rule. In addition to the payments for the maintenance of the Royal family already detailed, which were made from the British Treasury, the Crown lands and other property denominated *taiyál* (see Chapter V, Section B), possessed by the King and several members of the Royal family, were in no way interfered with. The income from this source amounted to about 1½ lakh of rupees per annum.

In 1809, financial difficulties being removed by the cessation of war, the British Government increased the allowance of the Royal family to one lakh of rupees per month, this sum being payable without reference to the income of the Delhi territory. This state of things continued until 1832,

* See Gazetteer of Hissár district.

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when by Regulation V of that year, the office of Resident and Chief Commissioner was abolished. The affairs of the Delhi territory were to be administered in future by a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of the North-West Provinces, the powers heretofore exercised by the Resident as Chief Commissioner being vested in the Board of Revenue and the High (*Sadr*) Court at Agra. By the same Act it was laid down that the Commissioner of Delhi territory and his subordinates should in their administration conform to the principles and spirit of the Regulations. This enactment put an end to the anomalous system of administration above described; and henceforth, in name as well as in actual fact, the administration passed into the hands of the East India Company. The Delhi territory continued to form a part of the territory under the Government of the N. W. Provinces till 1858, when after the reconquest of Delhi from the Sepoy mutineers, it was annexed to the newly formed Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab.

Successive Residents.

The first Resident of the Delhi territory was Sir David Ochterlony,* who was in charge from 1803—1806. He had not been a year in office before the city was besieged by Holkar, whose large and well-appointed army was, as is well-known, successfully beaten off by a handful of Europeans and natives under the gallant leadership of their soldier-governor, until Lord Lake returned. General Ochterlony's bravery, however, was more acceptable to Government than his civil administration, and in 1806 he was removed to Ludhiánah, then a frontier station. His successor, Mr. R. G. Seton from Bareilly, was a man of high character and amiable temperament, but wanting in self-confidence, and in practical energy of decision. He leaned much on a stronger man than himself, Charles Metcalfe, who on Seton's departure for Europe in 1810 was appointed to the important post of Delhi Resident. For nine years he remained in it, developing that administrative experience and vigorous practical wisdom which afterwards placed him so high on the roll of Indian names. As a mere boy he had in 1809 confronted and successfully treated with the great Ruler of the Sikhs, and the early charge of the Delhi Residency was the immediate reward of his brilliantly self-reliant management of the treaty of the Satlaj—"one of the best kept treaties of Indian History." In December 1818 he entered the troubled period of his life by transfer to Haidarábád as Resident, and Ochterlony returned for two years with Henry Middleton as Collector. In 1821 Ochterlony went to Rájputáná, and, after an acting charge by Middleton, Alexander Ross was appointed in 1822 to the administration as Agent to the Governor-General. In 1823 William Fraser acted as Agent, and then Charles Elliot succeeded for a few months when he went as Agent to Farukhábád, and Charles Metcalfe came back again as Resident with control of Rájputáná,

* His name by a characteristic metathesis is known among the natives as *Lowi akhtar*.

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Successive Residents.

and the conduct of foreign relations with Kábul and Lahore. In this capacity he was present at the memorable siege and capture of Bhartpur. In 1828 he was appointed member of the Governor-General's Council, and was succeeded by Sir E. Colebrooke. The scandal that occurred in this gentleman's time is well-known, and also the unpopular but courageous part taken in the matter by Charles Trevelyan, then acting as his Secretary. The way in which the affair is described in a native account, perhaps by an intentional euphemism, is that "in his time, Rám Gopál, and others of his dependants, made bribes run high" (*rishwatsitání kâ bazár garm kiyá*). The result was that the Resident was removed. William Fraser was appointed to act, but was also removed for openly showing sympathy with the accused. Mr. Hawkins succeeded, but as he was not acceptable to the king, Mr. Martin was appointed, and remained there till 1832, when the Residentship was abolished, and an Agency again constituted. Rájputáná was made a separate charge, leaving Delhi and the protected territory and the foreign relations still with the local administration. William Fraser, however, was murdered in 1835 at the instigation, as it was proved, of the Nawáb of Firozpur,* who met with condign punishment. Then came the long administration of Thomas Metcalfe, reaching for 18 years up to 1853. During his time, in accordance with the march of political events, and the advance of our border toward the north, the protected States were put under George Clerk, afterwards Sir G. Clerk, at Ludhiánah. Hánsí, Hissár and Sirsa still remained connected with Delhi. In November 1853, Thomas T. Metcalfe died, and next month Simon Fraser became Agent and Commissioner. The tragic end of this officer, killed on the fatal 11th of May 1857, is well known. In September 1857, when Delhi was taken, Mr. C. B. Saunders was appointed Commissioner, while Hissár, Hánsí and Sirsa were made into the separate Commissionership of Hissár under the charge of Mr. E. Brandreth, with political charge of the petty States of Dujánáh and Lohárú. Pátaudi remained under the Delhi Commissioner.

Constitution of the district.

The Delhi territory was first divided regularly into districts in 1819. The district of Delhi, as then constituted, consisted of two *parganas*, the "northern" and the "southern." Between them they comprised the present Delhi *tahsíl*, the northern portion of the present Ballabgarh *tahsíl*, and a small portion now included in the Rohtak district. The greater part of the Ballabgarh *tahsíl* was then independent.† The present Sunipat *tahsíl*, with its head-quarters at Larsauli, formed the Larsauli *pargana* of the Pánipat district ‡.

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* For a detailed account of this, see Col. Sleeman's "Rambles of an Indian Official", Vol. 2, pp. 209—231.

† Ballabgarh was confiscated after the Muting. See Chapter VI.

‡ See Gazetteer of the Karnál district.

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Constitution of the district.

It was only transferred to Delhi in 1861. The present arrangement of the *tahsíls* dates from 1862. At some time between 1848 and 1853, a considerable tract to the east of the Jamná, including (by the Census of 1853) 160 villages and an area of 193 square miles, was added to the Delhi district from the districts of Mírath and Bulandshahr. This, under the name of the "Eastern *pargana*," continued to form part of the Delhi district until the Mutiny and the transfer of the Delhi territory to the Punjab. The immediate charge of what is now the Delhi district was held first by a Principal Assistant, and subsequently by a Collector under the Resident and Civil Commissioner. The first distribution of the Delhi territory was into divisions, an Assistant being entrusted with the charge of a division. At this time Sunípat formed part of the Northern Division with head-quarters at Pánipat, while Delhi and part of Ballabgarh formed the central division. Gurgáon and Rohtak and the parts round these made up the southern and western divisions. In 1820 the Civil Commissionership was abolished or changed for a Deputy Superintendent on Rs. 3,000 a month, whose duties were primarily revenue; and about the same time Delhi was put under the Board of Revenue, North-West Provinces.

Tahsíl arrangements.

The arrangements as to *tahsíls* appear to have been as follows:—As regards Sunípat there were at first two *tahsíls*, both having their head-quarters at the town; then another, a small one, with a very poorly paid *tahsíldár*, was made up at Ganaur. This was the state of things in 1835, when (1) Sunípat Bángar had a *tahsíldár* drawing Rs. 50 a month and the revenue was Rs. 2,13,040; (2) Sunípat Khádar, a *tahsíldár* on Rs. 50 and revenue Rs. 70,999; (3) Ganaur, a *tahsíldár* on Rs. 30 and revenue Rs. 67,444. It is not clear whether this revenue includes *jágír* or not. In 1836 the Ganaur *tahsíl* was incorporated with the Sunípat Khádar, and the *tahsíldár's* pay was revised as follows:, *tahsíldár* Bangár, Rs. 175; *tahsíldár* Khádar, Rs. 125. This administration continued till 1851, when the two Pánipat *tahsíls* were made one, and the same amalgamation took place in Sunípat, the one *tahsíl* being called Larsaulí. Larsaulí then remained, with its 205 villages, in Karnál district till 1857, when it was transferred to Delhi. For Delhi the head-quarters were at first in the city, then at Najafgarh; then there were two *tahsíls*, one at Mahraulí and one at Bawanah. The Bawanah *tahsíl* was moved to Alípur, and after the Mutiny to Delhi. Mahraulí was given up and its villages divided between Delhi and Ballabgarh. This last, in addition to the villages thus gained, included the *ráj* villages, and those of *parganah* Pálí-Pákal.

In May 1868, twenty villages, with a population of 6,990, were transferred from Gurgáon to the Ballabgarh *tahsíl*. In August 1868 six villages, with a population of 5,841, were transferred from Rohtak to Sunípat. At the commencement of Settlement operations in 1872, the distribution of villages among the three *tahsíls* was as

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Tahsíl arrangements.

follows: Ballabgarh, 282; Delhi, 305; Sunípat, 211. Total, 798 villages. During Settlement the following changes were made:—

	Villages.
1.—Ballabgarh* received by alluvion from Bulandshahr	7
† gave to Delhi	6
Leaving finally	283
2.—Delhi ‡ received as above mentioned	6
§ " by alluvion from Meerut	3
‖ increased by separation of estates	2
¶ gave to Sunípat	27
†† " Meerut by diluvion	1
Leaving finally	288
3.—Sunípat ¶ received as above mentioned	27
‡‡ increased by separation of estates	1
Leaving finally	239

The transfers between the *tahsíls* were effected under the authority of Government Punjab's letter No. 1608 of 17th November 1875. In 1880 a change in the course of the Jamná transferred a small village to Bulandshahr.

State of Delhi district during the Mutiny.

The events of the Mutiny, so far as they are connected with the city of Delhi, will be found in Chapter VI. The following sketch refers rather to the district as a whole. As early as 1855, two years before the outbreak, a seditious pamphlet was published in Delhi, called *Risála Jehád*, directly preaching a religious war against the infidels who held the country. It was supposed to have been written about 1828 by one Maulavi Muhamad Ismail, a Wahábi, and about 1850 was translated into Hindi. Seditious placards, later on, were posted in various places of the city. When the actual rising took place at Delhi on the 11th May, the king sent a letter to the Commissioner of the Agra Division, G. F. Harvey, Esquire, who had been Commissioner for a short time in Delhi some years before, telling of the outbreak and protesting his helplessness. In the city, however, everything was done in his name, and orders were issued to the *zamínداrs* of the district for the collection of revenue. The papers in the printed volume of the trial of the king give a lively idea of the burlesque of order and Government that went on in the imperial city of the Mughals between May and September 1857. The king was nominally at the head of affairs; he was treated with reverence in the Oriental fashion, and amused himself with recording his signature, and occasionally short autograph

* Chak Makanpur—Chak Parasrámpur—Chak Latífpur—Belá Kalán—Chak Jagatpur—Chak Motipur—Chak Basantpur.

† Bijwásan—Salchpur—Samálkah—Kápasherah—Bájókhrí—Málikpur kohí.

‡ See above.

§ Arázi Sábapur—Arázi Badarpur—Arázi Pachábera.

‖ Timarpur separated from Wazírábád and Ghogá from Bánkner.

¶ Bákipur—Basantpur—Bherah—Dahisarah—Jánti—Sersah—Kundlí—Nathúpur—Basídpur Sabauli—Sháhábád—Kheri Manajat—Sháhábád Pána Papeesian—Manírpur—Dheki—Nahrah—Nahri—Mandaurah—Turkpur—Mandauri—Hillálpur—Jhanjhaol—Jataulah—Katlúpur—Saidpur—Firozpur—Rámpur—Nizámpur Khurd—Kondal.

†† Jatwára Khurd.

‡‡ Jánti split up into Jánti kalán and Janti khurd.

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State of Delhi district during the Mutiny.

orders, on the numerous petitions presented, but the real power was in the hands of the soldiers. Complaints are not long wanting of their violence and unruliness; the *baniá* is indignant at the summary appropriation of his goods going on, and compares the present administration unfavourably with that of the Káfirs, who, however wretched they were in religion, respected the rights of property. The *zamíndárs* of some village outside, having attacked and been beaten off by their neighbours with whom they have had a long standing grudge, write in fulsome terms congratulating the king on the massacre of the hateful English, portesting their fervent loyalty, and praying for punishment on their temporarily successful rivals. The king writes. "Let the Mirza see to this," and a foraging party soon after visits both villages, to the gain probably of neither. Grain carts coming into the city are not unfrequently seized by regiments on their own account, and when enquiry is made they protest they must do something of the kind as they do not get their pay. This last fact is one which, as time goes on, assumes an uncomfortable prominence, and makes it necessary for the imperial dignity to stoop to such unpopular exactions as a compulsory loan. This, it need hardly be said, is followed by more complaints from the *baniá*, who in return gets threatened with bodily penalties; and so matters go on; the mutineers are scarcely loyal to the 'emperor'; they quarrel among themselves for the best quarters, get little or no regular pay, but recoup themselves by plundering any person who seems weak enough to invite it and wealthy enough to be worth it. As regards matters outside, the Rájá of Ballabgarh trims to secure himself on both sides, but is hopelessly convicted of collusion with the king by letters under his own seal protesting his respectful loyalty to the Muhammadan, and his joy at the defeat of the English—so much so that a 'man he had in his own service belonging to the detested race he will not retain any longer near him.' The Nawáb of Jhajjar is as bad or worse, and the *zamíndárs* throughout the district fall into lawless habits of attacking their neighbours and plundering travellers.

Noble exceptions to the general disloyalty.

Yet there are bright exceptions of men who, moved by loyalty to our government, or pity for individuals, did good service in the way of protecting and concealing fugitive Europeans and helping them on their way to safe places. A list of rewards given for such work will be found in the Settlement Report; but a few are worthy of special mention. The most illustrious instance of hardly-tried loyalty in the district perhaps was that of Hidáyat Ali, a *risáldar* in the native army, on leave at the time of the outbreak. This gallant fellow* took in, fed, quartered, and for more than a week pro-

* The account locally given of the first appearance of the Collector of Gurgáon, and other persons of consequence, as fugitives is very graphic, and has no doubt had some picturesqueness added to it during the lapse of the twenty years since the occurrence of the facts on which it is founded. It begins somewhat in this fashion:—

"It was just about noon and the Risáldár Sáhib was taking a nap, when one of his men came and woke him saying—"there is a *gora* standing at some distance from the village under a tree, his head bare, and his clothes dirty, and he has a stick in his hand, and he makes signs." The Risáldár Sáhib got up at once and went out and found that this was a scout sent out by the fugitive party to see if they might come into the village, &c., &c.

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Noble exceptions to the general disloyalty.

tected a band of European fugitives some thirty in number, among whom was Mr. Ford, the Collector of Gurgáon. To do this within forty miles of the centre of rebellion and within reach of two days easy march of the mutineers' cavalry at Delhi, showed an unswerving loyalty which was conspicuously noted at the time, and generously rewarded after the re-establishment of order. Government presented the *risáldár* with a dress of honour, and a splendidly engraved and jewelled sword valued at Rs. 1,000, and also gave him the perpetual *jágír* of his village, Mohinah, which is assessed at Rs. 5,450.

Another instance of courageous humanity, which was no doubt founded on, and intensified by, a personal liking for the officer concerned, was the help given by the *zamíndárs* of Isápúr, or Ishákpúr, in the Delhi Dábar, to the wife and children of Mr. Nunu, Assistant Patrol in the Customs Department. For three months the *zamíndárs* of the village hid them in their houses and fed them on their own food; and this notwithstanding the known mutinous disposition of the Nawáb of Jhajjar, in whose territory Isápur then was. The reward here was ten *biswas* (or half) of the village Bákargarh adjoining, whose *zamíndárs* had set fire to a Government bungalow, and were punished accordingly. Besides this Rs. 200 *inám* was granted out of the *jama* of Bákargarh, and a pension of Rs. 100 each given to the four *lambardárs*. One of them has now been made a *zaildár* (Khushálí or Khushí Rám.)

Other cases of services more or less meritorious were, those of Bhúre Khán of Kalálí Bágh, who helped and sheltered Sir John Metcalfe in his flight to Jaipur; the *zamíndárs* of Rohat who sheltered and helped on their way to Karnál a company of English fugitives; and the Kailánah men higher up who did the same good office. In a garden at Kailánah is the grave of a little child of Captain Fraser, Bengal Engineers, who died during that terrible flight in the May heat. On the eastern side there are sadly interesting traces of another party who must have escaped one by one from the flagstaff-tower on the 11th. The first place marked is Pallah, in the Delhi *tahsíl*, some 15 miles north-east of the city, where Mrs. Peile, travelling by herself alone, and apparently on foot, got shelter, protection and assistance on her way north. Perhaps here, or a little further away, she met her wounded husband, Lieutenant F. Peile of the 38th Light Infantry, and together with Dr. and Mrs. Wood, and Major Patterson, they got help from Hardiál, a *lambardár* of Murshidpur, taking them on to Larsauli whence they succeeded in escaping to Karnál. The *lambardár* has a certificate from Captain Peile, dated Delhi, January 1867.

General disaffection and its punishment.

Yet on the whole, of course the dark side predominated. The district generally appears to have been mutinous, and certainly got sharply punished. The Gujar *chaukidárs* of Chandrawal

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This is not quite in accordance with fact, for the Europeans were not badly provided with arms, and were not so destitute as is here said. They had tried the Chhausa ferry in vain, as they were menaced by mutineers on the other side, and the Rájput villagers on this side were also disaffected and obstructive. They were recommended to come back to Mohinah by Náráyan Singh, a trooper of the 12th Irregular Cavalry.

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General disaffection and its punishment.

burnt the civil station, and the hill Gujars broke out thieving, plundering, and, wherever they could, burning Government property. For a time disorder was rampant. But it was very short-lived; all the north part of the district was overawed by the presence of the camp on 'the Ridge,' and supplies were obtained through friendly *zamíndárs* without much difficulty. Nothing is more surprising in a small way, among the big events of that time, than the ease and rapidity with which things were settled again after the fall of Delhi. The revenue due in June 1857 was partially collected, and that due in December in full. This re-establishment of order, it may be imagined, was not effected without sharp measures. The special commission appointed for the summary punishment of offenders convicted 2,025 persons, acquitting 1,281. Of the convicts, 392 were hanged, 57 were sentenced to life imprisonment, and many more to imprisonment for shorter terms. Nor can these figures be thought to show all the punishment inflicted. The official report itself says: "It is difficult to analyse all that may have been done during that period of excitement." And there is no doubt that, though hardly anything could be too severe a retribution for the diabolical acts of cruelty that we read of, or hear of, as having been perpetrated by the mutineers and their sympathisers, the Delhi district received a lesson which will never be forgotten.* As was officially said "the agrestic population had been taught to know their masters," while the city retained only one-fourth of its former population. The king himself was tried by a special commission in his own Hall of Audience, and was convicted of rebellion against the British Government, and of being accessory to "the slaughter of 49 Christians, chiefly women and children, within his palace-walls." In January 1858 a general disarming of the people took place; penal fines were levied from offending villages; and the political punishment was pronounced of transfer to the Panjab. By Act XXXVIII of 1858 the imperial city was annexed as a provincial town to the frontier province, and the firm hands of the Chief Commissioner assumed charge of the Delhi territory, which he had done so much to reconquer from the mutineers. The civil Courts re-opened in July 1858.

Famines.

A note of past years of scarcity may conveniently be made here. These, as known by tradition, or reported by different authorities, are the years A.D. 1345, 1631, 1661, 1739, 1770, 1783-84, 1803-4, 1813-14, 1819, 1825-26, 1827-28, 1832-34, 1837-38, 1860-61, 1865, 1868, and 1877. Of these the worst are said to have been 1783-84, 1803-4, 1837-38, and 1860-61. Perhaps this is said because there

* It is not a common thing perhaps to meet a man shot for mutiny in 1857. Yet there is, or till very lately was, one in the village of Khor Panjáb, in the Delhi Bángar. The villagers had sent a *khidmatgár* of Sir J. Metcalfe's, who came to them for concealment, into Delhi to be given up to the king. This was base no doubt, and so thought the English authorities. There is a spot pointed out where 20 or 21 of the *zamíndárs* were stood up in a line and shot down one after another. Our friend was shot in his turn and tumbled down, no doubt thinking himself dead. Yet after the departure of the executioners he found he was only badly wounded, and managed to recover and live these many years.

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Famines.

is a more commonly known tradition of these years than of others especially of the terrible *chalisa* 1783-84 (Sambat 1840) But the earlier famines are well-known in histories. Muhammad Tughlak's savage extravagance in his war schemes brought on, it is said, the famine of 1345, wherein men ate each other. Sháh Jahán saw two years of drought, 1629-30, and this induced the scarcity of the following year. Aurangzeb's reign had the famine of 1661 in which, in spite of the personal exertions of the Emperor, multitudes perished, and at least as many at Delhi as in other places (*chirág ke níche andhera.*) In 1825-26, it is said, there was great drought in Delhi ? out of a revenue demand of Rs. 28,72,272, the balances were Rs. 10,59,212. In the northern division of the territory a whole year's revenue was remitted, and in the western division there was considerable distress. Suffering again occurred in 1832-33, while in 1837-38 bread-riots came into fashion, and unlimited relief was ordered for those who would work. In Pánipat alone Rs. 26,000 revenue was remitted, and elsewhere no doubt in proportion. This trouble was put an end to by rain in February 1838. The events of the post-mutiny famines are fresh and well known ; in 1860-61 a system of large earth works was started for the employment of sufferers, chiefly in the Ballabgarh *tahsíl*. Some of these works have fallen out of repair, while others have been rendered useless by the construction of the Agra Canal.

Development since annexation.

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

District officers since annexation.

The following table shows the several officers who have successively held charge of the district since annexation :—

Name.	From	To
Mr W. Clifford ...	14th September 1857 ...	20th September 1857
Sir Theophilus Metcalfe ...	1st October 1857 ...	22nd November 1857
Mr. P. H. Egerton ...	23rd November 1857 ...	30th March 1860
Mr. W. C. Plowden ...	31st March 1860 ...	30th April 1860
Mr. F. H. Cooper ...	1st May 1860 ...	26th October 1861
Lieut. F. C. Bewsher ...	27th October 1861 ...	14th November 1861
Major Stuart Graham ...	16th November 1861 ...	16th February 1862
Mr F. H. Cooper ...	17th February 1862 ...	11th May 1862
Mr. T. H. Thornton ...	13th May 1862 ...	2nd October 1862
Mr. F. H. Cooper ...	3rd October 1862 ...	13th December 1862
Mr. T. H. Thornton ...	14th December 1862 ...	27th May 1864
Mr. D. Fitzpatrick ...	28th May 1864 ...	28th June 1864
Mr. T. H. Thornton ...	29th June 1864 ...	24th September 1864
Mr. W. H. Battigan ...	25th September 1864 ...	2nd October 1864
Mr. D. Fitzpatrick ...	3rd October 1864 ...	9th October 1864
Captain C. A. MacMahon ...	10th October 1864 ...	2nd September 1865
Lieut. A. Harcourt ...	2nd September 1865 ...	2nd October 1865
Captain C. A. MacMahon ...	3rd October 1865 ...	1st September 1866
Mr. T. W. Smyth ...	2nd September 1866 ...	1st October 1866
Captain C. A. MacMahon ...	2nd October 1866 ...	22nd February 1867
Mr. D. Fitzpatrick ...	23rd February 1867 ...	4th November 1868
Major C. A. MacMahon ...	5th November 1868 ...	6th September 1870
Mr. A. W. Stogdon ...	6th September 1870 ...	30th October 1870
Major C. A. MacMahon ...	31st October 1870 ...	1st June 1871

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District officers since annexation.

Name.	From	To
Mr. G. Knox	2nd June 1871 ...	28th February 1872
Mr. A. H. Benton	1st March 1872 ...	26th March 1872
Major R. T. M. Lang	27th March 1872 ...	27th May 1872
Mr. G. Knox	28th May 1872 ...	10th December 1872
Major C. A. MacMahon ...	11th December 1872 ...	22nd February 1873
Mr. W. M. Young	23rd February 1873 ...	11th March 1873
Lt.-Colonel R. Young ...	12th March 1873 ...	15th June 1873
Major Jas. Tighe	16th June 1873 ...	15th January 1874
Mr. J. Friselle	16th January 1874 ...	13th November 1874
Mr. T. W. Smyth	14th November 1874 ...	5th May 1875
Mr. G. L. Smyth	6th May 1875 ...	18th May 1875
Mr. T. W. Smyth	14th May 1875 ...	19th August 1875
Mr. J. Friselle	20th August 1875 ...	30th September 1875
Mr. T. W. Smyth	1st October 1875 ...	31st August 1876
Captain C. H. T. Marshall ...	1st September 1876 ...	30th September 1876
Mr. T. W. Smyth	1st October 1876 ...	14th August 1877
Mr. A. W. Stogdon	15th August 1877 ...	14th October 1877
Mr. T. W. Smyth	15th October 1877 ...	15th April 1878
Mr. D. G. Barkley	16th April 1878 ...	22nd April 1878
Mr. George Smyth	23rd April 1878 ...	13th August 1878
Lt.-Colonel F. M. Birch ...	14th August 1878 ...	11th November 1878
Mr. G. Smyth	12th November 1878 ...	1st September 1879
Mr. J. R. Macnachie ...	2nd September 1879 ...	29th September 1879
Mr. G. Smyth	30th September 1879 ...	14th November 1880
Mr. T. W. Smyth	15th November 1880 ...	31st January 1882
Mr. G. Smyth	1st February 1882 ...	23rd March 1882
Major A. E. Roberts	24th March 1882 ...	18th April 1882
Mr. J. H. Drummond ...	19th April 1882 ...	20th April 1882
Mr. T. W. Smyth	21st April 1882 ...	17th July 1882
Mr. A. W. Stogdon	18th July 1882 ...	6th October 1882
Mr. T. Troward	7th October 1882 ...	17th December 1882
Mr. T. W. Smyth	18th December 1882 ...	6th April 1883
Mr. G. Smyth	7th April 1883 ...	9th October 1883
Major W. J. Parker	10th October 1883 ...	17th October 1883
Mr. J. W. Gardiner	18th October 1883 ...	9th November 1883
Mr. G. Smyth	10th November 1883 ...	Still in charge.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of population.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each *tahsil* and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families, while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881 :—

Percentage of total population who live in villages ...	Persons ...	68·34
	Males ...	68·43
	Females...	68·23
Average rural population per village ...		632
Average total population per village and town		918
Number of villages per 100 square miles...		55
Average distance from village to village, in miles		1·45
Density of population per square mile of ... Total area ...	Total population	504
	Rural population	345
Cultivated area ...	Total population	784
	Rural population	536
Culturable area ...	Total population	615
	Rural population	420
Number of resident families per occupied house ...	Villages	1·88
	Towns	2·03
Number of persons per occupied house ...	Villages	8·55
	Towns	9·29
Number of persons per resident family ...	Villages	4·54
	Towns	4·57

Among the 701 villages, the size varies greatly, from the huge estates* in Sunipat yielding several thousands of rupees revenue, to the petty hamlets near the city and in the north of Ballabgarh, paying only Rs. 50 or 60 yearly into the Treasury. The population varies accordingly: the average village will have an extent of about 991 acres, a population of 632, and pay something over a thousand rupees revenue. This fact stamps the district as much more akin in these points to the thickly inhabited and heavily assessed parts of the North-West Provinces than to the less fully developed tracts of the Punjab, where the incidence of the revenue is considerably lighter, and the square mile numbers far fewer inhabitants. A glance at the map will show that small towns are so distributed as to form almost everywhere a market not far distant in any case from any, even the

* The estate of Bhatgáon, which has been now assessed at Rs. 6,000 (dry *jama*) used to pay at one time Rs. 15,000, including that part of the revenue which is called owner's rate.

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Distribution of population.

most retired hamlet; and where there seems a comparative want of such a market, it will generally be found that the average size of the villages themselves is very comfortable. In the point of distribution of numbers then the district is fairly well-off, though, as might be expected, the thickest swarm of human beings is found in the carefully cultivated plains of the Khadar riverain, or in the still productive lands of the canal villages. The population of the hills is naturally sparse.

Migration and birthplace of population.

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and states with which the district has exchanged population, the number of emigrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by *tahsils*. Further details will be found in Table XI, and in supplementary Tables C to H of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the same Report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 149,666, of whom 61,037 are males and 88,629 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Panjáb is 109,992, of whom 43,643 are males and 66,349 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birthplace:—

Proportion per mille of total population.	Gain.	Loss.
Persons ...	231	1[illegible]
Males ..	177	127
Females ...	286	232

Born in	Proportion per mille of resident population.								
	Rural Population			Urban Population.			Total Population.		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males.	Females	Persons	Males.	Females	Persons
The District ..	878	891	789	713	734	723	824	706	766
The Province ...	944	891	929	805	820	813	902	868	886
India	1,000	1,000	1,000	997	999	999	998	1,000	999
Asia	1,000	1,000	1,000	998	999	999	999	1,000	999

The following remarks on the migration to and from Delhi are taken from the Census Report:—

"The amount of immigration is exceedingly large in proportion to the population. The attractions exercised by a great centre of commerce swells its amount, but the low percentage of males, and the fact that the proportion of people born in the district, and even in the Panjáb, is smaller among females than among males, show how largely the migration, at any rate between Delhi and the districts and provinces which border on it, is reciprocal. The percentage of males is highest in Hissár, Ambálah, Lahore and the Native States, none of which march with Delhi. It is also high among the immigrants from Rájpútana, which would seem to show that some of them had been driven to the river banks by scarcity of water and grass, or were perhaps engaged on the works of the new canal. Males are more numerous among immigrants than among emigrants, the immigration to a large urban centre always showing an excess of males. The excess emigration to Lahore and Ambálah is probably due to the attractions exercised by the provincial capital and the cantonments. Among the districts with which

exchange has been considerable, the emigration has been largest in proportion to immigration in those where density of population is smallest. But the fertility of the riverain and canal-watered tracts of Delhi has caused immigration from largely to exceed emigration into the neighbouring districts, except in the case of Karnál which offers identical attractions; though the extensive emigration into Rohtak is probably due, in part at least, to the ravages of saline efflorescence in many of the canal villages. The immigrants from the N. W. P. include some two or three thousand labourers working upon the new canal."

Migration and birth-place of population.

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

Increase and decrease of population.

	Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.
Actuals ...	1853	.....	.....	.....	497
	1868	621,563	333,192	288,371	426
	1881	643,515	344,016	299,499	634
Percentages	1868 on 1853 ...	.....	.....	.....	102
	1881 on 1868 ...	103·53	103·25	103·86	103

Unfortunately, the boundaries of the district have changed so much since the Census of 1853, that it is impossible to compare the figures; but the density of population as then ascertained probably did not differ much over the two areas. It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 25 for males, 26 for females, and 27 for persons, at which rate the male population would be doubled in 281·9 years, the female in 238·0 years, and the total population in 259·7 years. Supposing the same rate of increase to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be in hundreds as shown in the margin.

Year.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1881 ...	643,5	344,0	299,5
1882 ...	645,3	345,9	300,4
1883 ...	647,0	346,7	301,3
1884 ..	648,7	348,6	302,1
1885 ...	650,4	347,4	303,0
1886 ..	652,2	348,3	303,9
1887 ...	653,9	349,1	304,8
1888 ...	655,7	350,0	305,7
1889 ...	657,4	350,9	306,6
1890 ...	659,2	351,7	307,5
1891 ...	660,9	352,6	308,4

Nor is it improbable that the rate of increase will be sustained. Part of the increase is probably due to increased accuracy of enumeration at each successive enumeration, a good test of which is afforded by the percentage of males to persons, which was 54·30 in 1853, 53·60 in 1868 and 53·46 in 1881. Part again is due to gain by migration, as already shown at page 34. But the rate of increase is moderate; it has been reduced by mortality on the canal, which it is hoped that the realignment now in progress will diminish; and the population will probably continue to increase. The increase in urban population since 1868 has been far larger than that in rural population, the numbers living in 1881 for every 100 living in 1868 being 110 for urban, and 104 for total population. This is due to the great expansion of Delhi as a commercial centre, stimulated by the extension of railway communications. The populations of

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Increase and decrease of population.

individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI.

Tahsíl.	Total Population.		Percentage of population of 1881 on that of 1868.
	1868.	1881.	
Delhi ...	298,347	317,802	109
Sunipat ...	193,339	186,836	97
Ballabgarh ...	130,095	138,878	107
*Total district .	621,881	643,515	104

*These figures do not agree with the published figures of the Census Report of 1868 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various *tahsíls* is shown in the margin.

Mr. Maconachie in his Settlement Report gives the following interesting figures for the separate tracts included in the district.

Year.	Total population.	Bángar population.	Khádar population.	Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.	Bángar agriculturists.	Khádar agriculturists.	Bángar non-agriculturists.	Khádar non-agriculturists.
1842	1,12,271	71,586	40,685	61,709	50,562	32,353	23,356	33,233	17,329
1854	1,29,971	81,990	47,881	72,635	57,336	44,181	28,454	37,809	19,309
Per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1842 ...	15·67	14·52	17·68	17·72	13·18	15·14	21·95	13·85	11·95
1869	1,67,897	1,07,165	60,732	89,485	78,412	55,445	36,989	51,720	26,763
Per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1854 ...	33·83	30·17	31·60	27·19	42·01	29·42	23·54	41·9	42·42
Total per cent. increase on population of 1869 since 1842	49·5	49·7	49·25	44·91	55·19	44·56	45·49	55·63	54·53

Increase in rural population comparatively small.

Mortality on the W. J. Canal.

In his Census Report for 1881 the Deputy Commissioner writes as follows regarding the increase and decrease of population :—

"The total increase in the rural population is less than one per cent. which contrasts unfavourably with the rate of increase in the town population, where it is as high as 10·4 per cent.

"The decrease in the rural population of the Sunipat *tahsíl* is attributed to the presence of the W. J. Canal and to defective drainage. In Ballabgarh *tahsíl*, where there is little or no canal irrigation, the population has increased by 8·5 per cent., while in Delhi, where the canal runs through a portion only of the *tahsíl*, the population is stationary, the increase in the more healthy tracts being probably balanced by the decrease in the tract traversed by the canal. In the Sunipat *tahsíl* the canal runs through the entire length of the *tahsíl* from north to south, and there its effect is most marked. While the decrease in the Sunipat *tahsíl* generally amounts to 4·9 per cent, it is much higher in villages bordering on the canal. In some of these the decrease is very marked, as for instance in the table at the top of next page.

Special Census in Canal Villages.

"With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Canal on the health of persons residing in its vicinity, a Census of 25 villages in the Sunipat *tahsíl* bordering on the canal was taken in 1877. The

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Mortality on the W. J. Canal.

	1868.	1881.	Decrease.
Dábarpur ...	590	363	38 per cent.
Khizarpur Tát ...	441	295	33 "
Kheri Dya ...	793	549	31 "
Anandpur ...	354	244	31 "
Salemsar Májrah ...	1,747	1,243	28·8 "
Khubru ...	1,777	1,268	28·6 "
Karion ...	892	636	28·6 "
Sya Khera ...	750	542	27·7 "
Balli Kutabpur ...	1,641	1,237	24·6 "
Sirdhanah ...	861	707	17·8 "
Purkhas ...	3,609	2,967	17·7 "
Jharaut ...	648	536	17·2 "
Salauli ...	1,915	766	16·3 "
Jataulah ..	709	590	16·7 "
Hulaheri ...	994	845	15 "
Bhadanah ...	1,338	1,137	15 "
Thanah Khurd ...	1,216	983	19 "
Bajanah Khurd ...	1,610	1,368	15 "
Bajnah Kalana ...	1,335	1,170	12·3 "
Khylanah ...	1,166	1,027	11·9 "
Bádsháhpur ...	454	405	10·4 "
Jharauti ...	541	487	10 "

subjoined table shows the population of these villages in that year compared with the returns of 1868 and 1881:—

No.	Name of Village.	1868.	1877	1881.
1	Tájpur	634	419	491
2	Bhatgáon	3,976	4,442	4,068
3	Barwasni	2,167	1,895	1,993
4	Dábarpur	590	458	363
5	Nahura	1,683	1,846	1,777
6	Hulaheri	994	594	845
7	Garhi Brahminan	532	545	541
8	Bádshháhpur	454	377	405
9	Jhajji	625	581	517
10	Kakrobí	2,381	2,109	2,328
11	Juan	2,893	3,039	2,692
12	Satauli	915	836	766
13	Chitanah	927	835	891
14	Kheri Daya	793	636	549
15	Balana Jafrabad	405	476	461
16	Khizarpur Jat	441	469	295
17	Mailanah	1,379	1,151	1,243
18	Karcon	892	766	636
19	Hassanyarpur	367	405	357
20	Bhagru	723	703	660
21	Jharauli	541	514	487
22	Anandpur	354	287	244
23	Bhadanah	1,338	1,233	1,137
24	Jharaut	648	579	536
25	Robat	2,841	2,761	2,818
	Total	29,293	27,983	27,100

From this table, it appears that, during the nine years between 1868 and 1877, the population of these villages decreased from 29,085 to 27,983 or by 4·4 per cent; and in the next four years that is, between 1877 and 1881, there was a further decrease to 27,100, or of 3·1 per cent., making a total decrease of 7·5 in 13 years. There was an increase of population in four out of the 25 villages; but the increase was, with one exception, small compared with the decrease in the remaining villages. After making allow-

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Special Censes in Canal Villages.

ance for the transfer of villages and the changes of boundaries, there has been an increase of 82,046 acres or of 6·7 per cent. in the cultivated area; the increase is largest in the Ballabgarh *tahsíl*."

On the same subject Mr. Maconachie writes thus in 1880:

"The latest figures for the district generally are those of 1868; but for 21 canal villages in Sunipat, a Census was taken in 1877. Its object was primarily for sanitary statistics, but the figures are useful as showing what the canal, when misused, can do in the way of destroying human life. Their force cannot be properly understood unless they are compared so far as they may be with the population statistics of the *tahsíl*, which have just been given, and show a very large increase of population indeed. There is no reason whatever to suppose that since 1868 the general condition of the *tahsíl* will be found to have stopped increase of population altogether, though the rate of increase may have been retarded. But look at the facts in these canal villages: there is an absolute decrease of population: this decrease in such parts is quite as significant as is the general increase in the *tahsíl* taken as a whole; the figures are these :—

Year.	Total population.	Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.
1842	18,118	10,376	7,742
1854	20,437	11,690	8,747
Per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1842 ...	12·79	12·66	12·98
1868	26,941	13,898	13,043
Per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1854 ...	85·83	21·28	55·49
1877	25,768	13,388	12,380
Per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1868 ...	6·46	4·89	8·60
Total per cent. increase on population of 1842 since 1842	42·22	29·02	59·81

Birth and deaths.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881, and the births for 1880 and 1881, the only two years during which births have been recorded in rural districts. The distribution of the total deaths, and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables Nos. XIA. and XIB. The annual birth rates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, are as shown in the margin.

	1880.	1881.
Males	27	26
Females	14	22
Persons	31	48

The figures below show the annual death rates per mille since 1868, calculated on the population of that year :—

	1868	1869	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	Average.
Males	19	31	31	30	32	25	28	30	23	27	65	71	35	29	35
Females	20	30	37	29	33	28	30	30	24	28	66	72	33	37	36
Persons	20	30	31	29	32	26	30	30	24	28	65	71	34	38	35

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Births and deaths.

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and especially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881 which will be found at page 56 of that report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death rates in individual towns as are available will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

Age, sex, and civil condition.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great detail in Tables IV to VII of the Census Report of 1881, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for *tahsíla*. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures:—

	0—1	1—2	2—3	3—4	4—5	0—5	5—10	10—15	15—20
Persons	301	149	143	204	226	1,023	1,214	1,210	994
Males	286	146	139	191	227	989	1,316	1,276	968
Females	318	153	148	217	227	1,063	1,112	1,133	979

	20—25	25—30	30—35	35—40	40—45	45—50	50—55	55—60	over 60
Persons	1,034	940	870	481	705	330	542	144	516
Males	1,018	953	881	503	677	346	510	156	498
Females	1,053	926	871	457	737	313	570	129	563

Population.		Villages.	Towns.	Total.
All religions	1855	...	...	5,439
	1868	...	...	5,360
	1881	5,353	5,330	5,348
Hindus ...	1881	5,358	5,455	5,380
Jains ...	1881	5,356	5,120	5,228
Musalmans ...	1881	5,322	5,108	5,202
Christians ...	1881	...	6,543	6,569

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is shown in the margin. The decrease at each successive enumeration is almost certainly due to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the Census of 1881, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of life was found to be as shown in next margin.

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindus.	Musalmans.
0—1	868	955	1,002
1—2	911	902	952
2—3	923	895	1,025
3—4	988	...	...
4—5	872	...	...

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his Census Report for the district:—

"It is customary among Hindus to marry their children at an early age. Girls are usually married between the ages of 7 and 13, and boys

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Infanticide.

between the ages of 9 and 15. If the parents are in good circumstances their children are married at even earlier ages than the above. The ceremony of betrothal precedes the marriage by two or three years. The age of marriage is considerably later among Muhammadans.

"Rajpúts and Gújars among Hindus, and Meos and Pathána among Muhammadans, were formerly suspected of practising female infanticide, but it is believed that this crime has now ceased to exist. There is not much to say as to the treatment of female children. They are not, as a rule, ill-treated, but they do not receive the same care and attention as sons, especially among Hindus. Muhammadans treat their daughters with the same care as their sons. Up to 5 years of age the disproportion between the numbers of the sexes is not so great as at a later age. The disproportion increases as the age increases, and it is possible that this is due to greater mortality among the females, either as the result of neglect or of disease. Females being naturally weaker than males are less able to resist the ailments of childhood, and they die in greater numbers.

Disparity of the sexes.

"The majority of the Sikh and Christian population in this district are on service in the British or Native Regiments stationed at Delhi, and this explains the great disparity of the sexes in these two divisions, as a comparatively small proportion of the soldiers are married or have their families with them. Among Muhammadans the proportion of females is larger than among Hindus. To every 100 Muhammadan males there are 92·2 females; whereas there are only 85·5 females to every 100 Hindu males. Comparing the chief of Muhammadan tribes the one with the other the results are :—

	Males.	*Females.*
Pathána	100	92·8
Sheikhs	100	93·3
Syads	100	99·8
Mughals	100	101·1

"In three other sub-divisions of Muhammadans the proportion of females is even larger; thus :—

	Males.	*Females.*
Bilochis	100	103·4
Kassábs	100	105·4
Mirásis	100	103·2

"The exceptionally high proportion of females in these three classes is more apparent than real, and is probably due to the occupation of the men, which necessitates their absence from home for long periods at a time, Mirásis earn their livelihood chiefly by begging from village to village. Bilochis are largely employed as camel drivers, and Kassábs are chiefly engaged in trading in cattle and grain. Among Hindús, the only class in which there is an approach to equality between males and females is Saráogis. Among these the proportion of males to females is as 52·28 to 47·72, that is, for every 100 male Saráogis there are 91·2 females; but in the towns of Delhi and Sunípat this proportion is exceeded. In these the proportions are :—

	Males.	*Females.*
Delhi	100	93
Sunípat	100	103

Causes of disparity of sexes.

"Two causes may be assigned for the differences in the proportion of females to males among Hindus and Muhammadans respectively: 1st, that more females than males are born to Muhammadans than to Hindus; and 2ndly, that a higher rate of mortality obtains among Hindu females owing (*a*) to their being less carefully reared in childhood than males, and (*b*) owing to the system of early marriages. Thus the proportion of girls