

GURDON'S REPORT ON
CHITRAL
1903

By

Capt. B.E.M. Gurdon, C.I.E.,
D.S.O.
Part. I

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY.

Chitral (called Chitral by the inhabitants), or the country under the rule of the present Mehtar Shuja-ul-Mulk, together with the districts of Mastuj and Laspur, the whole comprising the country included in the Chitral Agency, is situated between N. Lat. $35^{\circ} 15'$ and 37° and E. Long. $71^{\circ} 30'$ and $73^{\circ} 50'$. Kashkar is the name generally given to it by Pathans.

This region, fashioned from the ridges and spurs which run downward from the Eastern Hindu Kush, forms a network of vast mountains and deep narrow valleys traversed by glacier-born torrents, presenting a whole of so difficult and inhospitable a character, as to render it one of the most efficient obstacles we could wish to place in the way of an enemy's advance.

Mountain-locked and mountain-divided, level ground is rare, and cultivation is almost entirely limited to small fan-shaped oases of alluvial soil deposited by mountain streams just before they noisily hurl themselves into a main river.

Lofly snow-clad peaks, rugged and barren at their base, softening as they rise into pine-clad slopes and grassy downs, only again to become bare and rugged with steep shale and boulder strewn slopes, or bare precipices of rock as they approach the summits, overhang the deep valleys, in which the heat of summer and the cold of winter are alike extreme.

The villages in this tract, which lie at heights of from 3,700' at Arandu to 11,000' at Patti, are limited to the patches of cultivation and are for the most part small and roughly built. On the Pathan and Kalistan borders the habitations are usually clustered together, and sometimes surrounded by rough walls, with towers dotted here and there, thus indicating the frequency of inter-tribal fights and raids in former days. In the other parts of the country where raids were not so common, the houses are scattered, each small proprietor building on his own plot of land; and, as each house is usually surrounded by small orchards with well-tended grassy lawns, the general effect is very refreshing to the eye. Up to an elevation of 9,000' fruit is abundant, and often forms the staple food of the inhabitants, much of it being dried and carefully put away for winter consumption. Beyond a radius of about 20 miles above Chitral the country is practically rainless and the hills are bare and rugged, the only trees found being the dwarf juniper, with occasional patches of mountain birch and willow. At Chitral itself, and from thence south, the valley opens out considerably. Cultivation is more continuous, and the hills are thickly wooded with fine specimens of the deodar, pine, fir, and ilex.

The total area of Chitral may be estimated at about 4,500 square miles, the greatest length being about 200 miles from the Yarkhun-Karumbur watershed in the north to the Asmar frontier in the south.

Speaking generally, Chitral is bounded—

- To the north by Wakhan and Zebak.
- To the south by Dir and the Asmar district of Afghanistan.
- To the east by the Panjkora, Kohistan, Gbizar and Yasin.
- To the west by Kafiristan.

The exact geographical and political boundaries can be traced as follows:—

To the north and north-east the crest of the Hindu Kush range forms the main watershed between the Oxus river to its north and the Yarkhun-Chitral river to its south, thus dividing Chitral from the Afghan Provinces of Wakhan and Badakhshan and forming the Indo-Afghan frontier.

On the west the Hindu Kush sends out from the vicinity of the Dorah pass a spur to the south. This spur, or, as it may be called, the Kafiristan range, running south to the junction of the Chitral and Bashgal rivers, divides Chitral from the Afghan province of Kafiristan, thus forming the Indo-Afghan frontier on this side.

To the south the boundary between Chitral and the Afghan district of Asmar is formed by the southern watershed of the Arandu (or Arnawai) stream, which runs from a point a little east of the Shingare pass in the Lowari range to the Chitral river.

To the east the Moshabar or Shandur range, a subsidiary spur of the Hindu Kush, which branches just south-east of the Baroghil pass and runs into the Hindu Raj range at the Shandur pass, divides Chitral from the districts of Hunza, Yasin and Gbizar in the Gilgit Agency. From the Shandur pass the eastern boundary, dividing Chitral from Dir, runs along the Hindu Kaj Range to the Shingare pass (*e.g.*, the watershed between the Chitral and Panjkora rivers).

Mountain Systems.

Although the different ranges throughout the country are all offshoots of the Hindu Kush, for purposes of description they may be divided as follows:—

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) The Hindu Kush range. (2) The Kafiristan range. (3) The Arkari Lut Kuh watershed. | } | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (4) The Arkari-Mastuj watershed. (5) The Shah Jinali range. (6) The Moshabar or Shandur range. |
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(1) *The Hindu Kush range.*—This range forms the boundary to the north and north-west between Chitral and the Afghan Provinces of Wakhan and Badakhshan. Its altitude, combined with a heavy snowfall, renders it one of the most formidable barriers to be met with in nature. In its higher regions, destitute of trees, with little grass or herbage of any sort, a more inhospitable and desolate region, or scenery of more impressive grandeur, is difficult to imagine. Its general elevation is within the limit of perpetual snow, the height of its peaks varying from 19,000' to close on 26,000', except in the neighbourhood of the Baroghil pass, for here the mighty range sinks down abruptly into comparative insignificance and, for a short distance, low undulating hills take the place of lofty peaks.

Of the many lofty peaks throughout Chitral, Terich Mir (25,425') is the highest. This mighty peak is visible from almost every part of the country and provides material for much legend-lore. The really practicable passes which cross the range from Chitral territory are (starting from the west) :—

Dorah.		Kotgaz.
Uni.		Kach.
Mach.		Ochili.
Agram.		Sad Ashteragh.
Nuksan.		Kankhon.
Khatinza.		Baroghil.
Shawitakh.		

Of these the Dorah, Kankhon, Baroghil and Shawitakh passes may be said to be the only ones fit for the passage of troops in any numbers accompanied by pack transport.

Of the remainder, with the exception of the Kotgaz, Kach and Ochili passes, which may be considered as quite impracticable for military purposes, it is difficult to specify the extent to which they could be used by men, as in their cases so much depends on the snowfall and the position of the constantly moving glaciers about their summits. For further details reference must be made to the route book of this region.

(2) *The Kafirstan range.*—A few miles south of the Dorah pass, the Hindu Kush sends out a spur to the south, which forms the watershed between the Lut Kuh, Chitral and the Bashgal valleys. Although known by no special name, this range may be called, for purposes of description, the Kafirstan range. Its total length is some 70 miles, and its altitude varies from 5,000' to 18,000'. Its northern portions resemble the Hindu Kush in their ruggedness and barrenness, but the altitude of the southern portion being less, this barren appearance is replaced by forests of deodar, fir, hlex and birch, and with grassy uplands.

There are some 15 passes* across this range, of which the larger number, however, are only fit for active men on foot, and need not be mentioned here. The following are the principal passes, and, though difficult, are practicable for laden animals—Zidik, Shui (called Pshuar by Kafirs), Gangawat, Shawal and Paitasun. Below Paitasun to the junction of the Bashgal and Chitral rivers the range can be crossed by laden animals in many places.

(3) *The Arkari-Lut Kuh watershed.*—The next to be considered is the range dividing the Lut Kuh and Arkari valleys, which is a spur branching off the main Hindu Kush in a south easterly direction. This spur is some 20 miles in length and averages 13,000' to 19,000' in height. There are four or five difficult passes over this range, the principal of which are the Sad Qulachi and Besti; all are impracticable for laden animals.

*For further information about passes, see Chapter II and Routes to Chitral and Gilgit Agency.

(3) *The Arkari-Mastuj watershed.*—From the giant peak known as Terich Mir to the crest of the Hindu Kush, some 14 miles north, is a mass of glaciers and impenetrable ravines, which are as yet unsurveyed; to the south this peak radiates spurs towards the Arkari and Mastuj rivers, and these spurs in their turn send out a confused mass of minor features, divided from each other by deep, narrow and gloomy ravines, and connected by difficult mountain tracks in the northern portions, and by easier routes in the south.

(4) *The Shah-Jinali range.*—West of the Kankhon pass the Hindu Kush sends out a spur to the south-west, which forms the watershed between the Yarkhun and the Torikho-Mulikho valleys, and which, for purposes of description, is called the Shah Jinali range. Its total length is about 60 miles, and its altitude varies from some 16,000' or 17,000' in the north to 8,000' at the junction of the Mastuj and Mulikho rivers, where for the last 7 or 8 miles it sinks into a long, low, undulating ridge known as Kaghlasht, and is traversed by several paths. In its northern regions this range is crossed by three passes affording communications between the Yarkhun and Torikho valleys; these are Shah Jinali, Bang Gol, and Khot, of which the first and last are practicable for laden animals, and the first is one of the easiest passes in the Hindu Kush region.

(5) *The Moshabar or Shandur range.*—East of the Baroghil pass the Hindu Kush sends out a long lofty range to the south-west, which is known as the Moshabar or Shandur range. It runs at first in a direction generally parallel to the Hindu Kush, from which it is separated by the upper portion of the Yarkhun valley; then, gradually diverging from its parent range, it turns south.

Below Mastuj the line of the range is broken by the valley of the Laspur river, at the head of which valley lies the Shandur pass. At the Shandur pass the Moshabar or Shandur range is connected with the lofty chain of peaks, called by Colonel Tanner the Hindu Raj.

From the junction of the Mastuj and Laspur rivers, the Moshabar or Shandur range runs southward, forming an unbroken barrier between Chitral and the Panjkora, Kohistan and Dir. From Chitral its peaks begin to decrease from the average height of 22,000', to 14,000' south of the Lowari pass. As the range decreases in altitude, so the hills lose their bare, rugged appearance, until, below Chitral itself, their slopes are thickly wooded with deodar, pine and flex.

The principal passes across this range, commencing from the north, are the Darkot, Thui, Chumarkhan, Shandur, Thal and Lowari (or Rao Zai), of which the Shandur and Lowari are easy and open all the year round except after fresh falls of snow; in addition, there are numerous minor passes over this range south of Mastuj, which need not be mentioned here.

Rivers.

Throughout the whole of Chitral the numerous valleys are drained by swift unavigable rivers.

The upper portion of the country is drained by the Yarkhun-Mastuj and the Torikho rivers, which meet at the village of Kosht, from which point the combined stream may, for purposes of description, be called the Chitral river. From the Showar Shur glaciers to where it enters the Afghan district of Asmar, the length of the river is about 200 miles. From Asmar down-

wards it is known as the Kunar river, and it eventually flows into the Kabul river near Jalalabad.

*The Yarkhun river**.—The Yarkhun river rises in a glacier on the Hindu Kush range, situated between the Shawitakh and Gagen passes and a few miles above the Showar Shur *ailah*. At Showar Shur the river is joined by a small tributary stream some 12 miles in length, which rises in a glacier situated on the western slope of the Karumbar-Yarkhun watershed. For a few miles below the confluence of the two streams the river flows through an almost level grassy *pamir* and is fordable almost anywhere, even in summer. Quicksands are, however, numerous and the traveller is counselled to adhere most carefully to the track of his guides when fording. Some 15 miles from Showar Shur the stream from the Baroghil Pass joins in. From here to Mastuj (a distance of some 85 miles) the valley of the Yarkhun river presents a series of narrow gorges or defiles alternating with broad lake-like beds of sand or shingle through which the river flows in numerous shifting channels. The river is a rapid one, and during the summer, from about the 15th June to the 1st September it cannot, except perhaps immediately after a long spell of cloudy weather, be forded at more than two or three points. Just above the Vedinkot camping ground (situated 2 marches above Shost and opposite the big glacier hitherto known as the Chatiboi, but of which the more correct name is the Vedinkot glacier) the Yarkhun river is crossed by a permanent cantilever bridge which was erected by the local people in 1901. It is shaky, but practicable for lightly laden animals and has stood the floods of the last two summers. Then again, there is a similar, though better, bridge just above Shost (some 45 miles from Mastuj) which has stood the floods of several summers. Between Shost and Mastuj there are several rope bridges, which, however, are usually in very bad condition.

The chief tributaries of the Yarkhun river are the streams from the Gokhsun Gol on the right bank and from the Gazen and Chumar Khan Gols on the left bank.

Mastuj river.—At Mastuj itself the Mastuj river, as we will now call it, is bridged by a fine new suspension bridge, which was erected in the summer of 1902 by No. 1 Company, Bengal Sappers and Miners. About 8 miles below Mastuj, the Mastuj river is again bridged at Sonoghor by another fine suspension bridge, which was also erected by No. 1 Company, Bengal Sappers and Miners, in the summer of 1902. Between Mastuj and Kosht (a distance of about 25 miles) the Laspur river, which joins the main river on its left bank immediately below Mastuj, is the only affluent of any importance. There are two good bridges across the Laspur river, *viz.*, at Gasht and Harchin, both of which are fit for laden mules. In summer the Mastuj river is not fordable anywhere between Mastuj and Kosht, but in winter good fords are numerous. There is an excellent site for a cantilever bridge at the village of Charn. The present structure is only fit for foot passengers, but it could be easily improved by the local people.

Torikho river.—We now come to the Torikho river, which has perhaps a greater volume of water than the Mastuj river, though it is considerably

*From its source as far as Mastuj, the river will in this description be called the "Yarkhun" and from Mastuj to Kosht it will be called the "Mastuj."

shorter, its length being only a little over 50 miles. It rises in three branches, which, flowing from the west, north and east, unite at Moghlang, 10 miles above Reeh. The stream from the west is the smallest of the three; that from the north, which rises in the glaciers at the foot of the Kach pass, has the greatest volume; but that from the east, which takes its rise in the Ochhili glacier, has the greatest length.

Its principal tributary is the Terich, which joins it on the right bank about 25 miles above its mouth. The only other affluent of importance is the Khot, which joins it on its left bank a short distance above the village of Shagram.

The river is only fordable in winter. In summer it is a deep and rapid stream. From its source to Drasan the channel is deep, being confined between precipitous cliffs. Below Drasan the valley opens out considerably. There are fairly good permanent cantilever bridges at Drasan, Wahrkup and Khamba Khi. The first two are fit for fully laden mules, but the third is very shaky, and animals should be unloaded before being sent across it.

Chitral river.—At Kosht the Torikho and Mastuj rivers unite, and from this point the combined stream may conveniently be named the Chitral river. Between Kosht and Chitral it receives several affluents, the most important being:—first, the stream from the Owir Gol, which joins the main river on its right bank at the village of Parpish; second, the stream from the Roshun Gol on the left bank; third, the stream from the Golan Gol, also on the left bank; and fourth, and most important, the Lut Kuh river, which joins the main river about 4 miles above Chitral, and through which it receives the whole drainage of the mountains in the direction of the Dorah and the Arkari valley passes.

Below Kosht the river is permanently bridged at Mori and Mroi. Of these, the latter is the best, it being practicable for country ponies, which, however, should be unloaded before being sent across it. At Chitral itself there are two excellent bridges, both of which are fit for laden mules. The first, a cantilever bridge improved by us, is situated just above the Mehtar's fort; and the other, a suspension bridge built by us in 1895, adjoins the new fort.

From Kosht to the junction of the Lut Kuh river the valley is a deep and narrow defile between rocky and precipitous mountains, with here and there alluvial fans on which villages are perched. In summer it is unfordable, the volume of water becoming very great once the winter snow and the glaciers begin to melt. In winter there are fords, but, excepting those near the villages of Kosht and Ragh, they are not much used. From the junction of the Lut Kuh river to the junction of the Bashgal river, a distance of about 55 miles, the valley is considerably more open than in its upper portion, and cultivation is more continuous. In summer it is unfordable throughout, but in winter fords are numerous, though none are particularly easy.

Below Chitral the river is crossed by good suspension bridges at Gairat, Drosh and Naghr, all of which are fit for laden mules. The cantilever bridge built by the Afghans at Narsat (or Nari), which is also fit for laden mules, though beyond the limits of Chitral territory, may, in addition, be noted.

The principal affluents below Chitral are:—On the right bank, the streams from the Oyon, Birir, Jinjoret and Urtsum valleys and the Bashgal river; and on the left bank, the Shishi Kuh, Ashret Gol and Arandu (or Arnawai) Gol streams. There are good suspension bridges fit for laden mules, across the Oyon and Shishi Kuh streams near their mouths.

Lut Kuh river.—The Lut Kuh river, which is the most important tributary of the Chitral river, may be briefly described as follows:—

It drains the portion of Chitral which lies between Terich Mir and Kafirstan. It rises at the Dorah pass on the Hindu Kush range and, flowing in a south-easterly direction joins the Chitral river some 4 miles above Chitral, having a course, therefore, of about 40 miles. Until joined by its principal affluents, the Arkari and Ojhor streams, the mouths of which are at Andabrti (19 miles from Chitral) and Shogot (16 miles from Chitral), respectively, its volume is not great. During summer it is only fordable at one or two places below Parabek, but above Gabor it can be forded anywhere. In winter the fords are numerous, but most of them are difficult, owing to the rocky nature of the river bed.

The valley of the Lut Kuh river may be generally described as a narrow gorge bounded by precipitous mountains which here and there open out a little, leaving room for villages and cultivation.

The Lut Kuh river is bridged in several places, but, except at Sin and Shoghot where there are fairly good cantilever structures crossable by ponies of the country, the bridges are mere makeshifts, easily removed and easily replaced.

LAKES.

There are only three lakes of any size in Chitral territory, *viz.*, the lake on the Shandur pass and the two lakes in the Bashkbar Gol, at the head of which is the Thal pass.

The lake known variously as the Karambar Sar, Kul Sar, or Ak Kul, may also be noted, though it is situated east of the Karambar-Yarkhun watershed, and not, therefore, within the limits of the region treated of in this work. None of these lakes are of any military interest.

CHAPTER II.

COMMUNICATIONS.

The difficulties of travel in this mountain land are great. All baggage and stores must be carried on the backs of coolies, ponies or mules, except below Drosh, where the road which leads to India *via* the Lowari pass, has been made practicable for camels. The tracks, which for the most part lie along the streams or ravines, are seldom easy but are often difficult and sometimes dangerous. The only practicable means of ingress and egress for an armed force is along the streams and ravines; for, although for some five months in the year the lower ranges which divide the valleys are free from snow, and may be traversed at various points by small parties of active men on foot, unencumbered with stores or baggage, such routes could not be utilised to any large extent owing to the insuperable difficulties of water and transport.

The military roads from the Lowari pass to Drosb, and thence by either bank of the Chitral river to Chitral itself, and the road from Chitral to the Shaandur pass *via* Mastuj are the only roads in Chitral really suitable in their present state for use by Indian transport mules in any numbers all the year round. For some eight months during autumn, winter and early spring, when the river is not in flood, the route up the Yarkhun valley from Mastuj to the Baroghil and Shawitakh passes is also practicable for Indian transport mules, but it cannot be described as a road. Small numbers of mules, with plenty of men to assist in removing the loads at awkward places, can travel up most of the valleys, but progress under such conditions is slow. The rivers are formidable obstacles when in flood, but it may be noted that Chitralis are excellent swimmers and at a pinch small quantities of baggage can always be carried for short distances while the mules or ponies can be swum across the river. The light foot-bridges are usually very shaky and require to be crossed with care, but the Chitralis think nothing of crossing them with the heaviest of loads. The rope-bridges of Chitral are similar in pattern to those of Kashmir, and do not, therefore, need any detailed description. When in good condition this class of bridge is really very safe, though at first sight it may not appear so.

Routes.

For detailed information regarding routes reference should be made to the Gazetteer of Chitral and "Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency."

A short précis of the more important routes is given below.

External communications.

(1) Chitral to Dargai, the terminus of the Nowshera-Dargai Railway, *via* the Lowari pass, the Panjkora valley and the Kamrani and Malakaud passes—152½ miles, 14 marches.

A military road practicable, with the exception of the portion between Drosb and Chitral, for all pack transport including camels. From Drosb to Chitral, there are good roads on both banks of the river which is spanned at Drosb and Chitral by suspension bridges fit for laden mules.

This route is the one used at present by the annual reliefs.

The Lowari pass is only closed to men on foot for a few days at a time in the winter and early spring during heavy snowstorms. The north side of the pass is subject to avalanches from the 15th March to about the 10th May.

(See page 2, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(2) Chitral to Asmar *via* left bank of the Chitral river to Narsat (or Nari) and thence *via* right bank. Distance about 85 miles, 8 marches.

From Mirkhani at the mouth of the Ashret Gol to Arandu (or Arnawai) the track is not at present fit for laden mules, but with very little labour it could be made so. There is one difficult *pari* between Arandu and Narsat (or Nari), where animals must be unladen. At Narsat there is a good cantilever bridge leading to the right bank of the river and the new road recently constructed by the Afghans, which is fit for mule transport.

(See Route 13, page 129, Appendix II, and Routes 4 and 10, pages 14 and 24 of Barrow's Gazetteer.)

(3) Chitral to Zebak by the Dorah pass—92½ miles, 10 marches.

The main trade route between Chitral and Badakshan.

The Dorah pass is open to laden animals of the country from 1st July to 15th October.

The track up the Lut Kuh valley is not practicable in its present state for Government transport, but it could easily be made so.

(See Route 28, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(4) Chitral to Gilgit *via* Mastuj and the Shandur pass—224½ miles, 23 marches.

This is the main route between Chitral and Gilgit and has recently been made practicable throughout for Government transport; good suspension bridges have been built at Sonoghor and Mastuj and minor bridges at Gasht and Harchin in the Laspur valley. Yaks can cross the Shandur pass at all seasons of the year, and Government transport could cross between May 1st and November 1st without difficulty. Local ponies with loads use it as early as April 15th and as late as December 1st.

(See Routes Nos. 42 and 68 in Routes in the Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(5) Chitral to Sarhad-i-Wakhan *via* Mastuj and the Baroghil pass—159½ miles, 17 marches.

The road from Chitral to Mastuj is passable throughout for laden Government mules. From Mastuj to the Baroghil the route is, generally speaking, a good winter one and in its present state a difficult, but practicable, and easily improved summer route. It is practicable for laden mules.

(See Routes 43 and 53 in Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

The most noteworthy of the less important routes which may be included under the heading "External communications" are the following:—

(6) Mastuj to Sanin in Wakhan *via* the Khaikhun pass—73½ miles, 6 stages.

(See Route 56, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(7) Mastuj to Yasin by the Thui pass—76½ miles, 7 marches.

(See Route 59, Routes in the Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(8) Mastuj to Ghizr by the Chumar Khan pass, two longish marches, and therefore much shorter than the route *via* the Shandur, but it can only be used in summer and the gradients are steep on the Mastuj side of the pass.

(9) Chitral to Kazi Deh in Wakhan by the Sar Istragh pass—92½ miles, 7 marches.

(See Route 36, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(10) Chitral to Zebak by the Nuksan or Khatinza passes—76½ miles, 9½ marches.

(See Route 35, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(11) Chitral to Zebak by the Agram pass—70½ miles, 9½ marches.

(See Route 34, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(12) Chitral to Kafirstan by the Zidig pass—50 miles, 5 marches.

(See Route 29, page 45, Barrow's Gazetteer.)

(13) Chitral to Kafirstan by the Shui pass—48 miles, 5 marches.

(See Route 53, page 73, Barrow's Gazetteer.)

- (14) Chitral to Kafiristan by the Gangalwat pass—45 miles, 4 marches.
(See page 116 of Barrow's Gazetteer.)
(15) Chitral to Kafiristan by the Shawal pass—50 miles, 5 marches.
(See Route 51, page 72, Barrow's Gazetteer.)
(16) Drosch to Usturgutz by Naghr and the Paitasun pass—2 marches.
(See Route 15, Routes in the Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

Internal Communications.

The only routes worthy of remark which have not already been noted are the following:—

(17) Chitral to Mastuj *via* Preit, Drasan and the Kaghdasht—67 miles, 9 marches.

(See Route 42, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(18) Chitral to Drasan *via* Sin, Partsan and the Kyar pass or *via* Sin, Partsan and Paste. The Kyar route is the easiest, though slightly the longer. Distance of Paste route—57 miles, 6 marches.

(See Route 39, Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(19) Drasan to Shost in the Yarkhun valley by the Torikho valley and the Shah Jinali pass—60½ miles, 6 marches.

Practicable for laden mules, from the end of June until October, but difficult, as loads would require removing at many places. The route could, however, be improved with very little labour.

(See Route 48, Routes in the Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.)

(20) Drosch to Madaghlasht in the Shishi Kuh—22½ miles, 2 marches. Madaghlasht has been used as a summer sanatorium for the last three years, and the road, though still far from good, has been made practicable for laden mules. See Route 26 in Routes in Chitral and the Gilgit Agency.

Passes.

Detailed information regarding the passes will be found in the Gazetteer of Chitral and the route books. Only a brief summary, therefore, is given here.

The different passes in Chitral may be divided into the following groups:—

- (1) The Yarkhun valley.
- (2) The Torikho valley.
- (3) The Arkari and Ojhor valley.
- (4) The Lut Kuh valley.
- (5) The passes leading into Kafiristan.
- (6) The passes between Drosch district and Dir and the Golen Gol.

(1) *The Yarkhun valley passes:—*

- (a) To the north at the head of the Yarkhun valley communication is obtained with Wakhan by the following passes:—

Shawitakh.
Baroghil.
Kankhon.

- (b) To the north-east communication is obtained with the Ishkoman valley and thence *via* Gakuch with Gilgit by the Karumbar pass, which crosses the Yarkhun-Karumbar watershed.

(c) To the east communication is obtained with Yasin and Ghizar in the Gilgit Agency by the following passes, which cross the Moshabar or Shandur range:—

Darkot.
Thui.
Chumar Khan.
Shandur.

(d) To the west the Yarkhun valley is connected with the following passes crossing the Shah Jinali range:—

Shah Jinali.
Baag Gol.
Khot.

(e) The Shawitakh pass, elevation 12,950'.

An easy pass and practicable for laden animals except after a heavy snowfall or in spring when the snow is soft. The Pamir Boundary Commission crossed this pass in the summer of 1895 with 600 Kashmir laden ponies.

(See page Part II.)

Baroghil pass, elevation 12,460'.

The easiest of the passes which cross the eastern Hindu Kush and the lowest in altitude. It is practicable for all kinds of transport throughout the year, except at beginning of spring, owing to softness of snow.

(See page Part II.)

Kankhon pass, elevation 16,600'.

Practicable for laden animals of the country from 1st July to 30th September. A glacier has to be crossed and ponies are occasionally lost in the crevasses; the difficulties, however, are not very great, though the steepness and high altitude make it severe.

(See page Part II.)

(f) The Karumbar pass, elevation 14,050'.

Is open during the early summer and autumn and practicable for laden animals of the country but very difficult for them.

The most difficult portion is the glacier some 10 miles from the summit on the Karumbar side.

(See page Part II.)

(g) The Darkot pass, elevation 15,000'.

Is open from the 1st July to the 15th October and is impracticable for laden Indian transport mules, but is used by laden yaks and country ponies.

The Pamir Boundary Commission used this route with 600 Kashmir ponies in 1895.

(See page Part II.)

The Thui pass, elevation 14,680'.

Open for laden animals of the country from 1st July to 15th October.

There is no difficulty on the Yarkhun side, but the glacier on the Yasin side is difficult. Government mules have crossed this pass, but only a few at a time, and it cannot be deemed practicable for a large number of mules.

(See page Part II.)

Chumar Khan pass, elevation 13,500'.
 Is practicable for Indian transport mules, but the ascent on the Yarkhun side is very steep. There are, however, no *paris* and no glaciers, and as the soil is very soft the paths could quickly and easily be improved.

Open from 15th June to 1st November.

(See page Part II.)

Shandur pass, elevation 12,230'.

A very easy pass, practicable for all kinds of transport from 15th May to 1st November. It is also open in the winter whenever the snow is hard, as the gradients are very easy.

(See page Part II.)

(d) Shah Jinali, elevation 14,100'.

One of the easiest passes in the country. There is one place on the Yarkhun side about 7 miles from Shost where it is difficult for a distance of 100 yards, otherwise it is practicable for Indian transport from 15th June to 15th October.

(See page Part II.)

Bang Gol pass, elevation 16,020'.

A most difficult pass, and is too steep for laden animals.

(See page Part II.)

Khot pass. Is practicable for *lightly* laden animals of the country from 15th June to 1st October, but it is very steep on the Yarkhun side and coolies would probably get along almost as fast as ponies.

(See page Part II.)

(2) *Torikho valley passes* :—

Ochhili. (See page Part II.)

Kach. (See page Part II.)

Kotgaz. (See page Part II.)

These passes are very difficult and quite impracticable for military purposes. They all lead from the Torikho valley into Wakhan.

(3) *The Arkari and Ojhor valley passes.*

West of the peak of Terich Mir the Arkari river, rising in the Hindu Kush, joins the Lut Kuh river at Andahrti.

The following passes lead from the Arkari valley to Wakhan or Zebak :—

Sad Ashteragh, elevation 17,450'. (See page Part II.)

Khatinza, elevation 16,600'. (See page Part II.)

Nuksan, elevation 16,050'. (See page Part II.)

Agram, elevation 16,630'. (See page Part II.)

And the following lead to the Lut Kuh valley :—

Sad Qulachi. (See page Part II.)

Besti. (See page Part II.)

Finally, the Ojhor valley can be communicated with by the Dir Gol pass.

The importance of the four first-named passes, difficult though they are, lies in the fact that, in the event of an invasion of Chitral from Badakhshan by the Dorah pass, they would afford routes across the Hindu Kush

range to small numbers of mobile and lightly-equipped men, who could thus turn any position we might elect to defend in the upper part of the Lut Kuh valley. Owing to their high altitude and steep gradients, they are difficult even to men on foot. They are usually open to unladen or very lightly laden animals from the 15th July to the 1st October. They may be considered as impracticable for troops, but lightly equipped men trained to work at high altitudes might use them. A force crossing these passes would have to rely mainly on coolie transport, as under the most favourable circumstances only a small number of lightly laden animals of the country could cross at a time, and in bad weather they would be unable to cross at all.

Similar remarks apply to the other three passes communicating with the Lut Kuh and Ojhor valleys. They are all very difficult.

Ojhor valley passes:—

At Shoghot the Lut Kuh river is joined by the Ojhor stream, and from the head of this the Kiyar pass leads into the Owir valley. The altitude of the pass is 15,000', and though steep on the Ojhor side it is practicable from 1st July to 1st October for laden animals of the country. It is perhaps the best route from Chitral to Owir in summer, being less steep than that by the Pasti pass. (See page Part II.)

(4) *The Lut Kuh valley passes.*

To the north and west the Lut Kuh valley is bounded by the Hindu Kush range, which is crossed by the following passes:—

Dorah, elevation 14,800'. (See page Part II.)

Uni, elevation 15,770'. (See page Part II.)

Mach, elevation 17,010'. (See page Part II.)

A few miles south of the Dorah pass the Hindu Kush sends out a spur to the south-east, which forms the watershed between the Lut Kuh-Chitral river and the Bashgal river of Kafiristan. The passes which cross this range from the Lut Kuh valley are—

Ustujn.

Zidik.

Artsu.

Shui.

For further details *vide* heading "Passes into Kafiristan."

Of the three passes leading into Badakhshan, *viz.*, the Dorah, Uni and Mach, the Dorah, which is fairly extensively used by traders in summer, is the only one practicable for laden animals of the country. The Uni and Mach are impracticable for even unladen animals of the country, and are of importance only from the fact that by means of them lightly-equipped parties of marksmen could turn the Dorah. The Dorah pass (elevation 14,800') is open to laden animals of the country from 1st July to 15th October, and with the exception of the Baroghil it affords the easiest route between Chitral and Afghan territory.

Now that a good road has been made to Mastuj, the route from Chitral to Wakhan *via* the Baroghil is easier than that from Chitral to Badakhshan *via* the Dorah; the latter, however, is much the shortest, and Badakhshan being a comparatively rich country would make a better base for an enemy than Wakhan.

There are also the following passes:—

- (I) From Shogot up the Awireth valley and across a pass fit for unladen animals to the Chitral *nala* and thence to Chitral or *via* the Chat-o-gol and the Chimersan pass to Chimersan in the Rumbur valley.
- (II) From Izh in Bogosht valley up Mapur Gol to Gokhshal in Chitral *nala*.
- (III) From head of Bogosht valley to the Ustui *nala* in the Rumbur valley. All the above are impracticable for laden animals. Unladen ponies can cross Nos. (I) and (III).

(5) *Passes into Kafirstan:—*

The passes across the Kafirstan range may be divided into the following groups—

Lut Kuh group.

- Ustujn, elevation? (See page Part II.)
 Artsu, elevation 14,800'. (See page Part II.)
 Zidig, elevation 14,900'. (See page Part II.)
 Shui, or Pshuar as it is called by Kafirs, elevation 14,500'. See page Part II.)

Oyon valley.

Rumbur* group—

Gangalwat, elevation 16,000. (See page Part II.)

Bumboret group—

- Zinor, elevation? (See page Part II.)
 Ustui, † elevation 15,000'. (See page Part II.)
 Shawal elevation 15,250'. (See page Part II.)
 Parpit, elevation 13,500'. (See page Part II.)

Birir valley.

Darik, probable elevation 16,500'. It leads from Birir to the Bashgal *and* Majam, a grazing plateau situated on the Kafirstan side of the watershed and is a very difficult route. (See page Part II.)

Finjoret valley.

Sherashing. (See page Part II.)

Urtsun group.

- Brambalu, 10,500'. (See page Part II.)
 Paitasan, 8,200'. (See page Part II.)

Speaking generally, of the passes into Kafirstan none are practicable for Indian transport mules and four only can be considered as practicable even for lightly laden animals of the country. These four are—

Zidig ... } From Lut Kuh valley.

Shui ... }

Shawal from Bumboret valley.

Paitasan from the Urtsun valley.

* Routes by the Rumbur and Bumboret groups all converge at Oyon.

† The route from the head of Ustui gol in Rumbur has been omitted, as it so difficult that even Kafirs have rarely used it.

The other passes are simply difficult paths over the watershed practicable for men on foot only.

The Gangalwat pass is easier than the Shawal, but the approach to it up the Rumbur valley is very difficult even for local ponies. The route up the Bumboret valley leading to the Shawal is easy, once the junction of the Bumboret and Rumbur is reached; up to this point the track up the Oyon stream is difficult, though possible for ponies. Ponies usually cross the spur on the right bank of the stream (between village of Oyon and lower Bumboret). The track across this spur is steep, but one can ride all the way except for about 100 yards.

The Paitasun is the easiest of the routes into Kafiristan, and with very little improvement would be practicable for laden mules.

(6) *Passes between Drosh district and Dir and Golen Gol* :—

The following are the most noteworthy of the passes leading from the Drosh district to Dir, commencing from the south :—

Zakheni, elevation 11,300 feet. Shingure.	} Both from Arandu or Arnawai valley. (See page Part II.)
Lowari or Raoli, elevation 10,170'. (See page Part II.)	
Gurin, elevation 12,900'. (See page Part II.)	
Atsikub, elevation 14,100'. (See page Part I.)	

Of the above the Lowari is the only pass fit for Indian transport mules. It is so well known that no description is necessary here.

The two leading from the Arandu valley are both difficult. On the Chitral side the valley is so narrow and so obstructed with boulders and underwood that it would take weeks to make a mule road.

The Gurin is very steep on the Chitral side, but is practicable for laden animals of the country. Sher Afzal and his following fled by this route in the middle of April 1895, and many of the party died from exposure.

The Atsikub is impracticable for laden animals, and snow lies on the Chitral side till late in July.

The following passes lead from the Shishi Kuh valley to the Golen valley :—

Lohigal, elevation 14,000'. (See page Part II.)

Dok, elevation 14,050'. (See page Part II.)

The former is the easier and is practicable for laden mules, though difficult in places near the crest.

The Dok pass is very steep in places, and lightly laden animals are occasionally taken by it, but it is better to use the Lohigal.

It may also be noted that from the Golen Gol the Phargam pass (elevation 16,980') leads to the Laspur valley. It is very difficult even for coolies, but is worthy of remark, as it affords a saving of two marches on the usual route between Laspur and Chitral.

Telegraphs.

Drosh and Chitral are in telegraphic communication with offices at both places, and this portion of the line is worked throughout the year. From Drosh to Ashret the line is laid, but is only worked during the reliefs.

In October 1902 Major Leslie, R.E., was detailed to prepare an estimate for a telegraph line between Chitral and Gilgit and Government sanctioned its construction in February 1903.

Signalling.

The information about signalling is meagre. The following description of a proposed line of Heliograph Stations between Chitral and the Kankhon pass may be useful. Please also see the map of this line and of a proposed line of Heliograph Stations between Chitral and Mastuj in the pocket at the end of the book:—

Nine heliographic stations would be necessary to keep up communication between Chitral and the Kankhon Pass.

From the Kankhon pass a ray down the pass reaches the hillside north of Kankhon Kach distant 3 miles, thence a ray is obtained down the Shost Valley to the hillside south-west of Shost in the fork between Yarkhun and Koksan nalas, distant 17 miles. A point will be found on this hillside from which a ray through the Ishperudok-o-Gol will reach the great rocky hill which bounds the Shah Janali pass on the north length of ray 6½ miles. Thence to Sara Rich a high mountain on the right bank of the Turikho opposite Sorrich, length of ray 20 miles. Thence to Kogol Zoma, a spur east of Drasan and north of Saughar 26 miles and thence to the hill west of Owir 29½ miles. Thence to the north spur of the high hill south of Koghazi 15 miles, and thence to Chitral 10 miles. With an intermediate station which may be on any convenient spur on either side of the valley.

An alternative route would substitute for Sara Rich the hill top east of the Moghlan, and would reduce the height of the stations here and at Kogol, but would necessitate another station in the Turikho on the right bank above Nishuku. It would perhaps be better to keep up communication with Shost *via* Mastuj.

This could be done by a chain of 9 or 10 stations including terminals, and as a communication with the Gilgit route it would have obvious advantages. The stations are mostly over 10,000 ft. high but are accessible from inhabited regions where supplies are obtainable. The Chitralis have an old line of beacon fires and use might easily be made of their familiarity with this mode of signalling.

CHAPTER III.

FORTS AND STRATEGIC POSITIONS.

There are two Government forts in Chitral, *i.e.*, the one at Drash and the one at Chitral.

The former is capable of accommodating six companies of native infantry, one section of a mountain battery and one company of sappers, but it is so constructed, that it can be defended by only a small portion of the garrison, the remainder thus being available for a flying column.

The fort at Chitral is capable of accommodating two companies of native infantry.

The following places of strategical importance may be noted:—

- (1) Kankhon Katch.
- (2) Shah Jinali Pass.
- (3) Darband-i-Yarkhun.
- (4) Chumar Khan Pass.
- (5) Mastuj.
- (6) Nisar Gol.
- (7) Line of Owir valley and village of Parpish.
- (8) Drasan and the Kagblasht.
- (9) Koragh defile.
- (10) Mouth of Golen Gol.
- (11) Junction of Chitral and Lut Kuh rivers.
- (12) Shoghot.
- (13) Darband below Imirdin in Lut Kuh valley.
- (14) Gairat.

Also positions covering passes from Kafiristan.

CHAPTER IV.

CLIMATE.

The climate of Lower Chitral is on the whole temperate for the East. In winter the cold is fairly severe, but not excessive, and owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, it is bracing and healthy. The only drawback in winter is the bitterly cold north-east wind from the direction of the great peak Terich Mir, which often blows with great force for days together without interruption. The dust raised by this wind is also a source of annoyance. Snow falls fairly frequently between Chitral and Drosh from December 15th to February 15th, and occasionally even later; but it very rarely lies for more than two or three days, and there is never sufficient to stop traffic on the roads. In the upper valleys the cold is more intense, but the air is so dry that it can be borne without inconvenience. Snow lies perhaps for longer periods in the Laspur valley than elsewhere, but the falls are less frequent than in Lower Chitral and never sufficiently heavy to impede traffic in the valley. At Mastuj snow seldom lies for more than a few days at a time, owing probably to the fact that it is situated at the junction of the Yarkhun and Laspur valleys and is, therefore, much exposed to the wind. Snow may be expected on the passes after the 15th October, but the heaviest falls usually take place between the 15th February and the 15th April.

The Baroghil, Shandur and Lowari passes experience very similar climates. The latter is considerably lower than the other two, but gets the most snow. Snow begins to fall on all three about the last week in October. They become free from snow nearly simultaneously, about the beginning of June.

In the summer the heat in the valley below Chitral is considerable, but not excessive, as may be realised from the fact that punkahs are not really required and very seldom used. Almost any variety of climate may

be obtained by leaving the main valley and ascending to a higher tude up the side valleys. In all parts of the country where rice is cult ed (*i.e.*, up to an elevation of 7,500') the mosquitoes are very nume between the 15th July and the 1st September, and from Chitral do wards during the same period the sand-flies are so troublesome th is often difficult for Europeans to obtain any sleep at night. The diu ranges of temperature are moderate, seldom being more than 15° or than 10°.

There is no fixed rainy season, but there is usually a good dea unsettled weather between February 15th and the end of April. Previ to our occupation of the country the cultivation of unirrigated land v practically unknown, but in recent years a good deal has been done this line in Lower Chitral. Above Chitral there is practically no rain; and the contrast between the appearance of the hills here and in Low Chitral is very marked. Below Chitral the hills are well clothed wi fine deodar and pine trees, but in the upper parts of the valley there little vegetation, the only trees found being the dwarf juniper as here and there mountain varieties of birch and willow. Excellent drin ing water is to be found almost everywhere, except, perhaps, in the Spring when, owing to the melting of the winter snow, the streams are often di coloured.

The chief diseases among Chitralis are goitre, *itch*, round worms ophthalmia, and malaria. There has also been a certain amount of small-pox since 1895, but not in an epidemic form; and as the people take fairly kindly to vaccination this disease should never give much trouble. Syphilis also is fairly common in Lower Chitral, but so far is not often met with in the upper valleys.

Among the troops the majority of cases treated are of malarial fever. This disease is specially prevalent from June to November, and it is proba bly largely due to the irrigation of the land which is carried on at this season all over the valley. The large number of mosquitoes and sand-flies which abound during the hot season may also have something to say to it.

Shocks of earthquake are fairly frequent and occasionally sufficiently violent to level with the ground the rough stone walls erected by the local people, but serious damage is very seldom caused by them.

Health of the Garrison from 1895 to 1902.

In winter the health of both officers and men has been good; during the hot months the health of the officers has been indifferent to very fair and of the men indifferent to good.

CHAPTER V.

RESOURCES.

Agriculture and products.

The cultivable area in Chitral is extremely limited, owing to the mountainous nature of the country and the rocky character of the soil. The land, wherever irrigated, owing to the amount of alluvial deposit brought down by the glacier-fed streams, is generally rich and fertile. The most common grains are wheat, barley, Indian-corn, and in the higher

altitudes various kinds of beans and millet. A large quantity of rice of inferior quality is grown below Buni. The richest wheat-growing districts are the Chitral and Kosht districts and the Lut Kuh valley. The spring crops are wheat and barley; the autumn rice, Indian-corn and millet.

Above Reshun only one crop is reaped, but lower down two are obtained. The fact that only one crop is obtainable in the upper valleys is important and should not be overlooked by officers when comparing the resources of different parts of the country. Owing to this and the want of manure consequent on the lack of live-stock in a country wherein the grazing is very poor a holding of—say—2 acres in Upper Chitral is equivalent in value to a holding of only half that extent in Lower Chitral.

The *rabi* crop is harvested in May and June, the *kharif* in September.

The terms *Abi* and *Lalmi* are in common use in Chitral, to denote land watered by artificial means and by rain respectively. Since 1895 a good deal of *Lalmi* land has been cultivated below Chitral village, but the rainfall is too scanty above this limit to render such cultivation remunerative.

Cockerill in his report says—“The rotation of crops usually practised appears to be: after barley is reaped, rice (*nali*) or *fosar* is sown; after wheat is reaped, *mai* is sown, or the field is left fallow for that year. The next year rice of the “*Bien*” or “*Basmati*” kind would probably follow the wheat. Chitral rice is of three kinds—

- (i) *Nali** (sown in May, transplanted in July, and reaped in August. Requires water constantly).
- (ii) *Bien* (sown, etc., as above; is light in colour; is not transplanted, and requires less water).
- (iii) *Basmati* (sown, etc., as above; is not transplanted; gives the best quality of rice. *Bien* and *Basmati* are grown on fields that have grown no other crops that year).

In what would be locally considered a fairly well-to-do family an average harvest would be—

Wheat	10 to 15 wals.†
Barley	15 to 25 "
Rice	10 to 20 "
Indian corn	10 "
Dhal	2 to 3 "

The lowest quantities necessary to subsist an average family were variously given me as—

In Chitral.		In Dosh.	
Wheat	} 15 wals.	Wheat	... 3 wals.
Barley		Barley	... 7 "
Rice		Rice	... 6 "
Indian-corn		Indian-corn	... 4 "
Total	22½ "		20 "

These quantities would give an average family about 11½ a day of grain.

Twice the above quantities are considered sufficient for the subsistence of an average family in comfort. An average holding in Chitral would

* *Nali* means transplanted.

† 1 wals = 1½ maunds.

not seem to be more than 1 to 2 English acres, but the better classes hold 20 or 30 acres each.

The principal fruits of the country are grapes, apricots, mulberries, peaches, apples, walnuts, pomegranates, pears and melons. The grapes are of several different kinds and of excellent quality. Apricots abound, and are dried in large quantities for winter use. The melons are of very superior flavour.

Tobacco and vegetables are sparsely cultivated.

At Chitral and Drosh, there are gardens which supply the garrisons with potatoes and other vegetables. Orchards have been planted at Drosh which will yield a plentiful supply of fruit in future years.

Only 300 to 400 mds. of local ghi is sold annually in the Drosh and Chitral bazaars. Most of this is obtained from the Kalash and refugee Kafirs from Lutfeh residing in Kalashgum and also from the Gujars in the Shishi Kuh. These are the only people who have any ghi to spare. In Upper Chitral very little is obtainable, and the juice of the walnut is largely used in place of it for cooking purposes all over the country.

Very good homespun is made from the wool of sheep, goats, *ibex* and *yak*, ducks' leathers being sometimes interwoven. The best homespun, called Karberi, is made of lambs'-wool in the Torikho valley; superior cotton carpets, goat's-hair mats, woollen stockings, chogas and caps are made all over the country, but there are never many of these articles for sale, as the people are too indolent, and in many cases too poor, to make more than sufficient for their own requirements.

Orpiment, or yellow arsenic, is found in the Lonku valley in the Terich district. It is extracted with some difficulty, and less has been forthcoming in recent years than was the case formerly. The orpiment of Chitral is celebrated.

Lead is found in various parts of Chitral in small quantities, but is not exported.

Alluvial gold-dust is washed for in the Chitral river at Danin, Kari and Broz; the amount realized, however, is insignificant.

Timber trees are very scarce, until Kalashgum and the Shishi Kuh are reached. In the southern portion of Chitral *deodars* are plentiful. In the valleys generally, besides fruit trees, the only trees of any size are the *chinar*, poplar, and willow, and these are only found in the villages or along watercourses. Firewood is consequently a great difficulty.

Commerce.

From July to October, when the passes are open, a certain amount of trade between the Punjab and Afghan Turkestan is carried on *visâ* Chitral by petty merchants who hail from Bajour and Badakhshan. The Chitralis themselves have very little inclination for commercial pursuits.

Goods are carried on ponies, mules, and donkeys, the routes not being practicable for camels.

The only export of any value is orpiment.

Previous to our occupation of the country there was a trade in timber. The Mehtar used to farm the monopoly to the Kaka Kbel. The trees (*deodar*) were cut and put into the river during the summer by coolies impressed for the purpose from all parts of Kot or Chitral. These coolies received no remuneration and the work was very unpopular. Sher Afzal is said to have given out that in the event of his becoming Mehtar he would

discontinue this system of forced labour, and this was doubtless one of the principal reasons for his popularity.

There is now no labour to spare for this trade, owing to the demand for coolies in connection with the requirements of the garrison; and even if it were obtainable, it is doubtful whether the Amir would permit the timber to pass down the Kunar river without levying prohibitive dues on it. Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk derived a revenue of about Rs. 15,000 per annum from this source.

The slave trade of former days has also been put down.

The chief imports from Dir comprise "Bajouri and Dir iron, salt, indigo, raw silk; longcloth, washed and unwashed; chintz, cheap velvets, broadcloth, Panjabi and Peshawari coarse cotton cloth, Ludhiana and Peshawari *lungis*, *susi* (striped cloth manufactured in the Punjab), grocery, spices, tea in small quantities, sugar, sugarcandy, powder, all kinds of pedlar's wares, printed religious books, cowries, enamel ware, tobacco, cooking pots, agricultural implements, rice from Swat, goor, muslins, indigo.

"The imports from Badakhshan consist of a few ponies,* carpets, sheep, cotton, pistachio-nuts, almonds, raisins, Russian kavan or flat metal cooking-vessels, Russian chintz, Bokhara-made striped silks (*alachar*), silk and cotton-striped cloth (*adras*), and broad-striped silks (*behasab*), Bokhara boots and gaiters, and Russia leathers for sleeping on (*chirm-i Bulgaria*). Also saddles and bridles made in Badakhshan, charas, gold dust, zira and woolen *cbogas*."

There has been a small bazaar at Chitral itself for some years, but the business done was insignificant prior to the British occupation in 1895. The Chitral bazaar has now been enlarged and the petty traders from Bajour and Badakhshan drive a fairly brisk trade. There are also two bazaars at Drosh—one in cantonment limits—and there are a few shops within cantonment limits at Chitral. The traders undoubtedly take advantage of the ignorance of the Chitralis as to the value of the Indian coinage, but the latter have shown greater intelligence in this respect during the last two or three years. The local trade will no doubt increase in the future as the people become more civilised, but it can never be very great, as the population is scanty and the majority are contented to lead a very simple life.

At Madaglasht, a village at the head of the Shishi Kuh in Lower Chitral, matchlocks are manufactured by families of ironsmiths. These ironsmiths are Tajiks, who immigrated here many years ago from Badakhshan and still speak Persian. They used to pay the Mehtar's revenue demands in matchlocks, but they now give ghi instead and the matchlock industry will doubtless gradually die out. Inferior gunpowder is also manufactured in the country.

Labour.

Throughout Chitral, except in the districts inhabited by Kafirs and known as Kalashgum, labour is performed by the men. With the exception of doing a little weeding, the Chitrali women do not work in the fields, but children of both sexes tend the flocks.

*The trade in horses and sheep from Badakhshan has now been interdicted by the Amir but a few ponies are surreptitiously brought over every year from Badakhshan by the Sar Ishtiragh pass.

All Chitralis till their own land except the wealthier classes, such as the well-to-do Adamzadas, who keep cultivators. With the exception of fodder for the transport, and vegetables, practically all the supplies required for consumption by the troops at Drosh and Chitral have to be imported. About 3,000 maunds of local wheat and barley were purchased by the supply and transport corps in 1902; and as the people become more alive to their advantages, they will probably be glad to sell a little more. It is doubtful, however, whether the amount obtainable locally will ever be very great, as the population is increasing rapidly, and in a mountainous country like Chitral the extension of the area under cultivation can only be very gradual.

Animals.

The domestic animals in Chitral comprise ponies, donkeys, cattle, sheep, goats, and poultry, but very few people possess more live-stock than they require for their own use. The cattle are small and not numerous. The sheep are small, but of good quality. The poultry are superior to those in India.

Chitral is famous for its hawks and falcons, and nowhere on the frontier is the art of hawking carried to greater perfection. A good female goshawk caught and trained in Chitral will fetch as much as Rs. 140 in Peshawar.

The wild animals most common in the country are the snow ounce, the ordinary hill leopard, black and brown bears, ibex, *markhor* and *sorial*. Of small game *chukor* and pigeon are to be found all over the country, and *monal* and *hoblas* pheasants are fairly numerous in Lower Chitral. Duck and teal are also to be obtained in the spring and autumn on their way from and to India. There are also a few woodcock and geese which breed on the Shandur lake.

Monkeys (of the brown short-tailed variety) are found in the *valas* below Mir Khani and wild pig are also occasionally seen in the same locality.

Transport.

Ponies and donkeys are occasionally used by the people of the country, but for general transport purposes, the only carriage available is coolie carriage. Donkeys are used for local traffic, and are a most suitable transport for the narrow difficult paths which constitute the highways in this mountainous country.

Coolies and transport animals are supplied from the poorer classes, the Archabzadas and Fakir Maskin, and at times these duties fall very heavily on them and are most unpopular. The people do not like the work and the amount they had to do in 1895 was partly the cause of so many going against us. The rate at present in force in Chitral is Re. 1 per pony and 8 annas per man per march, a march usually being a distance of some 10 or 12 miles. The amount of transport which could be obtained in time of war for a short period without unduly irritating the people would probably be as follows:—

Coolies	2,000
Mules	20
Ponies	700
Donkeys	600

This transport could hardly all be collected in one part of Chitral and it would be difficult to make them work for more than a few days away from their homes; even then increased wages and food would probably have to be given.

CHAPTER VI.

ETHNOGRAPHY.

The origin of the peoples of the Eastern Hindu Kush is lost in the myths of antiquity. As they are wholly illiterate, there are no records to guide us, and the only light shed on this question is that of contemporary history. Biddulph, who studied the question, considers that the Kho or the people of Chitral, are the same race as the Siah Posh Kafirs, and says:—

"The Kho would seem to have once spread over a much greater extent of country than they now occupy.

The number and diversity of the dialects spoken among the Siah Posh points to their having occupied a more extended area, from which they have been dislodged and driven into their present narrow limits, and the conversion of the surrounding tribes, first to Buddhism and later to Muhammadanism, has isolated them from their neighbours."

Colonel Barrow, however, in criticising Biddulph's statements, says:—

"With the above views of Biddulph it is impossible not to agree in the main. That the people of all these regions are the vestiges of races driven back into the most inaccessible tracts is a highly reasonable theory. But some of his observations, I think, require modification. Biddulph places the Kho of Chitral and the Siah Posh Kafirs in the same category. Now I think there can be very little doubt that the Kalash Kafirs and the Kho are the same race. Dress them alike, and it is impossible to tell the difference. Moreover, local traditions say that the greater part of the country now inhabited by the Kho was once Kafir. I am, therefore, inclined to think that the Kho race is the aboriginal one, and that the Kalash Kafirs are the last remnant of the race that has retained its original pagan faith, the rest of the inhabitants having been converted to Islam by conquest. Certain it is that in Chitral the upper or ruling classes are of a distinctly higher type and race than the lower classes. They are undoubted Aryans in appearance, and I think it is more than probable from the serf-like condition of the mass of the people that they are the aborigines, while their masters belong to a conquering race.

I cannot agree that the Kho and the mass of the Siah Posh are of one race. The Bashgals, for example, are curiously like the Gujars of the Punjab, while I believe the Kafirs to the west of the Bashgal are of a still higher Aryan type. Arguing merely from appearances, I am inclined to think that the Kafirs, Kalashis excepted, are remnants of the first settlers driven up into the mountains from the south and west by later waves of Aryan invaders, and finally hemmed in by the conversion of the people around them to Islam. Biddulph thinks that the Siah Posh are descendants of the first Aryan settlers, but he classes them with the Kho, whom I am inclined to think are a distinct aboriginal race. It is a curious fact that the Siah Posh look down with contempt on the Kalashis as an inferior race."

There is little doubt that the middle and lower classes of the country from Chitral downwards are descended from the Kalash with the exception of the people of Ashret Boori and the inhabitants of a few hamlets in the Shishi Kuh, who are said to have come from Chilas and Bashkar and have a separate dialect of their own. Then, again, the village of Madaglasht at the top of the Shishi Kuh valley is inhabited by a colony of Persian-speaking Tajiks from Rashang and in the Lut Kuh district the majority of the people come from Munjan, Kurau, and Ishkashim.

The valleys of Rumber, Bumboret and Birir and the villages on the right bank of the Chitral river, between Drosb and Mirkhanni, are inhabited by Kalash Kafirs, *i.e.*, either Kafirs by religion or recent converts to Muhammadanism. These districts inhabited by Kafirs are known as Kalashgum.

The people of Arandu (called Arnawai by Pathans) are Narsatis and speak the Gawarbati language, or Narsatiwar, as it is called by Chitralis.

Among the people themselves the term *Kho* is only applied to the inhabitants of *Torikho* and *Mulikho*, (signifying upper and lower *Kho*, respectively). The *Kho* appear to be a mixed race, among them being families descended from Badakhshia, Shighnis, Wakhia and Gilgitis. The Kafirs themselves state that the tribes now inhabiting *Pitigal* (*e.g.*, *Lutdeh*, *Katwar*, *Ramgol* and *Kulem*) came originally from Badakhshan, and that those now inhabiting Kamdesh, Mujash, Waigal, Tsraru and Ashkan came from the direction of Laghman and Jelalabad.

Languages.

The language of the Chitralis is Khowar, made up of words from various tongues, from Turki to Sanscrit. In some parts, such as Lut Kuh, Madaglasht, Kalashgum, Lonku, etc., there are local dialects. These they talk among themselves, but all know Khowar.

The languages spoken in Chitral territory are—

- (1) *Persian*, which is spoken by a few of the aristocracy of the country and by the inhabitants of Madaglasht in the Shishi Kuh.
- (2) *Khowar, or Chitrali*,—which is the language of the great mass of the people in the country drained by the Chitral river and its affluents, as far down as Mirkhanni. It is also spoken in the Ghizar valley above Pingal. In this dialect are many words derived from Persian, Pashtu, and Urdu.
- (3) *Warshikwar or Burushaski*,—the language of the Yasin (called Warshgom by Chitralis) and Hunza valleys.
- (4) *Shina, or Gilgiti*,—spoken in the Ghizar-Gilgit valley, from Pingal downwards, and in Chalt and Chaprot and the lower portion of Nagar.
- (5) *Yudgha*,—spoken in upper Lut Kuh above Parabek.
- (6) *Dangarik or Palola*,—spoken at Ashreth, Kalkatak and Beori.
- (7) *Narsatiwar or Gawarbati*,—the language spoken in Arandu.
- (8) **Lunkuchiwar*,—spoken only in the Lonku valley.
- (9) *Bashgali*,—spoken by the refugee Kafirs from the Bashgal valley.
- (10) *Kalashaman*,—the language of Kalashgum.

Correspondence is conducted in Persian; but the people are practically illiterate.

Religion.

Chitralis are all Muhammadans, but not fanatical. In the highlands they are chiefly Shias of the Mautai or Rafizi persuasion, of which sect the Aga Khan of Bombay is the head; and in the lowlands the majority are Sunis.

* It is perhaps hardly correct to recognise this as a dialect. The people of Lonku in Terich are said to have invented a dialect which they use when discussing matters which they do not wish others to hear of.

The population of the country according to a census taken by the Assistant Political Agent about five years ago is as follows:—

Name of District.	Population (i.e., men, women and children).	Number of fighting men according to local custom.
A.—Laspur	1,942	211
B.—Mastuj Governorship—		
(1) Mastuj proper	1,142	49
(2) Yarkhun valley	1,320	96
(3) Kuh district	3,758	334
C.—Tosikho District—		
(1) Torikho proper	3,769	459
(2) Khot valley	1,643	237
(3) Rub sub-district	819	52
D.—Mulkho District—		
(1) Mulkho proper	2,525	280
(2) Kushve and Madak sub-districts	2,353	355
(3) Terich valley	1,654	247
E.—Kuski District	2,828	185
F.—Dwir District	1,930	333
G.—Khusara District—		
(1) Ojhor valley	1,881	201
(2) Shoghut (sub-district)	324	35
(3) Lut Koh district (i. e., from Dorah pass to and including village of Mogh).	2,601	280
(4) Arkaci valley	1,030	98
H.—Chitral district	11,587	549
I.—Drash district	5,634	269
Totals	48,740	4,269

The People.

The Chitralis are of Aryan type. They are of fine physique, hardy cragsmen, good shots, and fair riders. In disposition they are excitable the creatures of impulse and easily influenced; and of a pleasure-loving and lazy temperament. They are adepts at lying and at slandering each other, and are never really happy unless they have some petty intrigue with which to amuse themselves. As a rule, they have good features and a fair complexion. The women and children are often fair and good-looking. Auburn and even fairer hair is common, as well as grey or pale-blue eyes.

By some the Chitrali, as a fighting man, is not credited with much pluck. Colonel Lockhart (the late Commander-in-Chief in India) in his report on the Chitral Mission, however, says:—

“They are good-natured and kindly amongst themselves, and probably as honest as their neighbours. No soldier could wish for better partners in hill warfare, and, as every man rides or plays polo when he has the chance of a mount, they would make excellent light cavalry or mounted infantry. They seem to be impervious to cold or fatigue, and, after going 40 miles at high speed over the mountains, a man will be ready either to dance or to sit down by the fire and sing throughout the night. Life is held of no account. They do not pretend to be even outwardly religious as a rule.”

The following remarks by Sir G. Robertson, which were written in 1895, may also be quoted:—“There are few more treacherous people in the world than Chitralis, and they have a wonderful capacity for cold-blooded cruelty, yet none are kinder to little children or have stronger affection for blood and foster relations when cupidity or jealousy do not intervene. All have pleasant and ingratiating manners, an engaging light-heartedness free from all trace of boisterous behaviour, a great fondness for music, dancing and singing, a passion for simple-minded ostentation, and an instinctive yearning for softness and luxury, which is the main-spring of their intense cupidity and avarice. No race is more untruthful or has a greater power of keeping a collective secret. Their vanity is easily injured, they are revengeful and venal, but they are charmingly picturesque and admirable companions. Perhaps the most convenient trait they possess, as far as we are concerned, is a complete absence of religious fanaticism.”

That there is a good fighting strain in the Chitrali is amply proved by the fact that they have been successful, when led by competent and brave leaders, in beating back the invading hordes of Pathans and other tribes along their border and thus preserved, in bygone days, the integrity of their country. The Chitralis, undoubtedly, if led by British Officers or others whom they trusted not to treacherously betray them, would make good fighting men. They are splendid cragsmen, hardy, frugal in their mode of living, almost impervious to cold and fatigue, and adepts at the construction of stone-shoots and in other usages of guerilla and hill warfare. Though religion is not taken very seriously by the majority, nearly all will hesitate to perjure themselves after being sworn on the *Koran*. All classes are very superstitious.

Chitralis as a rule wear their hair long until they can grow a beard.

The dress worn by the men consists of a homespun cap, black, brown or grey, made in the shape of a bag and rolled up until it fits the skull (a *kullah* is sometimes worn, white with designs worked in coloured silks, about which they bind a small turban round and round, with no end hanging loose); a cotton shirt, very loose cotton or home-spun pyjamas, tucked into long knitted stockings of bright, fancy colours and designs; loose soft ankle boots (called *kon* in Chitral and *pabbu* in Gilgit)—or long for riding—of ibex or goat skin dyed red, and over all a loose cloak or *choga* of black, brown or grey homespun.

For shooting and other rough work, their foot gear (*tatchin*) consists of strips of markhor, ibex or goat skin, wrapped round the foot and secured by thongs of raw hide.

Pastimes.

Polo is the favourite amusement of the Chitralis, every man playing when he has the chance of a mount. They play the game with great spirit and recklessness of life and limb. Accidents, however, seem to be few. Most villages of any size have their polo ground. The ground is long and narrow—often very bad—generally with an irrigation channel running across it; on either side are low stone walls, off which the ball rebounds into play. A couple of large stones marks the goal. There is no limit to the number of players. Play generally lasts for a couple of hours with few, if any, pauses. Music is always in attendance, and a goal is the signal for a wild flourish and beat of drums. At the conclusion of the game the losers generally have to dance for the edification of the onlookers.

Shooting at the popinjay, a gourd stuck on the end of a long pole, is another amusement, and the Chitralis are rather good at it.

Formerly, during the winter, Chitralis used to hunt ibex and markhor with dogs, shooting them indiscriminately. The only person now permitted to hunt with dogs is the Mchtar, and he limits himself to killing one or two animals in each drive.

Hawking is the chief amusement with the better class Chitralis; they use various falcons and hawks for snow cock, duck, *chukor*, and quail.

The Chitralis are very fond of music and dancing, their songs often possessing true melody. Their musical instruments are *surnais*, fifes, drums, and for singing to a *sitar*.

Social Distinctions.

The Chitralis are divided into three classes Adamzadas, Arbabzadas and Faqir Miskin.—

All these belonging to the undermentioned clans are styled Adamzadas :—

1. Katore (clan of Chitral ruling family).
2. Khushwakte (Governor of Yasin belongs to this clan).
3. Khaniye.
4. Riza (the most numerous and influential of the clans) distributed all over both the Kator and Khushwakht districts).
- * 5. Muhammad Bege (majority of this clan are found in Kosht district).
6. Sangale (the most influential man in this clan is Minawar, the man of the Lut Kuh district).
7. Khushmade (majority of this clan are found in Reshuan neighbouring hamlets).
8. Burushe (the Punyal Rajas belong to this clan).
9. Zundre.
10. Atam Bege (Mehtar Afzal-ul-Mulk's foster-father was an Atam Bege).
11. Mazhe.
12. Mirasiye.
13. Khoshalbege (majority live in Owir district).
14. Khoshe (the most influential clan in Torikho. Mehtars Aman-ul-Mulk and Nizam-ul-Mulk were fostered by this clan).
15. Manfeat Khane.
16. Baiyke (Sher Afzal was fostered by this clan).
17. Qubile.
18. Shighniye (found in the Kuh district of Chitral, e.g., from Preit to Koghozi).
19. Dashmane.
20. Khoja.
21. Byuriye.
22. Roshke.
23. Kishrawe (Shuja-ul-Mulk, the present Mehtar, was fostered by this clan, most of whom are found at Barenis and in Owir).

Previous to 1882, Yasin, Ghizar, Laspur, the Yarkhun Valley and the Mastuj and Kub† districts of the present Mastuj Governorship were governed by Mehtars of the Khushwakht clan. In 1882, Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk of Chitral annexed these districts, and they remained in the possession of the Kator Mehtars until 1895. The Yarkhun Valley and the Mastuj and Kuh districts are now under a separate Governor, Mehtar Jao Bahadur Khan, who is styled Governor of Mastuj. The Laspur district is again under a separate Hakim by name Mehrban.

The Adamzadas are very independent, and usually keep retainers who work only for their masters, but the poorer Adamzadas are obliged to till

* The clans from 1 to 8 are directly descended from the founder of the ruling family and are the most important. Of the others, the *Zundre*, which is said to be the same as the *Roue* of Gilgit and Hunza-Nagar, is the most influential, and the remainder are descendants of men who distinguished themselves by rendering good service to the ruling family either in war or by fostering their (i.e., the Mehtar's) children.

† i.e., the Mastuj valley down to the junction of the Mastuj and Torikho rivers on the right bank and to a point about half-way between the villages of Barenis and Mroi on the left bank.

their own land. Wood is not cut from the land of Adamzadas. This class, in return for revenue-free lands and other privileges, are bound under the feudal system of the country to give their services to the Mehtar, for the watch and ward of the border and other kindred duties.

The Arbabzadas and Faqir Maskin are really all of one class; the former are so called from being well off, having been rewarded for their services to the Mehtar; the latter are the very poor class, some having barely sufficient to live on. Coolies and ponies for the service of the Mehtar are furnished only by the Arbabzadas and Fakir Maskin; this duty sometimes falls very heavily on them.

With regard to inter-marriage among the three classes, all but the Mehtari *Kaom* take wives from even the most inferior grades, if the women be sufficiently good-looking. As a rule, men give their daughters only to those of their own class, but exceptions to this rule are very common, and a man will give his daughter to any one who can give proof of his ability to support her. Marriage, divorce, funeral services, etc., are all according to the usual Mussalman practices.

Marriage is a simple process among the mass of the people, many of the orthodox ceremonies being dispensed with. The *mulla* recites a few verses, and asks if each is willing to accept the other; the man then drinks some sherbet prepared by the woman, and the ceremony is complete. Only the wealthiest men keep concubines.

If a woman's husband die, she mourns him for a week, and then goes to the house of her father or nearest relative. The rule that a widow may not marry again till 40 days after her husband's death is not generally observed. Frequently she marries her husband's brother, but in any case, if she is good-looking or has money, she soon finds a second husband.

The position of women is better in the main valley of the Chitral river between Sanoghar and Drosh than in other districts. In the highlands, in the Shishi Kuh and among all Kalashes, Dangariks, etc., they are mere drudges, working in the fields, besides performing all the menial duties.

It may be noted that a Maulai puts no slabs or headstones on graves, but only one small stone in the centre.

Ruling Family.

The present ruling family belong to the Kator clan. The ruler of Chitral is styled Mehtar. For an account of previous Mehtars see Chapter VII, History.

In September 1895 the present Mehtar Shuja-ul-Mulk, a boy some 15 years of age and younger brother of Amir-ul-Mulk, was installed as Mehtar of the Kator country. The Khushwakt provinces of Mastuj and Laspur were allotted to separate Governors, but included in the Chitral Agency, and Yasin and Ghizar were handed over to the Gilgit Agency.

There are at present only nine possible ~~claimants~~ claimants to the Chitral succession—

Sher Afzal, uncle of the present Mehtar, a prisoner at Ootacamund.

Amir-ul-Mulk, own brother of the present Mehtar, a prisoner at Ootacamund.

Nasir-ul-Mulk (born in February 1898), son of the present Mehtar, by a legitimate daughter of the late Pahlawan (Mehtar of Yasin), a sister of the present Governor of Yasin; and two other sons by the same mother born respectively in October 1901 and September 1902. The foster-father of Nasir-ul-Mulk is Kurban, headman of the village of Kushm in Mulikho, of the second, Shahzarin Charwelu (*e.g.*, headman) of the Torikho valley and of the third, Haji Feroze (Riza) of Kosht, at present Hakim of the Drosh district.

Shah Afzal, Mir Haidar, and Bahram, sons of Humayun by the sister of Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk. They live at Naghr in the Drosh district. Humayun was a ~~grandson~~ grandson of Kator II.

Tahammal Shah, son of Tajammul Shah. He lives at Broz.

No illegitimate member of the family would be welcomed as a successor to the throne, however popular he might be from his personal qualities, and the slur of illegitimacy would ensure the success of intrigues against him and lead to his downfall.

CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY.

As there are no written records, it is impossible to give an accurate account of the early history of Chitral.

Judging, however, from the Sanscrit inscription below the rough drawing of a temple, which is cut on a rock on the right bank of the river opposite the Mastuj village of Barenis, it would appear that the inhabitants of Chitral were at one time Buddhists and that the country was included in the kingdom of Jaipal, the fourth King of Kabul, whose period was about A. D. 900.

There is no reliable evidence as to invasions of Chitral from the north, but according to local tradition Moghuls and Kalmaqs under Cheogiz Khan and his descendants several times invaded Chitral previous to the period of the *Rais* King and deported many of the inhabitants to Yarkand and Kashgar. It is also said that during the reign of one of the *Rais* Kings an Uzbek army led by Abdullah Khan, King of Bokhara, made an incursion and carried off many families to Badakhshan and Kataghan.

About the beginning of the 16th century Chitral was ruled by a prince styled *Rais* and said to have been of the family of the former ruler of Gilgit. It was about this period that Sangin Ali, great-grandson of one Baba Ayub, was made Ataliq or Governor of a district. There is no reliable evidence to show where Baba Ayub came from. The Mehtars have always made out that he came from Khorasan, and that he was related some way to the great Emperor Taimur. Another version is that he came from Khanpur in the Hazara District of the Punjab and yet another that he came from Kashmir. Sangin Ali served the *Rais* ruler as Ataliq until the year 1570, when he died leaving four sons, *vis.* :—Muhammad Riza, Muhammad Beg, Rahim, and Dost Muhammad. The two first-named became all-powerful; and eventually Mahtaram Shah (*e.g.*, Kator I), son of Muhammad Beg, deposed the *Rais* ruler and declared himself Mehtar of Torikho Mulikho and Lower Chitral; while his brother Shah Khushwakht became ruler of Mastuj. Muhammad Riza and two of his sons were killed by Mohtaram Shah, but one son, Kizil Beg, survived, and from him are descended the Riza clan.

Faramurz, son of Shah Khushwakht, was a notable warrior whose exploits are still spoken of with enthusiasm. He conquered Yasin, forced his cousins of the Kator branch to render allegiance to him, and made himself master of the Chitral valley down to Chagaur Seral.

During the reign of Khushamad (Khushwakte), Shah Abdul Qadir, a descendant of the former *Rais* rulers, who was a refugee in Badakhshan, induced Sultan Shah, the Mir of Badakhshan, to invade Chitral. The invaders did not get further than Mastuj, which place they were unable to reduce, and they were eventually forced to retire across the Baroghil pass. According to some accounts a Chinese army accompanied Sultan Shah's force, but this is probably incorrect.

There were constant wars between Chitral and Yasin. Suliman Shah (Khushwakt) for a short time seemed likely to found a considerable principality. He made himself master of the right bank of the Indus as far as

Haramosh, and at the second attempt captured Bunji after a siege of eleven months. Meanwhile Shah Kator II of Chitral occupied the Khushwakht villages on the left bank of the Mastuj river and built a fort at Awi near Senoghor. Suliman Shah by a masterly march through the mountains seized Drasan and thus cut off Shah Kator II from his capital. After several defeats Shah Kator II retired to Chitral. After the loss of Gilgit Suliman Shah's power rapidly waned. An earthquake destroyed the fort at Mastuj, and Shah Kator, assisted by a Badakhshan or Wakhan force under Kokan Beg, invaded Yasin. The allies, however, quarrelled and withdrew. Suliman Shah eventually fell a victim to treachery and was put to death at Cher Kila in Pungal by Azad Khan. He was succeeded by Mir Aman, who ruled in Mastuj till he was ousted in 1840 by his brother Gauhar Aman I, ruler of Yasin. Mir Aman took refuge in Chitral, where, except for the short period when he governed Yasin for Aman-ul-Mulk, he lived till his death, which occurred about 1889. He left two sons who now live at Buni. They are of no account, the elder being ~~now~~ half-witted.

Gauhar Aman thus became master of Mastuj as well as Yasin. Meanwhile Shah Afzal II had established his power more or less through lower Chitral and then succeeded a period of intrigue, treachery and civil war, in which the principal actors were Shah Afzal himself and his three sons Adam Khor, Mir Afzal and Aman-ul-Mulk, while lesser parts were taken by Gauhar Aman and Ghazan Khan of Dir.

In 1854 the Maharaja of Kashmir sought aid from Chitral against Gauhar Aman, who was invading Gilgit. A deputation was accordingly sent by Shah Afzal to arrange terms with the Jammu Durbar, and in pursuance of these terms Mastuj was attacked and taken by the Chitral forces, but was shortly afterwards recovered by Gauhar Aman. Shah Afzal, who died about this time, was succeeded by his eldest son, Adam Khor, who was soon ousted from power by the intrigues of his brother Aman-ul-Mulk. In 1857 Mastuj was attacked and taken a second time by the Chitralis at the instigation of Kashmir. In 1860 Gauhar Aman died a natural death and was succeeded by his son Mulk Aman. Then followed another period of intrigues, assassinations and petty warfare in which Mulk Aman, Pahlwan, Mir Wali, Mir Ghazi and Aman-ul-Mulk were all more or less engaged.

In 1870 Mr. Hayward, while travelling through Yasin, was murdered by Mir Wali, the then ruler of Yasin. The event brought about Mir Wali's expulsion, and he was eventually killed by Pahlwan. Pahlwan then became the ruler of Yasin and Upper Chitral. With varying fortunes Pahlwan held this position till 1880.

In September of that year he had the temerity to attack Pungal, but his invasion was abruptly terminated by the action of Aman-ul-Mulk, who took this opportunity to invade Yasin. Pahlwan fled to Tangir, and Aman-ul-Mulk practically became master of all the territory formerly belonging to the Khushwakt family.

This he then partitioned in the following manner :—

- (1) Mastuj he placed under his son Afzal-ul-Mulk.
- (2) Yasin he placed under Mir Aman, uncle to Pahlwan.
- (3) Ghizr he gave to Muhammad Wali, son of Mir Wali and nephew of Pahlwan.

This arrangement was recognised by the Kashmir Government, and the Mehtar's subsidy was doubled as a reward for his services on the occasion of Pahlwan's invasion.

It should be noted here that, in 1878, Aman-ul-Mulk, realising that the Amir of Afghanistan desired to annex Chitral, tendered allgiance to Kashmir, and a treaty was negotiated with the approval of the Government of India between the two Chiefs whereby the former acknowledged the suzerainty of the latter and received from him an annual subsidy at the same time that a Political Agency was established at Gilgit. The objects of the policy adopted by the Government of India towards Chitral, in pursuance of which this was the first step, may here be summarised as follows :—

- (1) To control the internal affairs of Chitral in a direction friendly to our interests.
- (2) To secure an effective guardianship over its northern passes.
- (3) To keep watch on what goes on beyond those passes.

Early in 1882 Mir Aman entered into an agreement with Aman-ul-Mulk, renouncing in his favour all claims to all the Khushwakht territories on the Chitral side of the Shandur. Mir Aman's rule proved unpopular and Pahlwan stirred up intrigues in the neighbouring States, which ended in an attack on Yasin. He gained a temporary success, but, on advancing towards Mastuj, was defeated by Afzal-ul-Mulk, the Mehtar's second son.

After this Aman-ul-Mulk placed Yasin under the rule of his eldest son, Nizam-ul-Mulk, and Pahlwan retired again to Tangir, where shortly afterwards he was killed by Mukaddas Aman, son of Mulk Aman.

While these events in the internal history of the State were in progress Chitral, became involved in quarrels with Afghanistan and Badakhshan under the following circumstances :—

Jahandar Shah, Mir of Badakhshan, who had been deposed by Mahmud Shah, had taken refuge with Aman-ul-Mulk in Chitral; and in 1868 the Amir of Kabul, desiring to punish the Mehtar for sheltering the fugitive prince directed Mahmud Shah to invade Chitral. Mahmud Shah accordingly started with a large number of men; and, after posting a small force in Zebak with orders to make a feint in the direction of the Dorab pass, himself crossed the Baroghil pass with the main body and advanced to Shost (also called Topkhana-i-Zaibeg). Aman-ul-Mulk, on hearing of his approach, sent half his forces to Shoghot in the Lut Kuh Valley and himself proceeded with Jahandar Shah to Shagram in the Torikho Valley. The defence of the Yarkhun Valley was undertaken by Pahlwan Bahadur, the Khushwakht Mehtar of Mastuj, who took up a position about a mile-and-a-half above the junction of the Gazen River, at a spot which has since been known as the Darbund-i-Yarkhun. Mahmud Shah advanced down the Ichipun defile, and, underrating the difficulty of the position and the fighting capacity of his foe, ordered the Darband to be carried by assault. The Chitralis had posted a number of men high up among the precipitous crags which command the valley on the left bank, and these hurled down boulders on the advancing Badakhshis, whereby many were disabled. The invaders did their best to push home the attack, but those who succeeded in approaching within range of the Chitrali sangars were met with an accurate and well-sustained matchlock fire; and after three attempts, in which they sustained heavy losses, the whole force eventually retired.

Four days passed without fighting while Mahmud Shah prepared scaling ladders. On the fifth day all was ready for another attack, when Mahmud Shah learnt that a Chitrali force was on its way up the Torikho Valley, towards the Shah Jinali pass, which debouches into the Yarkhun Valley near Shost. Fearing that this force would seize the short end of the Ichipun defile and he would thus be caught between two fires, he abandoned his baggage and supplies and ordered a retreat under cover of the darkness. Pahlwan pursued the enemy, but the majority succeeded in making good their escape across the Baroghil pass, although Mahmud Shah himself was severely wounded and a number of his men were taken prisoners. This affair is known as the battle of Yarkhun.

Colonel Barrow writes: "I have been over the whole of the ground referred to, and I cannot imagine a more suitable spot for opposing an enemy; the narrow rock-strewn defile, the stupendous cliffs and beetling crags render the Shapiran (*e.g.*, Ichipun) defile and the Darband-i-Yarkhun as nasty a trap as an army could well fall into."

In 1885-86 Aman-ul-Mulk was visited by the mission under Colonel Lockhart, who entered into negotiations with him on behalf of the Government of India. Similar visits were paid in 1888 and 1889 by Colonel A. Duraod. In 1889 the Political Agency at Gilgit, which had been withdrawn in 1881, was re-established and the Mehtar was granted a subsidy of Rs. 6,000 per annum from Imperial funds besides a further* consignment of rifles in addition to those which had been conveyed to him by Colonel Lockhart. In 1891 the Government of India decided to further strengthen the position of the Mehtar. They accordingly increased his subsidy to Rs. 12,000 per annum on condition that he accepted the advice of the British Agent in all matters relating to foreign policy and the defence of the frontier. In July 1892 the Mehtar was prohibited by Government from assisting Muhammad Sharif Khan (*e.g.*, the present Nawab of Dir) against Umra Khan. Muhammad Sharif Khan was at this time a refugee in Swat, having been driven out of Dir by Umra Khan. The tribesmen of the Panjkora valley were ready to rise against Umra Khan, and some of the Bajour Khans were also in the plot.

On the 30th August 1892 Aman-ul-Mulk died suddenly, and his second son Afzal-ul-Mulk, who happened to be at Chitral at the time, seized the arms and treasure and proclaimed himself Mehtar. Nizam-ul-Mulk, the old Mehtar's eldest son, who was in Yasin when the news of his father's death reached him, fled to Gilgit and took refuge with the British Agent. Then ensued a reign of terror, during which Afzal-ul-Mulk killed his three half-brothers, Shah-i-Mulk, Bahram-ul-Mulk and Wazir-ul-Mulk, and many other leading men.

* In all the Mehtar received from Government 640 soulder rifles and carbines and 200 muzzle-loading enfield rifles. Of these the following are still in Chitral, the majority with the Mehtar and a few with his half-brothers or other leading men, *viz.* :—

Soulder carbines	112
Soulder rifles	59
Enfield rifles	143

Of the rest a number were carried away by Sher Afzal in 1892 and 1895 and many fell into Umra Khan's hands when the garrison of Drosh surrendered in February 1895.

Of the arms which were in the possession of Sher Afzal's followers in 1895 the majority are now with the Nawab of Dir, to whom Sher Afzal eventually surrendered.

At this juncture Umra Khan, Khan of Jandal and Dir, who had offered to help Afzal-ul-Mulk against his elder brother Nizam-ul-Mulk, took advantage of the disturbed state of the country and seized the Chitrali fort at Narsat (called Nari by Pathans), which gave him command of all the country on both banks of the Chitral river between Arando and Bailam (known to Chitralis as the Nursat ilaqua).

Afzal-ul-Mulk was preparing to march against Umra Khan when his short reign was brought to a close by his uncle Sher Afzal, who, crossing the Dorah pass with a small following, arrived late one night at Drosbp in the Lut Kuh valley.

At Drosbp was Murid Dastagir, Aman-ul-Mulk's eldest ~~xxxxxxx~~ son. He had retired to rest and was killed without difficulty by Sher Afzal, who then continued his march to Chitral, where he arrived the following night. The gates of the fort were opened to him, and in the confusion which ensued Afzal-ul-Mulk was shot. Sher Afzal then became Mehtar. The above events have been described at some length, as the rapidity of Sher Afzal's march and the manner in which his arrival in Chitral territory was kept secret are worthy of note. The people of the Lut Kuh valley had doubtless known for some days that Sher Afzal had arrived in Munjan, but the secret was so well kept that Afzal-ul-Mulk knew nothing of his uncle's movements, and when roused from sleep on the night of his death he was quite in the dark as to the identity of his assailants.

On this news reaching Gilgit Nizam-ul-Mulk was allowed to return to Chitral and oust Sher Afzal, if he was able to do so. A fight occurred near Drasan, and Sher Afzal, believing that Nizam was receiving the support of the British, beat a hasty retreat and fled to Afghanistan.

Nizam-ul-Mulk then installed himself as Mehtar. The assumption of power by Nizam was followed in the winter of 1892-93 by the despatch of a mission under Dr. Robertson to the new Mehtar. This mission returned to Gilgit in the following June, leaving Captain Younghusband at Chitral as Political Officer.

On the 1st January 1895, while out hawking at Broz, a few miles from Chitral, Nizam-ul-Mulk was shot dead at the instigation of his younger half-brother, Amir-ul-Mulk. Amir-ul-Mulk then seized Chitral fort and sent a deputation to Lieutenant Gurdon, who had succeeded Captain Younghusband and was then on a visit to Chitral, asking to be recognised as Mehtar. Lieutenant Gurdon replied that the orders of the Government of India must be awaited.

It may be noted here that Amir-ul-Mulk's own sister was married to Umra Khan, and the boy had lived for some time with his brother-in-law in Jandal. There is little doubt that the murder was inspired by Umra Khan in conjunction with the party of Sher Afzal, the youth Amir-ul-Mulk being a tool in the hands of the Pathan Chief, who in his turn was probably used in a similar manner by the Amir.

The state of affairs at the time of the murder was as follows:—The two years of Nizam-ul-Mulk's reign had been fairly uneventful, Umra Khan had remained in possession of the Narsat (or Nari) district, and all proposals of Nizam-ul-Mulk to attempt the recovery thereof by force had been discouraged. The Commission under Mr Udny appointed to delimitate the boundary between Afghanistan, Bajour and Chitral was at that time assembled near Amar, a few miles down the valley, and Umra Khan

had been asked to attend to lay his claims before them. Sher Afzal, the most popular candidate for the Mehtarship, was interned at Kabul, and the Amir had given a written promise that he would not be again permitted to create disturbances in Chitral. The Amir had, moreover, undertaken in the "Durand" agreement (signed 12th November 1893) that "he will at no time exercise interference in Swat, Bajour or Chitral."

Shortly after the murder Umra Khan of Jandul, with a force of some 1,200 fighting men and 1,500 coolies, crossed the Lowari pass and occupied Lower Chitral with the avowed intention of starting a *jehad* to punish the Kafirs. Umra Khan requested Amir-ul-Mulk to come to meet him; the latter, however, not falling in with his wishes, Umra Khan's force laid siege to the fort at Drosh.

On the 1st January the troops of the Gilgit Agency, located at different posts between Astor and Mastuj, amounted to some 3,000 men.

As previously stated, Lieutenant Gordon was at Chitral on a visit from Mastuj. He had as escort 8 men of the 14th Sikhs, the remainder of his escort, some 95 men of the same regiment under Lieutenant Harley, being at Mastuj.

On the 7th January, 50 men of the 14th Sikhs reached Chitral at Lieutenant Gordon's requisition. Mastuj also was reinforced by 100 men of the 4th Kashmir Rifles.

About the middle of January, Surgeon-Major Robertson, the British Agent at Gilgit, left Gilgit for Chitral to report on the situation, arriving at Chitral on the 12th February.

Surgeon-Major Robertson had previously demanded an explanation from Umra Khan as to the presence of his forces in Chitral, and requested an immediate withdrawal. Umra Khan, however, replied that his object had been to assist and strengthen Amir-ul-Mulk, and to combine with him in an attack on the Kafirs; Amir-ul-Mulk had, however, refused his friendship and acted in a hostile manner, and that, therefore, he, Umra Khan, had no alternative left to him, but to act as he had done.

On the arrival of Surgeon-Major Robertson on the 12th February there were roughly some 100 men of the 14th Sikhs and 150 men of the 4th Kashmir Rifles in Chitral.

The Chitralis, to the number of about 3,000, had at first opposed Umra Khan's advance. Owing, however, to the weakness and incapability of their leader Amir-ul-Mulk and the treachery of Mehtarjao Kohkan Beg and other influential men, the resistance by the Chitralis collapsed; and on the 25th January they were driven from their position before Kila Drosh, but continued to hold Kila Drosh itself until the 9th February, when the garrison surrendered with some 200 snider rifles to Umra Khan. After the surrender of Kila Drosh, the Chitralis concentrated at Gairat.

On the 21st February, Surgeon-Major Robertson reported that all was well at Chitral and the Chitralis were cheerful and helpful, that Gairat was still held and that Umra Khan's followers were deserting him.

Suddenly, however, the aspect of affairs was changed by the arrival on the scene of Sher Afzal, the Chief, who a little more than two years previously, having compassed the death of Mehtar-Afzal-ul-Mulk, had ruled the country for about a month and had then been ousted by Nizam-ul-Mulk.

On the 27th February, Sher Afzal demanded that Surgeon-Major Robertson should withdraw to Mastuj, and it became apparent that Sher Afzal and Umra Khan had made common cause to induce the British officers to quit Chitral territory, by force if necessary, and that, then, the two chiefs would decide who should be Mehtar.

As soon as it became known that Sher Afzal was in the country, a few of the Chitralis went over to him. The Adamzadas, though suspected of being his partisans, did not at first openly side with him, but before the end of February they had changed their minds and practically joined him in a body. Gairat, thus denuded of its defenders, was occupied by Sher Afzal's outposts.

Surgeon-Major Robertson, who had gone out with Amir-ul-Mulk towards that place, returned to Chitral on the 1st March, while Sher Afzal on the same date reached Oyon.

Amir-ul-Mulk now commenced to make overtures to Umra Khan. Surgeon-Major Robertson therefore placed him in custody, and formally recognized Shuja-ul-Mulk, a boy of some 14 years old, as provisional Mehtar, pending the orders of the Government of India.

During February the escort of the British Agent had been reinforced from Mastuj and now amounted to about 420 men, *vis.*, 99 men of the 14th Sikhs and some 320 men of the 4th Kashmir Rifles under the command of Captain C. P. Campbell, Central India Horse.

The strength of Umra Khan's force is not known; it was variously computed at 3,000 and 5,000 men.

On the afternoon of the 3rd March, in consequence of the arrival of Sher Afzal and his armed following on the Chitral plain, 200 men of the 4th Kashmir Rifles, under the command of Captain Campbell, moved out of the Chitral Fort; meanwhile the fort had been fired into and one man wounded. The force therefore advanced to attack a village some 2 miles to the south-west of the fort, which was occupied by the enemy. Captains Campbell and Townshend led the frontal attack with 150 men, and Captain Baird the flank attack with 50 men, up the high ground on the west. The attack, however, failed, and as darkness was approaching and the enemy were beginning to overlap the flanks, a general retirement was ordered, the retirement to the fort being covered by Lieutenant Harley and 50 men of the 14th Sikhs.

The casualties in this affair were :—

Killed—

General Baj Singh, Imperial Service Troops.
Major Bhikam Singh, 4th Kashmir Rifles.
21 Non-commissioned officers and men, 4th Kashmir Rifles.
1 Hospital Assistant.

Wounded—

Captain J. McD. Baird, 24th Punjab Infantry (succumbed to his wounds on the 4th March).
Captain C. P. Campbell, Central India Horse.
1 Native Officer, 15th Bengal Lancers.
28 Non-commissioned officers and men, 4th Kashmir Rifles,
or a total of 25 killed (including Captain Baird) and 30 wounded out of 200 men, of whom only 150 were actually engaged.

The enemy's losses were about the same as our own.

During the day 15,935* rounds of snider ammunition were expended, *vis.*, about 100 rounds per man.

As a result of the fighting on the 3rd March, the British force was now shut up within the walls of the Fort at Chitral, and nothing was heard from them for many weeks to come.

Information of the serious turn which affairs had taken began to reach Gilgit on the 6th March and was received by the Government of India on the following day.

On the 14th March, in order that Umra Khan might have distinct warning of the decision to which the Government of India had come, a final letter of warning was sent to him through Mr. Uday, who was then with the Delimitation Commission at Asmar, and also through the Commissioner of Peshawar.

At the same time a proclamation was issued to the people of Swat and other tribes on the Peshawar border, announcing the intention and object of Government, assuring them that there was no intention to permanently occupy any territory through which the force might pass or to interfere with the independence of the tribes, and promising friendly treatment to all those who did not oppose the march of the troops.

Simultaneously with the above proclamation, orders were issued for the mobilization of the 1st Division of the Field Army, with certain modifications in regard to cavalry and artillery.

Orders also were sent to Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly on the 22nd March at Gilgit, to assume military command in the Gilgit Agency and to make such dispositions and movements as he thought best.

Before describing the advance of these two forces it is as well to record the disasters which had befallen two detachments on the Mastuj-Chitral road.

On the 26th February, Captain Baird issued instructions to Lieutenant Moberly at Mastuj to send 60 boxes of ammunition under an escort to Chitral. In accordance with these orders 1 Native Officer and 39 men of the 4th Kashmir Rifles, with 68 boxes of snider ammunition, left Mastuj for Chitral on the 1st March, but halted at Buni, as the people of the country said the road was broken and that it would be useless to proceed further.

On the 4th March, Captain Ross with 50 men marched to Buni in support of the party there; and on the same day a detachment of 20 men of the Bengal Sappers and Miners under Lieutenant Fowler, accompanied by Lieutenant Edwardes, arrived at Mastuj. In accordance with their orders, this detachment started on the morning of the 5th March with the intention of overtaking the ammunition escort and continuing the march with it to Chitral.

They reached Buni without difficulty the same evening. Captain Ross, therefore, went back to Mastuj.

The total strength of the combined detachment then left at Buni under Lieutenant Edwardes amounted to 2 British Officers, 1 Native Officer and 39 men, 4th Kashmir Rifles, 20 Bengal Sappers and Miners with 3 orderlies.

* A good deal of this ammunition was dropped out of the pouches, which were not of a suitable pattern for use in hilly ground.

On the 6th, the whole of Lieutenant Edwardes' party marched from Buni to Reshun, and on the following day Lieutenants Edwardes and Fowler, with 20 Sappers and Miners, 10 of the Kashmir Rifles and 50 coolies, moved off to repair a reported break in the road some 3 miles ahead.

Immediately after leaving Reshun, the road* to Chitral ascends a steep spur to the height of 1,000 feet, and descending again to the level of the river enters a narrow defile. On arrival at this defile, the party halted, and some sangars being observed on the right bank of the river, Lieutenant Fowler, with 8 men of the Kashmir Rifles, went up the heights on the left bank.

Meantime Lieutenant Edwardes remained with the rest of the party at the entrance of the defile.

On scaling the heights, Lieutenant Fowler and his party were fired on, and as the firing became general, one man being killed, and Lieutenant Fowler and two other men wounded, they retired back to Lieutenant Edwardes. The whole party then fell back on a sangar near Reshun, where the remainder of the force had been left, without serious loss. It was found impossible to hold this sangar, and it was therefore decided to occupy a cluster of houses near the polo-ground.

These houses were accordingly seized and put in a state of defence.

The casualties during the day had been:—killed, 1 Naick, 4th Kashmir Rifles; wounded, 1 British Officer and 10 men, 4th Kashmir Rifles: of the latter, two subsequently died.

Lieutenant Edwardes and his party continued to hold this post with the greatest gallantry against repeated attacks until the 13th, Lieutenant Fowler making several sorties to obtain water from the river.

On the 13th, a white flag was shown by the enemy and an interview took place between Lieutenant Edwardes and Muhammad Isa, Sher Afzal's foster-brother, and an armistice was agreed on.

On the 14th, another parley was requested, Muhammad Isa being accompanied by Mehtar Jao Yadgar Beg (an illegitimate son of Mehtar Shah Afzal, now residing in Dir), both being full of protestations of friendship.

So far the relations between the British officers and Muhammad Isa had been conducted upon an apparently friendly footing, but they were now about to undergo a treacherous change.

Lieutenants Edwardes and Fowler, under false protestations of friendship, were induced to leave their post to watch a game of polo. At the conclusion of the game, when the two officers were preparing to return, they were rushed by Muhammad Isa and his men and bound hand and foot. The post was eventually rushed, the Chitralis headed by a detachment of Umra Khan's Jandolis, killing numbers of the men and carrying off the remainder as prisoners.

The whole of the ammunition, about 40,000 rounds, also fell into the hands of the enemy.

After passing the night bound at Reshun, Lieutenant Fowler was sent towards Chitral, and on the next day Lieutenant Edwardes followed and overtook Lieutenant Fowler on the road.

* A new road has now been blasted through the rock *pari* near the river, so the steep ascent referred to above is no longer necessary.

On the way, they were met by some of Umra Khan's men, who, after quarrelling with the Chitralis, insisted upon taking the officers as their prisoners, and on the 19th March they reached Chitral.

Here they were taken into the presence of Sher Afzal, who received them civilly and expressed his regret at the treachery of which they had been the victims.

The two officers were allowed to communicate with the British garrison besieged in the fort, but were not allowed to visit them.

From Chitral they were eventually taken to Mundah, which they reached on the 12th April, accompanied by Umra Khan.

The Muhammadan prisoners had previously been released on the 1st April.

At Mundah the two officers were met by Shahzada Ibrahim, a native political officer, who had been sent by Sir Robert Low, Commanding the Chitral Relief Force, to treat with Umra Khan for their release.

A long interview ensued between the Shahzada and Umra Khan, the result being that Lieutenant Edwardes was released and given two letters for Sir Robert Low, while three days later Lieutenant Fowler and the four Hindu prisoners were also made over to the Relief Force.

To turn now to the fighting which occurred between Mastuj and Reshun, and which ended so disastrously for Captain Ross and his party of the 14th Sikhs—On the 6th March, when Lieutenant Edwardes heard of the gathering of the enemy at Reshun, he at once sent information back to Mastuj. Captain Ross thereupon left Mastuj on the morning of the 7th for Buni. The detachment consisted of 2 British Officers, 14th Sikhs (Captain Ross and Lieutenant Jones), 1 Native Officer, 93 non-commissioned officers and men of the 14th Sikhs, and 17 followers, with nine days' rations and 140 rounds of ammunition per man. On the 8th, they marched for Reshun, leaving at Buni 33 rank and file under a Native Officer.

Koragh was reached at 1 P.M. About half a mile from Koragh, the track enters a narrow defile and for half a mile traverses a succession of precipitous rocky bluffs; the track then leaves the level of the river and ascends a steep spur, beyond which the defile maintains an equally formidable character for several miles in the direction of Reshun.

The advance party of Captain Ross's detachment ascended this spur and were fired on, and at the same time the enemy appeared on the hill tops and began to roll stones down all the "shoots." Lieutenant Jones attempted to seize the Koragh end of the defile with 10 men; 8 of these men being wounded in the attempt, Captain Ross recalled them, and the whole party took refuge in some caves in the river bank.

After several futile attempts to scale the heights, at 2 A.M. on the 10th March, Captain Ross and his party, issuing from the caves, attempted to force their way back to Koragh.

Captain Ross himself was killed, and out of the whole detachment only Lieutenant Jones, who was severely wounded, and 17 rank and file won their way to the open ground on the Koragh side of the defile. Here they halted for some minutes to allow any stragglers to rejoin; more casualties occurring; Lieutenant Jones then retired slowly on Buni, which he reached at 6 A.M. Lieutenant Jones with his detachment remained at Buni till the

17th, when he was relieved by Lieutenant Moberly with 150 Kashmir troops from Mastuj; the whole party returned on the 18th to Mastuj, where they were besieged until the 9th April, when the siege was raised by the near approach of Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly with the Gilgit Column.

Of Captain Ross's ill fated party, during the three days' fighting, 1 British Officer, 46 rank and file, 1 Hospital Assistant and 6 followers were killed. Of the 15 survivors, 10 were wounded including Lieutenant Jones. Some 40 rifles fell into the hands of the enemy, whose numbers were estimated at about 1,000 men. The enemy's losses were slight.

We can now turn to the events which took place in Chitral itself—

As already stated, the British Agent's escort had been shut up within the fort and the siege had commenced after a severe fight on the 3rd of March, in which Captain Campbell, Central India Horse, had been severely wounded, and consequently the command of the troops had devolved on Captain Townshend of the same regiment.

The British Officers shut up in the Chitral Fort were—

Surgeon-Major Robertson, British Agent.

Captain Townshend, Central India Horse.

Lieutenant Gurdon, Assistant British Agent.

Lieutenant Harley, 14th Sikhs.

Surgeon-Captain Whitchurch, Indian Medical Service.

Captain Campbell, Central India Horse (severely wounded).

Captain Baird, 24th Punjab Infantry, who died from the effects of his wounds on the 4th March.

The garrison consisted of 99 men of the 14th Sikhs and 301 of all ranks of the 4th Kashmir Rifles; there were also 52 Chitralis and 85* followers, etc., bringing up the total number to 543 persons. For these there were supplies sufficient for two-and-a-half months at half rations; of ammunition there were 300 rounds per Martini-Henry of the Sikhs and 280 rounds per Snider of the Kashmir Rifles.

The fort was closely besieged by Sher Afzal with the Jandul Chiefs and Pathans aided by Chitralis from the 4th March to the 19th April. On the night of the 18th—19th the whole force of the enemy quietly withdrew and abandoned the siege. "About 3 A.M. in the morning," says the official report, "Lieutenant Gurdon, who was on middle watch, reported that a man was outside calling out under the fort wall that he had important news to tell. All precautions were taken; he was admitted to the main gate, and he told us of the flight of Sher Afzal and the Jandul Chiefs about midnight, and of the near approach of Colonel Kelly's column from Mastuj. In the morning not a man was to be seen about Chitral, all the sangars were deserted; the siege, which had lasted 46 days, was at an end." It may be noted here that the investment was so close that it was not until the 19th April that the garrison learnt what steps had been taken by Government to effect their relief.

To describe in detail the gallant defence made by the garrison of the fort and the hardships endured by them, throughout the long and arduous investment, is beyond the province of this Report.

* Among these were some Panyali levies led by Rajas Sipat Bahadur and Murad Khan, both of whom rendered 'yeoman' service.

The following extract, however, is given from the letter of the Adjutant-General in India to the Secretary to the Government of India, inclosing Captain Townshend's report of the siege of Chitral Fort:—

"From the 4th March to the date of the raising of the siege, Captain Townshend's diary is a record of arduous work cheerfully performed, of difficulties encountered and surmounted, and of privations suffered without a murmur by the small and gallant garrison. Every night officers and men were at their posts or sleeping accoutred, ready to receive and repulse each assault; every day fatigue parties were employed in strengthening the defences; the enemy was no despicable one; they were mostly armed with modern rifles and possessed unlimited supplies of ammunition, and the method in which they conducted the siege showed them to have considerable tactical skill."

His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor General in India also expressed his appreciation of the gallant defence, in the following words:—

"The steady front shown to the enemy, the military skill displayed in the conduct of the defence, the cheerful endurance of all the hardships of the siege, the gallant demeanour of the troops, and the conspicuous examples of heroism and intrepidity will ever be remembered as forming a glorious episode in the history of the Indian Empire and of its Army."

The loss of the garrison during the siege and inclusive of the action on the 3rd March was 42 killed and 62 wounded of all ranks.

To record now the advance of the Gilgit Column, to whom belongs the honour of being the first troops to reach the beleaguered garrison of Chitral Fort,—

As previously stated, Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly was ordered on the 22nd March to assume military command at Gilgit and to make such dispositions and movements as he thought best. In accordance with these orders, Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly on the 23rd of March left Gilgit on his march of 220 miles to Chitral, with a force consisting of 396 of the 32nd Pioneers and 2 guns of No. 1 Kashmir Mountain Battery.

This force was subsequently reinforced during the advance by 40 men of the Kashmir Sappers and Miners and 150 levies.

Ghizar was reached on the 31st March, and here Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly had to face not only the physical difficulties of crossing the Shandur Pass (12,230'), at a period of the year when the pass is very difficult for laden animals, but also difficulties as regards transport, which had been greatly increased by the desertion of many coolies.

On the 1st April, an attempt was made to cross the pass, which, however, was unsuccessful, the artillery mules and transport ponies being unable to make their way through the deep snow. This necessitated the abandoning of mule and pony transport, and obliged Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly to utilise the services of his men to carry the guns over the pass.

The task was a most formidable one. Owing to recent falls, the snow was three or four feet deep: all tracks were obliterated, and the severity of the weather was such that 43 cases of frost-bite and 63 cases of snow-blindness occurred. The difficulties were further demonstrated by the opinion held by the enemy that it would be absolutely impossible for our troops to cross the pass for some time.

The Gilgit Column first encountered the enemy in a strong position at Chokulwarth, between the Shandur Pass and Mastuj, on the 6th April,

when Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly with 280 men and 2 guns defeated a gathering of Pathans and Chitralis estimated at 400 to 500 strong, reaching Mastuj the same day and raising the siege of that place, which had been invested for eighteen days.

A second engagement occurred on the 13th of April at Nisr Gol, about 7 miles south of Mastuj, where Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly's force, then 623 men and 2 guns, again defeated some 1,500 of the enemy under Muhammad Isa, in a very strong position.

No further opposition was met with, the enemy retiring as Lieutenant-Colonel Kelly's force advanced, but considerable physical difficulties had still to be overcome.

On the 17th of April, the bridge over the Mastuj River at Preit having been broken, the troops had to ford it breast high at the imminent risk of being carried off their feet. Successfully surmounting these and other difficulties, the force reached Chitral on the 20th of April, twenty-nine days after leaving Gilgit.

In the meantime, the Government of India, on the 21st March, ordered the despatch of the 1st Division of all arms and line of communication troops attached to it, for an advance into Bajour *via* Swat in order to relieve the beleaguered garrison of Chitral. This force was designated the "Chitral Relief Force," and the chief command was given to Major-General Sir R. C. Low, K.C.B. As the advance of this force does not concern Chitral proper, the following brief summary will suffice—

On the 30th March, Divisional Head-Quarters, with the 2nd and 3rd Brigades, marched from Nowshera to Hoti Mardan, and the 1st Brigade reached the latter place on the following day, when the first concentration of the force may be said to have been completed.

On the 3rd April, the Malakand Pass was taken, on the 4th a successful action was fought at Khar, on the 7th the Swat River was crossed with an engagement at Chakdara, on the 13th the action at Panjkora took place, on the 17th a successful action was fought at Mamugai, and on the 26th April, General Gatacre crossed the Laorai Pass and entered Chitral territory with a flying column, composed of troops from the 3rd Brigade, Chitral Relief Force. This column did not proceed to Chitral at once, but halted at Ashret and Ziarat until the capture of Sher Afzal, which was effected by the Khan of Dir on the 27th April. Sher Afzal and other leading men who were captured were deported on the 1st May to India as prisoners.

On the 15th May, the 1st Battalion The Buffs, one Mountain Battery, and one battalion of the 4th Gurkhas reached Chitral; and on the 16th these troops, together with a portion of the garrison of the fort during the siege and the Gilgit Column, were inspected by Sir Robert Low. Shortly after this Amir-ul-Mulk was deported to India.

On the 24th of May, the troops belonging to the Gilgit Command started on their way back to Mastuj and the Gilgit District.

On the 2nd of September, the present Mehtar Shuja-ul-Mulk was installed as Mehtar of the Kator country by Sir George Robertson, British Agent at Gilgit.

On the 4th of September, the following garrison was ordered to be

located in Chitral territory :—

2 Native Infantry regiments,
1 Company Bengal Sappers and Miners,
1 Section of a Mountain Battery with 2 guns,
and from that date the troops composing the Chitral garrison ceased to form part of the Relief Force.

On the 28th of September the Divisional Head-Quarters demobilised at Nowshera and the Chitral Relief Force ceased to exist.

After these events the country settled down into a peaceful condition.

In 1899 the garrison was reduced to one battalion of native infantry, two mountain guns, and a company of Sappers and Miners.

In the winter of 1899-1900 the Mehtar in company with the Chiefs of the Gilgit Agency visited His Excellency the Viceroy at Calcutta.

In May 1902 the Mehtar was present at the Viceregal Durbar at Peshawar, and on the 1st January 1903 he attended the Coronation Durbar at Delhi, when he was made a C. I. E.

CHAPTER VIII.

ADMINISTRATION.

As previously stated, the present Mehtar Shuja-ul-Mulk was installed on the 2nd September 1895 as Mehtar of the Kator country in the name of the Maharaja of Kashmir and with the authority and approval of the Government of India. At the same time the Khushwakht districts west of the Shandur pass—namely, the districts of Mastuj and Laspur—were placed under Governors over whom the Mehtar has no authority, although they are included in the Chitral Agency.

In the Mastuj Governorship are included the following sub-districts, *vis.:*—

- (1) Yarkhun,
- (2) Mastuj.
- (3) Kuh (*e. g.* from Sonaghor to Reshun).

The revenue of the Mastuj Governorship, which is trifling in amount owing to the large number of Adamzadas residing in the district, is taken by the Governor.

The Laspuris have been exempted from the payment of revenue since 1895 in recognition of the assistance which they rendered to Colonel Kelly's column.

The boundary between the Mehtar's territory (*e. g.*, the Kator country) and the Mastuj Governorship, is the watershed between the Torikho and Mastuj rivers on the right bank of the latter; and on the left bank of the Mastuj river the boundary is fixed at a point about half way between the villages of Reshun and Barenis, the latter being in the Mehtar's territory.

The internal administration of the country was left in the hands of the Mehtar and his advisers, but as Shuja ul-Mulk, at the time of his installation, was a mere boy, the Government of India retained at Chitral a Political Officer, upon whom the Mehtar can always call for advice and assistance.

Mehtarjao Bahadur Khan, the Governor of Mastuj, Wazir Inayat Khan and Aksakal Fateh Ali Shah were appointed to advise the Mehtar in the management of the State.

Fateh Ali Shah died on the 11th March 1898, and Dewanbegi Wafadar Khan was appointed to succeed him. Each of these three advisers receives an allowance of Rs. 100 per mensem from the Kashmir Durbar.

The present administrative districts of Chitral, with the names of the headmen, are given below:—

- (1) *Drosh*, including the Shishi Kuh and all the villages on both banks of the river from a point half-way between Kesu and Gairet to Arandu, is under Haji Firoze Khan, an Adamzada of the Riza clan who is styled *Hakim*.
- (2) *Chitral proper*, which includes all the villages, from Gairet to the Biteri *pari* in the main valley and up to Round in the Lut Kuh valley. This district is directly under the Mehtar himself.
- (3) *Shaghot*, which includes the Ojhor valley under Muhammad Shah, who is styled Charwelu.
- (4) *Arhari valley* under Mehrban Shah, who is styled Charwelu.
- (5) *Lut Kuh* from and including the village of Mogh to the Dorah pass—under Minawar, an Adamzada of the Sangale clan who is styled Charwelu.
- (6) *Kuh* from the Biteri *pari* to a point half-way between the villages of Barenis and Pret and the Owir Gol under Umat-i-Muhammad, a son of Mehtarjau Muhammad Ali Beg.
- (7) *Owir*, e.g., the valley of that name usually called Lut Owir by the people—under Gachara (styled Charwelu) and his son Shah Bumbur.
- (8) *Kash* nominally under Rasel (styled Charwelu), but the duties of headman are now mostly performed by his son Kabir Khan.
- (9) *Mulikho* including all the villages between Morder and the junction of the Terich river, and also the Terich valley—under Bahadur, brother of the late Aksakal Fateh Ali Shah, who is styled Ataliq.
- (10) *Torikho*, including all the villages on the left bank of the Torikho river from Istar to the Shah Jinali* pass—under Shahzarin, who is styled Charwelu.

Crime.

There is very little crime. Murders are rare except in cases of adultery. When the proof of guilt is indisputably strong, the injured husband may kill his unfaithful wife, but if he fails at the same time to put the lover also to death, he will be responsible to the woman's relations for her murder. If, however, he succeeds in slaying both, he seeks the Mehtar's protection and is justified.

Personal disputes are often referred to the Kazi for decision.

For cheating or theft fines or imprisonment are the penalties. Cases of murder other than those referred to above are enquired into by the Mehtar and are punished with death. In disputes relating to land the plaintiff is now required to submit a written petition to the Mehtar, who enquires into all such cases personally. Many cases, however, when both parties are agreeable, are referred to *Shariat* for decision.

* The Rech district at the head of the valley has a separate headman named Fardun, but the people of Rech turn out for levy duty with the rest of the Torikho people.

Revenue.

The land revenue is very difficult to estimate. Much of the revenue is paid in the form of *Hashmat* or *Ashmat*, which is food given to the Mehtar and his servants when they are travelling by the Arhabzada class.

The regular revenue of the country is paid solely by the *Fagir Miskin*, and, generally speaking, each family is assessed at a tenth of all produce. Previous to the British occupation very little regularity was observed in the collection of these imposts, and in practice as much as possible was wrung from the subject population. The condition of the lower classes is now much improved in this respect, although the village officials still practise a certain amount of extortion for their own benefit.

The following is a fairly correct statement of the annual revenue levied by the Mehtar himself, exclusive of *Ashwat* referred to above :—

District.	Sheep, shayy.	Wheat in muanda.	Buzley in muanda.	Woolley in logac.	Bat- man, kaba.	Ghi in manada.	Bans in Asha.	Gold in Govan- toika.	Cash in Govan- toika.	Sub- pate in Kha's toika.	Iron in manada.	Salt in manada.	Honey in manada.	Cash in manada.
Torkho	600	191	109	86	2	2	75
Mulkho	723	332	458	156	6	10	109
Kosht and Owir	556	222	246	81	4
Kharara	728	215	96	108	18	6	25
Chitral (proper)	444	333	800	...	3	6	8	19
Drosh and Shishi Kah	27	150	716	...	8	81	...	2	280	...	3	4	6	50
Kalahgun	4	4	...
Totals	3,078	1,463	2,675	433	41	87	8	21	280	22	3	4	10	250

The above does not represent all the revenue taken from the people, as the income derived from certain districts and villages is assigned to the Mehtar's half-brothers or other influential persons. For instance, the village of Kesu is the jagir of Mehtarjao Ghulam Dastgir and the Rumbur valley of Kalashgum is the jagir of Mehtarjao Asfandiar.

In addition to the above, the Mehtar receives approximately 950 maunds wheat and 350 maunds barley from the Mehtari estates, which are situated in various parts of the country.

The other sources of revenue are—

- (1) The annual subsidy.
- (2) The sale of orpiment.
- (3) Tolls on trade.

All other sources of revenue, such as the timber trade, slave trade, and the tribute from Kafirstan, which in former days amounted to a further considerable sum, have now ceased to exist for various reasons.

The yearly subsidy paid to the Mehtar amounts to Rs. 20,000, being Rs. 1,000 monthly from the Government of India, and an additional sum of Rs. 3,000 a year from the Kashmir Durbar in consideration of the loss of revenue arising from the separation of the Khushwakht districts.

The sale of orpiment in 1902 realised about Rs. 2,500.

The trade tolls, owing to various reasons beyond the Mehtar's control, have decreased considerably in recent years. In 1902 they were expected to realise a sum of Rs. 4,000.

CURRENCY.

Kabuli, Indian and Kashmir rupees are found current in Chitral, but owing to the occupation of the country by Indian troops, Kabuli and Kashmir rupees are not now accepted at their full value.

RATES.

In 1902 the rates fixed were as follows :—

Wheat	7½ seers to the rupee.
Rice, 1st quality	5 " "
Rice, 2nd "	7 " "
Indian-corn	11 " "
Barley	12 " "
Dhal	8 " "
Ghi	1½ " "
Lucerne (green)	2 maunds.
Lucerne (dry)	1 maund.
Firewood	3 maunds.
Bhoosa	10 annas per maund.
Hill grass	12 " "

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Dry Measure.

1 Batti	...	= Rs. 207 in weight	...	= 2½ seers.
6 Battis	...	= 1 belu	...	= 15 " "
4 Belus	...	= 1 walu	...	= 1½ maunds.

Long measure.

There is no standard of measure. The following terms are commonly used:—

A span (thumb to little finger)	= 1 Disht.
Elbow to end of fist...	= 1 Musht.
Elbow to end of middle finger	= 1 Host.
Neck to end of middle finger	= 1 Gaz.
Far shoulder to end of middle finger	= 1 Lambar.
Both arms outstretched, middle finger to middle finger	= 1 Kalitch or Kulatch.
A pace	= 1 Ghuzar.

Square measure.

As much as can be ploughed in—

A day by one plough	= One Chakawaram.
(One team of oxen)	= (about half an acre).

CHAPTER IX.

MILITARY.

The history of Chitral demonstrates that for the last 20 years the State has not been able to stand alone. Fear of Afghan aggression threw Aman-ul-Mulk into the arms of Kashmir and thus led to British suzerainty. After the death of Aman-ul-Mulk came the period of anarchy, which culminated in the disturbances of 1895, when it became clearer than ever that the country must lean on some external support. Left to itself, Chitral would assuredly fall into the hands of Russia whenever that Power might choose to take possession of it, and it has been decided that we cannot afford to run the risk which such an eventuality would give rise to.

It is doubtless out of the question for a large force to advance through this difficult and inhospitable region, but an abandonment of Chitral might prejudice our holding a possible line of defence in Afghanistan because a comparatively small force from the north—which, indeed, is all that could operate successfully—could come over the passes without our having the opportunity of preventing it; and though it could not itself seriously invade India, it might create so much uneasiness on our Peshawar frontier, as would lock up there a British force out of all proportion to itself.

There are three routes by which troops in Chitral can be supported from India, *i.e.*, *via* Gilgit, *via* the Malakand and Dir or *via* Jellalabad. Of these, the first, though it presents far greater natural difficulties than the others; is the one on which we should probably have to rely most in the event of serious trouble on the Kabul line, because it passes through a country which is sparsely populated by non-fanatical tribes and would involve no risk. The passes between Gilgit and Kashmir are no doubt serious obstacles in winter and spring, but a small force should be able to get through without baggage, and arrangements could be made to always keep on the Gilgit side of the passes a surplus stock of ammunition, clothing and supplies for the use of such a force.

Details of the various passes are given in Chapter II. As stated therein, the Baroghil, Shawitakh, Dorah, and Kankhon may be looked on as the most important from the point of view of an invasion from the north.

A précis of routes leading to the Chitral and Gilgit Agencies from foreign territory is given in Appendix A.

For military operations the country of Chitral is most difficult. It has practically no roads with the exception of that which leads to Gilgit, and the paths are often carried over dangerous precipices on timber galleries which even a child could destroy. In summer, when the rivers are in flood, many of the ordinary routes are inaccessible. The valleys available for the passage of troops are narrow and form defiles through which run the main rivers, often torrents and impassable.

In a country like this it goes without saying that there are numerous positions—or *darbands* as they are called locally—in which well-armed cragsmen could successfully resist attacks made by an enemy of many times their strength and armed with the best weapons.

The country is very barren, and forage and supplies are scarce. There is not sufficient forage to feed the mules which would be requisite to make any large force mobile, nor a sufficient number of coolies to allow of coolie carriage being substituted for pack transport. The scarcity of fodder is so marked that it is with considerable difficulty the small number of Government transport animals already in the country are kept alive.

General Gatacre, in reporting on the passage of the Lowari Pass in April 1895, drew attention to the necessity of attending to the following points in any similar operations:—

Careful reconnaissance of the ground with working parties previous to any attempt at crossing, to ensure dangerous snow bridges and streams being avoided, bad places marked, gradients zig-zagged, culverts cut and roughly lined with stones to divert or direct falling water from the track, channels cut above the track and below snowdrifts or avalanches when they lie across the line of route.

Advance guard to be liberally supplied with tools carried by hand. Strong working and escort parties to assist laden animals and carry loads over dangerous or steep places.

When night marches are made—to secure advantage of frozen snow—hand torches, lanterns and bonfires should be freely used, and guides left at all turns of the track.

As a rule, nothing should move before daybreak except on a favourable night.

Men should precede animals to ensure the track being consolidated, or, better still, yaks or cattle, when available, should be driven in front of the column. Animals to be driven, not led, and never to be linked.

Loads should be evenly divided on either side of the animal; this is preferable to a single load on the top of the saddle.

Frost-bite and snow-blindness have to be carefully provided against when crossing snow passes. Every man should be provided with grass shoes* and socks and a pair of goggles. And all should be instructed in simple precautions against and remedies for these misfortunes.

* It is most important not to wear leather next the skin. Two pairs of warm socks with native shoes or chappis are excellent. Anything leather that can be taken off quickly is satisfactory over woollen socks.

Garrison of regular troops.

The present garrison of Chitral consists of—

- 1 Battalion Native Infantry.
- 1 Company Sappers and Miners.
- 1 Section of a Mountain Battery.

With the exception of the Political Agent's escort at Chitral, which usually consists of two companies, the troops are concentrated at Upper Drosh. They are accommodated in a work capable of defence by a small garrison, the remainder forming a moveable column.

The armament of Drosh Fort is two 7-pr. R. M. L. guns and 3 Maxim guns, and of Chitral Fort 1 Maxim gun.

Levies and Cragmen.

At the present time, besides the men on duty with the Mehtar as his personal retinue, some 213 levies armed with suider carbines have been raised under the feudal system of the country for guarding Lower Chitral. They are drawn from the upper districts of Chitral, are under Native Officers, and are native in organization. They hold Gairat post, Lower Drosh post, the new Levy post at Mirkhani, and the posts at Arandu, Kaoti, Ashret and Ziarat in the Lower Chitral valley.

These levies serve throughout the year, being relieved monthly, and receive pay at the rate of Rs. 10 per mensem, bringing their own food with them.

For the up-keep of these levies, the Government of India allows the Mehtar the yearly sum of Rs. 28,380.

Besides these paid levies, some 150 local levies are employed for seven months in the year; from the 15th May to the 15th December, in watching the passes leading from Dir and Kabristan. These men are drawn from the villages near the passes to be watched and are unpaid. They are armed with a matchlock and tulwar, the weapons of the country.

Cragmen.

In April 1903 the Secretary of State for India sanctioned the formation of "a local corps of cragmen, with a view to watching the passes, holding impassable places, and the higher and more inaccessible ground on the flanks of positions selected for defence in the valley."

The strength of the corps has been fixed for the present at 6 Native officers, 24 havildars, 24 naiks, and 600 men.

2 havildars, 2 naiks, and 4 lance-naiks of the regular army are allowed as drill instructors.

One officer, eight non-commissioned officers and 100 men are to be called up at a time for two months' training, during which time they will receive pay and free rations. For the remaining ten months they will pursue their ordinary avocations and receive nothing from Government. The corps is to be armed with Martini-Henry rifles, but it is intended to rearm it with Lee-Metford rifles when they become available. Only men under training are to be in possession of their arms; the remainder are to be kept in store and will only be issued when required for service.

The corps is to wear no regular uniform, only distinctive badges of a pattern not yet decided on. It is intended to eventually increase the "cragmen" to a total of 1,200 men, if the system is found to work successfully.

Fighting strength of Chitralis.

As already stated, under the feudal system of the country, Adamzadas and others, in return for revenue-free lands and other privileges, are bound to render their services to the Mehtar, when called on, for the watch and ward of the border and other kindred duties.

Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk in 1886 estimated his available armed force at 8,000 men; at that period, however, Yasin and Ghizar were included in the territory under the rule of the Mehtar. Now that these provinces have been separated from Chitral, the number of fighting men available may be computed to be about 4,300 (*vide* statement of population in Chapter VI). This calculation allows for one man from each family of the fighting classes. In the event, however, of an invasion of the country, no doubt at least 6,000 good able-bodied men would be available.

Arms.

The weapon most in use with the Chitralis is the primitive matchlock. These were either made at Madaglasht, in the Shishi Kuh, or imported from Badakhshan. Flintlocks from Badakhshan and percussion muskets of Russian manufacture used also to be imported to a small extent.

Inferior gunpowder is manufactured in the country. Lead in quantities sufficient for local use is found in the country. Many of the arms presented by the Government of India to Aman-ul-Mulk were lost in the disturbances which followed the death of that Chief (*vide* note in Chapter VII), and only the following now remain in the country, *vis.*—

Snider carbines	113
Snider rifles	29
Enfield rifles	142

Most of these are with the Mehtar, but he has practically no ammunition in his possession.

In 1899, in order to arm the 200 levies raised for guarding Lower Chitral, 220 snider carbines and 44,000 rounds of ammunition were transmitted from India to Chitral. Of these, 200 rifles and 40 rounds of ammunition per rifle are in the hands of the levies, and the balance is stored in the Government fort at Chitral. The rifles and ammunition are checked monthly when the levies are relieved.

Of cannon the Mehtar possesses two 3-pr. brass guns, presented by the British Government in 1884. Owing to the difficulty of transport in a mountainous country, and to the little knowledge the Chitralis have of the use of artillery, these guns are almost useless to them except for the purpose of firing salutes.

Besides firearms (which are not possessed by all), every man carries a sword and circular shield. The swords were mostly imported from Kashmir or Peshawar.

Method of Warfare.

Their system of warfare consists in defending *darbandi*, that is narrow defiles closed by stone walls and towers. In the defence of these places, rocks and boulders rolled down from the heights above play an important part. Their attacks usually take the form of ambuscades and night surprises. The few forts in the country are of no particular strength against artillery.

CHAPTER X.

POLITICAL.

Relations with Afghanistan and Badakhshan.

In order to make clear the former political relations between Chitral and Badakhshan, it is necessary to give a short account of those of the latter country with Kabul.

In 1859 the Afghans proposed to conquer Badakhshan. The Mir, however, agreed to pay tribute to Kabul. In 1867 hostilities arose between the two countries. Jehandar Shah, the then Mir, fled to Chitral, and the government of Badakhshan was entrusted to Mahmud Shah. Shortly afterwards Jehandar Shah regained his authority, and recognized Sher Ali Khan as Amir of Kabul and sent presents in token of submission.

In 1869 Mahmud Shah regained the Governorship of Badakhshan. Jehandar Shah then fled to Chitral, whence, in 1873, with the assistance of Sirdar Abdul Rahman and probably Aman-ul-Mulk, he raised serious disturbances in Badakhshan. In consequence of this Badakhshan was annexed by Kabul, and the administration was entrusted to Governors, who acted under the orders of the Governor of Afghan Turkestan.

The Afghans have frequently claimed the suzerainty of Chitral on the ground that the Mehtar of Chitral owed allegiance to the Mir of Badakhshan. The Chitral people have always strenuously denied this, and there appears to be no real evidence in favour of it. The Mehtar used, however, to send presents of slaves and money to propitiate his more powerful neighbour in Badakhshan. These presents ceased when Jehandar Shah took refuge in Chitral.

In 1874 Aman-ul-Mulk, being suspicious about the attitude of the Afghans, suggested to the then Amir that Chitral should become nominally subject to Kabul, and that a betrothal should take place between the Afghan heir-apparent and the Mehtar's daughter. The marriage arrangement was accepted, but was never completed. The Mehtar retracted his suggestions, and, in 1876, when the Afghans threatened his country, sought the protection of Kashmir. With the approval of the Government of India, an agreement was made between the two States, which protected Chitral, and recognized Kashmir as the suzerain of the Mehtar.

The outcome of all was that the Amir of Kabul was definitely informed by the Government of India that his claim to the overlordship of Chitral could not be admitted.

In 1838 Badakhshan tried unsuccessfully to assert its independence. At present the attitude of the people of Badakhshan and Wakhan is, on the whole, more favourable towards England than Russia.

The possession of Badakhshan by Russia would give her routes into Kafiristan and thence to Jalalabad and Bajour shorter than the road over the Dorah and *via* Chitral. This would to a certain extent discount the value of Chitral, unless the garrison there was strong enough to be able to fall on the flank of the Russian force.

It was agreed in 1893, as a consequence of the Durand Mission to Kabul, that Asmar, in which is included the Narsat Iluqa, was Afghan territory. The Amir also undertook, in the same agreement, "that he will at no time exercise interference in Swat, Bajour, or Chitral."

Relations with Kafiristan.

The Kafirs are now under the rule of Afghanistan and have been nominally converted to Muhammadanism. They hate the Afghans, and would join England if she encouraged them against Afghanistan. Although very little is known as yet about routes, etc., in Kafiristan, it is certain that the possession of Kafiristan would enable Russia to approach Jalalabad and India with ease.

There are a large number of Kafirs from the Bashgal valley now residing in Chitral territory, nearly all of them being from the Ludeh branch of the valley. Among these are several influential men. These Kafirs have had the opportunity of studying our methods of dealing with the Chitralis, and there is no doubt that they are well-disposed towards us.

Relations with Kashmir.

To understand the history of the political relations between Chitral and Kashmir it is necessary to bear in mind the history of Gilgit which may be briefly summarised as follows:—

The Yasinis conquered Gilgit in the first quarter of the 19th century, in the reign of Suliman Shah Khushwaktia. They were ousted successively by the Puyalis and Tahir Shah of the Nagar royal family. His son, Sikan-dar Shah, was ousted about 1841 by Gauhar Aman, Khushwaktia ruler of Yasin. In 1842 Gilgit was occupied by the Sikhs, and Gohr Aman, after several defeats, also swore fealty to Yasin. The Sikhs occupied Gilgit till 1847, when they were succeeded by the Dogras. In 1852 the people of Yasin, under Gauhar Aman, drove the Dogras out of Gilgit.

In 1860 the Maharaja of Kashmir took steps to reconquer Gilgit by forming alliances with the rulers of Dir, Swat and Badakhshan. Just as the troops reached Gilgit Gauhar Aman died, and the Dogras regained the country with little difficulty.

Aman-ul-Mulk, Mehtar of Chitral, had been won over to the side of Gauhar Aman, and his relations with Kashmir were for many years anything but cordial. In 1865 Kashmir troops were defeated in an attack on Hunza, and a general rising of the border tribes took place. Aman-ul-Mulk took advantage of this to attack Gilgit. The arrival of reinforcements from Kashmir, however, forced him to retire. Soon after this Mir Wali, son of Gauhar Aman, with the assistance of Aman-ul-Mulk, became chief of Yasin and tributary to Chitral. His deposition and the circumstances under which Pahlwan, Chief of Mastuj, became Chief of Yasin are

described in chapter VII. Chitral, Mastuj and Yasin thus became bound up together. Relations with Kashmir gradually became more cordial, and in 1876 Aman-ul-Mulk wrote to the Maharaja of Kashmir pointing out that it was to the interests of the Government of Kashmir that his power should be maintained in Chitral. The Kashmir Darbar sought the advice of the British Government. The result was that envoys from Chitral and Yasin were sent to India, and after somewhat protracted negotiations an agreement was eventually arrived at by which Chitral acknowledged the suzerainty of Kashmir.

At the same time a political agency under Major Biddulph was established at Gilgit. The agency failed to attain the results expected of it in securing influence over the local Chiefs and was abolished in 1881.

It was, however, again established in 1889, in consequence of the reports and suggestions of Colonel Lockhart and Captain Durand in 1885 and 1888 respectively, and the Mehtar was granted a subsidy and given some Snider rifles. In 1891 the subsidy was increased, with a view to further strengthening the Mehtar's position, and in 1892 Aman-ul-Mulk died.

The course of events which led to the siege of Chitral fort, its subsequent relief, and the occupation of the country by troops from India, has been already described in Chapter VII.

Umra Khan and his relations with Chitral.

Umra Khan was son of Aman Khan, belonging to the Mast Khel of the Tarkalauri tribe who occupy Bajour. His share of the ancestral property in Jandul were the villages of Munda and Tor. His father, however, turned him out of the country and made over these villages to his brother, Mir Hasan Khan. Umra Khan then lived in exile in the Shamozai (Utman Khel) country, and his brother, Muhammad Shah Khan, accompanied him. After the death of his father, Umra Khan murdered his brother Muhammad Zaman Khan, and assumed the position of Khan of Barwa. After varying fortune he recovered Tor and Munda from Mir Hasan Khan who was supported by the then Khan of Dir, Rahmatulla Khan.

The old Khan of Dir, Rahmatulla Khan, died in 1884 and his son, Muhammad Sharif Khan (the present Nawab), was no match for Umra Khan, who gradually wrested from him all his forts, until in 1890 he had lost everything and was obliged to take refuge in Swat.

In 1891 the Afghan Sipah Salar, Ghulam Haidar Khan, occupied Asmar, which Umra Khan pretended to regard as part of Bajour.

In April 1892 the Sipah Salar made extensive preparations to invade Jandul, but was prevented by the intervention of the Government of India. In June 1892 Umra Khan came into collision with the Sipah Salar by assisting the Mamunds of Shurtan in the Kunar valley, while he was himself intrigued against by the Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk, who was trying to raise the Yusufzai-tribes in favour of the refugee Khan of Dir. Umra Khan appealed to the Government of India for arms and ammunition, but these obviously could not be given to him. He was greatly annoyed at this refusal, and this umbrage greatly increased after the Durand Mission to Kabul in 1893, when it was announced to him that Asmar would remain in the possession of the Amir.

He was invited either to attend himself, or send a representative to attend the Afghan-Bajour Boundary Commission but he failed to adopt either course.

His relations with Chitral were as follows: In 1891, during Aman-ul-Mulk's lifetime, he took a small force to Arandu and from thence crossed to the right bank of the Chitral river. He did not, however, interfere with the Chitrali garrison in the fort of Narsat* but contented himself with plundering the Kafirs and then returned to Barwa. In September 1892, after Aman-ul-Mulk's death, Afzal-ul-Mulk set fire to the fort at Narsat and withdrew the Chitrali garrison, whereupon Umra Khan occupied the Narsat *hagva* and proceeded to build forts at Arandu and Birkot. In 1893 Umra Khan attacked Istargatz in the Bashgul valley, but withdrew again to Dir on being remonstrated with by the Government of India.

The state of affairs at the end of 1894 was briefly as follows:—Umra Khan and Safdar Khan, Chief of Nawagai, had made up their differences and entered into an offensive and defensive alliance. Umra Khan had established his authority over a large portion of Swat, the greater part of Bajour, the whole of Dir, and he still remained in possession of Narsat. Muhammad Sharif, ex-Khan of Dir, was a refugee in Upper Swat. Nizam-ul-Mulk was Mehtar of Chitral. Sher Afzal, the most popular candidate for the Mehtarship, was at Kabul. Amin-ul-Mulk, who had taken refuge with Umra Khan on the accession of his brother, Nizam-ul-Mulk, had returned to Chitral.

The part played by Umra Khan during the events of 1895 are fully described in Chapter VII—History.

In May 1895 he went to Kabul, and in 1896 made a pilgrimage to Mecca, passing through India both on his outward and return journeys, with the consent of the Government of India. On his return from Mecca, the Government of India offered him a residence at Quetta. He refused this offer, and left Quetta for Kabul on the 24th August 1896. He has been a pensioned adherent of the Amir ever since. It may be added that Umra Khan is married to an own sister of Amin-ul-Mulk and the present Mehtar of Chitral.

Muhammad Sharif Khan, Khan of Dir, and the agreements made by him with reference to the road between Chakdara and Chitral.

By an agreement, dated the 12th September 1895, the Khan of Dir undertook to keep open the road from Chakdara to Ashret, to make any postal arrangements required, to protect the telegraph on any occasion when it is put up, to maintain the road, levy posts and camping-ground enclosures in good repair, and to safeguard the whole line with levies. In return for this the Government of India granted the Khan a payment of Rs. 10,000 *per annum*, and a present of 400 snider rifles. They also promised to defray the cost of the maintenance of the levies, and not to interfere with the administration of the country. In consideration of receiving a further sum of Rs. 10,000 *per annum* in addition to the above-mentioned subsidy, the Khan promised that trade passing along the Chakdara-Ashret road should be free from toll or tax.

* Narsat—called Nari by Afghans—was claimed by both Chitral and Asmar.

The Khan further undertook at any time to give ground for the accommodation of troops on the Laram hill or on the Dusha Khel range, on receiving a fair rent for the site or sites.

A present of Rs. 25,000 was also given to the Khan in consideration of his services during the previous six months.

It may be added that in the past there has been a good deal of inter-marriage between the Dir and Chitral ruling families. The mother of Mehtars Nizam-ul-Mulk and Afzal-ul-Mulk was a daughter of Ghazan Khan, Khan of Dir, and Nizam-ul-Mulk and Shah-i-Mulk both married sisters of the present Nawab of Dir. For some time past a matrimonial alliance between the present Mehtar and the Nawab has been on the *tapis*, but so far the matter has not been finally settled.

Khan of Nawagai.

At the commencement of the operations in 1895 the attitude of the Khan was not satisfactory. He declared himself in favour of Government, but gave little assistance, being afraid of Umra Khan and subject to fanatical pressure. Later, however, he assisted in keeping order in the Jandul valley, and he was granted a subsidy of Rs. 6,000 per annum as a reward for his services.

Khans of Swat and the Upper and Lower Ranisai.

In September 1895 the Khans having petitioned Government for assistance to enable them to keep the road open from the Malakand to the Swat River at Chakdara and to maintain internal peace, an agreement was drawn up dated September 12th, 1895, in practically the same terms as the agreement with the Khan of Dir.

Political situation created in 1895.

As previously related, Shuja-ul-Mulk was installed on 2nd September 1895 as Mehtar of the Kator country in the name of the Maharaja of Kashmir.

The Khushwakt provinces were placed under Governors independent of the Mehtar. These Governors were to be appointed and controlled by the British Agent at Gilgit on behalf of Kashmir, except that, as a matter of convenience, the Governor of Mastuj and the Hakim of Laspur were to correspond with the Political Officer at Chitral.

The internal administration was left in the hands of the Mehtar and his advisers. Three advisers were appointed to assist him during his minority, *viz.*, Raja Bahadur Khan, Wazir Inayat Khan, and Aksakal Fatch Ali Shah.*

An Assistant British Agent was appointed, subordinate to the British Agent at Gilgit, to generally supervise affairs and to give advice and assistance to the young Mehtar.

A subsidy of Rs. 1,000 a month was granted to the young Mehtar, and a further sum of Rs. 8,000 per annum to compensate him for loss of revenue arising from the separation of the Khushwakt country from his

* Aksakal Fatch Ali Shah died in 1897, and his place was taken by Wafadar Khan, the Mehtar's *Dewanbegi*, who is undoubtedly the most able man in the country. He has every reason to be loyal to us, and in times of trouble Captain Gordon is confident that he will again render valuable service. Wafadar Khan was in the fort during the siege in 1895. He took an active part in the defence and was indefatigable in his exertions to obtain information for the British Agent regarding the movements and intentions of the enemy. — *Captain Gordon.*

control. Monthly stipends were also to be paid to the three advisers of the Mehtar and the Governor of Mastuj. A garrison amply sufficient to guarantee safety from foreign aggression, and to provide a guard for the Mehtar during his minority, was left in Chitral.

In 1896 the political agency at Chitral was separated from Gilgit, and placed under the Political Agent of Dir, Swat and Chitral.

Relations between the Mehtar and the people and the attitude of the latter towards us and some of the problems in dealing with them which require consideration.

The present Mehtar, at the time of his installation, was looked on with a certain amount of favour by the Adamzadas and the upper classes generally, though, even among them, there was a certain amount of discontent. Sher Afzal, the favourite of the people, had been deported, Shuja-ul-Mulk was very young, he was the selection of the English, and, in addition, was surrounded by advisers who do not appear to have been capable or long headed men. In a country like Chitral it is impossible for the Mehtar, whoever he may be, to please all classes. The scarcity of cultivable land, and the want of room generally, were responsible for the discontent among the Adamzadas. This has to a great extent vanished owing to the fact that their former slender incomes are now increased by the substantial pay received for levy service. A certain proportion of the poorer classes see few reasons for the existence of a Mehtar at all, and argue that he merely adds to their burdens in the way of *Kar begar*, as they receive no remuneration for his work, whereas for Government work they are well paid. As he grows older Shuja-ul-Mulk is improving and he undoubtedly derived much benefit from his three visits to India. He is now less disposed to listen to flattery and the foolish advice given by men who have never been out of the country, he shows more tact in dealing with the people generally, and particularly in enquiring into land disputes.

It will always be uncertain to what extent the Chitralis will side with us in the case of foreign invasion, and on this the local Political Officers taking into consideration the special circumstances at the time, can give the best opinion. In 1895 the upper classes and mullas were very hot against us, chiefly owing to ignorance of our methods of government, and the lower classes had remained in a state of such abject servitude for so great a length of time that it hardly entered their heads to do otherwise than follow implicitly the promptings of the aristocracy. Add to this that all classes alike were almost entirely ignorant of the extent of our power, and it is hardly to be wondered at that practically the whole country sided against us.

The situation now is very different, and there is no doubt that our hold over the country will grow steadily stronger as the years pass. There is still doubtless a feeling of hostility against us among a certain section of the Adamzada class, but the people are far from wanting in intelligence, and many events have taken place since the first shot was fired against us in 1895

which are calculated to impress them with a wholesome awe of our strength. Firstly the fighting in Chitral itself was a revelation to them. They had no conception of what the meaning of war was before. Then, again, the rapidity with which Sir R. Low's powerful force was mobilised, and the ease with which it swept aside the opposition of the Pathan tribesmen, further the decisive manner in which the rising of 1897 was crushed and the regularity and orderly manner in which the annual reliefs of the Chitral garrison have now been carried out for several years, and finally the opportunities of seeing the outer world which have been afforded to the many leading men who have accompanied the Mehtar on his three visits to India, on the last of which they witnessed the impressive spectacle of the Coronation Durbar at Delhi,—all this cannot fail to have had a lasting effect on the minds of the people; and when the trouble comes the odds are that the majority will side with us rather than with a Power of whose methods of rule they are ignorant.

Our policy in Chitral since 1895 has been to interfere as little as possible with the old-established customs of the country. Some of these customs are distinctly convenient, as, for instance, the feudal system of land tenure, and too great stress cannot perhaps be laid on the importance of retaining this system. The Adamzada class should be clearly given to understand that their tenure of their holdings depends on their loyalty, and that we shall not fail to authorise the Mehtar to dispossess any persons who are found to be guilty of sedition. So long as we maintain this attitude the people will certainly think twice before they throw in their lot against us.

The greatest difficulty which confronts us is how to provide for the rapidly-increasing population. This is a somewhat intricate problem, and will require careful consideration in the near future. Hitherto the people have been exclusively engaged in agricultural pursuits and emigration has been practically unknown. Like all people, the Chitralis are intensely conservative in their ideas, and it would be exceedingly difficult to bring home to them the necessity for changing their mode of life; but it is already evident that some effort in this direction is necessary. Under the present peaceful conditions the population must continue to increase rapidly, and it is impossible in a mountainous country, the greater portion of which has practically no rainfall, to ensure a proportionate increase in the cultivable area.

Relations between the Mehtar and his relatives.

Sher Afzal and Amir-ul-Mulk were deported to India in 1895.

In 1895, when the young Mehtar visited India, he appointed his half-brother, Mehtarjau Ghulam Dastgir, to represent him at Chitral.

"The Mehtar has a number of half-brothers, but ~~none of them have any real influence over the people. The ablest among them is Mehtarjau Ghulam Dastgir. He has many enemies, as he is generally believed to have instigated a great number of the mur-~~

ders committed during the disturbed period following on the death of the old Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk.

"The name of Mehtarjau Yadgar Beg, uncle of the present Mehtar and half-brother of Aman-ul-Mulk, should also be noted. He ~~is a man of~~ ~~some ability and energy and of a very crafty and treacherous character.~~ He was chiefly responsible for the treachery practised by the Chitralis in the fighting at Reshun and Koragh in 1895. He was sent as a prisoner to Dharmsala with Sher Afzal, but succeeded in escaping from there in company with his nephew, Muhammad Afzal Beg, and he is now living at Dir. Yadgar Beg should never be permitted to return to Chitral. He is still capable of doing a good deal of harm, and it would be bad policy to pardon a man who has behaved so infamously as he did. It is as well to show the Chitralis that there is a limit to our forbearance.

"Muhammad Afzal Beg, son of Mehtarjau Kohkan Beg, another half-brother of Aman-ul-Mulk, is also a man who should not be permitted to return to Chitral. He also was concerned in the Reshun and Koragh affairs, and, as noted above, escaped from Dharmsala with Mehtarjau Yadgar Beg. He was arrested a second time in Chitral in the winter of 1895, but escaped from the military guard to whom he had been handed over for custody pending the receipt of orders from Government as to his disposal. Muhammad Afzal Beg is now said to be in Dir.

"It is important that the names of Mehtarjau Yadgar Beg and Muhammad Afzal Beg should be noted, as they are plausible individuals and might prevail on an officer new to the country to allow them to return."

INFLUENTIAL MEN IN CHITRAL.*

The following are the leading men in the various districts and those who have done good service in the past and are likely to prove useful in time of trouble:—

Drosh district.

Bappi (Rizat) of Pursat village in Shishi Kuh. He was formerly *Hakim* of Drosh. He is the wealthiest man in Lower Chitral, and has a number of servants. He might be useful in time of trouble.

Sher (Riza) of Drosh. He was *Hakim* of the district from 1896 to September 1902, and, on the whole, performed his duties satisfactorily. In September 1902, owing to his constant ill-health, the Mehtar relieved him of the appointment of *Hakim*.

Mehtarjau Shah Afzal of Naghr. He is a cousin of the present Mehtar ~~and is a weak character and is not respected by the people.~~

Mehtarjau Bahram of Naghr, brother of Shah Afzal, is an energetic man and is well disposed towards us. He is likely to prove useful in time of trouble. Captain Gurdon recently persuaded the Mehtar to give this man a grant of land at Kauti on the right bank of the river, about ten miles below Naghr.

* Communicated by Captain Gurdon, D. S. O. (February 1901).

† The word in brackets denotes the man's clan. The *Mehtarjau*s belong to the Kator or ruling clan.

Mehtarjau Sher Haider of Pase, brother of Bahram and Shah Afzal, is always sick and is not likely ever to do good service.

Muhammad Mujtaba, Akhonzada of Khairabad } These men are influential *mullas*.
Hazaratulla, Akhonzada of Jinjeret ... }

Mehtarjau Abdur Rahman Khan of Shishi is a half-brother of the present Mehtar. He ~~is not likely to be accepted~~ would not be accepted as Mehtar by the Chitralis. He is fairly intelligent, but is lazy.

Mehtarjau Khan of Mujdech, in the Shishi valley, is a half-brother of the present Mehtar. He ~~is not likely to be accepted~~ appears to be half-witted.

Nafal (Riza*) of Drosh was a man of some importance during the latter portion of Aman-ul-Mulk's reign. He is not a reliable man.

Amin-ul-Mulk, son of the late Mehtarjau Shahi Mulk, the favourite son of Aman-ul-Mulk. Mehtarjau Shah-i-Mulk was Governor of Drosh and was killed by Afzal-ul-Mulk in 1892. He married a sister of the present Nawab of Dir, by whom he had two sons, Amin-ul-Mulk and Sultan-ul-Mulk. Amin-ul-Mulk is an intelligent boy of about 18 years. Owing to his relationship with the Nawab of Dir, he has a good deal of wind in his head and thinks he should be made Governor of Drosh. The Mehtar was not well disposed towards him at first, but of late they have been a great deal together.

Sultan-ul-Mulk, the brother of the above, is now about 16 years old. He is an intelligent boy. He is not on good terms with his brother.

Ghulam Said of Ashret was *Malik* of the village until he fled to Istorgats with Rota. He is a shifty character, but has done good work in connection with the post. He requires "sitting on" at times, but on the whole is a useful man.

Rota of Ashret, brother of Ghulam Saiad, has done good service in connection with the post, but he is not to be trusted and bears a very bad reputation among the local people. He fled to Istorgats in 1901 to evade punishment for intrigues with Dir. He returned to Ashret in October 1902.

Hassan Ali of Dammer is *Malik* of the village, but he is a weak character and has no influence.

Fan Muhammad of Madaghasht in the Shishi valley is headman of the village. He is well-disposed towards Government and has behaved well during the past five years.

Mehtarjau Ghulam Dastgir of Kesu. He is the most able of the ~~sons of the old Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk~~ sons of the old Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk. I have referred to this man in the paragraph treating of the relations between the Mehtar and his relatives. He can do good service if he likes, but is a very shifty character and wants very careful watching.

Chitral district.

Niat Shah (Riza) of Oyon was a very warm adherent of Sher Afzal's. He was sent as a prisoner to Dharmasala in 1895, and afterwards accompanied Sher Afzal to Ootacamund. He was allowed to return to Chitral in 1898. He seems to have been much impressed by all he saw in India. He has behaved well since his return, and is now well-disposed towards Government.

* The word in brackets denotes the man's clan.

Kazi Abdur Rahman of Oyon. He is the most influential *Mulla* in the country.

Muhammad Akil, Akhunzada of Oyon, is another influential *Mulla*. He frequently visits Dir and Bajour. He is very jealous of Kazi Abdur Rahman.

Kamran Khan (Zundre*) is headman of the Bumboret valley. He was in the Chitral fort during the siege in 1895. He is well-disposed towards Government, but is wanting in energy.

Mir Hamza is *Charwelur* of Oyon. He was in the Chitral fort during the siege in 1895, and did really good service, as a reward for which he was appointed headman of the village of Oyon by Sir George Robertson. The faction headed by *Nisab*, the former headman of Oyon, is against him. *Nisab* is the foster-brother of *Mehtarjau Ghulam Dastgir* of Kesu, who is a bitter enemy of Mir Hamza and is always intriguing against him. Mir Hamza is strong and full of pluck, and is devoted to the interests of Government. He may be implicitly relied on to do good service in time of trouble. Khan, brother of Mir Hamza, is also worthy of note. He is young, but promises well. In September 1902 he made a plucky attempt to arrest a notorious murderer. The latter resisted and was killed by Khan, who himself was severely wounded and lost a thumb.

Mehtarjau Tahamul Shah is a cousin of the present Mehtar. He is ~~in~~ ~~no~~ ~~influence~~ ~~at~~ ~~all~~ ~~and~~ ~~has~~ ~~no~~ ~~influence~~. He was Governor of Yasin in Nizam-ul-Mulk's reign.

Mehtarjau Muhammad Wali Khan of Broz is a full brother of Mehtarjau Abdur Rahman Khan of Shishi. He is about 21 years old, and is intelligent, but does not show much promise of turning out a strong character.

Mehtarjau Muhammad Sher of Broz is a cousin of the present Mehtar. He is a weak character and has no influence. He is full of grievances.

Shahsada Khan (Riza) of Broz was one of the leading men in the plot to murder Nizam-ul-Mulk. He is discontented, and would require careful watching in time of trouble.

Mehtarjau Kohkan Beg is an uncle of the present Mehtar. ~~He~~ ~~was~~ ~~sent~~ ~~as~~ ~~a~~ ~~prisoner~~ ~~with~~ ~~Sher~~ ~~Afzal~~ ~~to~~ ~~India~~ ~~in~~ ~~1895~~, but was permitted to return to Chitral in 1898. His son, Muhammad Afzal Beg, is alluded to in the paragraph concerning the relations between the Mehtar and his relatives. Kohkan Beg was very bitter against us in 1895, but since his return from India, he has been very humble. He is old and not likely to give trouble again.

Wazir Inayat Khan of Joghhar is the elder brother of *Diwanbegi Wafadar Khan*, to whom I have already alluded. He was in the Chitral fort during the siege in 1895, and is one of the three advisers of the Mehtar who receive an allowance from Government. He made several trips to India in Aman-ul-Mulk's reign, and is a most enlightened old man. He is thoroughly to be trusted and is much respected by all classes. He has aged a good deal during the last few years and owing to the death of his favourite son

* The word in brackets denotes the man's clan.

and failing health, he has not been able to take much part in public affairs. He may, however, always be relied on to give good advice.

Mehtarjan Afrasiab of Koghzi is ~~EBBBBBBBBB~~ son of Aman-ul-Mulk, and therefore half-brother of the present Mehtar. He is about 21 years of age. He is intelligent.

Mehtarjan Muhammad Ali Beg is ~~HHHHHHHHHH~~ son of Mehtar Shah Afzal, and therefore half-brother of Aman-ul-Mulk and uncle of the present Mehtar. He behaved very badly in 1895, and is a most objectionable character. He is now old and is not likely to give any more trouble. He accompanied the Mehtar to India. He has several sons, but none of them are very bright specimens.

Nur Ahmad, son of the late Khuda-i-Deru of Barenis who was foster-father of the present Mehtar and possessed a good deal of influence in the country. He is a bright intelligent young man, who can be relied on to do good service. He was in Chitral fort during the siege in 1895.

Sultan Shah is the eldest son of the late Aksakal Fatah Ali Shah. He was in the fort during the siege. He succeeded his father as Aksakal of Chitral. The duties of the Aksakal of Chitral are to collect the Mehtar's revenue throughout the country.

Sultan Shah may be relied on to do his best in time of trouble. His late father rendered very valuable service after the murder of Nizam-ul-Mulk, and it was mainly owing to his efforts that we were able to lay in a stock of supplies in the fort. Sultan Shah and his brother, Rustam, who resides at Drasan in the Mulikho district, should always be treated with special consideration by British officers on account of the service rendered by their father.

Owir.

Gachara is the headman of the district. He is well-disposed towards the present Mehtar. He has a very large family. His two elder sons, Shah Bumbat and Sharik, are smart young men.

Sultan Mural Khan (Khusbal Begi*) is the son of the late headman of the district. He is intelligent and promises to turn out very well. He is not on good terms with Gachara.

Lut Kuh district.

Manawar (Sangale) is headman of the district. He is possessed of considerable influence with the people, and is well-disposed towards Government. He is not a *persona grata* with the present Mehtar. He is very old and not likely to live long. He was a staunch adherent of Sber Afzal. His eldest son, Pin Jowan, promises to turn out well.

Mohamed Wali of Kandujal. This man is head of the faction opposed to Minawar. He is not a trustworthy man.

Arkari district.

Shahsada Lais of Mujigram is the most influential of the *Maulai Pirs* residing in Chitral territory. He has *murids* in Badakhshan, Shighnan, Roshan, Wakhan, Hunza, and throughout Chitral. He has been suspected more than once of corresponding with the Russian authorities, but on the whole his behaviour has been good. He can, if he likes, render very valuable service, but requires watching. (Also see Part II, Gazetteer.)

* The word in brackets denotes the man's clan.

Kurban is headman of the village of Kushm and foster-father of the present Mehtar's eldest son. He was appointed orderly to Captain Youngusband by Nizam-ul-Mulk; and when that officer left the country, he came to Captain Gordon, whom he has served most faithfully, and Captain Gordon is certain that it would be difficult to find a more trustworthy man in any country. He behaved very pluckily during the siege of Chitral fort in 1895, and may always be relied on to do loyal service again. The Adamzadas generally are very jealous of his position as foster-father of the present Mehtar's son, but he is popular with the majority of the people of his own village. He has several brothers and nephews, all of whom may be relied on to do really useful service in time of trouble. On account of the part taken by him in the disturbances in 1895, one of his brothers was killed by Sher Afzal, and his wife and children were imprisoned and his property was looted. He has suffered a good deal in our behalf, and in consideration of this and the excellent services he has rendered, he and his connections should always be treated with special consideration by British officers.

Torikho district.

Shahzarin (Khushe*) of Rain is the *Charwelu* of the district. He was a great favourite of Nizam-ul-Mulk's, and is possessed of considerable influence. He is a capable man, and will probably do good service in time of trouble, as he has a lot to lose by a change of administration. He is foster-father of the Mehtar's second son.

Mast Khan is *Baramash* of Shahgram. He was Nizam-ul-Mulk's principal adviser, and is an intelligent man. He is well-disposed towards Government. He suffers from ill-health and is wanting in pluck, but would probably give reliable information in time of trouble.

Bahadur Shah (Kator) of Washich. He behaved very badly in 1895, and is a most untrustworthy man. He is old and not likely to live long.

Bul Khan (Shangiye) of Washich. He was Nizam-ul-Mulk's favourite foster-brother. He is an intelligent and plausible individual, but is not a reliable man. He did not behave well in 1895.

Ghulam of Uzhnu. This man was in Chitral fort during the siege in 1895. He poses as a buffoon, but is not such a fool as he appears to be at first sight. He is well-disposed towards Government.

Khan (Riza) of Rech. He was formerly headman of Rech, but was deprived of his position as such by the present Mehtar in 1898, owing to his constant disregard of orders. He behaved very badly in 1895, and is thoroughly disloyal.

Mastuj district.

Mehtarjan Bahadur Khan is an ~~son~~ son of Mehtar Shah Afzal, and therefore half-brother of the late Aman-ul-Mulk and uncle of the present Mehtar. He is one of the three advisers of the Mehtar, who receives an allowance from Government. He is also Governor of the Mastuj district. He rendered valuable service in 1895, and was in the fort during the siege. He is old and not capable of doing much work now. He possesses considerable influence with all classes. He has a number of sons but none of them show much promise.

* The word in brackets denotes the man's clan.

Shahidul Aman (Khushwakt*) of Reshun is a very untrustworthy man. He took an active part in the murder of the late Mr. Hayward in Yasin, and he behaved very badly in 1895.

Khushboi (Khushumade). Captain Gurdon had to remove this man from his position as headman of the village, as he persistently declined to give up certain rifles which were concealed in the village after 1895. He is discontented and thoroughly disloyal. He has many enemies, as he murdered a number of people during the reign of Nizam-ul-Mulk.

Laspur district.

Mehrban (Zundre). He was made *Hakim* by us in 1895. He is thoroughly loyal, but has aged very much during the past year. He has two very promising sons.

Muhammad Rafi (Bojoke) of Balim was formerly *Hakim* of Laspur. He was offered an allowance of Rs. 100 per mensem by Sir George Robertson in 1895, but he could not resist the temptation of joining Sher Afzal, and he persuaded his foster-son, the late Muhammad Wali (son of the late Mir Wali, Mehtar of Yasin) to do likewise. He took an active part in the murder of the late Mr. Hayward. He is a thoroughly untrustworthy man, but has probably realised the error of his way by now. He has much influence over the people of Laspur.

* The word in brackets denotes the man's clan.

APPENDIX A.

PRÉCIS OF ROUTES LEADING TO THE CHITRAL AND GILGIT AGENCIES
FROM FOREIGN TERRITORY.

- I. *From Osh to Hunza via Kashgar* (40 stages).
 (a) *Osh to Kashgar* 16 stages.
 Caravan route.
 (b) *Kashgar to Tashkurghan*.
 (i) *via* Gaz defile (10 stages). Difficult, though practicable for ponies.
 (ii) *via* Chabil Gumbaz (11 stages). The best route; practicable for ponies.
 (c) *Tashkurghan to Hunza via Kilib or Mintaka Pass* (13 stages). Difficult, though practicable for ponies. Very little fodder obtainable in Hunza territory.
- II. *From Osh to Skardu via Mustagh Pass, or to Leh via Karakorum Pass*. Supplies scarce; lateral communications bad. May be neglected (in this work at any rate).
- III. *From Osh to Mastuj via the Pamirs* (37 stages).
 (a) *Osh to Alai valley* (7 stages). May be considered as practicable for carts.
 (b) *Alai valley to the Murghab River* (9 stages). Practicable for ponies, but, owing to want of supplies, forage and fuel, and to the presence of 2 high passes, it is difficult.
 (c) *Murghab River to Mastuj via Khargosh Pass, Sarhad-i-Wakhan and Baroghil or Khankhon Pass* (21 stages). Practicable, though difficult, for ponies. Fuel very scarce, very little fodder obtainable south of the Baroghil.
- IV. *From Osh to Gakuch via the Pamirs* (33 stages).
 (a) *From Osh to the Murghab River* (16 stages). See III.
 (b) *From Murghab River to Gakuch* (17 stages) *via* Bazar Gumbaz, Little Pamir, Baroghil and Darkot Passes. Practicable, though difficult, for ponies. Fuel and fodder scarce.
- V. *From Osh to Gakuch via the Pamirs* (30 stages).
 (a) *From Osh to the Murghab River* (16 stages). See III.
 (b) *From Murghab River to Gakuch* (14 stages) *via* Bazar Gumbaz, Khora Bohrt Pass and Ashkuman valley. Great difficulty for animals in crossing Khora Bohrt Pass and coming down Ashkuman valley. (The Darkot pass would offer an easier alternative to a force attempting this route.)
- VI. *From Osh to Hunza via the Pamirs* (37 stages).
 (a) *From Osh to the Murghab River* (16 stages). See III.
 (b) *From Murghab River to Hunza* (21 stages) *via* Bazar Gumbaz, Irshad and Irshad Pass. Great difficulty for animals in crossing Pass. Once the pass is crossed, valley is unusually fertile for region of Eastern Hindu Kush, but once Hunza valley is reached difficulties again begin.

NOTE TO V AND VI.—There is a route between V and VI south of the Khora Bohrt and Irshad Passes, over the Chillingji Pass, which, though high and difficult, is practicable for animals.

VII. *From Faisabad to Chitral by the Dorah Pass.*

(a) *Viâ Zebak* (13 stages). The best available route, and practicable for pack transport.

(b) *Viâ Firm* (12 stages). Not so easy as (a).

NOTE.—The Uni and Mach passes can be used in conjunction with the Dorah, but are more difficult, and could not be used by animals.

VIII. *From Faisabad to Chitral viâ Agram Pass* (12 marches). A difficult, though practicable, route for pack animals.

NOTE.—The Nuksan and Khatinza passes can be used in conjunction with this route, but are more difficult and could not be used by animals.

IX. *From Kasi Deh (near Ishkashim) in Wakhan to Chitral viâ Sad Ashteragh (Sar Istragh) Pass* (7 marches). A very difficult, though practicable, route for pack animals.

Is the most direct from Russian territory to Chitral.

