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A HISTORICAL STUDY OF DHARWAD DISTRICT OF KARNATAKA WITH EMPHASIS ON BRITISH CONTROL: DEVISED AND ORGANIZED

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ABSRACT

Aim- The purpose of this work is to comprehend how British East India Company officials established the minutiae of public administration in Dharwad, and to determine whether these patterns were well thought out for administrative ease. To ensure that the actions taken were progressive and that no modifications have occurred in the recent century.

Methodology & Sources- This work's data is entirely based on authentic original documents. These records will be mostly obtained from the Pune Archives and the Maharashtra State Archives in Mumbai. The following libraries can be used for detailed library work: Deccan College, Gokhale Institute, and Naoroji Wadia College are among the institutions that contain well-read volumes by Principal R.D. Choksi. National Archives, New Delhi, Joint Services Institute Library, Pune, Southern Command Library, Pune, British Library, Pune, and Max Muller Bhawan Library. Madras Literary Society, Chennai, Tamil Nadu Archives, Pune. Nashik Numismatic Society, Connemara Library, Chennai Bangalore Archives, Xavier's Historical Research Centre, Goa, and Goa Archives are all located in Goa. Today, interviews with Dharwad or public service personnel are commonly held in order to better understand the system.

Results- The result of the study is shows that the administrative framework created in Dharwad to allow British control to flourish effectively. When the company's commercial powers were ultimately revoked in the nineteenth century, they retained control of the geographical territories. Their sole responsibility was to govern India, and they were generously compensated for the purpose.

Keywords: Southern Maratha Country, East India company, sarvants, administration, villages & postal arrangements

INTRODUCTION

The Indian government was built up in such a way that concerns Indian were always viewed against the backdrop of British ideals and interpretations. Dharwad was governed by Bombay, Calcutta, and London. Typically, decisions are made on the moment by the concerned authorities. However, throughout late eighteenth & nineteenth centuries, direction of policy was



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molded by London officials, who essentially defined the policies. The majority of authority was first concentrated in the hands of the London headquarters. Because choices had to be made fast, the soldiers in the field gained increasingly powerful over time, especially given the slow means of communication [1].

District Collectors all throughout British India rose to the desirable position of high visibility and authority in this manner. The district was certainly the administrative hub. Given the size and problems of the vast area, the Collector of Dharwad had to be among the finest professionals available for the job at the beginning of British rule, beginning with William Chaplin and followed by St. John Thackeray, both of whom were rated among the best men in the Madras civil service of their day.

The Dharwad district was handed to the Company, among other things, by Treaty of Poona inJune 1817, in substitution of a detachment of cavalry and soldiers, which the Peshwa had been pledged to provide by the Treaty of Bassein.

The settlement of newly acquired country (proclamation of occupation was issued on February 11th, 1818) was naturally regarded as a vital job, and Thomas Munro, who had conquered the area for the British, suggested the name of William Chaplin, Collector of Bellary, who was appointedunder Mountstuart Elphinstone as PrincipalCollector of Maratha country, south of Krishna, & Political Agent to the raja of Kolhapur & southern jagirdars. When Elphinstone took over the rule of Bombay on November 1, 1819, Chaplin took over as Commissioner for this captured province. Thus, the Collector of Dharwad had to perform delicate taskof negotiating relations with the southem chiefs, whom the authorities wished to conciliate and draw into the system to help strengthen their control, in addition to the strenuous job of attending to the collection of revenue & disbursal of justice for the vast expansive collectorate. This was a massive endeavor that required endurance and understanding to complete.

In 1830, Court of Directors determined that districts of Karnatak should remain part of Presidency of Bombay. The administration of Bombay approved Regulation VII on March 17, 1830, bringing areas of Southern Maratha Country, obtained by conquest from the Peshwa or bynegotiation & agreement from other governments, within the operation of Regulations. The areas were combined into a single zila or collectorate, known as the Dharwad zila or district. [2] Apart from the current collectorate, this comprised parts of the current Belgaum. Kaladgi (the southernmost portion of the following Bijapur district) and Solapur districts

Dharwad consisted of the following talukas in 1825[3]" Dharwad [4]. Misrikote. Navalgund Hubli. Bagalkot, Dambal, Ron Badami. Padshapur's Hungund. Parasgad. Kittur Sampgaon, Bidi, Ranebennur, Gutal, Kod. Hangal, and Bankapur are among the towns.

Dharwad had 18 talukas in 1833. Elliott, sub-collector of Hubli, reported on the 29th of October 1833 that the Dharwad sub-divisions in that year were as follows: Dharwad, Parasgad, Navalgund, Padshahpur, Dambal Bankapur, Hangal, Hubli Ranebennur Kod,



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Sampgaon,Bidi Chikodi Bagaikot Badami Hurgund India & Muddebihal. Five of them were assigned to the Hubli sub-collector, six to the Bagalkot sub-collector, and the remainder to the Dharwad collector.

The entire SouthernMaratha Country continued tofunction as collectorate of Dharwad, or, as stated in documents from 1818 to 1826, as the Carnatic Collectorate. On April 28, 1836, the Bombay government decided to partition the main Collectorate of Dharwad into two collectorates, northern & southern. Dunlop, the acting collector of Dharwad at the time, proposed that the Belgaum collectorate have 10 subdivisions and Dharwad have eight. Dharwad district was divided into eight sub-divisions after the division of the Collectorate in 1836: Dharwad, Hubli, Hangal, Bankapur, Ranebennur, Kod, Dambal, and Navalgund. Belgaum was divided intoten talukas: Parasgad, Sampgaon, Padshapur, Chikodi, and Bagalkot. Indi, Muddebihal, and Hungund are all names. Bidi and Badami, On 3 May 1836. As the first assistant collector of the Belgaum collectorate, A Ravenscroft took over.

The talukas of India and Muddebihal were moved to the new Collectorate of Solapur, Bijapur Kaladgi) shortly after the delineation of this new Collectorate, as a Collectorate came into being only in 1864, which is after the era of this research. The 3 talukas of Bagalkot, Hungund, & Badami were assigned to newly created Collectorate on May 1, 1864. The number and names of the talukas remained the same in 1839[5].

The Dambal talukas became the Dharwad district [6] in 1843. Bankapur. Nargund [7], Kod, Dharwad, Hubli, Navalgund, Misrikote, Ranebennur, Mulgund mahal [8], Hangal, and Tadas are some of the nearby towns. Dharwad had 11 sub-divisions from 1843 to 1960.

Dharwad district's 11,250 square kilometers were split into eleven sub-divisions for administrative purposes in 1860. To the north of the Savanur and Patwardhan villages were Dharwad and Kalghatgi in the west, Navalgund and Hubli in the center, and Ron and Gadag in the east; the 7th subdivision, Bankapur, was mixed with and lay to the west of the Savanur villages; and the remaining four segments were Hangal in the west, Kod in the south-west, Ranebennur in the south-east, and Karajgi in the east. These sub-divisions had an average area of 1025 kilometers, 147 villages, and a total of 80.260 people, according to the Dharwad Gazetteer.

Just over a century later [9], in 1961, the talukas of Dhanwad district are as follows: Byadgi, Dharwad. Gadag. Hangal. Haven. Hirekerur. Hubli.Kalghatgi, Kundagol, Mundargi, and Nargund are all names. Navalgund. Ranebennur. Shiggaon, Ron. Shirahatti has 16 talukas in total. The names of the talukas were frequently misspelled in early British times (for example, the first taluka on our list here, Byadgi, was spelled Baiadgi),[10] and subsequently, as can be seen from a study of the maps, some of the localities were given alternative names entirely.

Thus, upon the district's accession to the British, the Collector of Dharwad served as both Collector-Magistrate and Political Agent of the Southern Maratha Country, the latter function requiring him to interact with the area's jagirdars, as detailed below. Also, during British administration, the district was spelled Dharwar, but it is now known as Dharwad, which means



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"gateway town," but the district capital town is still Dharwar, following the pattern of Indianizing other district names in the country.

SOUTHERN MARATHA COUNTRY

Under the British, the district known politically as the Southern Maratha Country matched almost perfectly to the Maratha geographical division of the Carnatic, or the land situated between rivers Krishna in north & Tungabhadra in south, an area often referred to as the Doab in early part of nineteenth century. Geographically, the Krishna Tungabhadra Doab is a unique physical entity. It had constituted an autonomous unit at times, albeit not always politically. It was known to the Peshwas as the Karnatak Doab, as well as Prant Kamatak. Southern Maratha Country was an imperfect characterization drawn from Sir Thomas Munro's dispatches. It did, however, coincide with the colloquial usage of the term in mid-nineteenth century, when Political Agent in Southern Maratha Country was referred to as the Political Agent in the Carnatic. It should be emphasized that certain Patwardhan properties were located outside of this district, as far north as Pandharpur.

The British Collectorates of Belgaum, Dharwad, and Kaladgi, as well as the princely kingdoms of Savanur, comprised the Southem Maratha Country. Mudhol, Sangli, Miraj, Kurundwad, Jamkhandi, Nargund, and Ramdurg are among the towns. The following states were once listed but subsequently became part of British territory. Kittur, Chinchni, Nippani, Tasgaon, and Shedbal or Kagwad were among them. Kolhapur may also be included in its boundaries.

It was this part of the kingdom, along with the Peshwa's other domains, that fell to the British after his defeat in 1818. For many years, it was governed and politically oversaw by the main collector in Dharwad, acting on the directives of the commissioner in the Deccan. When the necessity for a commissioner ceased, it was proposed that the Warna be transferred to the Madras Presidency, making the Warna the southern boundary of both the Bombay Presidency and the newly formed state of Satara. When William Chaplin resigned as commissioner in 1826, he opposed the idea, which resulted in the subsequent action noted above.

After the commissionership was dissolved, the political authority of the district was assumed by the Principal Collector of Dharwad for a number of years. However, when the state was divided in 1836, Collector of Belgaumbecame Political Agent, leaving kingdoms of Savanur & Nargund alone with Dharwad. This official was granted a special assistant for political tasks in 1843, and following the events that occurred around that time, he was freed of the superintendence of Kolhapur, which was made a distinct responsibility. For some years following this, the Collector of Belgaum did not hold the status of Political Agent, and the political responsibilities of the Southern Maratha Country were executed in combination with those of Kolhapur by the Agent there.

The presence of a representative or Agent in the maim Indian courts preserved the political connections between the government & Indian states in conjunction with Bombay



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Presidency. Elphinstone emphasized that the British strategy was to establish government rights with high strictures in the initial agreements, but to be very lenient in enforcing them [11].

Under Chaplin, too, the concept of enabling chiefs to decide their own issues was implemented from the start, recognizing that British officers lacked the intimate understanding of the chiefs and their customs to properly handle their problems. When they asked for help on their own, he offered that their disagreements be adjudicated before a body of sardars appointed by the government [12].

Finally, in 1827, Regulation XXIX split chiefs and their powers into three groups. Certain individuals of rank were exempted from the jurisdiction of civil courts by this statute, and it was stated that an agent of the government be expressly chosen to receive, try, and determine all civil complaints against them that would usually have been cognisable by the judges. Those in the first group were "individuals of the very first distinction and influence under the Peshwa's regime. The second category included of individuals who were not equivalent to those mentioned above, but were of great status and significance in the Peshwa's government. Individuals lesser in status to those of the preceding divisions, but nonetheless properly entitled, on account of the benefits previously enjoyed, to a certain particular degree of attention, were put in the third category.

William Chaplin, both as Political Agent at Dhanwad and then as Commissioner of the Deccan, dealt deftly with the Southern Maratha Chiefs. While serving as collector of Dhanwad, Chaplin assessed the strategic importance of the Southern Maratha territory and recommended its fusion with British territory as critical to the Company Bahadurs (meaning trader and ruler) rule, claiming the mantle of Mughal heritage that had elevated them from the position of Diwan of Bengal. Nonetheless, he adhered to Elphinstone's policy of granting them internal liberty, despite actual worries of their anti-Peshwa sentiments emerging, and they were not allowed to speak with the Peshwa during the first two years of British control. Overall, they were at ease because they felt the jagirdars would not seek to cut the limb on which they were seated, out of allegiance to the Peshwa. Not in regard to standing. Chaplin instructed Thackeray in no uncertain terms not to intervene in their private matters until under great provocation as a last sweep.

With their diminished holdings, the Southern Maratha jagirdars felt unable to maintain themselves in the manner they had previously. Their creditors were also twisting their arms. Sir John Malcolm, as Governor, had likewise worked hard to retain the ancient Deccan order. The Regulation of 1827 had provided them criminal justice authority and freedom from the Company's criminal and civil processes. Malcolm, by the Regulation of 1830, gave them civil justice administration by issuing special sanads or charters. He also did not abandon the rituals established by his previous officials who had served in the region, such as visiting their chiefs and lands and hosting festivities when they met him. Later, the Inam Commissioners criticized the approach as one of political necessity rather than legal nicety. There was also criticism at home for the perceived speed with which the agreements were reached. Though the chiefs'



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dignity suffered as their independence was pushed into the framework of British control, reducing their power of leverage and movement, it is an attestation of their acceptance of this control, however vexing, that the British retained the support of the majority of the Southern Maratha Chiefs during the mutiny of 1857.

SERVANTS OF THE STATE

On November 6, 1850, East India Company'sCourt of Directors agreed to settle allowances of hereditary village officers (gaudas and kulkarnis) in the provinces of the Deccan and Southern Maratha Country[13]. The Bombay Government believed that the period of the revenue surveys provided the best, if not the only, opportunity to effect the required settlement of village officer allowances, and directed the superintendent of the survey, Wingate, to proceed with the regulation of these allowances, restricting him from implementing any increased payments until the government's sanction was communicated to him. The need, or rather the necessary necessity, of putting these officials on a solid foundation seems to be acknowledged by all Bombay Presidency[14] authorities who took part in the debate, both revenue and judicial.

The superior village servants included the gauda and kulkami. In this case, the norm of settlement was to provide place for a suitable compensation for the member officiating temporarily. Land, mainly free of rent, directlevies in cash or in kindfrom raiyats, or compensation in lieu of it, & cash emoluments from government treasury were most common sources of income. The real worth of the income obtained from these sources was calculated, and a proper emolument was paid to the one officiating when adequate; wheninsufficient, an assignment from Treasury covered balance; and when morethan adequate, land in surplus was assessed tone-half of revised survey rates. This technique & manner of computation obtained for the state profit of the lapse of cash allowances on death of the current occupants, which partially compensated for the additional amount that had to be paid from the treasury. Gaudas and kulkamis, who were not watandars, just received the officiates' stipend. The compensation was set on a sliding basis based on a proportion of the village's earnings.

The previously mentioned district hereditary officials of Dharwad district were previously the major apparatus for revenue collection. Their tasks were now totally overtaken by the British authorities' new revenue system. From the outset of British control in the region, theseofficers were allowed toperform their time-honored duties either directly or through a candidate. However, neither they nor their deputies proved to be particularly competent servants at taluka and district offices, & as the revenue survey progressed, the services they could provide became less and less important. The villages and lands held by these officials were for duty, thus if the government no longer required their services, they should be returned to their villages and estates. However, the state thought it was vital to take a lenient approach toward the ancient zamindar classes if required. The commission led by by Stewart St. John Gordon only finished this task here in 1863. (It was made at zamindars own request by government that their watans



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would remain inalienable latter settlement as they had been previous to it.). The provisions of the sanad granted were not uniform in all areas of the Dharwad sub-division. Mountstuart Elphinstone had decreed that all saranjams be destroyed. [15] alternatively a donation of royal share of revenue, but not of the soil, made before 1751 should be considered hereditary, and this was upheld.

ADMINISTRATION

Bombay, British India's Western Presidency, was split into four revenue divisions and 24 British districts. Several indigenous states were also included. In the beginning, the Western Carnatic or South Maratha districts, with their headquarters in Dharwad, were assigned to a single collector. Revenue management was committed to a collector and his helpers, at least half of whom were covenanted public officials. There were civil courts for resolving civil issues. For the resolution of criminal problems, there were distinct courts. Aside from the courts and the Judge's offices. In Dharwad district, there were government and aided private schools, as well as a Collector, an AssistantCollector, a District Superintendent ofPolice, an executive engineer, & other District offices.

The nine districts or collectorates that comprised the Deccan division represented little more than two-fifths of the total Presidency and provided about half of its population. Khandesh had the most people, Satara had the most, and Dharwad had the highest population density. If the division's total territory had been shared evenly, the average size of each district would have been somewhat more than 15 lakhs and 54.000 hectares; Pune, Satara, Solapur, Belgaum, and Dharwad were all smaller. Similarly, the populations of Khandesh, Pune, Satara, Belgaum, and Dhanwad were higher than the division average of 885,118. In terms of density per hectare, the district was above average.

COLLECTOR-MAGISTRATE

The Collector and Magistrate was the primary executive and magisterial authority in this district, as in others, with the extra designation of 'Political Agent,' while District & Sessions Judge was chief judicial officer. The Collectible abilities Magistrate's and responsibilities touched almost each subject that happened to come under the feature of a civilized govt, and he was not just responsible, as his title inferred, for the collection of revenue from land, traditions, salt and excise monopolistic practices, and so on, and for the oversight of magistrates under his control, but he also had to regulate the functioning of the different departments trying to deal with forests, water management, police, jails, schooling, sa. [16] In his tiny local area, the Collector oversaw everything the Home Secretary did in Britain, because he represented a paternal rather than a constitutional government. [17]

Every year, the Collector of Dharwad travelled his area, allowing him to visit the most distant places and be seen by Dharwad residents who desired to petition him. He then examined



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the data obtained by the various village officers. The mamlatdar confirmed the information, and the Collector or his assistant decided how much each village had to increase or decrease. This was always in relation to the previous year's rental. The district Collector oversaw the kulvaf, or personal settlement, of select villages ineach sub-division. The rest was completed by the mamlatdar, subject to Collector approval.

Following [18] maujewa' jamabandi, or yearly villagesettlement, the mamlatdar visited each hamlet and asked comprehensive questions about each cultivator's tenure, neld, family, and property. As soon as the village rental was determined, the Collector informed the notable cultivators of the increase or decrease in the village rental in comparison to the previous year. These individuals informed their counterparts in their villages. Then, under the close observation of the mamlatdar, they settled on the specific rent of each cultivator. If the allocation was generally deemed appropriate, the mamiatdar confirmed it. The previous government's standard rent, mamul pattis or standard levies, and those elements of the jasti pattis or extra cases that looked equitable were confirmed. The additional taxes were then added to the original rental and regular levies. Any cess that was not specified in the patta or document was rejected. The rent was plainly displayed. Unscheduled arbitrary cessations were made difficult to implement. During early years of Britishrule, cultivators in some parts of Dharwad wanted their assessments to be set in perpetuity. They only want remissions in exceptional cases. Dharwad's town lands, or Qasba[19], were surveyed, and the lands were arranged or assessed[20]. The farmers appreciated this action, which prohibited rental modifications [21]. Any issues concerning yearly rent settlementwere resolved by a panchayat or jury comprised of landholders.

Each taluka or group of villages had a mamiatdar, whose monthly salary, which had been enhanced, ranged from Rs 150 to Rs 250. The mamlatdar's responsibilities included overseeing tax collection, administering police force, & accepting civil & criminal complaints, the first of which he submitted to the panchayats and the second to the collector.

To assist him with his responsibilities, he was given a staff consisting of a sheristadar or record-keeper paid Rs 30 to Rs 40 per month, an accountant, and junior clerks. Obtaining mamlatdars of the night criteria was first difficult: A few men from the Madras Presidency had to be brought in to act as a check on the authorities in Dharwad. The gauda, along with the kulkami, reported to the mamlatdar and was in charge of the village's revenue and police administration. His powers were limited by the mamlatdar's tight monitoring in the British system, and his salary was decreased by the reduction or cancellation of the Maratha tax known as sadar warid patti.

The mamlatdar was responsible for his taluka's treasury operations. He took care to ensure that the various villages paid their instalments on time, that the village accounts were properly maintained, that the occupants received proper receipts for their payments, that boundary marks were kept in good repair, & that village officers did their jobs properly. He also oversaw management of municipal money and served as a deputy magistrate. The taiuka was



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sub-divided into groups of villages, each of which was under the direct control of a subordinate of the mamlatdar called "circle-inspector".

The assistant or deputy collector assigned to a district sub-division with three or four talukas, He had to go about them for seven months of the year to see that the income business was being done appropriately; during the wet season, he lived at the district headquarters. The Collector and Magistrate oversaw the entire area and had to travel for at least four months out of the year. The Commissioners had overall supervision and authority over their divisions' revenue administration.

Only one of the 22 mamlatdars in 1821 was from Dharwad. The other mamlatdars and their shirastedars, or chief clerks, arrived from the south. The vast majority of the peshkars, or treasury clerks, were new to Dharwad. Three out of every four clerks were from the Bombay Presidency. The others were from the Madras Presidency. The rental system has fully corrupted the individuals hired by the Peshwa. Giving them positions of trust was therefore risky [22]. The mamlatdars' salanes were just 2% of their whole collection[23]. Thackeray believed that the revenue officers of his day were more concerned with lording it over the villages, and that they demonstrated a fake ardour by demonstrating an increase merely on paper. If the mamlatdars were trustworthy, their influence may be advantageous. It might also control the tyranny of bad village chiefs. [24]

The Regulations detailed above clearly outlined the magisterial responsibilities of the Collector, his assistant, and mamlatdars. We now go on to the ziladar, who, while being a tax official, was frequently called upon to assist in magisterial investigations. One ziladar oversaw the several villages that made up his zila: he received all reports and forwarded them to the taluka's mamlatdar.

VILLAGES

A Collectorate had an average of eight to twelve talukas, each with 100 to 200 Government villages: that is, villages whose whole revenue belonged to the state. Dharwad district was substantially larger than typical at the advent of British administration. Each village had its own set of officers, some of whom were hereditary. The gauda, the village leader, was the principal person on whom the government relied for both tax and policing reasons. the kulkarni, talati, or shanabhog, who served as clerk and accountant, messenger, and watchman The gauda and kuikarm possessed a certain amount of rent-free land at times, but were nearly generally remunerated by a cash payment comparable to a proportion of the collected under the British. The messenger and watchman, as well as other village servants, owned land on special conditions in terms of assessment and were granted grain and other in-kind payments from the people. Other town employees included a carpenter, a blacksmith, a potter, a barber, and others whose labor was vital to the community. A Dharwad village was for government orsocial reasons, complete in itself, & completely independent of the outside world. However, as the



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British system of government became more centralized and bureaucratic, its autonomy became less than it was under Indian administration.

We've seen the individual components of a village. Its dealings with the government will be revealed eventually, but for the time being, some of its internal matters must be revealed. The care of the local temple, its regular and authorized pensions and yearly charity, handouts to beggars and expenditure on guests, its occasional entertainments, nazars or presents to superiors. Itsofferings to gaudas & other village administrators, the money spent by the gauda on public concerns, all of them represented many obligations on the community, which were taken care of by a tax on the village if not sanctioned from government revenue, which was highly rare.

Normally, these costs accounted for one-tenth to one-fifth of total government revenue. Aside from this, there were occasional costs such as village wall repairs, entertaining sibandis for reverence, or paying an adversary. In this situation, the town accepted a public debt, which was gradually repaid by mortgages or land gifts from the residents. These were called as gaumuisbat inams. If they were low enough to be accepted by government, norent was imposed; but, if they weretoo large tobe accepted by the government, revenue was contributed by all other raiyats, with creditor still enjoying them free of rent.

The next unit was a taraf, which was made up of an unlimited number of villages, maybe with the addition of unoccupied mountain & forest territory, with no additional area not included in one or more villages. A taraf was not assigned to a single officer; instead, a group of them formed a pargana, which was overseen by a deshmukh, who performed the same tasks in the pargana that a gauda did in the village. One officer, Deshpande, played the part of the kulkami, and the other, Desha-chaugula, assisted him. These two officials, the deshmukh and the deshchaugula, were marathas or lingayats, but the deshpande and kulkami were brahmins. Above them in Dharwad were the sir-deshmukhs and sir-deshpandes, although this rank of officials was obsolete before British administration, save in the Carnatic.

It was widely considered that the deshmukhs and deshpandes were all appointed by a governing power at some time. It appeared likely that theywere revenue officers of ancient Hindu dynasties, and that their offices, which were hereditary like almost all other offices under Indian rulers, were the repositories of far too much information and influence to have been set aside by the Muhammadan rulers, who, while appointing district officers of their own ilk, used the knowledge of these zamindars, & gave them permission to settle with gaudas, Explaining the method to the government's direct officer. The Muhammadan kings sometimes rented out the whole pargana to the deshmukhs, who obtained so much control in parts of the nation that when the Muhammadan rulers in the Deccan collapsed, they could maintain themselves relatively independently for a spell. Because of this situation and their proclivity to pilfer public funds, the Maratha government almost abolished the appointment of zamindars.

Despite the fact that the zamindars were no longer the primary agents, they were still used to manage the mamlatdar, and no accounts were allowed until authenticated by identical



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accounts from them. However, except in the periphery provinces of Gujarat and here in the district of Dharwad, this approach was discontinued when the agricultural system was established. These officials retained ownership of lands & fees that were originally assigned to themas payment. Even after establishment of British rule, they were regarded as government servants, but the only duty they performed for the British was to produce theirold records when requested, to assist in resolving land disputes through the examination of such records, & to keep a register of allnew grants & transfers of land made by government or individuals. Perhaps this register was rather incomplete, because an individual was not obligated to report his action on a regular basis; he did it only when he felt like it.

The deshmukh made enormous profits; it was widely reported that he earned more than 5% on both revenue and land. The gauda and kulkami allowances were exactly the same type, but significantly less in quantity. All of these fees were assessed by the proprietors and were not collected by government. All of these bureaucrats sold theirland or fees, or watan, but none of them claimed ownership of the remaining estates. It was thought thatthey couldn't even sell theiroffices, but the gaudas & kulkamis could, & it was irrelevant whether they could selltheir fees, thoughthey could pawn them. They could certainlysell their property.

In Dharwad, there were typically 12 village office-bearers known as bara balutedars. They comprised

- 1. the patil or gauda as he was called m Dharwad, or head revenue & police officer,
- 2. Kulkami. called shanabhoga in Karnatak or accountant a & registrar,
- 3. The sutar or carpenter,
- 4. The lohar or blacksmith,
- 5. The chambar or worker inleather,
- 6. The kumbhar or potter,
- 7. The nhavi or barber,
- 8. The parit or washerman,
- 9. The joshi or astrologer,
- 10. The gurawa or priest,
- 11. The sonar or goldsmith,
- 12. The mahar, orwatchman.

They differ by location, both in name and number, but bara or towelve were deemed the appropriate number of officials, or balutedars, for each hamlet. The gauda, chaugala, kulkami, sonar, who was both a silversmith and an assayer of money, and the mahar were the only ones involved in government administration. Each of these groupings had one or more persons, showing that their original families had grown. The mahars always traveled in groups of four or five.

CHAUGIA, MAHAR AND SONAR



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The chaugla carried out the gauda's directives and assisted him in his responsibilities; he also kept track of the kulkarni's records. The mahar's most important revenue duty was to keep an eye on boundaries, both of village grounds & of each individual'sfield, to ensure that they were notencroached upon & to provide evidence in the event that they were disputed. He also kept an eye on crops, whether cut or growing, as long as they lay in the fields. He was also public's messenger and guide, as well as the most powerful player in the police system. Aside from being the local silversmith, the sonar or potdar tested any money given over to the government or people.

The Bagalkot sub-collector had filed an intriguing report on the function of village servants in Dharwad district. His studies revealed that a well-defined social structure had existed in these locations from ancient times, allowing each person to fit into his social slot and provide purpose to his entire life. Being a component, however minor, in the life of the community provided an individual significance and a feeling of fulfillment, no doubt contributing to enhance his life and the lives of others.

Bagalkot sub-collector- This officer's role was to function as an executive servant in all matters: they held land not entirely free, but merely paid "yelesale" every third year, i.e. one-fifth of the amount the land would bear if farmed by any other raiyat. Although tradition had nearly made it so, the son did not inherit the deceased father, and the case was declared hard worded. Depending on the size of the hamlet, their numbers ranged from one to one hundred. Some setsanadis' earnings were less than five rupees per year, and they seldom surpassed 25 rupees. The setsanadis of one village were occasionally, albeit infrequently (and then entitled to batta or allowance), directed to serve duty in another, with this measure being particularly insulting.

There were serious reservations about this public officer's effectiveness. It was an expensive police system with many potential for fraud, as well as difficulties in bringing the same to light. Of course, there were numerous objections to implementing improvements, especially those that were rushed. The sub-collector of Bagalkot, on the other hand, thought that an experiment could be made in a few villages, and if it was found desirable to keep this establishment up in preference to a smaller number of stipendiary police, the setsanadis should be bound to furnish a certain number of their body, who should always be ready to move on any particular police duty within the taluka. However, The government believed that when setsanadis engrossed the land, as in the example given by Shaw, it could only be viewed as an abuse, and that steps could be taken to reduce the establishment, either by not filling vacancies or by relocating some of the setsanadis to villages where they were needed. This type of policing, however, did not cost the government the entire income of all the land they enjoyed, as most of it would be garbage if not disposed of properly [25].



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TABLE 1 STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF VILLAGES AND SETSANADIS IN EACH TALOOK OF THE DHARWAD COLLECTORATE

NO	NAME OF TALOOK	STATE OF VILLAGE	NO OF VILLAGES	NO OF SETSANADIS
1	Dharwad	Inhabited	110	665
		Uninhabited	28	20
		Total	138	685
2	Navalgund	Inhabited	178	1495
		Uninhabited	0	0
		Total	178	1495
3	Dambal	Inhabited	88	954
		Uninhabited	1	0
		Total	89	954
4	Bankapur	Inhabited	135	314
		Uninhabited	2	0
		Total	137	314
5	Hangal	Inhabited	153	261
		Uninhabited	8	1
		Total	161	262
6	Hubli	Inhabited	158	359
		Uninhabited	45	6
		Total	203	365
7	Ranebennur	Inhabited	126	333
		Uninhabited	4	1
		Total	130	334
8	Kod	Inhabited	236	228
		Uninhabited	9	3
		Total	245	231
9	Abstract	Grand Total	1181	4646
		Inhabited	1084	4609
		Uninhabited	97	31
			1181	4646

source: letter no.467 of 1845 to w.escombe, secretary to govt. pune archives. District Collector's Office Sd. H. E. Goldsmid 2-April 1845 Acting Collector.

With the exclusions mentioned, all of the villagers were cultivators, and because there were only a few laborers, they were divided into two classes based on their tenures: landed proprietors and non-landed proprietors. as well as those of upris or farmers. All land that did notbelong to the landowners belonged to the government or those who had been allotted it by the government. Except for a small portion held on its own holdings, the government's cultivated land was always leased to upris, who had a lease that terminated when their claim & dues expired. All of the tenures on which land was held will be referred to subsequently in terms of property of soil, assignments of its revenue, or share of output.



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POSTAL ARRANGEMENTS

The importance of the postal department in fostering communication between various locations and the various organs of government cannot be overstated. Prior to the introduction of trains and even all weather passable roads, the need for a good postal system can be seen. The British government relied on the postal service to provide news and information. The Mughals had already created an imperial mail service. However, the British started the public service in 1837.

There were normally two delivery every day. One each in the morning and evening. Evening delivery, on the other hand, occurred only when the mail came early in afternoon, & hours for receiving despatch by day's mail were between 10 a.m. and 5 p.m. The parcels were received & dispatched via Bombay dak line that went to and from Harihar through Pune, Satara, Kurar, Kolhapur, Belgaum, and Dhanwad, with line from Kurar to Harihar being under Post Master at Belgaum [26].

Before 1849, the runners were paid Rs 5 per month by the government, but after that, the delivery of mail from Kurar to Harihar was delegated to a contractor. There were dak chowkies, each with three permanent runners, and if mails & barighies proved too heavy, maharbigaries were used & paid Rs 0.12 each stage.

During the rains, much time was wasted crossing all numerous streams in unwieldy ferry-boats, while at large nullas, therewas no permanent convenience of transport, & a supply of smaller sizedfishing boats canoes would have been ideal for the purpose, as though these hurdles, taken one at a time, may appear trivial, they caused serious delay. The greatest demand was for a well-marked large track that was as straight as practicable and clearly allocated. With a penalty to be paid wherever the line was encroached upon, and if night-conveyance lighting could have been provided, the speed and safety of the mails would have been significantly improved.

A network of welcoming homes in Sangli's neighboring major towns. Miraj and Tasgaum would have been invaluable to both the people and the government. The district dak would occasionally forward service and paid letters intended for those living in these areas, but those requiring postage were frequently returned, to to the chagrin of the senders.

The yellowpaper used for writing in the area was of very fine texture & light weight, with a singleletter seldom weighing morethan three goonj (5 3/8 grains Troy), and a postage of Rs. 0.03 levied for a distance of 160 km. The approach of clubbing letters together was used to a significant degree, so that 8 ofthese little letters, each weighing 3 goonJ, could be mailed to anystation 160 km away for the price of Rs, 0.03. But, under the present system, a person had to wait until a certain number of letters were gathered before he could send his letter at the reduced cost of postage, and the implementation of a graded system of weight and postage was guaranteed to benefit both the people and the government.



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LOCAL OR MULKI DAK

Aside from the main post, Dharwad had a local district post, or dak. Official and private letters were sent from the various petahs to the Huzur Cutcherry via this channel. However, no postage was applied to either. The district dak might cost between Rs 2,500 and Rs 3,000 each year. Everynight at 9 p.m., it was dispatched, and the runners went at a speed of 3,2 kilometers per hour. It is assumed that about 1,000 officialpackets & hundred private letters were received at Dharwad & same number were despatched during month, & because of the local paper used in letter-writing, estimated postage calculated according to usual tariffs would have worked out to Rs 1,000 for the official packets and Rs 100 for the private letters.

CONCLUSIONS

Such was the administrative framework created in Dharwad to allow British control to flourish effectively. When the company's commercial powers were ultimately revoked in the nineteenth century, they retained control of the geographical territories. Their sole responsibility was to govern India, and they were generously compensated for the purpose. The firm appeared ill-equipped for the duty of territorial governance in eighteenth century. Because the majority of company's employees had worked in the commercial line, they had little expertise with revenue administration, which had now become the company's mainstay. Despite this, the company's bureaucratic structure, with its covenanted workers who could be freely transferred and had a controlled career from junior to senior roles, has supplied the administrative framework for a modern form of government in Dharwad, as well as the rest of India.

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