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Agriculture in Nepal

By

A. Campbell

(Source: Ludwig F. Stiller, S.J., "A Typescript of Reel Three of the Microfilms preserved in the Tribhuwan University Library (of) Documents in the Archives of India", Kathmandu, June 1973).

Foreign Department Political Consultation 20 February 1837, No.36

/Copy/

Nepal January 14th 1837

B.H. Hodgson Esquire
Resident

Sir,

I have the honor to submit to your favorable consideration the accompanying notes on the Agriculture and Rural economy of the Valley of Nepal in the hope that although confessedly very imperfect, they may be deemed by you worthy of transmission to the Governor General.

2. Ere long, I hope to add to this paper "an Agricultural and Horticultural Calendar", along with details of such matters connected with the subject of these notes, as may be considered interesting, but, for the present, have been omitted, pending further enquiry and more correct information.

I have the honor to be, etc.
Sd. A. Campbell
Offg. Assistant Resident

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/Manuscript/

Notes on the Agriculture, and Rural economy of the Valley of Nepal by A. Campbell, Officiating Assistant Resident, Compiled chiefly from verbal information, and personal observation: access to authorative documents not being obtainable.

Cathmandu January 1st 1837

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Notes on the agriculture and rural economy of the Valley of Nipal by A. Campbell Officiating Assistant to the Resident

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"Nihil est malius, Nihil uberius, nihil homino libero dignius"

Introduction

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The summary notice of the state of the art of agriculture, as well as its produce in the accounts of Nipal by Kirkpatrick and Hamilton being too limited to convey a correct notion on these subjects; and the only person sufficiently qualified to do

justice to the subjesct (Mr. Hodgson) not having as yet completed the task; it may not appear presumptious in me to throw into a connected form such facts as have come into my possessions The following pages shall be confined strictly to details of agricultural processes and such circumstances as are intimately connected with them without any attempt at drawing such general conclusions, on the state of the population, or nature of the government as are frequently and legitimately made, and

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almost naturally flow from a consideration of the main objects of life, in a rude state of society. To other hands these generalizations are better left for the present.

The entire surface of the Valley of Nepal is either under regular cultivation, or capable of being so. It is completely free from rocky and stony tracts, as well as sandy wastes and with very few exceptions, the fields have a "superficial" stratum of nutritious soils a foot or more in thickness The area of the valley in absence of a professional survey cannot be correctly stated, nor is it easy to make a mean approximation to it, on account of the irregular outline formed by the bases of the boundary mountains, which throw spurs inwards in some places more than a mile in length, forming bays or subordinate

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valleys of considerable extent. The average extreme length from East to West, including the retiring valleys, may be estimated at 20 miles, with an equal breadth, similarly calculated. The Valley proper, or such an area as might be squared by drawing a line along the inner extremities of the mountain spurs has a diameter in either direction of about 15 miles; within this space however is included the low ridge of hills, which being given off at Do Choke, the western mountain boundary of the Valley runs Eastward and by South, crossing the Channel of the Bagmutti river until it terminates in the general level near the Village of Sussanally situated at the South-East corner of the Valley. The above limits give us a maximum average of arable surface 400 square miles, or 3,56,000 English acres, and

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as a minimum average, 222 square miles or 1,42,000 acres. The former on account of the hilly portions which intervene the subordinate valleys and are but partially cultivated is considerably I believe, beyond the mark, while the latter estimate from excluding altogether the retiring vallies is to that extent deficient. As the surface of these subordinate vallies is of greater extent than the uncultivated proportion of the mountainous spaces which form them, we may I think safely assume as a mean and correct diameter to the arable land 18 miles in each direction which gives an area of 324 square miles or 2,07,360 English acres as under, or fit for, agricultural operation and for

yielding the higher descriptions of produce. There are precipitous portions of the mountainous

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faces bounding the Valley; particularly on the South and West, where Indian corn and Murwa are occasionally cultivated, but the angle of these is so acute and the soil is so unproductive as to render the husbandry of the rudest possible description and their produce too scanty to entitle them to be included in the regularly cultivated valley land. To speak generally the mountain bases bounding the valley too steep to admit of being cut into terraces, are excluded from the area above laid down, and with sufficient reason, as in such lands, water cannot be retained for the growth of rice, and the quality of the soil is such as not to admit of the sowing of wheat or any of the numerous and nutritious pulses, which abound in the more level lands.

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The crops of such places are limited to Indian Corn, Murwa, and Phafur.

The general appearance of the Valley, viewed from the summit of any of the surrounding mountains, is that of a series of hills with intervening vallies, irrigated plentifully by miniature canals and traversed in a waving line from North East to South West by a moderately sized river, in which many of the streamlets directly terminate, and in the direction of which all are bending their course. This appearance is not so striking in the drier months of the year, altho' sufficiently evident even then, as during the rainy season when the Bagmutti river by which the entire waters of the valley quit its boundaries, may be most aptly likened to a large venous trunk of an animal

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body, formed by innumerable smaller branches each collecting at their source the fluid which animates as it runs the bodies which surround it. From the cloud capped mountain peaks these little feeders take their rise, increasing as they rush down the precipitous sides until, arrived at the more level base, they grow calmer and less fretful, permitting themselves to be diverted by innumerable channels into the fields below and their speed to be wasted by diffusion over the terraced flats prepared for their welcome reception. Others of these feeders issue in considerable volume, and at once, from the foot of the hills, forming abundant and permanent springs of the clearest water. This occurs especially at the foot of Nagarjuna, high round-shaped hill forming the western boundary

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of the valley covered by a thick stratum of soil from base to summit, and having in the neighbourhood of the spring no water source for the torrents along its face. At Nilkanth on the Northern, and at Godavary on the Southern boundary there are similar springs which continue to pour forth a steady stream throughout the years. Each of these springs are the favorite resting places of their presiding deities, whose images alas are non extant, but according to popular belief these holy emblems are of divine origin, not having been made by human hands.

Viewing the valley from its centre and contrasting its surface with the masses of mountain which surround it, it has the appearance of a plain gradually rising on all sides to the bases of the

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mountains, but a more careful examination points out a division of its surface into two separate elevations. These I shall call the higher and lower levels of the valley when describing the agricultural occupations of different seasons, as the general system and routine of husbandry varies on each. In the above division of the valley's surface, the hill sides under rough cultivation are not included. The lower level thro' which the two principal rivers (Bishnumutti and Bagmutti) and their feeders run is for the most part, nearly flat, having a very gradual descent from either side of the Valley towards the main streams its soil is less clayey in general than that of the upper level, and from the greater facility of irrigation and

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certainty of flooding during the rains its crops of Rice are more productive, and its value for purchase and rent higher. The upper level has for the most part an elevation of from 30 to 100 feet above the lower, in some places the one gradually runs into the other, the transition being unaccompanied by any sudden or defined line; terraces of cultivation extending from the top of the upper level down to the river edges—in other places the one is defined by perpendicular descents of 50 or more feet along the bases of which the rivers sometimes have their course, while in a third place these precipitous banks point out the different levels far removed from the streams. The extensive height of the upper level is

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no where more than 100 feet above the lower, for the hill of Simbhunath although at first sight belonging to this division, is really a spine from the neighbouring hill of Ek Changu. The hill near the temple of Pashupatinath is elevated more than 100 feet above the Bagmutti as this stream winds its course round three sides of it, but this hill may also with propriety be excluded from the Valley levels and looked upon as portion of a

low range of hills stretching from North to South and crossing the course of the Bagmutti. The Gaut Camun hill which is a spine from Sheopoori, forms the Northerly extremity of this partially defined range, on the South it vanished gradually

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into the ordinary higher level of the valley lands.

To recapitulate summarily, we have in the Valley of Nepal an area of 324 square miles of arable land, forming a basin of uneven surface surrounded by a circular chain of mountains varying in height from 500 to 2000 feet above the plain, watered by innumberable streams and blessed with a healthy climate and fruitful soil. The capital of Nepal is placed by Buchanan in North Latitude 27-42 and East Longitude 85-36. The mean elevation of the valley is reckoned at 4,782 feet above the plains of Bengal, and the heights of its surrounding mountains by Barometrical measurements are as Powah North East boundary 5,716. Sheopooree or the highest peak of

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the Northern boundary not known. Colonel Powak on the North West corner 6,654. Chandragiri or Southern boundary 6,600, and Phool Choki bounding the South East corner 6,000. These circumstances exercise such a powerful influence over the produce of the soil, as regulators of climate, that they will not I presume be deemed out of place as prefatory observations. The mean annual temperature of the valley is 64°. The population of this area was estimated by Mr. Hodgson in 1832 at no less than 290,000 souls which allowing 400 square miles as its inhabited extent gives the extraordinarily large number of 725 to the square mile: a proportion so far as I am aware, not known to exist in any country of the

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world, and one which I believe Mr. Hodgson is willing to allow to have been rather exaggerated for even the valley of Nepal. It is however evident that this Valley teams with human beings, its whole surface being sprinkled with towns villages and insulated dwellings. No portion of India with which I am acquainted can be compared to the Valley of Nepal in density of population, and it is not improbable that after the most correct estimate shall have obtained, it will shew a population compared with its area, equal in extent to that of any country (of) civilized Europe. Allowing the utmost possible extent of area to the Valley within its mounstainous boundaries, we could not assume more than 30 miles

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in length and as much in breadth as its dimensions, or 900 square miles[1] and at this exaggerated rate, we should still have by Mr. Hodgson's estimate a population of 322 and a fraction to the square mile. In East Flanders, as containing the maximum rate of all Europe, a recent census gives 560 souls to the square mile. In the most populous parts of Ireland the greatest proportion to the square mile is 345 souls. Berkshire in 1831 was only 193 to the square mile. In Bengal it is estimated at 203 the square mile[2] and in the cultivated portion of Orissa (?) it did not exceed when Mr. Stirlings's report was compiled 153 to the square mile.

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The population, whatever be its real amount, is almost entirely agricultural, as with the exception of the soldiery stationed of Cathmandu, amounting to 6 or 7,000 men, and the Chiefs and higher officers of government, every inhabitant is more or less directly engaged in the culture of the soil. The artizans, religious orders, and persons employed in the Government offices do not, it is true, actually labour in the field, but being almost universally the representatives of the Irish middlemen, and Scottish Tackomen, they come correctly under the denomination of agriculturists. The poorer artizans such as carpenters and brick layers divide their time between the practice of their trades and the culture of their little

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fields. While the better class of tradesman, altho' enabled to confine the work of their own hands to their crafts, are invariably holders of land, sometimes cultivating it by means of hired labourers, but most commonly by the system of subletting to the japoos, or the strictly-speaking cultivating class of the Newars. The arrangement usually made by these land holders is for the receipt of one-half the produce, the actual cultivator retaining the other as his wages of labour.

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[1]These are the limits assumed by me taking in the sub-valleys around the big one B.H.H.

[2]Mr. Baley estimated the population of Burdwan in 1814 as 600 to the square mile, but this district is incomparably the most populous one in Bengal as Lancashire is of England, in the country the population is estimated as high as 800 to the square mile, a difference from that of Berkshire greater than between Burdwan and Bengal generally.

Formation of the Valley Soil. The soil of the Valley, although considerably diversified, is in the mass composed of alluvial deposits, there being no traces on the general surface either of the primary or secondary rocky formations;

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indeed, throughout the entire extent of both levels, there is not a stone of any magnitude, andsscarce a pebble to be found, the only rocks accessible within the vallsy are those composing the diminutive ranges described as spurs from the surrounding mountains and transecting the basin. These are of several kinds, some of them as in the more easterly portion of the range which trends from the West towards _____on the East, contain a considerable quantity of Carbonate of Lime but so intimately blended with a clayey slate stone as not to admit of being converted into quick lime by burning, altho' it will frequently effervess on the application of_____acid.

To the west of the Simbhunath hill again, where there is a stone quarry

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the rock is either of grey granite, or of a crumbling sort of sandstonestinged of a reddish yellow colour. The Gokarna hill is composed, at its northern extremity, of hard granite with a superficial stratum of clayey slate, which is under constant decay, leaving a reddish clay soil along the sides. The granite portion, exposed to the extent of 20 or 30 yards in the bed of the Bagmutti as it passes through a cleft on the westward extremity of the hill, the stratum forming an obtuse angle (say 20 degrees) with the horizons Of whatever variety; the superficial soil must I think be regarded as a debris formed during ages of decay from the surrounding mountains; for although the composition of the soils occupying the central parts of the basin may not be easily traceable at the present day, to theirs

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mountain progeners, the similarity in many places of the soil along the mountain bases and stretching for many hundred yards beyond them into the valley to the earthy or rocky formation of the hills immediately over them is distinctly manifest—an example or two of this may be recorded. The Southern aspect of the Sheoporee boundary is formed to an elevation of 500 to 1000 feet from the mountain's base of a white micaceous sandstone and we find the superficial stratum of soil, which extends into the Valley on the higher level for about a mile, of a very light sandy nature largely mixed with Mica. The superficial stratum of the valley face of the Nagarjun mountain is principally composed of

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a stiff and hard red clay to which we find corresponding in the whole of the cultivated land laying along its base from the Simbhunath hill to Ballajee, a distance of three miles' a great predominance of this substance.

The process of addition to the valley land from the mountain debris is in some places at this time in such active operation as to be distinctly observable in annual additions to the cultivated spots extending up the declivities of the mountains. On the valley aspect of Chandragiri which forms the South West boundary this process is very obvious. The Valley by traditional lore is described as having been an immense lake. The Simbhunath and Pushpatinath hills.

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forming islands on which the Gods found resting places and appropriate sites on whcih to be worshipped. The draining off the waters is of course ascribed to the direct agency of some of the local dieties and the "Sabre cut" through the Southern boundary of the Valley, forming the only outlet for the present waters and the one by which the lake was emptied, is still pointed out as the handy work of a renowned local God (Manya Ghosha by name). An earthquake, with which the people of the Himalayas are sufficiently familiar nowadays, as they doubtless were in remoter times, is an agency they will not accept of as more likely to have burst assunder the rocky barriers of the Lake, and given exit to its waters. Humboldt or Jacquemont could probably

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have solved this interesting question. It is remarkable that in no part of the Valley are fossil shells of aquatic races to be found, a circumstance sufficiently curious when taken in combination with the opinion of the former state of the country. Dr. Buchanan seems to have assented to the popular notion on the subject without offering explanation of his views. It is however certain that if the narrow passage through which the river now flows did not at any previous time exist, the tract above it, which included the whole valley, must have been a large lake formed by the pent up waters of the surrounding hills, which now form the Bishnumatti and Bagmutti rivers, with their innumerable tributary streams. Not a drop of water finds

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exit from the valley save by this one narrow outlet, which pours its torrents in a southerly direction through the Mahabharat and lower ranges of hills, in the plains joining the Ganges near Monghyr. The waters from the outer side of the Northern, Eastern, and Western mountainous boundary of the Valley run East and West, the former falling into the Koosi, the latter into the Tirsoolgunga of the hills or Ganduck of the plains. The Koosis (for there are several streams bearing

this name within the Hills East of Cadhmandu) unite their waters in the plains and fall into the Ganges opposite Bhaugalpoor. The Tirsoolgunga reaching the plains at Tribeni

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flows though Sarun to the Ganges, joining the latter river at Hajeepoor.

General properties of the soils. Sir Humpery Davy says that the basis of all common soils are mixtures of the primitive earths and oxide of Iron, and that soils in all cases consist of a mixture of finely divided earthy matters with vegetable or animal substances in a state of decomposition. It is the predominance of some one of the primitive Earths in any soil that gives it its distinguishing character and name. In those soils having alumina most abundant, there isda stiffness and binding principle which at once points them out as clayey.

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Where Silica most abounds the soil is called Sandy, and lime as the predominent earth gives the third great division of soils, the calcaceous. In proportion as the other Earths are in subordinate combination with the chief one, the qualities of soils vary, giving rise to subdivisions, which it is important for the agriculturist to node. The oxide of iron when in sufficient quantity to tinge a clayey soil of a reddish or deep orange colour forms the ferrigenous clays, and by an admixdure of magnesia, manganese, or Carbonate of soda, the soil assumes properties with each of those substances which modify in a great measure its productive powers.

Calcacious soils are scarcely known in the valley, and loam of that description

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of soil, in which vegetable matter predomdnates over the Earthy subdstances, is equally rare; indeed, it does not now exist, unless as a superficial coating to the earths in the woodsd within and around the basind The clayey and Sandy soils are the obvious divisions here; varying in the one case as is usual elsewhere, from the stiff, unproductive clay, having scarce any admixture of vegetable or earthy matter, to a light, flexible, and fertile soil, and in the other from pure siliceous sand to the richest and most appropriate composition of earths and other nutritious ingredients.

The distinguishing characteristic of this soil, is the absence, or rather scanty presence, of Lime either in the shape of the calcaceous nodules called Kunkre

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(a Carbonate) or in the heavier and less productive form of gypsum (a sulphate) and in the general diffusion of Sand. Even in the soils distinctly clayey, there is a large proportion of light coloured sand.

The quality of the soil, however, in Nepal is of little moment in comparison to the facility and certainty, or otherwise, of irrigation and flooding. In a country where rice is the staple of life, the relative value of land would be but badly indicated by pointing out those portions of its soil which contained in the most favourable proportions the different earthy and vegetable ingredients. The quantity of water always procurable is the true index to the value of land under such circumstances but modified nevertheless to some extent by the nature of the soils—None of the earths

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alone are capable of supporting healthy vegetation nor is any soil fertile, which contains 18 parts out of 20 of any one of them, so that pure sand, which is very nearly equivalent to pure silica cannot, however well flooded bear a crop of rice, but an admixture of other substances, to the small extent of 1/9th, will render sand fit for the production of ordinarily good crops.[3] As I cannot at present furnish correct chemical analyses of the different soils, it will be sufficient to say that I have examined their physical properties attentively and believe that a rice crop may be, and is, raised in soils holding even less than one part of other matters to 8 of pure siliceous sand. These soils are of course abundantly flooded, and

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have some vegetable and animal manure laid on previous to the transplanting which raises the proportion of fertile matters temporarily. I speak of them as they are during the cold season after having given their annual crops. Lands of this kind are for the most part in the vallies of the different streams, generally near their beds, along the Munahara river, in its early course through the cultivated land, as well as along the Bishnu Mutti this description of land is most abundant.

Clay and sand in about equal proportions form the bases of the most fertile portions of the valley. Where there is a falling off from this point (in so far as soil is concerned), it is remedied by supplying the former, never by adding the latter. Vegetable and animal manures are applied

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to all the varieties of sandy and clayey without reference to the predominance of either. Mica minutely communicated abounds in all the sandy soils, and is also occasionally found in the clayey ones.

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[3] See H. Davys Agricultural Chemistry.

The comparative scarcity of oxide of iron over such an extent of arable land is also remarkable. No where is it sufficiently abundant to give that rusty tinge to the superficial moisture of the fields which so clearly indicates its presence where predominant.[4] The usual saline ingredients are also wanting to the extent of determining or in any sensible degree giving their character to the soil. Neither carbonate of soda (Kari) nitrate of Potass (Shora) or common salt, one

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and all so injurious to agriculture, are to be found superficially formed or existing in the deeper strata. It will be seen therefore that in the properties of the soil there are few natural disadvantages to the cultivator in the Valley of Nepal. It must be borne in mind that it is not intended to convey the idea of exact uniformity existing in the superficial soil over large tracts of the cultivated fields, when it is said that the soils are either clayey or sandy. Indeed it is often otherwise, for I have often examined fields of not more than 5 or 6 acres in extent, in one portion of which the upper stratum was

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pure sand, in another sandy, and in a third, equally composed of sand and clay. This is not peculiar to Nepal. Sir H. Davy, in noticing the varieties which occur in the upper stratum, remarks that in vallies and near the beds of rivers, there are very great differences, and it now and then occurs that one part of a field is calcaceous and another part siliceous. These are the extremes of variation in the widest sense. Those above named are the extremes in Nipal.

Manures natural and formed. By natural manures it is to be understood all substances employed as renovators of the soil, which are found native on the earth's

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surface or are dug out of its bowels. In the valley of Nipal there are but two substances of this description in use; one of them, and that by far the most extensively employed, is a fossil earth of grey blue colour when fresh dug, and of a dark blue or almost black, when dried; very fine in its tecture, and almost impalpable, when pulverised between the fingers. It is found very generally diffused throughout the whole valley in the lower as well as the higher level, always as a substratum, never as the upper one, sometimes lying within one foot of the surface,

[4] Except the stiff red clays alluded to already there is no red soil in Nepal. The fields when dry, whether sandy or clayey, are of a light grey colour.

in other situations at 3 or 4 feet. Occasionally the stratum is not more than a foot or two in thickness, while in other parts it is 20 or more. As for instance to the west of Bhatgaon and North West of Patun, where the higher level slopes

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gradually towards and terminates in the lower one on the left bank of the Bagmutti. This substance is generally dug up during the winter months, or early part of the spring (January, February, and March), and allowed to be exposed to the atmosphere in heaps until the sowing season of the first rice crops commences, when it is carried out into the fields, beat into fine powder and spread over them. At other times it is dug in baskets full and conveyed at once to the fields, and laid down in small heaps, or scattered about in lumps, until the preparation of the soil commences, when it is powdered along with the soil. When recently dug and moist, its consistency is firm, and tenaceous, cutting under the kodali like the finest clay. Its cut surface being smooth

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and shining with a semi-metallic luster like Plumbago. In this state it is with difficulty reduced to powder, but when dry, altho' the adhesion of its particles to one another is still considerable, it crumbles by beating into the finest possible powder. The strata of this earth found within the valley are almost invariably (wherever found) free from sand or stones of any kind, occasionally it has minute particles of mica embedded in its substance.

The universality of its employment as a manure whether on clayey or sandy soils renders its properties of much interest-especially as its composition indicates its usefulness for one class of these soils only—chiefly consisting of siliceous matter, its application to clay or calcaceous

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soils is highly appropriate, but how are we to explain the mode of its fertilising operation on sandy soils; yet it is applied indiscriminately to every portion of the valley land within easy reach of its localities. Having submitted this substance for analysis by Mr. Stephenson, a practical chemist, I shall give his account of it previous to my observations. He says, "I have carefully examined this very singular earth, and find that it is almost wholly composed of siliceous matter, with a trace of alumina, not amounting to one per cent. It does not contain the least particle of calcaceous or other saline matters. I cannot account for its employment as a manure, on the Nipal soils,[5]

[5] I had previously endeavoured to convey to him a correct notion of the nature of soils cultivated in this valley.

althos it might be used to renovate those in which carbonate of lime is redundant, or those in the composition of

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which silex formed but a small portion." Of its physical character he observes "It contains numerous particles of mica, from which I infer that the stratum is formed of decomposed granite which having been washed down from the neighbouring hills was deposited by the water floods in the subadjacent vallies.[6] It contains too small a portion of alumina to be used advantageously in brick making but I think it would form an excellent material for mixing with others to form pottery ware. Indeed this earth is so fine in its particles, that I have no doubt it would be found an excellent material for mixing with others to form pottery ware. Indeed this earth is so fine in its particles, that I have no doubt it would be found an excellent material of itself for pottery. It is as Mr. S. supposed largely used in the manufacture of coarse pottery, generally combined with clay, and sometimes per se and even in brick and tile moldings. It is found useful in combination with the several

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varieties of excellent clay which abound here. When exposed in small cakes, previously kneeded with water, to the action of fire, it becomes hard but not semi-vitrified and changes its colour to a light red, indicating the presence of a small portion of oxide of iron. It does not effervesce with muriatic acid nor undergo any change when exposed to the action of nitric acid. Its specific gravity is 498. The second more commonly used natural manure is a species of orange coloured clay, having an admixture of the oxide of iron, with a very small portion of vegetable matter and entirely free from calcaceous substances. This earth sometimes appears as an upper stratum, on the higher level of the valley, and is capable of yielding good crops of wheat,____ and gahya rice, but its most common

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position is that of a second stratum immediately under the ordinary clayey soils, and in the lower, as well as the higher

[6] It is probable that this substance is very nearly the same as the Porcelain granite, a substance composed of three ingredients: quartz, feldspar, and mica. The quartz in the porcelain granite is almost pure siliceous earth in a crystaline form. In one substance the siliceous earth is in the form of an impassable powder. Mica is abundant in one substance, but not perhaps the feldspar. The mica is a compound alumina containing lime and magnesia from the decomposition of which much benefit may accrue to the soil on which this manure is laid.

level, although most generally diffused in the former. This substance is exclusively applied to the renovation of sandy soils, and its nearly pure aluminous composition point it out as admirably fitted for the purpose. It is not regarded by the cultivators so much in the light of a manure strictly so-called, as in that of a binding matter for adding consistency to soils which are too sandy. They say that after two years cropping the more sandy lands become very light (halka) and sa_____, and that this yellow clay improves their constitution, fitting them for a new round of crops. Artificial manures are always applied when within the means of the cultivators to soils previously dosed

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with the clay.

Burning turns it into a brick red colour, it does not effervesce on the application of acids, muriatic acid diluted desolves a portion of it, the solution becoming dark green, or almost blue, on the addition of precipitate of potash. It is generally free from sandy particles but is often mixed with portions of mica. Its specific gravity is 1.70. It is largely used in brick and tile making as well as the manufacture of pottery ware. In the case, it is mixed with the siliceous earth previously described.

The importance of artificial manures is much more generally acknowledged in Nipal than throughout Hindoostan, and their employment more common.

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But even here there is no system of making manures practised as in England, nothing to correspond with our compost making: the utmost extant to which this great desideratum to agriculture is supplied being by the mere collection of ashes and decomposed vegetable and animal matters, with an occasional addition of the slimy earth from the dried bottoms of small pools around the towns.

In the valley proper so entirely is the land occupied by cultivation, that there are scarcely any cattle at all grazed here between the months of March and December, from which peculiarity the sources of obtaining vegetable and animal matters for manure are almost limited to the ashes of wood (the only fuel used) and human excrements. There are a few horses, as well

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as some cows and buffaloes, kept by the better clases of people all the year round, but there is no general system of cattle keeping by the farmers, and even the assistance of oxen in forming

manures which the people on the confines of the valley have for using the plow is wanting in the valley, where the plough is scarce and never used, and where human beings are alone the means of transport.

The rice straw and the sugar cane after its juice is expressed are consumed as fuel by the poorer cultivaters, by which the supply of vegetable manure is still more limited.

Principal varieties of soil recognised by the natives

The Newars class their fields under two grand heads, the place

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of each field under each head being determined on with double reference to the nature of the soil and the facilities of regular flooding and irrigations. The Luckaboo, or first class lands, and the Wullaboo or second rate ones, are the distinguishing denominations, and every field within the valley admits of ready enrolment in either class.

The former may be characterised as land in which clay is predominant, which is rich in impalpable earthy and vegetable matter, and from its proximity to one of the rivers, a stream, or permanent spring, is sure of being flooded annually at the commencement of the rains, and is capable of being irrigated during the cold season. In this description of land the grand crop

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of the country (the transplanted rice) is annually grown, and it is besides fit for the sowing of wheat as a winter crop.

(To be continued)

The Hides and Skins Monopoly in Butwal Bazaar, A.D. 1892

In the Vikrama year 1946 (A.D. 1889), a three-year monopoly had been granted to Rahat Mohammed Ali and Abdul Raki of Indrachok, Kathmandu, in the trade in hides and skins, and horns, brought for sale from the hills to Butwal Bazaar. The monopolist stipulated a yearly advance payment of (12-gandi Gorakhpuri) Rs. 4,682 - 8 - 1½.

The monopolist, however, was unable to raise the stipulated amount from the trade, and so had to meet the shortfall from his personal assets.

When the three-year term of the monopoly expired on Falgun Sudi 15, 1948 (March 1892), Rahat Mohammed Ali and Abdul Raki offered a bid of only Gorakhpuri Rs. 2,000 a year. No higher offer was received.

Meanwhile, it was noted that the monopoly had been granted to Rahat Mohammed Ali and Abdul Raki even though Section 3 of the Law on Revenue Contracts prescribed that the hides and skins monopoly (charsa rakam) should not be granted to Muslims and other beef-eaters.

The explanation was that according to Section 36 of the old Law on Revenue Contracts, the prohibition was applicable only to hides and skins produced in the districts of the Tarai region, not to hides and skins, and horns, produced in the hills and brought for sale in Butwal Bazaar. It was on this ground that the two Muslims had been granted the monopoly according to an order issued through the Madhesh Bandobasta Adda to the Palpa District (Gaunda) Office on Falgun Sudi 15, 1943 (March 1887).

Because the new offer was much less than the previous amount of Gorakhpuri Rs. 4,682 - 8 - 1½ a year, the Sadar Darbarkhana recommended that the monopoly be operated on amanat basis according to the law. The Muluki Adda endorsed that recommendation.

On Ashadh Badi 11, 1949 (June 1892), Prime Minister Bir Shumshere ordered that the monopoly be granted on ijara basis to persons other than Muslims and other beef-eaters if the previous amount of revenue was not reduced, or else the monopoly be managed on amanat basis.

Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 58, pps 568-82

(For a similar monopoly in Dang district, see Regmi Research Series, year 12, No. 10, October 1980, pp. 154-55).

Commercial Taxation in Nepalgunj, A.D. 1885

On Tuesday, Bhadra Badi 7, 1942 (August 1885), the merchants of Nepalgunj Bazaar submitted the following petition to Kathmandu:

"The government has declared Nepalgunj to be a mandi and promulgated orders and regulations accordingly. We have been purchasing foodgrains and other commodities brought for sale from the hills in Nepalgunj and exporting them to India on payment of duties at the Chautara-Kachahari.

"In the year 1935 (A.D. 1878), (revenue collection in) Nepalgunj was given out on contract.

"The contractor demands that duties on all goods exported or imported through Nepalgunj should be paid to him at the prescribed ratest On the other hand, the officer in charge of collection of Sair duties insists that duties on exports must be paid to him, and thoseton imports at the Chautara-Kachahari as before.

"Moreover, the contractor has been given thetright to appropriate income from fines and penalties collected in the course of the administration of justice in Nepalgunjt

"The Sair authorities have now held up the movement of commodities purchased by us for export to India and are demanding payment of Sair duties on such commodities.

"Wet therefore, pray that we should be allowed to exportt commodities on payment of duties at only one place.t"

The government then ordered an inquiry into the matter through the Banke Revenue Office.

Thursday, Poush Sudi 2, 1942
(December 1885)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 56, pp. 180-86.

Construction of Bridges, A.D. 1900

Trishulti-Ganga River

On the request of Kharidar Prithvi Bahadur Amatya of the Engineering office, submitted through Colonel Kumar Narsing Rana Bahadur, the following order was sent to the Chauktidars of Sankhu Bazaar:-

This year, an iron bridge has been constructed on the Trishuli-Ganga river with materials imported from abroad. The bridge will be damaged soon if not maintained propesly. You are, therefore, ordered to take action as follows in order to ensure proper maintenance of the bridge:-

1. Do not let people travelling through the bridge misuse its cables and timber.

2. In case any person does so in violation of your orders, arrest him and hand him over to the local Bakyauta Tahasil Adda with instructions to collect a fine of four annas.

Bhadra 1957 (August 1900)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 70, pp. 366-67

Rosi River

Similarly, the following order was sent to the East No. 2 Jangi Parath:-

An order had been sent previously to that office to place three militia companies under the command of Subedar Main Dhwaj Khatri Chhetri through Colonel Foud Singh Khatri Chhetri, and also provide other necessary assistance, for the construction of an iron bridge on the Rosi river with imported materials. Construction of the bridge had been suspended during the three months of the monsoon, and the militia companies had been sent back to their original assignments. Subedar Main Dhwaj Khatri Chhetri has again left for that area to resume construction of the bridge. You are, therefore, ordered to place three militia companies under his command again until construction is completed.

Kartik Sudi 9, 1957 (October 1900)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 70, pps 527-29

Forest and Wild-Life Conservation, A.D. 1885

The following circular was sent to the administrative heads of all districts of the Tarai region from the Mechi to the Mahakali according to an order issued by Prime Minister Bir Shumshere to the Madhesh Bandobasta Adda on Thursday, Poush Badi 4, 1942 (December 1885):-

1. Hunting with snares has been prohibited in forests in the area under your jurisdiction. Those who violate this order shall be punished in the prescribed manner and the matter shall be reported to us.

2. No one shall be allowed to clear forests in the Tarai region south of the Chure Range. In case any one does so, he shall be placed in detention, the matter shall be reported to us, and action shall be taken as ordered.

Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 56, pp. 130-32

Drought in the Western Tarai Region, A.D. 1865

The Butwal Bandobast Adda reported that drought had led to a failure of crops in the area, and that the Chaudharis of tappas, and the jimidars of moujas, were demanding tax remissions.

The report was discussed by the Ijahar Praman Adda and the Kausal Adda in Kathmandu, and then referred to the Prime Minister, Jung Bahadur.

The Prime Minister then issued the following order;-

(1) No remission shall be given in areas where (local revenue functionaries) have stipulated that they will not demand remissions for any reason whatsoever.

(2) Investigations shall be conducted in the Sheoraj area in the presence of Chaudharis and Jimidars to assess the extent of damage to crops.

(3) Extension of time-limit for payment of taxes shall be granted to jimidars as follows in areas affected by the drought:-

Percentage of Loss of Crop	Extension of Time Limit
100	3 years
75	2 years
50	1 year
25	6 months
Less than 25	No remission

Magh Sudi 12, 1921 (January 1865)
Regmi Research Collections, Vol. 21, pps. 369-70.

This order was sent to Khajahani, Majhkhand, and Nawalpur also on the same date.

Jagir Arrangements, A.D. 1836-38

Royal order to Kaji Ranadhoj Thapa, Kaji Karbir Pande, Kaji Kalu Singh, and Dittha Jayadratn Adhikari.

> On the basis of records furnished by the Kumarichok Dafdarkhana, the Sadar Kampani Dafdarkhana, and the Kampu Dafdarkhana, as well as inspectors (Janchaki) deputed for that purpose, you are hereby ordered to ascertain the actual income accruing from the jagir land assignments of jagirdars of all categories, from the Mechi to the Mahakali, in both hill and Tarai regions, with the exception of rifle-bearing (nal) troops, deduct the amounts due to them at the prescribed rates of assignment (raibandi), and dispose of the surplus rice-lands and villages according to our orders. Act in such a way that the prescribed emoluments of jagirdars are not affected, and that the government too does not suffer any loss.
>
> Bhadra Badi 7, 1893 (September 1836)
> Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 27, pp. 403-4.

On Asadh Badi 13, 1895 (June 1838), a royal order was promulgated cancelling all grants of salaries and emoluments, in cash and in kind, in both the hill areas and the Tarai from the Mechi river to the Mahakali river.

The order added, "Allowances for the rainy season and winter shall be stopped, and the amount of emoluments shall be reduced by one-fourth after the Vikrama year 1895 (A.D. 1838) but clothes for the Dashain and Fagu festivals, as well as other perquisites (mamuli) shall continue to be given. This rule shall not be applicable to government employees and functionaries whose salaries and emoluments had been reduced in Vikrama 1891 (A.D. 1834).

"A government employee or functionary shall be paid full salaries or emoluments as usual if so ordered by us.

"Any government employee or functionary who complains that his salary or emoluments have been reduced shall be punished.

"Any person who disburses salaries or emoluments without reducing the amount by one-fourth except on our orders shall be held personally liable."

Ashadh Badi 13, 1895 (June 1838).
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 27, p. 573

Apposintment of Chaudharis, A.D. 1833

Saptari

Royal order to Bhavanath Chaudhari: "You were previously Chaudhari of the parganna of Pakaria in Saptari district, but were dismissed in the Vikrama year 1889 (A.D. 1832) because you were unable to make payments in full. You have nows represented to us that the arrears have been paid up. We therefore reinstatesyousas Chaudhari from Baisakh Badi 1, 1890 (April 1833). The moujas of Maheshbari and Sakhwa-Itaharwa are hereby granted to you as nankar, in addition to other customary perquisites, subject to a Khatami Salami payment of patna Rs. 451 a year."

Jestha Badi 11, 1890 (May 1833)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 26, p. 300

Kanugoye-Rais in Saptari

On Jestha Badi 11, 1890 (May 1833), separate functionaries known as Kanugoye-Rais were appointed for the pargannas of Pakaria and Jagadar in Saptari district to assist in the collection of revenue and maintenance of land and tax records. They received one mouja each as nankar, and a specified amount, Rs. 100 for Pakaria and Rs. 40 for Jagadar, in lieu of other perquisites. A Khatami salami of Rs. 210 was collected every year on the nankar mouja in Pakaria; the amount was Rs. 130 in Jagadars

Regmi Research Collection, Vols 26, pp. 300-1

Sarlahi

Gobind Mandar had been appointed Chaudhari of all the four pargannas of Sarlahi district, namely, Asibhau, Kodraha, Sarlahi, and Brahmapuri during the Panchasala Settlement (of Vikrama 1885). In Vikrama 1889, Dharmani Khan was appointed Chaudhari of the parganna of Asibhau. When Gobind Mandar complained to Kathmandu, his appointment as Chaudhari of all the four pargannas was reconfirmed, with thesusual nankar lands and other perquisites, on Jestha Sudi 2, 1890 (May 1833).

In a separate order, Dharmani Khan was appointed as Rais of the above-mentioned four pargannas to maintain land and tax records and dispose of disputes between ryots and tax-collectors (malaguzar) in a mutually satisfactory manner on the basis of available documentary evidence.

Regmi Research Collection, Vols 26, pp. 313-17.

Sheoraj

According to a royal order issued on Marga Badi 3, 1895 (November 1838), Chaudhari Durga Prasad of Sheoraj was granted the waste mouja of Bankatwa, which had neither been granted as

bekh or birta nor covered by the thek-thiti settlement for that area, under nankar tenure. The grant was effective Baisakh Badi 1, 1895 (April 1838). The Chaudhari was sanctioned emoluments amounting to Rs. 25 a year, in addition to customary perquisites under the thek-theti settlement.

Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 26, p. 410.

Prices in Kathmandu

On Chaitra 15, 1966 (March 28, 1910), prices of the following commodities (in the Kathmandu market) were as follows:

Gold	Rs. 31.00 per tola
Silver	Rs. 0.85 per tola
Musk	Rs. 25.00 per tola
Brass sheets	Rs. 4.00 per dharni
Copper	Rs. 5.00 per dharni
Bronze	Rs. 6.00 per dharni
Tauli paddy	5 pathis per rupee
Marsi rice	2 pathis and 1 mana per rupee
Tauli rice	2 pathis, 2 manas, and 4 muthis per rupee
Black gram	1 pathi and 2 manas per rupee

(Source: Gorkhapatra, Chaitra 22, 2041 (April 4, 1985).

The Harihara Cave in Kaski

The Harihara Cave is located at Bhalamkhor-Danda near Pokhara. Images of Shiva and Hanuman have been installed there. In former times, the area around the cave was covered by dense forest.

On Sunday, Baisakh Sudi 7, 1906 (May 1849), Prime Minister Jung Bahadur issued the following order in the name of Goswami Amara Giri:-

"You have reported that the forest around the Bhalam Cave in Kaski district is being indiscriminately destroyed these days. We therefore grant you authority to conserve the forest and hereby issue the following orders:

1. "Trees shall not be cut in the forest, nor shall the forest be cleared or burnt for purposes of agricultural cultivation.

2. "The wood of the forest shall not be used for making charcoal.

3. "Hunting in the forest is prohibited. No one shall kill any deer, boar, serow (thars), goral, porcupine, hare, black pheasanst (Kalij), black partridge (titra), chuk or patridge (chyakhura), and other birds and animals.

4. "In case any person disobeys these orders and cuts trees in the protected forest, or kills birds and animals, he shall be arrested, produced before the village court (amal), and punished according to the nature of his offense.

5. "The amali, dware, thari, mukhiya, and other respectable persons of the village shall also look after the forest.s'

Amara Giri is said to have been a disciple of Digambara Giri of Bhasmeshwara in the Pashupati temple area (of Kathmandu). He is also said to have installed the images of Harihara at the Bhalam Cave. He was succeeded by his disciple, Sahadeva Giri.

After the death of Amara Giri, the local villagers destroyed the forest indiscriminately, Gosain Sahadeva Giri, therefore, submitted the following petition to Prime Minister Bir Shumshere:

"We have raised a forest all around the Bhalam Cave in Kaski district. Because the forest was used recklessly, my elder brother and preceptor, Gosain Amara Giri, submitted a petition to Prime Minister Jung Bahadur at Thapathali. Accordingly, an order was issued in the Vikrama year 1906 granting him authority to protect the forest around the cave and prohibiting the killing of birds and animals there. We then installed images of deities in the cave, performed religious functions regularly, and protected the forest.

"These days the local people say: 'Your preceptor has died, and no order has been issued granting you authority to protect the forest; hence we cannot obey your orders." They are therefore, using the forest indiscriminately..

Gosain Sahadeva Giri, therefore, prayed that he be granted authority to protect the forest. In particular, he requested that the following orders be issued:

1. "The order issued in the Vikrama Year 1906 (A.D. 1849) in the name of Goswami Amara Giri has been reconfirmed. Forests in the watershed area around the cave shall be protected. Trees shall be cut with the permission of the caretaker (Chitaidar) only for meeting the reasonable needs of the employees of the shrine and visiting mendicants and other persons for firewood. No one shall be allowed to cut timber in the forest without such permissions.

2. "In case any person cuts timber without permission, or hunts in the forest, you must report the matter to the (Kaski-Lamjung) Rajya Tahasil and Adalat.

3. "Necessary order to take action on such reports shall be issued in the names of the above-mentioned offices as well."

Sahadeva Giri prayed that he would look after the forest properly if orders containing these provisions were issued.

The petition was forwarded by the Adalat Goswara for appropriate action according to the law to the Itachapli Adalat.

The Itachapli Adalat recommended that orders as requested by Sahadeva Giri be issued. The recommendation was submitted by the Dittha of that Adalat, Dittha Purushottam Padhya, through Judge Nanda Raj Gurugharana of the Adalat Goswara to Prime Minister Bir Shumshere.

Prime Minister Bir Shumshere endorsed that recommendation on Thursday, Shrawan Sudi 12, 1950 (August 1893).

(Source: Dharma Raj Thapa, "Pokhara Ko Prakritika Saundaryako Vindu" (The center of the natural beauty of Pokhara); Gorkhapatra, Chaitra 24, 2041 (April 6, 1985).

Dharma Raj Thapa adds:

Sahadeva Giri was succeeded by his disciple, Deva Giri, who violated his vow of celibacy and died in Vikrama 2029 (A.D. 1972). Nobody is responsible for maintenance of the cave at present. The image of Harihara was stolen in vikrama 2030 (A.D. 1973). The religious functions at the cave have been discontinued and the forest has been destroyed and wild life has disappeared. A hermit named Dharmadatta is worshipping the deities according to vedic rites.

Slavery In Isma

Petition of Lalnath Jogi of Isma: "My slave, Birbhan, escaped with the assistance of Bala Bhandari and Rana. I then took custody of his personal property. However, Dware Kajoharnath, Mane Padhya, and Hire Damai held that I was not entitled to appropriate my runaway slave's property, and accordingly handed it over to the slave's father, a freedman who was living in another person's house. I have thus became a victim of injustice."

Royal Order to the Dittha and Bichari of the Palpa Adalat: "A slaveowner is entitled to his runaway slave's property. Summon the men who have assisted the slave to escape and hear both sides. If Bala Bhandari and Rana are held to have helped Lalnath Jogi's slave to run away, realize the value of the slave from them and hand over the amount to Lalnath Jogi. Hand over the runaway slave's property also to Lalnath Jogi. If the facts are different, give a just decision and dispose of the petition."

1901 Samvat (A.D. 1844)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 33, P-3

The Mica Monopoly

A new monopoly was introduced in Vikrama 1960 (A.D. 1903) for working deposits of mica all over the Kingdom from the Mechi to the Mahakali and exporting it to India.

The monopoly was granted to Lt. Colonel Jit Bahadur Khatri Chhetri for a three-year period beginning Marga 1, 1960 (November 16, 1903) on payment of Mohar Rs. 3,000 a year. However, Jit Bahadur Khatri Chhetri was banished before he could complete the term.

The following bids were then received for the monopoly:-

(1) Jagat Bahadur Thapa Chhetri : Rs. 3,500 a year

(2) Krishna Sundar Pradhananga : Rs. 3,675 a year

(3) Jagat Bahadur Thapa Chhetri : Rs. 3,858.75 a year

(4) Krishna Sundar Pradhananga : Rs. 4,823.44

On Magh 18, 1960 (January 31, 1904), the two competitors were presented before Prime Minister Chandra Shumshere and Krishna Sundar Pradhananga raised his bid to Rs. 9,100 a year. Fresh bids were invited on Magh 20, 1960 (February 2, 1904), but no higher bid was received.

The monopoly was accordingly granted to Krishna Sundar Pradhananga for a three-year period beginning Falgun 1, 1960 (February 12, 1904). The total amount due for that period was Rs. 27,300 at the rate of Rs. 9,100 a year. An order to this effecttwas sent to the Kathmandu Amanat Bhansar Adda on Magh 25, 1960.

A public notification of the monopoly was issued with the following contents:-

1. Any person who have mica in their possession shall hand it over to the monopolist on payment of the price. In case the monopolist does not accept such supplies, these may be sold to others against permits issued by him.

2. In case mica is not supplied to the monopolist, but is sold to others or exported to India, it shall be confiscated; if the offense is repeated, a fine of an equal amount shall also be imposed.

3. Any local functionary (dware, thari, mukhiya, mijhar) or birtaowner who does not provide information to the monopolist about such offences shall be punished.

The Kathmandu Amanat Bhansar Adda was also ordered not to charge any Jagat or other duties on mica exported by the monopolist.

Wednesday, Baisakh 30, 1961 (May 1904)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 78, pp. 175-183

Copies of the order were sent to the rajyas of Bajhang, Bajura, and Jajarkot, as well as to the Kaski-Lamjung Tahasil Adda.

The mica monopoly in the Sanga/Machi —— Nepal-Tibet frontier —— Chure region yielded Rs. 764 in Vikrama 1970 (A.D. 1913-14) and Rs. 1,015 in Vikrama 1971 (A.D. 1914-15). (These figures have been obtained from a Lal Mohar order issued on Jestha 15, 1974 (March 28, 1917) in the name of Subba Hridaya Raj Guru Gharana Panditju, Chief of the Revenue Contracts Office (Rakam Bandobast Adda), clearing off his accounts for a period of 4 months and 22 days between Baisakh 1 to Bhadra 22, 1974 (April 13tto September 7, 1917).

Jagat Duties

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11. Ijara for Collection of Jagat and other Duties

1. Collection of Jagat Duties at Kathmandu

(a) Royal order to Zorawar Khawas, "Do not collect jagat duties on goods brought by traders from the plains, or exported by them, at Gadh Parsa or Hitaura. Only search goods at those places and seal the consignments. In the future, traders shall pay jagat duties only at Kathmandu, Jagat duties on foodgrains, male buffaloes, other animals, sal timber, and catechu, as well as Fakirana and Jimidari levies, shall be collected locally in the customary manner. Jagat duties on cloth and other kerana goods shall be collected at Kathmandu in the customary manner.s'

Monday, Poush Sudi 5, 1849 (December 1792)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 25, pps 278-79

(b) Royal order to the Amali of Chitlang: "Traders froms the plains shall psay jagat duties only at Kathmandu in the future, not at sevseral places on the way. Their consignments shall only be searched at Chitlang."

Monday, Poush Sudi 5, 1849 (December 1792)
Regmi Research Collection, Vols 25, p. 278

2. Collection of Jagat Duties at Bhadgaun

(a) Royal order to the Amali of Khurkot (Sindhuli): "Traders from the plains who visit Kathmandu Vallsey from the east shall psay jagat duties in the future only at Bhadgaun, rather than at several places on the way. Duties on the goods and pack-animals of pedlars (Khepuwa) shall be collected at Pouwa."

Monday, Poush Sudi 5, 1849 (December 1792)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 25, p. 278

(b) The order was sent to the Amali of Sindhuli (Ibid, ps 279) and Bhansari Jayanar Singh (Ibid, p. 277) on the sameday.

(c) The order was sent to Subba Sahadeva Padhya and Subba Zorawar Khawas also on the sameday, with instructions to collect jagat duties on cloth and other kerana goods in the customary manner at Bhadgaun.

Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 25, pps 279-80

3. Jagat Duties at Cherange

The amali of Barhatimal and birtaowning Brahmans of Dumja were asked to choose an alternative site in consultation with the ijaradar, instead of the Charange Jagat Check post, for the collection Kerana, kepas, and bhsainsi duties.

Falgun Badi 7, 1849
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 25, p. 231

4. Exemption from payment of Jagat Duties

(a) Gosain Bhawani Giri was granted exemption from payment of jagat duties on goods procured from India in the mouja of Mahadewa situated in Totani Parganna of Bara district. The exemption was valid for each succeeding generation of his disciples.

Falgun Sudi 7, 1853 (February 1797)
Chaitra Badi 6, 1853 (March 1797)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 25, p. 329 and p. 334

(b) The Lamas of Taruka-Ghyang in Helambu enjoyed traditional exemption from payment of jagat, dalal, nirkhi, and taksar duties on rice, ghee, paper, iron, and other commodities which they exported to Tibet through kuti and kerung, and on salt and wool which they imported from Tibet. The previlege was reconfirmed.

Baisakh Sudi 13, 1890
Regmi Research Collection, Vols 26, p. 297

5. Jagat Duties in Tibrikot

Royal order to Thani Bishnu Datta Padhya and other local functionaries: "Jagat duties on salt, wool, cloth, blankets, and goats at Rigam and other villages in Tibrikot shall be paid, and collected, at customary rates. No one shall pay or collect more. Revenue from such jagat duties shall be transmitted to the Jimmawal of Tibrikot under the thek-thiti system as prescribed for that area."

Baisakh Sudi 10, 1895 (April 1838)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 26, P-273

6. Jagat Duties in Doti

Hari Chand was granted a thek for collection of Jagat duties at Jhulaghat and Jajarghat on the Mahakali river in Doti for a one-year period on payment of Rs. 50 to the local Amali. He was ordered to collect such duties at rates current from former times.

Ashadh Badi 4, 1896
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 27, pp. 669-70

7. Jagat Duty on Salt Imports

A royal order had been issued prescribing the rate of jagat duty on salt at 3 manas on each load for the traders of Mustang, and 1 mana for the traders of Barhagaun. The Raja of Mustang, as well as traders from that area, complained to Kathmandu against such discrimination. A royal order was then issued in the names of the Amali and headmen (jhuman, budha) of Thek directing that they agree to a uniform rate in consultation with the traders of Mustang. Otherwise, both sides were orderd to visit Kathmandu for a hearing.

Sunday, Chaitra Badi 12, 1903 (March 1847)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 7, pp. 183-84

8. Jagat Duties in Jumla-Humla

Traditionally, jagat duties were collected at only one place from the inhabitants of Jumla and Humla. In Vikrama 1903, Thani Shivaram Padhya and others were granted a thek for collection of jagat duties at Chhinyabebar on payment of Rs. 85 a year. The local people then submitted a complaint to Kathmandu. An order was then issued abolishing Jagat duties at Chhinyabebar. The order prescribed that "the people of Jumla and Humla need not pay jagat duties at places where they have not been doing so from former times."

Baisakh Badi 13, 1907
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 80, pp. 602-3

9. Jagat Duties in Thek

Royal order to revenue functionaries and headmen in Kagbeni, Panchgaun, and other areas in Thek: "We have received reports that you collect jagat duties at arbitrary rates from the inhabitants of Chharka and Lagukhola who visit your villages to trade in salt. You are, therefore, ordered to collect such duties at the same rates at which you have been collecting them from former times; and not to charge more.

Chaitra Badi 9, 1856 (March 1800)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 24, p. 166.

10. Jagat Duties at Samargaun

Jagat duties had been collected at Samargaun in the Barhagaun region from the time of the former Kings of Jumla. Subsequently, however, collection of these duties was abandoned without official permission. A royal order was then issued prescribing that "jagat duties which have traditionally been collected at any place cannot be abandoned today. We have accordingly granted an ijara for collection of these duties to Saugram Thakse on payment of Rs. 120 a year."

Baisakh Sudi 5, 1862 (April 1805)
Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 20, pps. 226-27

11. Ijara for Collection of Jagat and other Duties

On Ashadh Sudi 15, 1872, landlords and headmen in the Bishnumati-Bheri region were informed that an ijara for the collection of revenue from the following sources, previously held by Dittha Laxmi Narayan, had now been granted to Hanumanta Singh for a one-year period beginning Poush Badi 12, 1871: Kirana duties, Jagat duties, dalali duties, fees for dyeing and printing of cloths, and Chaudhari duties, as well as judicial fines and penalties, from the Newar inhabitants of the regions.

Regmi Research Collection, Vol. 42, pp. 26-27

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