

was summoned and formally installed at Chuquisaca on the 25th May 1826, to take into consideration the constitution prepared by Bolivar for the new republic. A favourable report was made to that body by a committee appointed to examine it, on which it was approved by the congress, and declared to be the constitution of the republic; and as such, it was sworn to by the people. General Sucre was chosen president for life, according to the constitution, but only accepted the appointment for the space of two years, and on the express condition that 2000 Colombian troops should be permitted to remain with him.

The independence of the country, so dearly bought, did not, however, secure for it a peaceful future. Repeated risings occurred, till in the end of 1827 General Sucre and his Colombian troops were driven from La Paz. A new congress was formed at Chuquisaca in April 1828, which modified the constitution given by Bolivar, and chose Marshal Santa Cruz for president; but only a year later a revolution, led by General Blanco, threw the country into disorder and for a time overturned the Government. Quiet being again restored in 1831, Santa Cruz promulgated the code of laws which bore his name, and brought the financial affairs of the country into some order; he also concluded a treaty of commerce with Peru, and for several years Bolivia remained in peace. In 1835, when a struggle for the chief power had made two factions in the neighbouring republic of Peru, Santa Cruz was induced to take a part in the contest; he marched into that country, and after defeating General Gamarra, the leader of one of the opposing parties, completed the pacification of Peru in the spring of 1836, named himself its protector, and had in view a confederation of the two countries. At this juncture the Government of Chili interfered actively, and espousing the cause of Gamarra, sent troops into Peru. Three years of fighting ensued, till in a battle at Jungay in June 1839 Santa Cruz was defeated and exiled, Gamarra became president of Peru, and General Velasco provisional chief in Bolivia. The Santa Cruz party, however, remained strong in Bolivia, and soon revolted successfully against the new head of the Government, ultimately installing General Ballivian in the chief power. Taking advantage of the disturbed condition of Bolivia, Gamarra made an attempt to annex the rich province of La Paz, invading it in August 1841 and besieging the capital; but in a battle with Ballivian his army was totally routed, and Gamarra himself was killed. The Bolivian general was now in turn to invade Peru, when Chili again interfered to prevent him. Ballivian remained in the presidency till 1848, when he retired to Valparaiso, and in the end of that year General Belzu, after leading a successful military revolution, took the chief power, and during his presidency endeavoured to

BOLLANDIST FATHERS, THE, the authors of the famous *Acta Sanctorum*. During the Roman Catholic revival in the end of the 16th and beginning of the 17th centuries a great number of martyrologies were published, and it occurred to a Jesuit father, Heribert Rosweyd, to collect all the various legends about the martyrs and saints of the church into one great standard martyrology, which he proposed should fill 18 vols. folio. Rosweyd died in 1629 without having been able to carry out his plan. His idea, however, was taken up by John Bolland, a Jesuit father of the Low Countries, who had settled in Antwerp. He began an extensive correspondence, writing to every one throughout Europe who he supposed was able to help him. The public libraries and the libraries of convents and churches were thoroughly examined for MSS. about saints and martyrs, and so much material was found that the

promote agriculture, industry, and trade. General Jorge Cordova succeeded him, but had not been long in office when a new revolt in September 1857, originating with the garrison of Oruro, spread over the land, and compelled him to quit the country. His place was taken by Dr José Maria Linares, the originator of the revolution, who taking into his own hands all the powers of Government, and acting with the greatest severity, caused himself to be proclaimed dictator in March 1858. Fresh disturbances led to the deposition of Linares in 1861, when Dr Maria de Acha was chosen president. In 1862 a treaty of peace and commerce with the United States of North America was ratified, and in the following year a similar treaty was concluded with Belgium; but new causes of disagreement with Chili had arisen in the discovery of rich beds of guano on the eastern coast-land of the desert of Atacama, which threatened warfare, and were only set at rest by the treaty of August 1866, in which the 24th parallel of latitude was adopted as the boundary between the two republics. A new military revolution, led by Maria Melgarejo, broke out in 1865, and in February of that year the troops of President Acha were defeated in a battle near Potosi, when Melgarejo took the dominion of the country. After defeating two revolutions, in 1865 and 1866, the new president declared a political amnesty, and in 1869, after imposing a revised constitution on the country, he became its dictator till 1871.

Such, in brief, are the rapidly succeeding political changes and internal conflicts which have kept Bolivia far behind its neighbouring republics, and have prevented the development of its natural wealth. Notwithstanding these wars and revolutions which rent the country, Bolivia had maintained itself without foreign credit until the presidency of Melgarejo, when it was drawn into disastrous speculations and contracts which have compromised its credit and loaded the country with a heavy foreign debt.

President Morales was elected in 1871; since that time a civilian Government has succeeded to the military system, and attempts are being made to reform the disordered affairs of the republic.

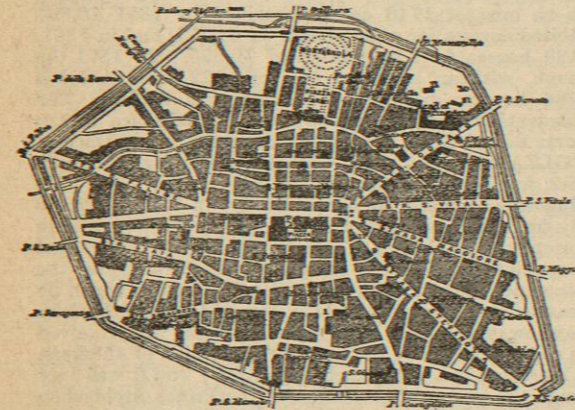
A. Dessalines d'Orbigny, *Voyages dans l'Amérique méridionale*, 1826-1833, Paris, 1835; and *Descripción geográfica, histórica, y estadística de Bolivia*, Paris, 1845; Dalence, *Statistical Account of Bolivia*, 1846; H. A. Weddell, *Voyage dans le nord de la Bolivie*, Paris, 1853; Manoel José Cortés, *Ensayo sobre la Historia de Bolivia*, Sucre, 1861; David Forbes, *Report on the Geology of South America*, London, 1861; Hugo Reck, "Geographie und Statistik der Republik Bolivia," in *Geogr. Mittheilungen*, Gotha, 1865, 1866, 1867; Avelino Aramayo, *Proyecto de una nueva vía de comunicación entre Bolivia y el océano Pacífico*, London, 1863,—also *Bolivia* (extracts from the last work, translated, with additions to 1874), London, 1874; José Domingo Cortés, *Bolivia*, Paris, 1875. (K. J.)

original plan of the work was soon widened. The ground-plan of the undertaking was to form a huge calendar, giving the life and deeds of each saint under the heading of the day set apart by the church for his honour. In 1643 the first two volumes were published, containing the saints' days in January. Bolland died soon after the beginning of his labour, but not until he had seen the work fairly started; other deaths followed, but the work was prosecuted in accordance with the original plan, and went on prosperously until 1773, when the troubles which then overtook the Jesuits affected the Bollandists also. The little company struggled on, however, amid many difficulties until 1794, when they were dispersed; and the whole of the MS. collections were destroyed during the French invasion of the Netherlands. At this time 54 vols. had been published, bringing the work down to the 15th of October.

In 1837 three Jesuit fathers made proposals to continue the *Acta* according to the original plan, and in 1838 published a programme under the title *De prosecutione operis Bollandiani*. They made some progress with the undertaking, but their work is much inferior to the earlier *Acta*. The 54 vols. of the older Bollandists, along with 6 vols. of the continuation, were published at Paris and Rome in 1863-7.

BOLOGNA, a province of northern Italy, having an area of 1385 square miles. It consists in the north of a fertile plain, well watered by several tributaries of the Po, while the southern portion is occupied by the Apennines, which separate it from Tuscany. It is in a highly flourishing condition. The soil produces abundant crops of rice, barley, wheat, and pulse, besides hemp, flax, olives, grapes, figs, almonds, chestnuts, and other fruits. The culture of silk is largely prosecuted; and considerable numbers of cattle and swine are reared in the province.

BOLOGNA, the chief city of the above province and the see of an archbishop, is situated between the rivers Reno (*Rhenus*) and Savena, at the foot of the lower slopes of the Apennines, 399 feet above the level of the Adriatic, and 23 miles S.E. of Modena, on the main line of railway that runs across the north of Italy, in 44° 30' N. lat. and 11° 21' E. long. The city is about 2 miles in length and 1½ in breadth, and is surrounded by a high brick wall with



Ground-Plan of Bologna.

twelve gates. The streets are clean and well paved, but are generally narrow and crooked; the houses are mostly three stories high with projecting roofs, and are very often surrounded with arcades. All the public as well as private buildings are constructed of brick. The Piazza Vittorio Emanuele, formerly called Piazza Maggiore or del Gigante, is the principal square and has many fine edifices. In the centre is a fountain adorned with a colossal statue of Neptune by Giovanni da Bologna. The city contains no fewer than 130 churches, twenty convents, and six hospitals. Of the churches the largest is San Petronio, an unfinished but splendid structure dating from 1390, and dedicated to the patron saint of the city. The cathedral or S. Pietro, begun in 1605, is surpassed not only by it but by S. Domenico, S. Giacomo Maggiore, and various others. San Stefano is a curious collection of seven churches, with a good deal of antiquarian interest. (*Vide Street's Brick and Marble in the Middle Ages*, 1874.) Of the secular buildings the most important are the Palazzo Pubblico, founded in 1290, the Palazzo del Podestà, of slightly earlier date, the Palazzo della Mercanzia, or Chamber of Commerce, and a few of the residences of the

great mediæval families. At the head of the educational institutions stands the university, which was once the most celebrated in Italy, but is now attended by only 400 or 500 students. The university library, which was at one time in the keeping of Cardinal Mezzofanti, numbers upwards of 140,000 volumes and 9000 MSS. The Accademia delle Belle Arte, situated in what was formerly the Jesuit's College, has a rich gallery of paintings, chiefly by native artists. There is a museum of antiquities in connection with the university, as well as a botanical garden, and an observatory; and the city possesses besides a scientific institute, a philharmonic lyceum, and various intellectual institutions, many of which are due to the liberality of Count Ferdinand Marsigli, in the 17th century. There are five theatres (the Teatro del Commune, erected in 1756 by Bibiena, on the site of the Palazzo Bentivoglio, being one of the largest in Italy), a casino, and a hall for playing the favourite game of ball. The leaning towers of Asinelli and Garisende are worthy of mention. They are situated quite near each other; the former, which is 272 feet in height, deviates 5 feet from the perpendicular, while the latter has a height of 138 feet and a divergence of 9. Bologna has long been famous for its Morfadelle sausages, its soap, and a kind of confection called *terra catù*; its manufactures also include crape, silk, glass, wax candles, paper, and musical instruments. The people have a very peculiar dialect. The city is the birth-place of Domenichino, Guido Reni, the Carraccis, Righini, Benedict XIV., and other famous men, and gave rise and name to the Bolognese school of painting. Population in 1871, 115,957.

Bologna is said to have been founded by an Etruscan king, and was originally called Felsina after his name. It was held for some time by the Boian Gauls, and on their expulsion became, in 189 B.C., a Roman colony under the name of Bononia. Its importance rapidly increased, but it does not appear much in history till the time of the civil wars. The terms of the second triumvirate were settled in 43 B.C. in an interview held between Octavius Antony and Lepidus on a neighbouring island. During the later empire the city was frequently an imperial residence, and in 410 A.D. it was still strong enough to resist the forces of Alaric. It afterwards passed under the power of the Lombards, and on their subjugation by Charlemagne it was united to his empire and made a free imperial city. In 962 it became an independent republic, which soon acquired an extensive commerce and a powerful military force. The Middle Ages form the period of its greatest celebrity and importance. In the Crusades the Bolognese took an active share; and after a long neutrality in the contest between the Ghibellines and the Guelfs, they sided with the latter and became deeply involved in struggles both foreign and intestine. In 1240 they defended themselves successfully against Frederick II., and in 1247 expelled from their city the Lampertazzi and Geremei with 1500 adherents. During the rest of the 13th century and the whole of the 14th and 15th they passed from the domination of one powerful family to another—from the Pepoli to the Bentivogli, from the Bentivogli to the Visconti, and back again to the Bentivogli—till at last, in 1512, they were incorporated by Julius II. with the Papal States. The French Revolution made Bologna part of the Cisalpine Republic, but on the fall of Napoleon it reverted to the popes. In 1821 it was the centre of the republican insurrection, but had to yield in the following year before the Austrian arms. The revolution of 1831 was equally short-lived; and in 1849 the city was forced, after repeated bombardment, to receive an Austrian garrison, which continued in possession till the formation of the Italian kingdom in 1859.

BOLOGNE, JEAN (or GIOVANNI BOLOGNA, as he was

styled in Italy), a celebrated sculptor, was born at Douay in 1524, and died at Florence in 1608. He went early to Italy, and studied at Florence, where his best works still remain. His two most celebrated productions are the single bronze figure of Mercury, poised on one foot, resting on the head of a zephyr, as if in the act of springing into the air (in the Florentine gallery), and the famous marble group of the Rape of the Sabines, which received this name, Lanzi informs us, after it was finished. It is now in the Loggia de Lanzi of the ducal piazza. Giovanni was also employed at Genoa, where he executed various excellent works, chiefly in bronze. All his pieces are characterized by great spirit and elegance.

BOLSENA, a town of Italy, in the province of Rome, and the district of Viterbo, 10 miles S. by E. of Orvieto. It is situated on the north shore of the lake of the same name (*Lago di Bolsena*), and probably occupies the site of the Roman city of Volsinii. The principal remains are the ruins of an amphitheatre and those of a temple, which is popularly called *il Tempio di Norzia* after the Etruscan goddess Norsia, and there are numerous other relics scattered throughout the city or built into the walls of its modern buildings. Volsinii was originally one of the most powerful of the Etruscan cities, and occupied a position among the hills; but after a series of struggles with the Romans, the Volsinians were finally subdued about 280 B.C., their city was razed to the ground, and themselves obliged to settle in a less defensible site in the plain. The only event of interest in the history of the new town was its being the birthplace of Sejanus, the favourite of Tiberius. Its present population is only 2690. The Lake of Bolsena is about 10 miles in length by 8 in breadth, and is surrounded by well-wooded hills. It contains two small islands, Bisentina and Martana, in the latter of which Amalasontha, the wife of Theodatus, king of the Goths, was put to death by his orders.

BOLTON, or **BOLTON LE MOORS**, a municipal and parliamentary borough of England, in the county of Lancashire, 11 miles N.W. of Manchester, in 53° 35' N. lat. and 2° 37' W. long. It is divided by the Crol, a small tributary of the Irwell, into Great and Little Bolton, the former of which is situated on the south side of the stream. The town is on the whole well arranged and well built, and great improvements and extensions have been effected since 1860. An abundant supply of water is obtained from the neighbouring hills and stored in reservoirs at Belmont, Sharples, and Heaton. The water-works, formerly in the hands of a company founded in 1824, have been the property of the corporation since 1847. The water rises by natural pressure to a height of 80 feet. Bolton possesses a large number of churches, but few are remarkable for either antiquity or architecture. The parish church of St Peter's, a building of somewhat early date, was rebuilt in an elaborate style about 1868. Among the educational establishments may be mentioned Lever's Grammar School, founded in 1641, where Dr Ainsworth, the Latin lexicographer, and Lemprière, of the *Classical Dictionary*, were formerly masters. A new town-hall, a market hall, a fish-market, an exchange, a theatre, and assembly rooms, are among the chief buildings. There are several public libraries and a mechanics' institute; and in 1855 a large Church of England institute was erected. During the great cotton famine the unemployed operatives were set to work on a large public park, which was opened in 1866. The cotton manufacture in various departments is still the most important in the town; in 1871 it gave employment to 8708 men and 11,353 women of twenty years of age and



Arms of Bolton.

upwards. Various other industries, however, are extensively carried on. In 1871, 1030 adult workmen were employed in the manufacture of machinery, and 2524 in the iron manufacture; while silk-weaving was the occupation of 881, linen-weaving of 289, and paper-making of 306. Bleaching is also extensively carried on, and there are chemical works, dye-works, and calico-printing establishments. The coal mines in the neighbourhood give employment to nearly 4000 miners. Bolton is a place of some antiquity, but had little importance till the introduction of the woollen manufacture by Flemish immigrants about 1337. Several centuries afterwards its industries received a further development from a body of French refugees, driven from their own country by the Edict of Nantes. During the civil war of the 17th century the inhabitants espoused the popular side, and their town was taken by storm in 1644 by the royalists under Prince Rupert and the earl of Derby. The 18th century saw a great stimulus given not only to Bolton but to all England by the inventions of Arkwright and Crompton, who were both natives of the parish. It was here that cotton velvets were made for the first time (in 1756) and muslins (1782) by means of machinery. In 1791 a canal was constructed from Manchester to Bolton, and in the following year an Act of Parliament was passed for enclosing Bolton Moor. This measure was soon succeeded by a large extension of the town, which has since continued to increase from year to year. The municipal borough, with an area of 1748 acres, contained in 1851 10,394 inhabited houses for a population of 61,171; and in 1861, 13,129 houses for a population of 70,395. In 1871 the borough, with an increased area of 1822 acres, included 16,286 houses, and the population was 82,853. The parliamentary borough, which owes its existence to the Reform Bill of 1832, returns two members to parliament.

BOLZANO, **BERNHARD**, Catholic theologian and philosopher, was born at Prague on the 5th October 1781. He distinguished himself by his proficiency in mathematics, a study for which he always retained a predilection, and in philosophy. At the age of twenty-four he took orders, and was appointed professor of the philosophy of religion at the philosophical faculty in Prague. His lectures, in which he endeavoured so to present the system of Catholic theology as to show its complete harmony with reason, were received with eager interest by the younger generation of thinkers. But his views met with much opposition; and it was only through the powerful protection of the Prince Archbishop Salm-Salm that he was enabled to retain his chair. At last, in 1820, he was accused of being connected with some of the students' societies, and was compelled to resign his professorship. Several doctrines extracted from his works were condemned at Rome, and he was suspended from his priestly functions. The remainder of his life was devoted to literary work. He died at Prague in 1848. Bolzano's works are very numerous, filling, according to Erdmann, twenty-five volumes. The most important are the *Wissenschaftslehre* (4 vols., Sulzbach, 1837), containing some admirable discussions on logic, and the *Lehrbuch der Religionswissenschaft* (4 vols., Sulzbach, 1834), which contains a philosophic representation of all the dogmas of the Catholic theology. In some respects it resembles the earlier work of Georg Hermes, for whom Bolzano had a great veneration. Some of the best of his minor works are on the philosophy of mathematics; such are—*Betrachtungen über Elementargeometrie*, *Beiträge zur begründeteren Darstellung der Mathematik*, *Begründung der Lehre von der drei Dimensionen des Raums*. (See *Lebensbeschreibung des Dr. Bolzano* (an autobiography), 1836; *Wissshaupt, Skizzen aus dem Leben Dr. Bolzanos*, 1850. A good account of Bolzano's philosophical position will be found in Erdmann. *Grundriss der Ges. d. Phil.* ii. v. 385. sqq.)

B O M B A Y

BOMBAY, a Presidency and Governorship of British India, consisting partly of British districts, and partly of native states under the protection of Her Majesty's Indian Government. This territory extends from 28° 32' to 13° 65' N. lat., and from 66° 43' to 76° 20' E. long.; and is bounded on the N. by Beluchistán, the Panjáb, and the native states of Rájputaná; on the E. by the native state of Indor, the Central Provinces, West Berar, and the Nizám's dominions; on the S. by Madras and Mysor; and on the W. by the Arabian Sea. Area, including Sindh, 188,195 square miles, viz., 124,943 British, and 63,252 under Native rule. Population, 25,624,696 souls, viz., British districts, 16,352,623; Native states, 9,272,073. Bombay Presidency comprises three British divisions or commissionerships, the northern, the southern, and the Sindh divisions, with the following 24 districts:—Bombay, Ahmadábád, Kairá, Páñch Mahals, Broach, Surat, Tánná, Kolááb, Khándesh, Násik, Ahmadnagar, Belgám, Kánará, Dhárwár, Káladgi, Púná, Ratnágiri, Sátará, Sholápur, Upper Sindh Frontiér, Karáchi, Haidarábád, Shikárpur, and Thar Párkar. The Native states are under the supervision of British political officers, and are divided into 16 agencies, viz., Baroda, Kachh, Káthiáwár, Kairá, Surat, Sholápur, Sátará, Kolhápur, South Marhattá Country, Rewákánta, Máhikánta, Páhlánpur, Sáwantwári, Tanná, Kolááb, and Dhárwár. The Presidency also includes the Portuguese possessions of Dáman, Diu, and Goa.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.—The Bombay Presidency consists of a long strip of land along the Indian Ocean from the south of the Panjáb to the north of Mysor, from 25° to 14° 3' N. lat. The coast is rock-bound and difficult of access; and though it contains several bays forming fair-weather ports for vessels engaged in the coasting trade, Bombay, Karáchi in Sindh, and Kárwár alone have harbours sufficiently land-locked to protect shipping during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon. The coast-line is regular and little broken, save by the Gulfs of Kambay and Kachh, between which lies the peninsula of Káthiáwár.

Mountains.—Speaking generally, a range of hills, known as the Western Gháts (ghauts), runs down the coast, at places rising in splendid bluffs and precipices from the water's edge, at others retreating inland, and leaving a flat fertile strip of 5 to 50 miles between their base and the sea. In the north of the Presidency on the right bank of the Indus, the Hálá mountains, a continuation of the great Sulaimán range, separate British India from the dominions of the Khán of Khelát. Leaving Sindh, and passing by the ridges of low sand hills,—the leading feature of the desert east of the Indus,—and the isolated hills of Kachh and Káthiáwár, which form geologically the western extremity of the Aravali range, the first extensive mountain range is that separating Gujarát from the states of Central India. The rugged and mountainous country south of the Tapti forms the northern extremity of the Sáhyádrí or Western Gháts. This great range of hills, sometimes overhanging the ocean, and generally running parallel to it at a distance nowhere exceeding 50 miles, with an average elevation of about 1800 feet, contains individual peaks rising to more than double that height. They stretch southwards for upwards of 500 miles, with a breadth of 10 to 20 miles. The western declivity is abrupt, the land at the base of the hills being but slightly raised above the level of the sea. As is usually the case with the trap formation, they descend to the plains in terraces with abrupt fronts. The landward slope is in many places very gentle, the crest of the range being sometimes but slightly

raised above the level of the plateau of the Dakhín. Their best-known elevation is Mahábaleshwar, 4800 feet high, a fine plateau, 37 miles from Púná, covered with rich vegetation, and used by the Bombay Government as its summer retreat and sanitarium. In the neighbourhood of the Sáhyádrí hills, particularly towards the northern extremity of the range, the country is rugged and broken, containing isolated peaks, masses of rock, and spurs, which, running eastward, form watersheds for the great rivers of the Dakhín. The Sátpurá hills separate the valley of the Tapti from the valley of the Narbadá, and the district of Khándesh from the territories of Indor. The Sátmalá or Ajantá hills, which are rather the northern slope of the plateau than a distinct range of hills, separate Khándesh from the Nizám's dominions.

Plains.—The more level parts of Bombay consist of five well-demarcated tracts—Sindh, Gujarát, the Konkan, the Dakhín or Deccan, and the Karnatic. Sindh, or the lower valley of the Indus, is very flat, with but scanty vegetation, and depending for productiveness entirely on irrigation. Gujarát, except on its northern parts, consists of rich, highly cultivated alluvial plains, watered by the Tapti and Narbadá, but not much subject to inundation. The Konkan lies between the Western Gháts and the sea. It is a rugged and difficult country, intersected by creeks, and abounding in isolated peaks and detached ranges of hills. The plains of the Dakhín and Khándesh are watered by large rivers, but as the rainfall is uncertain, they are generally, during the greater part of the year, bleak and devoid of vegetation. The Karnatic plain, or the country south of the River Krishná, consists of extensive tracts of black or cotton soil in a high state of cultivation.

Rivers.—The chief river of Western India is the Indus, which enters the Presidency from the north of Sindh, and flowing south in a tortuous course, falls into the Arabian Sea by several mouths, such as the Ghizri creek, Khudf creek, Pitiáni creek, Sisá creek, Hajámri creek, Vatho creek, Mall creek, Wári creek, Bhiáriá creek, Sir creek, and Khorí creek. In the dry season the bed varies at different places from 480 to 1600 yards. The flood season begins in March and continues till September, the average depth of the river rising from 9 to 24 feet, and the velocity of the current increasing from 3 to 7 miles an hour. Next to the Indus comes the Narbadá. Rising in the Central Provinces, and traversing the dominions of Holkar, the Narbadá enters the Presidency at the north-western extremity of the Khándesh district, flows eastward, and after a course of 700 miles from its source, falls into the Gulf of Kambay, forming near its mouth the alluvial plain of Broach, one of the richest districts of Bombay. For about 100 miles from the sea the Narbadá is at all seasons navigable by small boats; and during the rains by vessels of from 30 to 50 tons burden. The Tapti enters the Presidency a few miles south of the town of Burhanpur, a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, flows eastward through the district of Khándesh, the native state of Rewákánta, and the district of Surat, and falls into the Gulf of Kambay, a few miles west of the town of Surat. The Tapti drains about 250 miles of country, and is, in a commercial point of view, the most useful of the Gujarát rivers. Besides these there are many minor streams. The Banás and the Saraswatt take their rise in the Aravali hills, and flowing eastward through the native state of Páhlánpur, fall into the Rann of Kachh. The Sabarmatí and the Máhi rise in the Máhikánta hills, and flowing southwards drain the districts of Northern Gujarát, and fall into the