

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS, HISTORIC AREAS, ETC.

Balaghat : (*Bala*, 'above,' and *ghat*, 'a mountain pass'). Range of hills in the western half of Hyderabad State. It extends from the *Biloli taluk* in Nander District in the east, through the southern portion of Parbhani District, past Dharur and Patoda to Ashti in Bhir district in the west, having a length of 200 miles and a width which varies between 3 and 6 miles. A spur of this range branches off from Ashti, and taking a south-easterly direction traverses the tracts which lie between the Sina, Manjra, and Kagna rivers, comprising the Districts of Bhir, Osmanabad, and Gulbarga, and terminates in the last-named District. Another spur starts from the south of Parbhani District, also in a south-easterly direction, and passes through the Rajura *taluk* of Bidar District, south of kaulas in Nizamabad district. The country enclosed by the range and its two spurs forms a plateau, known locally as the Balaghat.

Jalna Hills: Range of the hills in Hyderabad State, running eastward from Daulatabad in Aurangabad District. Close to the border of Berar it is joined by a spur of hills from Jalna in the south, from which the range derives its name. After entering Berar it merges into the Sahyadriparvat or SATMALA range. The Jalna Hills are about 2,400 feet high, one of the peaks, Daulatabad, rising to 3,022 feet above the level of the sea. The total length of the range is about 120 miles.

Satmala : Range of hills in Bombay, Berar, and the Hyderabad State, which also bears the names of the Ajanta, chandor, and Indhyadri hills, and Sahyadriparvat.

Pakhal Lake : An extensive lake in Hyderabad State, situated in 17° 57' N & 17° 59' E., in the Pakhal *taluk* of Warangal District, and enclosed on the north, south, and east by ranges of low and densely wooded hills. It was formed by throwing a dam across the Pakhal river, which here cuts its way between two low hills. It is largest artificial

piece of water in the State, the length and breadth being 8,000 and 6,000 yards, while the dam is more than 2,000 yards long, and the water covers an area of nearly 13 square miles. Several channels convey water from the lake to some distance for irrigation. At the centre of the dam are the ruins of a small pavilion known as the *chabutra* of Shitab Khan. The lake abounds with fish, otters, and crocodiles, and the surrounding country contains game of all descriptions. The average depth of the water is between 30 and 40 feet.

Godavari : A great river of Southern India, which runs across the Deccan from the Western to the Eastern Ghats; for sanctity, picturesque scenery, and utility to man, surpassed only by the Ganges and the Indus; total length about 900 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 112,000 square miles. The source of the river is on the side of a hill behind the village of Trimbak, in Nasik District, Bombay, only about 50 miles from the shore of the Indian Ocean. At this spot is an artificial reservoir reached by a flight of 690 steps, into which the water trickles drop by drop from the lips of a carven image, shrouded by a canopy of stone. From first to last the general direction of the river is towards the south-east. It passes by Nasik town, and then separates Ahmadnagar District from the State of Hyderabad, its total course in the Bombay Presidency being about 100 miles. Above Nasik it flows along a narrow rocky bed, but farther east the banks are lower and more earthy. Fifteen miles below Nasik it receives, on the right, the Darna from the hills of Igatpuri, and 17 miles farther down, on the left, the Kadva from Dindori. At the latter confluence, at Nander, the stream is dammed for irrigation. Near Nevasa it receives on the right bank the combined waters of the Pravara and Mula, which rise in the hills of Akola, near Harischandragarh.

After passing the old town of PAITHAN on its left bank, the Godavari now runs for a length of about 176 miles right across the Hyderabad State, receiving on its left the Purna, which flows in near Kararkher in Parbhani District, and on the right the Manjra near Kondalwadi in Nander, while near Dharmsagar in the Chinnur *taluk* of Adilabad District it receives, again on the right, the Maner. Below Sironcha it is joined by the PRANHITA, conveying the united waters of the WARDHA and Wainganga; and from this point it takes a marked south-easterly bend, and for about 100 miles divides Chanda District

and the Bastar Feudatory State of the Central Provinces from the Karimnagar and Warangal Districts of Hyderabad. Thirty miles below the confluence of the Pranhita, the Godavari receives the Indravati river from Bastar State and lower down the Tal. The bed of the Godavari where it adjoins the Central Provinces is broad and sandy, from one to two miles in width, and broken by rocks at only two points, called the First and Second Barriers, each about 15 miles long. In 1854 it was proposed to remove these barriers, and a third one on the Pranhita, with the object of making a waterway from the cotton-growing Districts of Nagpur and Wardha to the sea; but in 1871, after very considerable sums had been expended, the project was finally abandoned as impracticable. One of the dams erected in connexion with this project still stands, with its locks and canal, at Dummagudem in the north of the Godavari District of Madras. Although the Godavari only skirts the Central drainage system, as it receives through the Wardha and Wainganga the waters of a portion of the Satpura plateau and of the whole of the Nagpur plain.

Some distance below Sironcha the Godavari leaves the Central Provinces behind, and for a while forms the boundary between the Godavari District of the Madras Presidency and the Hyderabad State; and in this part of its course it is joined on the left bank by a considerable tributary, the Sabari. Thence it flows to the sea through the centre of the old Godavari District, which has recently been divided, mainly by the course of the river, into the two districts of Godavari and Kistna. At the beginning of its course along Madras territory, the river flows placidly through a flat and somewhat monotonous country, but shortly afterwards it begins to force its way through the Eastern Ghats, and a sudden change takes place. The banks become wild and mountainous, the stream contracts, and at length the whole body of the river pours through a narrow and very deep passage known as 'the Gorge,' on either side of which the picturesque wooded slopes of the hills rise almost sheer from the dark water. Once through the hills, the river again opens out and forms a series of broad reaches dotted with low alluvial islands (*lankas*), which are famous for the tobacco they produce. The current here is nowhere rapid. At Rajahmundry, where the river is crossed by the East Coast line of the Madras Railway on a bridge more than 1, 1/2 miles in length, it varies from 4 to 11 feet a second. In floods, however, the Godavari brings down an enormous volume of water,

and embankments on both of its banks are necessary to prevent it from inundating the surrounding country.

A few miles below Rajahmundry the river divides into two main streams, the Gautami Godavari on the east and the Vasishta Godavari on the west, which run down to the sea through a wide alluvial delta formed in the course of ages by the masses of silt which the river has here deposited. It is in this delta that the waters of the Godavari are first utilized on any considerable scale for irrigation. At Dowlaishweram, above the bifurcation, a great 'anicut' or dam has been thrown across the stream, and from this the whole delta has been irrigated.

The Godavari is navigable for small boats throughout Godavari District. Vessels get round the anicut by means of the main canals, of which nearly 500 miles are also navigable, and which connect with the navigable canals of the Kistna delta to the south. Above the anicut there are several steamboats belonging to Government; but, as already observed, the attempts to utilize the Upper Godavari as an important waterway have proved a failure.

The coast of the Godavari delta was the scene of some of the earliest settlements of Europeans in India, the Dutch, the English, and the French having all established factories there. The channels of the river which led to these have now greatly silted up. The little French settlement of Yanam still remains, but the others—Bandamurlanka, Injaram, Madapollam, and Palakollu—now retain none of their former importance.

The peculiar sacredness of the Godavari is said to have been revealed by Rama himself to the *rishi* Gautama. The river is sometimes called Goda, and the sacred character especially attaches to the Gautami mouth. According to popular legend, it proceeds from the same source as the Ganges, by an underground passage; and this identity is preserved in the familiar name of Vriddha-Ganga. But every part of its course is holy ground and to bath in its waters will wash away the blackest sin. The great bathing festival, called Pushkaram, celebrated in different years on the most sacred rivers of India, is held every twelfth year on the banks of the Godavari at Rajahmundry. The spots most frequented by pilgrims are—the source at Trimbak; the town of

Bhadrachalam on the left bank, about 100 miles above Rajah mundry, where stands an ancient temple of Ramachandra, surrounded by twenty-four smaller pagodas; Rajahmundry itself; and the village of Kotipalli, on the left of the eastern mouth.

Manjra: River of Hyderabad State, rising on the plateau of Patoda in Bhir District. After flowing through or along the Districts of Osmanabad, Bidar, and Medak, generally in a south-eastern direction, it takes a sudden turn 10 miles east of Kalabgur in the last-named District and thence flows almost due north, forming the boundary between Nander and Indur Districts, till it joins the Godavari from the right near Kondalwadi, after a course of 387 miles. During its course it receives the Tirna on the right bank in the Nilanga *taluk* of Bidar District, and 18 miles farther down, the Karanja on the same side. In Nander two smaller streams, the Lendi and the Manar, join it on the left bank. The banks of the Manjra are nowhere steep and are earthy. Several ferries are maintained and its waters are largely used for irrigation. Two new projects, known as the Manjra and the Manjra Extension, which are in course of construction, comprise extensive schemes for irrigating lands in Medak District.

Penganga : River of Berar, having its source in the hills beyond Deulghat, on the western border of Buldana District, in $20^{\circ} 31' N.$ and $76^{\circ} 2' E.$ After flowing in a south-easterly direction through this District and a portion of Akola, it forms the southern boundary of Berar, joining the Wardha, which forms the eastern boundary of the province, at Jugad, in the south-eastern corner of Yeotmal District ($19^{\circ} 52' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 11' E.$). The course of the Penganga, from its source to the point where it joins the Wardha, exceeds 200 miles in length; and its principal tributaries are the Pus, the Arna and Aran, which unite before they flow into it, the Chandrabhaga, the Waghari, which displace on its banks a crucious laminated formation of Purana sandstone, and the Vaidarbha, which is the adjectival form of the name of the old kingdom of heroic times. All these tributaries flow into the Penganga from the north.

Wardha : River of the Central Provinces, which rises in the Multai plateau of Betul District, at $21^{\circ} 50' N.$ and $78^{\circ} 24' E.$, about 70 miles north-west of Nagpur city, and, flowing south and south-east, separates the Nagpur, Wardha, and Chanda Districts of the Central Provinces from Amraoti and Yeotmal of Berar and Sirpur Tandur of Hyderabad State.

After a course of 290 miles from its source, the Wardha meets the Wainganga at Seoni in Chanda District, and the united stream under the name of the PRANHITA flows on to join the GODAVARI. The bed of the Wardha, from its source to its junction with the Penganga at Jugad in the south-east corner of Yeotmal, is deep and rocky, changing from a swift torrent in the monsoon months to a succession of nearly stagnant pools in the summer. For the last hundred miles of its course below Chanda, it flows in a clear channel broken only by a barrier of rocks commencing above the confluence of the 'Wainganga and extending into the Pranhita. The project entertained in the years 1866-71 for rendering the Godavari and Wardha fit for navigation included the excavation of a channel through this expanse of rock, which was known as the Third Barrier. The scheme proved Impracticable; and except that timber is sometimes floated down from the Ahiri forests in the monsoon months, no use is now made of the river for navigation. The area drained by the 'Wardha includes Wardha District' with parts of Nagpur and Chanda in the Central Provinces and the eastern and southern portion of Berar. The principal tributaries of the Wardha are the 'Wunna and Erai from the east and the Bembla and Penganga which drain the southern and eastern portions of the plain of Berar. The banks of the river are in several places picturesquely crowned by small temples and tombs, and numerous ruined forts in the background recall the wild period of Maratha wars and Pindari raids. Kundalpur (Dewalwara) on the Berar bank opposit to 'Wardha District is believed to represent the site of a buried city, celebrated-in the *Bhagavadgita* as the metropolis of the kingdom of Vidarbha (Berar). A large religious fair is held there. At Ballalpur near Chanda are the ruins of a palace of the Gond kings, and a curious temple on an islet in the river which for some months in the year is several feet under water. The Wardha is crossed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Pulgaon. Pranhita ('helpful to life').- River of the Central Provinces, formed by the united streams of the WARDHA and Wainganga, whose junction is at Seoni in Chanda District (19° 36' N and 79° 49' E.). From here the river has a course of 72 miles, until it joins the Godavari above Sironcha. Throughout its length the Pranhita is the western boundary of Chanda District and of the

Central Provinces, which it separates from Hyderabad State. Its bed is broad and sandy, with the exception of a long stretch of rock below the confluence at Seon.

Kistna : (Sanskrit, Krishna, 'the black ') : A great river of Southern India, which, like the Godavari and Cauvery, flows almost across the Peninsula from west to east. In traditional sanctity it is surpassed by both these rivers, and in actual length by the Godavari; but the area of its drainage, including its two great tributaries, the Bhima and Tungabhadra, is the largest of the three. Its total length is about 800 miles, and the total area of its catchment basin about 97,000 square miles.

The Kistna rises about 40 miles from the Arabian Sea (17° 59' N. and 73° 38' E.) in the Western Ghats just north of the hill station of Mahabaleshwar, and flows southwards, skirting the eastern spurs of the hills, past Karad (Satara District), where it receives on the right bank the Koyna from the western side of the Mahabaleshwar hills, and Sangli, where it receives the waters of the Varna, also from the west, until it reaches Kurundvad, when the Panchganga joins it, again on the right bank. The river then turns eastward and flows through Belgaum District, the States of the Southern Maratha Agency and Bijapur, into the State of Hyderabad, after a course about 300 miles in the Bombay Presidency. In Bijapur District it is joined on the right bank by the Ghataprabha and Malprabha from the Western Ghats. Near the hills the channel is too rocky and the stream too swift for navigation, but its waters are largely used for irrigation in Satara District and in the more open country to the south-east. In Belgaum and Bijapur its banks of black soil or laterite are 20 to 50 feet high, especially on the south side, and the stream forms many islands covered with babul bushes.

On entering the State of Hyderabad (at Echampet in Raichur District) the Kistna drops from the table-land of the Deccan proper down to the alluvial *doabs* of Shorapur and Raichur. The fall is as much as 408 feet in about 3 miles. In time of flood a mighty volume of water rushes with a great roar over a succession of broken ledges of granite, dashing

up lofty column of spray. The first of the *doabs* mentioned above is formed by the confluence of the BHIMA, which brings down the drainage of Ahmadnagar, Poona and Sholapur the second by the confluence of the TUNGABHADRA, which drains the north of Mysore and the (Ceded Districts of Bellary and Kurnool. At the point of junction with the Tungabhadra in the eastern corner of Raichur District, the Kistna again strikes British territory, and forms for a considerable distance the boundary between the eastern portion of Hyderabad and the Kurnool and Guntur Districts of Madras. Its bed is here for many miles a deep, rocky channel, with a rapid fall, winding in a north-easterly direction through the spurs of the Nallamalai range and other smaller hills. At Wazirabad in Nalgonda District it receives its last important tributary, the MUSI, on whose banks stands the city of Hyderabad. The total course of the river within and along the State of Hyderabad is about 400 miles.

On reaching the chain of the Eastern Ghats, the river turns sharply south-eastwards and flows for about 100 miles between the Kistna and Guntur Districts (formerly the Kistna District) of Madras direct to the sea, which it enters by two principal mouths. It is in this last part of its course that the Kistna is for the first time largely utilized for irrigation. From the point where it turns southwards the rate of fall of its channel drops rapidly from an average of $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet a mile to $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and eventually, as it nears the sea, to as little as from 7 to 9 inches. The enormous mass of silt it carries—which has been estimated to be sufficient in flood-time to cover daily an area of 5 square miles to a depth of 1 foot—has consequently in the course of ages been deposited in the form of a wide alluvial delta which runs far out into the sea and slopes gradually away from either bank of the river, with an average fall of 18 inches to the mile. At Bezwada, at the head of this delta, the Kistna runs through a gap 1,300 yards in width in a low range of gneissic hills, and here a great masonry dam has been thrown across the river and turns its waters into a network of irrigation channels which spread throughout the delta. Immediately below the dam the river is also crossed by the East Coast line of the Madras Railway on a girder-bridge

of twelve spans of 300 feet. The flood velocity of the Kistna at this point is about $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour, and the flood discharge has been estimated to reach the enormous figure of 7,61,000 cubic feet a second.

The Kistna is too rapid for navigation above the dam, but between Bezwada and its mouth sea-going native craft ply upon it for about six months in the year. The main irrigation canals are also navigable, connecting Kistna District with its northern neighbour Godavari and, by means of the Buckingham Canal, with the country to the southwards and the City of Madras.

Bhima (Sanskrit, 'The Terrible, one of the names of Parvati) : A river of Southern India. It rises at the well known shrine of Bhimashankar ($19^{\circ} 4' N.$ and $73^{\circ} 32' E.$) in the Western Ghats, and flows south-eastwards, with many windings, through or along the boundary of the Bombay Districts of Poona, Sholapur and Bijapur, for about 340 miles, till it enters the State of Hyderabad, where after a farther course of 176 miles it eventually falls into the KISTNA, about 16 miles north of Raichur. The first 40 miles of its course lie in a narrow and rugged valley, but farther east the banks are low and alluvial, though broken here and there by dikes of rock. In the dry season the stream is narrow and sluggish.

At Ranjangaon the Bhima receives on the right the combined waters of the Mula and Mutha from Poona, and about 15 miles farther, on the left bank, the Ghod river from the northern side of the Bhimashankar hills. Not far from Tembhurni it joined on the right bank by the Nira from the Bhor State, and, after passing the holy city of Pandharpur, receives on the right bank the Man from the Mahadeo hills, and on the left the Sina, which rises near Ahmadnagar. There are important irrigation works on the Mutha, Nira, and Sina. Near wadi junction (Hyderabad State) the Bhima is joined on the left by the Kagna river.

Tungabhadra : River of Southern India, the chief tributary of the Kistna, which is fed by all the streams of the northern half of Mysore State. It is formed by the union of the twin rivers Tunga and Bhadra, which rise together in the Western Ghats at Gangamula, on the frontier

of Kadur District, Mysore. The Tunga runs north-east to beyond Sringeri, and then takes a sharp turn north-west to Tirthahalli, whence its course is again north-east past Shimoga town. The Bhadra runs east to the western base of the Baba Budan range, and then north past Benkipur. The two unite at Kudali in the north of Shimoga District (14° N. and $75^{\circ} 43'$ E.) The united river forms the boundary between Mysore and Bombay and then between Bombay and Madras. Turning north-east it forms the boundary between Madras and the State of Hyderabad, and bending east in the north of Bellary District it joins the Kistna, beyond Kurnool, after a total course of about 400 miles. From Shimoga District the Tungabhadra receives the Choradi or Kumadvati and the Varada -on the west, and the Haridra on the south From Chitaldorg District it receives the Chinna Hagari and the Vedavati or Hagari on the south.

The Tungabhadra is bridged for the trunk road at Harihar, where it is also crossed by the railway from Hubli to Bangalore and again at Hosuru and Rampuram in Bellary District, where the lines from Hubli to Bellary and from Madras to Bombay pass over it.

There are thirty-eight small irrigation dams on the Tunga and the Bhadra in Mysore, but the beds of both rivers are for the most part rocky and consequently unsuitable for navigation. The manner in which the country rises rapidly away from either side of the Tungabhadra has also hitherto prevented it from being greatly utilized for irrigation in either the State of Hyderabad or the Madras Presidency, though in the former State its left bank is dammed for a distance of about 30 miles. The kings of the ancient dynasty of Vijayanagar (1336-1565), the ruins of whose capital still stand on its bank near the little village of Hampi in Bellary District, threw across it, above and below the city, a number of dams made of huge blocks of uncemented stone, of which ten are still used for watering narrow strips of land along the southern edge of the river. A few miles above the point where the Tungabhadra falls into the Kistna a dam also turns part of the water into the Kurnool-Cuddapah Canal. The river is, however, perennial and comes down in frequent heavy freshes, which cannot be utilized by any of these works,

and are not required for irrigation in the delta of the Kistna lower down. The Irrigation Commission of 1901-03 accordingly recommended the reinvestigation of a project, which has been several times mooted in different shapes, for constructing a reservoir upon the river in Bellary District. It is calculated that a masonry dam about 145 feet long near Hospet, where the river cuts through some low hills, would hold back the water for a distance of nearly 40 miles and form a lake with an area of 160 square miles and a capacity four and a half times as great as that of the Assuan reservoir on the Nile. From this a canal would be led to Bellary, tunnelling in its course through some rocky hills and thence across the Hagari, through the water shed between this river and the Penner, and finally into the bed of the latter river. The canal and its distributaries would command portions of the Bellary, Kurnool, Anantapur, Cuddapah and Nellore Districts of Madras. Detailed estimates for this great scheme, the cost of which is roughly estimated at 8 crores, are now under preparation.

The origin of the river is thus accounted for in local legend. A demon having seized the earth and carried it into the lower world, Vishnu became incarnate as a boar and plunging into the ocean brought it up again. Resting after this exertion on the Varaha-parvat or boar mountain, the perspiration trickling off his left tusk became the Tunga, and that from his right tusk the Bhadra.

Musi : River of Hyderabad State, rising in the Anantagiri hills in the Patlur *taluk* of Atraf-i-balda District. It flows almost due east for a distance of 112 miles, when it receives the Aler on the left, near Chittur, and thence runs in a south easterly direction until it falls into the Kistna, after a total course of about 150 miles. Several channels have been made at different parts of the course of this river, which act as feeders for arge tanks or supply direct irrigation. The city of Hyderabad stands on its right bank.

Carnatic (*Kannada, Karnata, Karnataka-desa*) : Properly as the name implies, 'The Kanarese country.' The name has however, been erroneously applied by modern European writer to the Tamil country

of Madras, including the Telugu District of Nellore. The boundaries of the true Carnatic, or Karnataka desa, are given by Wilks as Commencing near the town of Bidar, $18^{\circ} 45'$ N. about 6 miles north-west from Hyderabad (Deccan). Following the course of the Kanarese language to the south-east, it is found to be limited by a waving line which nearly touches Adoni winds to the west of Gooty, skirts the town of Anantapur and passing through Nandidurg, touches the range of the Eastern Ghats thence pursuing their southern course to the mountainous pass of Gazzalhati, it continues to follow the abrupt turn caused by the great chasm of the western hills between the towns of Coimbatore, Pollachi, and Palghat and sweeping to the north-west, skirts the edges of the precipitous Western Ghats, nearly as far north as the sources of the Kistna; whence following first an eastern and afterwards a north-eastern course it terminates in rather an acute angle near Bidar, already described as its northern limit.

This country has been ruled wholly or in part by many dynasties, of whom the Andhras or Satavahanas, the Kadambas, the Pallavas, the Gangas, the Chalukyas, the Rashtrakutas, the Cholas, the later Chalukyas, the Hoysalas, and the house of Vijayanagar are the most prominent. The Vijayanagar kings, who came into power about the year 1336, conquered the whole of the peninsula south of the Tungabhadra river. They were completely overthrown by the Muhammadans in 1565, and retired first to Penukonda, and then to Chandragiri one branch of the family remaining at Anagundi opposite to their old capital. It was these conquests that probably led to the extension of the term 'Carnatic' to the southern plain country; and this latter region came to be called Karnata Payanghat, or 'lowlands,' to distinguish it from Karnata Bala ghat or the hill country. When the Muhammadan kings of the Deccan ousted the Vijayanagar dynasty, they divided the north of the Vijayanagar country between them into Carnatic Hyderabad (or Golconda) and Carnatic Bijapur, each being further sub-divided into Payanghat and Balghat. At this time, according to Wilks, the northern boundary of Karnata (Carnatic) was the Tungabhadra.

Speaking of this period and the modern misapplication of the name, Bishop Caldwell says (*Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*, pp. 34-35) :-

‘The term *Karnataka* or *Karnataka* is said to have been a generic term, including both the Telugu and Kanarese peoples and their languages, though it is admitted that it usually denoted the latter alone, and though it is to the latter that the abbreviated form *Kannadam* has been appropriated. *Karnataka* (that which belongs to *Karnata*) is regarded as a Sanskrit word by native Pandits ; but I agree with Dr. Gundert in preferring to derive it from the Dravidian words *Kar*, “black, *nadu* (the adjective form of which in Telugu is *nati*), “country,” that is, “the black country,” a term very suitable to designate the “black cotton soil,” as it is called, of the plateau of the Southern Deccan. The use of the term is of considerable antiquity, as we find it in the *Varaha-Mihira* at the beginning of the fifth¹ century A.D. Taranatha also mentions *Karnata*. The word *Karnata* or *Karnataka*, though at first a generic term, became in process of time the appellation of the Kanarese people and of their language alone, to the entire exclusion of the Telugu. *Karnataka* has now got into the hands of foreigners, who have given it a new and entirely erroneous application. When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India, they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Ghats, including Mysore and part of Telingana—called the *Karnataka* country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name *Karnataka* or *Carnatic*, to designate the country below the Ghats, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step farther, and restricted the name of the country below the Ghats, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is probably the true *Carnatic*, is no longer called by that name ; and what is now geographically termed “the *Carnatic*” is exclusively the country below the Ghats on the Coromandel coast.’

It is this latter country which formed the dominions of the Nawabs of the *Carnatic*, who played such an important part in the struggle for supremacy between the English and the French in the eighteenth century, and which now forms the greater portion of the present Madras Presidency. This connotation still survives in the designation of Madras

1 Recte ‘sixth’

regiments as Carnatic infantry. Administratively, however, the term Carnatic (or Karnatak as it is there used) is now restricted to the Bombay portion of the original Karnata: namely, the Districts of Belgaum, Dharwar, and Bijapur, and part of North Kanara, with the Native states of the Southern Maratha Agency and Kolhapur.

Deccan (or Dakhin) : This name, a corruption of the Sanskrit *dakshina*- 'southern,' includes, in its widest sense, the whole of India south of the Narbada river, or, which is nearly the same thing, south of the Vindhya mountains. In its narrower sense it has much the same meaning as Maharashtra, or the country where the Marathi language is spoken, if the below-Ghat tract be omitted. In this connotation its southern boundary lies along the course of the Kistna river. In a still narrower sense the Deccan is regarded as bounded on the north by the Satmala hills. Adopting the broadest meaning, the Deccan on its western side descends seaward by a succession of terraces from the Western Ghats, which rise in parts to over 4,000 feet in height and terminate abruptly near Cape Comorin, the extreme southern point of the peninsula, at an elevation of 2,000 feet. From here, following the coast-line, the Eastern Ghats commence in a series of detached groups, which, uniting in about latitude $11^{\circ} 40'$ N., run north-eastward along the Coromandel coast, with an average elevation of 1,500 feet, and join the Vindhya, which cross the peninsula from west to east, in nearly the same latitude ($13^{\circ} 20'$ N.) as their western counterpart. The Vindhyan range thus joins the northern extremities of the two Ghats and completes the peninsula triangle of the Deccan. The eastern side of the enclosed table-land being much lower than the western, all the principal rivers of the Deccan-the Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery-rising in the Western Ghats, flow eastward, and escape by openings in the Eastern Ghats into the Bay of Bengal. Between the Ghats and the sea on either side the land differs in being, on the east, composed in part of alluvial deposits, brought down from the mountains, and sloping gently; while on the west the incline is abrupt, and the coast strip is broken by irregular spurs from the Ghats, which at places descend into the sea in steep cliffs.

Geology¹. The Deccan table-land is one of the relics of the old

¹ Contributed by Sir. T.H. Holland, Director, Geological Survey of India.

Gondwana continent which formerly connected India with Africa, and which broke up at about the time that the chalk was forming in Europe. It is one of the few solid blocks of ancient land which have not suffered any of the folding movements so marked in most lands, and which, so far as we know, have never been depressed below the ocean. Except near the present coasts at low levels, not a single marine fossil has been found in the whole Deccan. The 'basement complex' of the Deccan tableland includes the usual assemblage of gneisses and schists, among them the band of schists distinguished by the name of the Dharwars, containing the auriferous veins of Mysore which have, since they were opened up in 1881, yielded gold to the value of 19 millions sterling. Lying on the denuded surfaces of these ancient schists and gneisses are enormous thickness of unfossiliferous strata which, in default of evidence to the contrary, are regarded as Pre-Cambrian in age. These occur as isolated patches in the Cuddapah and Kurnool Districts of Madras ; in the Southern Maratha country ; in parts of the Godavari valley ; and in Gwalior, Bundelkhand, and the Vindhyan region of Central India. In small basins, generally preserved at lower levels, we find the coal-bearing deposits formed by the great rivers of the old Gondwana continent in upper palaeozoic and mesozoic times, while for an area of some 200,000 square miles the older rocks are covered with great masses of basaltic lava, which spread over the country in Upper Cretaceous times and now form the highlands of the Deccan, remaining practically as horizontal as they must have been when they flowed as molten sheets over the country. Here and there, where the Deccan trap has been cut through by weather influences, we get glimpses of the old land-surface which was overwhelmed by lava-flows, while between the flows there were apparently interruptions sufficient to permit of the development of life in the lakes and rivers, of which the records are preserved in the so-called inter-trappean beds of fresh-water limestone, shales, and sandstones. The scenery of the Deccan trap highlands is the result of the subarial erosion of the horizontal sheets of lava ; the first plateaux of the hill-tops, and the horizontal terraces which are traceable for miles along the scraps, are features eminently characteristic of the weathering of basaltic lava-flows. The long grass, the general absence of large trees, and the occurrence of almost purely deciduous species, combine with the outlines of the hills to distinguish the trap areas from all others in the Deccan.

Two peculiar features of the Deccan are worth special mention : one is the occurrence, over most of the trap area, of the peculiar black, argillaceous, and calcareous soil known as *regar*, and, from its suitability for cotton-growing, as 'cotton soil'; the other is the peculiar decomposition product known as laterite, which is essentially a dirty mixture of aluminic and ferric hydrates, formed by a special form of rock alteration confined to moist tropical climates, and often resembling the material known as bauxite, which is worked as a source of aluminium.

History

Little is known in detail of the history of the Deccan before the close of the thirteenth century. Hindu legends tell of its invasion by Rama, and the main authentic points known are the coming of the first Aryans (c. Seventh century B.C.), The advance of the Mauryas (250 B.C.), and the Scythic invasion of A.D. 100. Archaeological remains and inscriptions bear witness to a series of dynasties, of which the Andhras or Satavahanas, the Cholas, the Chalukyas, the Rashtrakutas, and the Yadavas of Deogiri were the most important. The country was known to the author of the *Periplus* in the third century A.D. as Dachine Bades (Dakshinapata), and to the Chinese pilgrim Fa Hian in the fifth century as Ta Thsin. Continuous history commences with the Muhammadan invasion of 1294-1300, when Ala-ud-din, the Khilji emperor of Delhi, overran maharashtra, Telingana, and Karnata. In 1338 the reduction of the Deccan was completed by Muhammad bin Tughlak ; but a few years later a general revolt resulted in the establishment of the Muhammadan Bahmani dynasty and the retrogression of Delhi supremacy beyond the Narbada. The Bahmani dynasty advanced its eastern frontier at the expense of the Hindu Kingdom of Telingana to Golconda in 1373, to Warangal in 1421, and to the Bay of Bengal in 1472. A few years later (1482) it began to disintegrate, and was broken up

into the five rival Muhammadan Kingdoms of Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, Bidar, and Berar. These were counterbalanced in the south, as the Bahmani empire had been, by the great Hindu kingdom of Vijaynagar, which was however destroyed in 1565, at the battle of Talikote, by a coalition of the Muhammadan powers. Of these, Bidar and Berar became extinct before 1630; the other three kingdoms were restored to the Delhi empire by the victories of Akbar, Shah Jahan, and Aurangzeb. The Deccan was thus for a second time brought under the Delhi rule, but not for long. The Marathas in 1706 obtained the right of levying tribute over southern India, and their leading chiefs, who had practically superseded the dynasty of Sivaji, were the Peshwas of Poona. A great Delhi viceroy (the Nizam-ul-mulk), rallying all the Muhammadans of the South round him, established the Nizamat of HYDERABAD. The remainder of the imperial possessions in the Deccan was divided among minor princes, who generally acknowledged the supremacy of the Peshwa or the Nizam, according as they were north or south of the Tungabhadra. Mysore, alternately tributary to both, became eventually the prize of Haider Ali, while in the extreme south the Travancore State enjoyed, by its isolated position, uninterrupted independence.

Such was the position of affairs early in the eighteenth century. Meanwhile Portugal, Holland, France, and England had effected settlements on the coast ; but the two former on so small a scale that they took no important part in the wars of succession between the native princes which occupied the middle of the century. The French and English, however, espoused opposite sides, and their struggles eventually resulted in establishing the supremacy of the latter (1761), which became definitely affirmed, under Lords Wellesley and Hastings, by the establishment of British influence

at Hyderabad, the overthrow of Tipu Sultan, and the Maratha Wars which followed, and the annexation of the Peshwa's dominions in 1818. The dominions of the other important Maratha chief of the Deccan, the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur, lapsed to the British on the extinction of the dynasty in 1854. The Deccan is to-day included in the Presidency of Madras, part of Bombay and the Central Provinces, together with Hyderabad, Mysore and other Native States.